EDUCATION

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Editorial Board

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A Theoretical Framework for a Critical Analysis of Schooling: The work of Henry A. Giroux

Ronald G. Sultana

Introduction

Henry Giroux can be considered to be in the mainstream of the so-called "new sociology" of education which, since the 1970's, and specifically since Michael Young's *Knowledge and Control* (1971) was published, has dominated most of the critical thinking about schooling and education. One of the few writers from North America who has dedicated himself to theoretical rumination at the macro abstract level rather than empirical investigation, Giroux's work provides a broad survey of the leading ideas of the new sociology of education, as well as a critique of the main trends within the field.

In Paolo Freire's words in a Foreword to a collection of articles (Giroux, 1983) there is "an undeniable power of thinking" behind Giroux's wide-ranging analysis leading to a critical view of education theory in the past decade. His theorizing can be thought of as a critical immersion in history, and is informed by the idea that though experience may provide us with knowledge, it is also indisputable that knowledge may distort rather than illuminate the nature of social reality. In a reply to a critique by McNeil, Giroux (1981) affirms his belief that the real value of theory lies in its ability.

> to establish the possibilities for reflexive thought and practice on the part of those who use it: that is, it must be seen as an instrument of critique and understanding. As a mode of critique and anlysis, theory functions as a set of tools inextricably affected by the context in which it is brought to bear, but it is never reducible to that context. (Giroux, 1981, pages 220-221).

Giroux builds his theorising on a broad base including the Frankfurt school, the work of French education theorist such as Pierre Bourdieu, the ideology critique of Antonio Gramsci, whose categories "hegemony", "common sense", and the place of education and intellectuals in the formation of political blocs informs Giroux's understanding of the role of schools in society. In his attempt to provide a theoretical framework that illuminates the relationship between schools, knowledge, and the ideological interests embedded in various modes of pedagogy and citizenship education, Giroux breaks new ground, moving away from merely "reproductive" critiques of education which posit a rigid socialization model geared to the labour market or the perpetuation of leading ideological precepts of American society. He sees schools as complex organisations whose relation to the larger society is mediated by, among other things, social movements. He moreover shows that the sites of social and ideological struggle, particularly the classroom, are spaces of genuine change, modification, and unintended consequences. Giroux argues that students do not merely refuse the compulsory ideologies and their practices: they form a separate culture and public sphere within which a different set of practices is reproduced. Giroux therefore agrees with the concept of "culture production" as set out by Willis (1977), but goes one step further than the author of *Learning to Labour* who conceived resistance as turning back on itself and simply reproducing the occupational hierarchy. What Giroux sets out to show is that while variants of ideological and social reproduction are going on, something else is also happening in the interminable struggle of students against school authority. He argues that the "surplus" resistance presented by students opens up tiny but significant spaces for new forms of power.

Domination and Emancipation.

Throughout his writings, in fact, Giroux constantly emerges hopeful that emancipation will occur. He considers our epoch to be characterised by domination, and this not only in terms of class, but also with regard to race and gender. Yet he goes beyond the failure of Marxist orthodoxy by bridging structure and agency. By refusing to develop analyses of everday life in which subjectivity and culture were treated as more than a reflex of the needs of capital and its institutions, orthodox Marxism doomed the critical ideas of self-reflexivity and social transformation to be subsumed under the overbearing "weight" of capitalist domination. Thus, those versions of

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radical schooling in which orthodox Marxist assumptions were accepted, critique seemed to give way to descriptions of the mechanisms of domination as they operated in schools and other social sites. The power of capital and the weakness of human beings to struggle or resist is a familiar theme in the discourse of theorists like Bowles and Gintis (1976). In a central article called "Ideology, Culture and Schooling" (1983) Giroux considers two tendencies developing from orthodox Marxism in an attempt to break from the restraints of the base-and-superstructure metaphor. Giroux talks about the culturalist paradigm which "focused on the moment of self-creation and lived experience within the class-specific conditions of everyday life" (page 123). The structuralist paradigm, on the other hand, "forcefully interrogated the question of how subjectivities get formed within the material practices of society so as to sustain capitalist social relations." (page 123).

Giroux criticises both paradigms, but shows that in the selectively combined insights of the two traditions, there are the necessary theoretical elements to reconstruct a more precise understanding of culture and ideology and to begin to see the full extent of their usefulness for radical pedagogy. Culturalism rescues Marxism from an orthodoxy that threatens to strip it of all radical potential and possibilities. The nature of class domination is viewed not as a static, one-dimensional imposition of power by ruling classes. Instead, ruling-class domination is seen as an exercise of power that takes place within an area of struggle — continuous and shifting element of contestation rooted in historically specific tensions and conflicts. Giroux also incorporates culturalism's stress on historical consciousness and critical intentionality as the most important terrains on which to begin the struggle to break through rigid and burdensome structures of oppression. The strucuralist tradition on the other hand provides a powerful analysis of the complex ways in which dominant institutions and practices function in the interest of ruling-class formations. Giroux however considers that the view of domination that underlies such analysis threatens to strip it of its critical possibilites. Domination appears in structuralist accounts as an all-embracing, one-dimensional construct that exhausts the possibility of struggle, resistance and transformation. It denies the possibility that between the moment of determination and effect lies the sphere of consciousness and reflexivity. In his theorising about an emancipatory, transformative rationality, Giroux engages both the culturalist and structur-

alist traditions, but by reworking the notions of ideology and culture within a problematic that takes seriously the notions of agency, struggle and critique, he invests the dialectical relationship between structure and agency with a critical potential which both traditions had stripped it of.

Giroux's hope and "concrete utopianism" (as he calls it in "Towards a new Public Sphere"; 1983) are reflected in his constant opting to recognize, at least at a theoretical level, emancipatory possibilities in man's every day lived experiences. He chooses authors like Marcuse and Heller (as representatives of those whose view is that even the most dependent actor or party in a relationship retains some autonomy) over Althusser and Bourdieu, for instance, whose view of power and ideology is seen simply in terms of domination, imposed rather than constantly fought for, struggled against, and continuously modified in the arenas that constitute the terrain of everyday life. Even when he relies heavily on aspects of the work of critical theorists from the Frankfurt School, such as Adorno, Horkheimer and Marcuse for theoretical insights in developing a critical theory of education, Giroux finds fault with their logic informed by a belief in the power of capital to control all aspects of human behaviour. He feels that underlying such a logic is a disdain of human agency, leading to a view of capital which industrializes the mind, so that "human thinking becomes mechanized and the mind corresponds to the machine - a technicized, segmented, and degraded instrument that has lost its capacity for critical thought, especially its ability to imagine another way of life." (Aronowitz, 1978).

Structure and Agency in Neo-Marxism.

Throughout his critical analysis, in fact, Giroux takes great care not to succumb to a too strictly monolithic, one-dimensional or reductionist view of reality, something which orthodox Marxism has often been accused of. In an article "Rationality, Reproduction and Resistance: Towards a Critical Theory of Schooling", (1983) for instance, he not only points out that "students from all classes and groups bear the logic of domination and control in different degrees, and the latter plays a constituting as well as a repressive force in their lives" (page 74), he also emphasises the reality of contradictions within the working class itself. Thus, he criticizes other theories of resistance with having failed to distinguish politically viable forms of resistance, whether latent or overt, from acts of behaviour that are either one-sidedly self-indulgent or are linked to the dynamics of fascism. "It must be understood," points out Giroux, "that it is theoretically incorrect to view working class

cultural capital as all of one piece, just as it is equally important to remember that while the diversity within the working class is far reaching, it is formed within economic, political and ideological contexts that limit the capacity for self-determination." (page 74). Giroux therefore steers clear of the risk of both romanticising the culture of subordinate groups (something which Dennis Lawton (1975) warned about with reference to Michael Young's (1971) collection of readings: (page 69), and mystifying how the dynamics of hegemonic ideolgies and structure work. The crucial issue for Giroux therefore becomes the need to acknowledge the contradiction in working class culture, and to learn how to discard those elements that are repressive, while simultaneously reappropriating those features that are progressive and enlightening.

Giroux does not want to present a "blueprint of society". He himself declares that his critical appraisal of the concepts of culture, ideology, knowledge and common-sense leads to a recognition of the forces of domination which exist not only around us, in the structures and institutions we inhabit, but also within us, deply embedded in our personality. He recognizes that the image of transformation he presents is purposely vague because the goals of emancipation must respect the specifities of the struggle from which they emerge and the ability of the oppressed groups to define for themselves the object of their struggle. (cf "Pedagogy, Pessimism, and the Politics of Conformtiy." Giroux, 1981, page 220).

Correspondence, Reproduction or Transformation?

Giroux applies this theoretical framework for emancipation to education, where he describes schools as social sites marked by competing cultures and ideologies, all of which exist in a particular relationship to modes of technocratic rationality (which, informed as it is by a positivist approach, sees knowledge as situated above and beyond the social realties and relationships of the people who produce and define it: (cf "Critical Theory and Rationaity in Citizenship Education." Giroux, 1980). He moreover shows how none of these competing cultures and ideologies function is simply as an imprint of the technocratic rationality's logic and discourse. In my discussion of Giroux's fundamental ideas about resistance and the generating of a radical pedagogy (or "Pedagogy for the Opposition": 1983), some of the key concepts referred to above, such as ideology, culture, consciousness and domination, will be further clarified since they form part of the critical

discourse which sees schools as sites of resistance. In various articles (cf "Beyond the Correspondence Theory: Notes on the dynamics of Educational Reproduction and Transformation" [1980]; "Hegemony, Resistance, and the Paradox of Educational Reform" [1981]; "Theories of Reproduction and Resistance in the New Sociology of Education: A Critical Analysis" [1983]; and "Marxism and Schooling: The Limits of Radical Discourse" [1984] among others) Giroux claims that while it would be naive and misleading to assume that schools can create the conditions for social change, it would be equally naive to argue that working in schools does not matter. And it is not simply a question of going beyond the functionalist paradigm of education which sees schooling as essentially passing on values and skills necessary to function productively in the larger society. Giroux, as set out earlier, develops a theoretical foundation which goes beyond what the radical critics are saying about the political nature of schooling. He therefore puts as a problematic not only the liberal theorists' position that public education offers possibilities for individual development, social mobility, and political and economic power to the disadvantaged and dispossessed. By positing his own resistance theory, Giroux also goes beyond many radical theorists who have argued that the main functions of schools are the reproduction of the dominant ideology, its forms of knowledge and the distribution of skills needed to reproduce the social division of labour.

Thus, though he integrates into his theory the contribution made by Bowles and Gintis (1976) and other correspondence theorists, Giroux does not accept the overly determined model of causality evident in their views, their passive view of human beings, their political pessimism, and their failure to highlight the contradictions and tensions that characterize the workplace and school. For Bowles and Gintis, the causal and determining force for reproduction are the structure, relations and patterns of the workplace. Thus,

> ..the hierachically structured patterns of values, norms and skills that characterize the workforce and the dynamics of class-interaction under capitalism are mirrored in the social dynamics of the daily classroom encounters... The social relationships of education - the relationship between administrators and teachers, teachers and students, students and their work replicate the hierarchical division of labour. (Bowles and Gintis, 1976: page 131).

Schools are thus exposed as sorting and tracking institutions that treat and teach minorities of class and colour in ways vastly different from middle-class and upper-class counterparts, so that ultimately working-class students are socialised for low-level jobs that require minimal skills and

cognitive competence. But Giroux considers the fact that the locus of domination appears to exist primarily within the economic realm (i.e. the workplace) to be a crucial theoretical flaw because it tends to rest on a base/superstructure model of reproduction in which politics and ideological institutions such as schools appear as secondary forces that have not autonomous or semi-autonomous existence of their own and which end up being absorbed by the imperatives of capitalist production. He therefore argues that the notion of hegemony provides a theoretical basis for understanding not only how the seeds of domination are produced, but also how they may be overcome through various forms of resistance, critique, and social action.

> In essence, the correspondence theory has failed to develop a socio-cultural componenet that would re-define the meaning of domination and reproduction and point to the spheres of culture and ideology as important hegemonic elements that reach deeply into the crevices and texture of daily life... the faiure of the correspondence theory to extend the realm of political struggle beyond the workplace vitiates the possibility for political action in ideological institutions such as schools. (Giroux, 1980 [iii]: page 230).

The Notion of Resistance

Giroux is therefore interested to know how the dominant ideology is often resisted, rejected, and redefined by the set of meanings that students and teachers carry around with them. He attempts to analyse how the meanings generated in different types of cultural settings such as family cultures, work cultures, and class-specific peer cultures generate their own forms of resistance when they come up against institutions that embody and disseminate hegemonic ideologies. Such oppositional behaviour, which conservative educators analysed through psychological categories which served to define such behaviour as "deviant", "learned helplessness", as well as disruptive and inferior, a failure on the part of indivduals and social groups that exhibited it, is redefined by radical theorists in terms of resistance, having a great deal to do with moral and political indignation. While Giroux criticizes radical educators for ignoring how teachers, students and others live their daily lives in schools, and consequently overemphasizing the way structural determinants promote economic and cultural inequality, and underemphasizing the way human agency accomodates, mediates and resists the logic of capital and its dominating social practices, he recognizes their contribution and improvement on mere correspondence. Bourdieu (1977) for instance argues against the notion that

schools simply mirror the dominant society. Instead he claims that schools are relatively autonomous institutions that are influenced only indirectly by more powerful economic and political institutions. Rather than being linked directly to the power of an ecoomic elite, schools are seen as part of a larger universe of symbolic institutions that do not overtly impose docility and oppression, but reproduce exisiting power relations more subtly through the production and distribution of a dominant culture that tacitly confirms what it means to be educated. Following Bourdieu, Giroux rejects the funtionalism inherent in both conservative and radical versions of educational theory, analysing curriculum, for instance, as a complex discourse that not only serves the interests of domination but also contains aspects which provide emancipatory possibilites. There is thus a realisation that though "schools operate within limits set by society... they [nevertheless] function in part to influence and shape those limits, whether they be economic, ideological or political". (Giroux, 1983 [viii]: page 260).

Giroux therefore develops a theory of resistance which celebrates a dialectal notion of human agency that portrays domination as a process that is neither static nor complete. There is a recognition of the complex ways in which people mediate and respond to the connection between their own experiences and structures of domination and constraint. Central categories which emerge here are intentionality, consciousness, the meaning of common sense and the nature and value of nondiscursive behaviour. His concept of resistance entails a revelatory function that contains a critique of domination and provides theoretical opportunities for self-reflection and struggle in the interest of social and self-emancipation. To the degree that oppositional behaviour suppresses social contradictions while simultaneously merging with rather than challenging the logic of ideological domination, it does not fall under the category of resistance but under its opposite - accomodation and conformism. For Giroux, the ultimate value of the notion of resistance goes beyond the degree to which it promotes critical thinking and reflexive action. Resistance is useful in so much as it galvanizes collective political struggle among parents, teachers and students (in an educational setting) around the issues of power and social determination.

As has already been stated, Giroux is not claiming for the schools an absolute possibility for them to transform society. They are just one site of struggle, and in fact he urges radical pedagogues to join social movements outside the school environment and participate actively in what he calls the "public sphere" (cf Giroux, 1983 [ix]:

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The Application of Theory and Practice in the Early Years of Teaching

Alison Shrubsole

The application of theory and practice in the early years of teaching is a topic that must be of vital importance to anyone involved in teacher education. Whether we are administrator, inspector, school head, teacher trainer or student teacher, we are surely united in our concern that the best possible transition should be made for those who pass for their studies in university to taking on full class-room responsibilities.

Recent studies in the United Kingdom show that this transition is much more complex than we once believed. It is a highly individual process, throwing up different problems and opportunities for each new teacher. A DES Report, *Progress in Education*, stated clearly in 1978 the need for structural provision. "However good initial training may be, it will be less effective if teachers newly entering the schools do not benefit from programmes of professional initiation, guided experience and further study". In England the "teachers newly entering the schools" include both graduates from three and four year BEd courses and those who have recently completed a Postgraduate Certificate in Education course. All of these will be qualified teachers and will come within probationary arrangements, the first year of paid employment in English maintained schools being deemed to be a probationary year.

In Malta I am well aware of the sensitivities attached to the phrase "the teachers newly entering the schools". I had originally thought that one would wish to apply what I have to say only to fully qualified teachers, but I have come to realise that some aspects of my paper may have bearing on the work phase within the student-worker scheme. It would of course be presumptuous of me to suggest just how far or in what ways my remarks about a British view of the transition from student to fully-fledged teacher can apply to the unique Maltese student-worker scheme. But I wish to present some ideas which are worthy of local consideration. And even when the first students have completed the new five-year course of training in Malta, thought will still be needed as to how best to help them as they take up their first permanent teaching appointments.

The DES Report already quoted refers to the need for programmes of "Professional initiation, guided experience and further study". These three parts together form the process of *induction*, which is the theme of my paper. This word sprang to prominence in the James Report in 1972, forming a rightly emphasised part in the continuum of professional development, from initial training, through induction, to life-long inservice training. In the early years after the James Report, strenuous efforts were made to set up programmes of induction. In particular, two sponsored schemes, in Northumberland and Liverpool, made provision for induction programmes for all new teachers in their first appointment, and gave them release from their duties during the first year of teaching in order to benefit from such provision. The details of these schemes may be studied in the various writings of Ray Bolam, of the University of Bristol, who played a prominent part in their evaluation. Unfortunately many of the post-James induction schemes were short-lived, and although lip-service is universally paid to the importance of induction, the determination is still lacking to put such good intentions universally into operation. I shall draw my examples from the handful of local education authorities and individual schools who have pioneered effective induction schemes.

Why is it, if induction is seen to be so important, that so many new teachers take up their first teaching posts with such inadequate support and guidance? I believe there are four contributory reasons. It is easy for responsibility for induction to fall between three stools - the employers, the school and the institution. The induction needs of the new teacher are not always apparent: the admission of need for help by the young teacher may be at variance with the importance of appearing competent during the probationary year. With falling school rolls, the proportion of new to experienced teachers has declined, so that the problem can readily be overlooked. The cost implications of the post-James schemes have certainly deterred many employers during a time of financial contraction. The notion, for instance, of allowing all probationary teachers to undertake 9/10 of the full teaching responsibility, with additional staffing resources to the school to provide substitute teaching and professional back-up, has sometimes been perceived as too costly a luxury.

The inability to provide effective programmes of induction does not make our study of the induction process any less important. With this in mind, I shall develop the theme by attempting to answer four main questions.

What are the various expectations of the new teacher?

If we look first at the various perceptions of the new teacher we must be struck by the differences of views of initial teacher trainers, employers, schools and the young teachers themselves. Assumptions about the level of professional competence to be expected by the end of the course of training will be built in to the content and assessment of initial training courses, but they are rarely made explicit. Similarly, assumptions from the employers go far beyond a contract of employment. Interesting differences of view have come to light in a recent survey by Her Majesty's Inpectors called *The New Teacher in School,* published in 1982. HMI carried out a survey of 294 new teachers during their first year of teaching, using lesson observation by HMI and questionnaires to heads and new teachers as the means for gathering evidence. The expectations of heads of schools could be polarised as follows "they (new teachers) should know all the tricks of the trade in the professional teacher's book". "The school sees the probationer teacher as an apprentice qualified in academic terms but with much to learn in terms of practising in the school". However, interesting evidence was provided, in *The New Teacher in School* about the criteria by which heads judged new teachers' performance. As part of professional competence they looked for:

1. Ability to control, organise and manage a class.
2. Punctuality, good preparation, thorough marking.
3. A thoughtful approach to the curriculum - an understanding of the principles underlying schemes of work and of the inter-relationship of subjects.
4. An ability "to bring something new into the school", to be a source of new ideas, to make "a personal contribution".

The New Teacher in School also sheds recent light on how new teachers view their first appointment. Broadly speaking, the new teachers in the survey felt they had been well prepared to teach their own subject specialism, to understand the place of language in learning, and to teach mixed ability groups (in contrast to other surveys which have shown this to be an area for which new teachers have felt inadequately equipped). They generally considered they were underprepared to relate teaching to the world of work outside school, to undertake pastoral duties and to teach children with different cultural backgrounds and socially deprived children.

As we look at such varied range of expectations, we may reach two conclusions. The first is that we cannot make all new teachers alike. David Warwick in his book *School-based Inservice Training* states the point clearly. "For a college to stamp a set of teaching methods upon all its entrants, like so many eggs through a factory, would amount to indoctrination not education". Secondly, we cannot expect the theory and practice elements of initial training to equip the new teacher for a life in teaching. I come back to the James Report. "No teacher can in a relatively short period at the beginning of his career be equipped for all the responsibilities he is going to face".

What are the needs of the new teacher?

What are the needs of the new teacher in relating the theory and practice of initial training to their work in schools? There is a growing literature resulting from surveys carried out in Britain and in Australia. In England, the papers of Ray Bolam throw a good deal of light on the perceived needs of new teachers, and the theme is taken up again in *The New Teacher in School*. The professional needs can be examined under three headings -encouragement, practical guidance and time. In describing their own needs, new teachers frequently emphasise the value of encouragement, starting with the shared awareness of their difficulties. The stresses and strains of the early years of teaching should not be minimised by those of us who are far removed from them, occurring as they do at a time of considerable personal demands, such as living away from home for the first time or adjusting to courtship and marriage. New teachers appear to value constructive mutual dialogue, with the clear articulation of praise and blame. Vera Dorner writes in an article in the *Cambridge Journal of Education* in 1979 "I like to see the person who is to judge me and hear him explain to me face to face what he thinks is good and bad. I'm not frightened of being criticised". Along with fair criticism, new teachers, value a recognition that they have something to contribute despite their inexperience, and we do well to remember that their youth, enthusiasm and freshness of visions are assets to be capitalised.

Encouragement alone would be inadequate. Practical professional guidance is a second essential. The guidance will need to be age-specific and related to the actual classroom in which the new teacher is working. It is no good knowing only generally about a particular reading scheme: it is necessary to understand exactly how it can be operated with the age group being taught. It is no good knowing only generally about the storage and organisation of science apparatus: the new science

teacher must know how this operates in her school and in relation to her science classes. More general considerations of class management and organisation need to be applied to an actual group of children. To know in general about coping with a severe nose-bleed or a minor epileptic fit is useful information, but it will be of untold benefit to the new teacher to be told in advance of potential sufferers, and to be given guidance on the coping mechanisms within the school.

The various evaluations of induction schemes which include a reduced teaching load in the first year consistently emphasise how valuable this is seen to be. New teachers for example working in the Inner London Education Authority of the London Borough of Enfield rate very high indeed the fact that each school with a probationary teacher is allowed an additional .1 of staffing to allow some teaching replacement of new teachers, and professional guidance from experienced members of staff. Schools in areas which are less fortunately placed - and the costs of such relief will always be a deterrent - have sometimes found ingenious ways of providing cover for new teachers' classes, so that in some way there can be time for reflection and systematic classroom-related study.

Who can best help teachers in the induction period?

Given the need for induction programmes, who then can provide them?. The employing authority plays a crucial part. Administrators will make the overall policy decisions, including decisions about the use of resources which are as we have seen vital if new teachers are to have any form of lightened timeteable. Inspectors from the employing authority will be essential suppliers of the professional expertise required by the new teacher.

Administrators and inspectors are shadowy figures for most young teachers, and it will be within the school that the question is most frequently asked - Who can help to provide the induction experience? Will this be the head, the deputy head, or some other person deputed to undertake this task? The head's approach will always be of utmost importance, sharing as he does decisions about teacher appointments and controlling the allocation of new teachers to their classes. The role of the head is frequently unenviable, and particularly so in the firmness which may be required with other more experienced teachers in the interests of ensuring a reasonably fair start for a new teacher. Most of the surveys refer directly or indirectly to the importance of a constructive attitude by the head. A typical comment from a successful new teacher is "I felt the head did not place me with the most

difficult class. He understood my difficulties and saw that I knew where to find the practical help I needed". In large schools it will be to the deputy head that the new teacher turns, particularly in specific matters about the timetable and the curriculum. Heads and deputies have an increasingly demanding responsibility, so the practice has grown up of deputing the induction of new teachers to another senior member of staff, sometimes referred to as the Professional Tutor. In large secondary schools this may be a head of department or year head, given some remission from teaching to allow time for the task. In a small primary school,the deputy head sometimes doubles for Professional Tutor, or another experienced senior teacher is appointed to the task, having already shown particular aptitude and willingness to train.

The employing authority and the school itself will be the major providers of induction, but no check-list of contributors is completed without mention of the training institution. It will be of crucial importance to the success of the induction programme that the initial trainers should have passed on information not only about the theoretical and practical coverage of the course but specific details about the strengths and weaknesses of the particular new teacher. Remarks will be very much more helpful than just marks if the induction programme is to build on the initial framework. The training institutions also have much to offer based on their experience in schools with teachers in training. Their expertise can contribute to the design and content of induction programmes, and if Professional Tutors are to receive training, the experience of teacher trainers can be brought to bear on constructive and analytical classroom observation. Even the most brilliant classroom teacher needs to adjust to the new taks of helping to improve the skills of his inexperienced colleagues.

The best of all induction schemes will stem from a partnership between all three of these agents - employers, schools and training institutions. I can think of no context in which partnership could lead to more fruitful results than in tripartite partnership in the design and implementation of induction programmes for new teachers.

The more enterprising authorities and schools in the U.K. experimented with a variety of patterns. Some have gone for pre-induction activities - an extension of the general one-day visit before taking up appointment to include a specially designed two-day conference in the school before term begins, or a residential weekend prior to the new term. Others have put great emphasis on the production of a school Handbook, collating all the

information likely to be helpful to the new teacher: the most successful Handbooks are loose-leaf, as circumstances change so quickly. More have concentrated on a year long programme designed for the new teacher, partly in school, partly in nearby teachers' centres, and partly in other schools. The year-long programme would normally be planned by the Professional Tutor who might, as in the authority of Avon, organise meetings for new teachers weekly during the first term, fortnightly during second, and on demand in the third. Avon, I.L.E.A. and Enfield all appear to have built in the opportunity to visit other schools than that in which the new teacher is employed.

The structure and organisation of an induction programme will be less important than its content and approach, and recent handbooks on induction have emphasised the task of induction, by whomsoever or wheresoever they will be carried out. The next section suggests ten tasks for the person or persons responsible for induction.

How can induction be best provided?

1. *Introducing* - the new teacher:
   - to people in the school (the head, deputy, other staff, secretary, caretaker etc.)
   - to places in the school, such as the library, stock cupboard, apparatus store, areas for practical work like drying children's paintings, etc.

2. *Explaining* - administrative procedures, like marking the register, arrangements in case of absence.

3. *Interpreting* - the policies of the school, eg. in relation to record-keeping, marking of pupils' work, report-writing, contact with parents.

4. *Observing* - the new teacher on the job. "Popping in" may be helpful to begin with. Systematic observation of 20 minutes or more may be useful later.

5. *Discussing* - the lessons observed, getting the new teacher first to summarise the strengths and weaknesses of the period under observation.

6. *Arranging seminars* - particularly if there are several new teachers, on common behavioural and organisational problems. Other experienced teachers have much to offer. The Professional Tutor must be a good facilitator.

7. *Arranging visits* - to other classes in the school or to other schools. Class-swop can be helpful for the inexperienced as well as for the experienced.

8. *Liaising with others* - with the head and the deputy, the inspectorate, other teachers (especially those who take the view that new teachers need to be told to forget what they were taught in their training institution).

9. *Informing* - the new teacher of progress on all fronts. Feed-back is essential to progress.

10. *Encouraging* - the new teacher:
    - to self-evaluate eg. analysing one acitivity which went well and one which went badly.
    - to survive. Some of the best induction programmes end the year with a party to celebrate survival.

Much of the foregoing has described the relating of theory and practice in the first years of teaching in an English context. In two final conclusions I am certain we are on common ground. The first conclusion is that we are all *jointly* involved (teachers trainers, employers and schools) in enabling new teachers to relate their theoretical studies to practice in the classroom. This will remain true whether that relation of theory to practice occurs as in England during the probationary year, or as in Malta, during the work phase of the student worker scheme. The common tasks must be to seek the machinery through which the partnership can most effectively operate.

My second conclusion is that the task of inducting the new teacher into our profession is one which requires effort not only of intellect but of understanding. As we, the experienced teacher trainer, adminstrator, inspector, school head, set about our induction task, it behoves us to remember in George Target's words that "That raw young teacher is as young and as a raw as once you were, and probably better trained".

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The Assessment of Teaching Practice

Michael Morgan

Education is concerned with change - with a *process* of change but generally speaking we educationalists aren't very keen on much change. Getting teachers or examiners or headteachers or Education Officers or College Principals to change their practices is not easy. We tend to be a cautious lot; we are inclined to be rather complacent and satisfied with the way *we* do things. We are imprisoned by our own comfortable habits and tightly constructed little worlds. As we progress through our professional life we progressively narrow the scope of our work.

We become trapped in our field of specialisation. We become caught in a web of fixed relationships. Our opinions harden. Our ideas congeal. Our horizons narrow. Our sympathies dry up. We develop set ways of doing things. Nothing surprises us.

The issue I wish to explore is about change but is essentially a technical one and is related to how we signify the degree of competence shown by student teachers during their teaching practice. I shall restrict my commentary, as far as I am able, to the question of *assessing* such competence and, in particular, I want to try to identify some of the pitfalls that we all get into when we try to grade such performance too finely. I am approaching the topic from the point of view of the Faculty of Education's External Examiner for the Practice of Education. The Faculty has been required, as part of a student's degree examinations, to give some kind of literal or numerical equivalent which it is felt accurately represents his level of competence as a practising teacher, as judged during his final teaching practice.

Many headteachers and teachers, too, in discussing students' performance with me over the past few years find it convenient to talk in terms of literal grades when describing the varying success of student teachers in their schools.

Before attempting to examine some of the problems associated with assessing student teaching performance, I thought I ought to reiterate a point made by my colleague and predecessor as the Faculty's External Examiner, Lewis Howdle, who, at a similar conference held here in Malta in 1979, is reported as having said that most students find their teaching practice worthwhile, if exhausting, but for many it is at the same time highly stressful and unsatisfactory. They see the teaching practice as an artificial event full of ambiguities.

The research evidence on teaching practice shows unequivocally that the assessment aspect of the practice bedevils the practice element. However much the student's tutors may stress that the important thing is to try things out, to experiment, not to be anxious and so on, the student is always conscious of the fact that he is being assessed by the very person who is acting as his adviser. In what I have to say about the problems of assessment that follow, we should not ignore this important proviso. It is worth recognising, too, that the practical school experience of student teachers in the Maltese student-worker scheme is acquired in a very similar situation though for a more prolonged period and often without the support of the teacher who would otherwise be teaching his class. I want, therefore, to outline some of the background that has influenced the current ways of assessing teaching practice. Such practice resists giving a single mark (whether literal or numerical) which purports to represent the level of competence that student teachers exhibit on their final teaching practice. It is certainly true to say, for example, that I know of no validating body which currently requires the final teaching practice examination to be assessed other than by a straight decision of pass or fail. The purpose of my talk is, therefore, to set down some of the reasons why current practice is what it is, and why those who believe that a finely tuned system of A's, B's, C's, D's and E's has much to commend it, might reconsider their position.

Current research on the assessment of teaching practice stresses the view that a close partnership between schools and teacher training institutions is the key to satisfactory arrangements for teaching practice and is worth almost any effort to achieve. The success of any system of practical experience stands or falls on the degree of contact between these two partners. I commend to you the splendid monograph, "Trends in Teacher Education", published by the Faculty of Education of this University in 1979 which admirably summarises some of the problems which are particular to the teacher training system in operation on the Island of Malta. For reference purposes one can consult the HMI discussion documents, "Developments in the B.Ed. degree", published in 1980, which describes current practice in a number of U.K. training establishments, which stresses the central issue that shared understanding between the schools and the training institutions is vital in determining how practical teaching situations are to be assessed. A further paper entitled, "Criteria of assessment of practical

teaching" produced by Bede College in Durham, sets down a number of interesting criteria for assessing teaching performance even though, as I shall point out later, you may not agree with any of them! Further papers, particularly that by Stones and Morris entitled, "Teaching Practice [Problems and Perspectives]", identify the kind of minefield that we walk through when we try to get members of the teaching profession to agree on what priorities they would give to different criteria when assessing classroom practice. Such then is the background. Let now turn to the actual task that I hope to accomplish.

What I would like to do is to try to identify from some of this comparatively recent work in the U.K. and elsewhere, some of the problems associated with the assessment of teaching competence. In doing so I want to point out some of the conclusions these enquiries have come to which suggest that we are unwise to use a finely graded system when assessing such competence. My investigations have isolated five problems.

Problem Number One

Headteachers, teachers, lecturers, inspectors, external examiners, education officers don't agree on the qualities and attributes which contribute to successful teaching. Even if a check list could be produced, like the one, for example, from Bede College or from the Malta Faculty of Education or from the Froebel College or from Homerton or from Leeds University, there is very strong evidence that there is no agreement about which factors should carry more weight than others.

Which, for example, is more important?

The objectives set down by the student for the work he is doing?

The quality of his notebook or his planning?

The contact and rapport he has with the children in his class?

The way in which he handles the class and maintains discipline?

The personal initiative of the student?

The variety and quality of wall charts?

The general impression one gets is that most of us generally rely on a kind of hunch and that many teachers I know would even question attempting to set down such factors in a hierarchy of importance anyway.

Problem Number Two

We must recognise that schools themselves, the particular socio-economic areas in which they are situated, the level of community support they receive and factors of that kind, all affect the quality of a teacher's performance within them. Students on teaching practice will tell us that they are aware that all schools are not the same in terms of difficulty. There are what students call "easy" schools and "problem" schools and a student who does badly in a tough school can often justifiably claim he might well have done better in a more favourable environment and that any grading system is unfair when schools vary so much in difficulty. We might assume, therefore, that the teaching practice placement in a particular school will affect the assessment even before the student has entered it. I contend that such an assumption would be correct.

Problem Number Three

The different perspectives and reputations of the assessors, whether they be supervisors from the training institutions or, say, headteachers in the schools where the teaching practice is taking place, can markedly affect the grading/rating given a particular student.

There has been much work done on this since the classic piece of work done by Hartog and Rhodes in the 1930's, who, through conducting an enquiry into how examiners marked written papers, established the view that the *subjectivity of the examiner* enters into the assessment of any performance whether he be assessing discursive prose or the way in which a student teacher performs in a classroom. This variance, we are all aware, bedevils all procedures where someone assesses someone else's performance. Each of us needs no reminder of the teacher or examiner who is noted as a 'hard' marker or a 'soft' marker.

There is a good deal of evidence that:

1. an examiner's prior knowledge of an individual affects his assessment of that individual;
2. the time of day that the practical performance is assessed can affect how it is judged;
3. the juxtaposition of such performance with other performances affects the judgement of it. (The assessment of, for example, a mediocre lesson given by one student can be over-rated if observed immediately following a disastrous one given by another);
4. the disposition of the assessor and the student teacher's reaction to him can affect the judgement.

The point I am making is that there is evidence that assessment grades, whether given for a piece of discursive prose or for some practical teaching performance, can differ *quite independently of the quality of the candidate's actual performance.*

Problem Number Four

Some of the studies described in the papers which I mentioned earlier, make it quite clear that in the assessment of teaching performance the 'personality' of the student influences the assessment procedure. The extroverted, entrepreneural student seems to be rated so much higher than his more reserved but equally competent colleague. One of the researchers, too, draws our attention to the fact that attractive female students seem to get highter ratings than unattractive ones, especially if the assessor is a man. Such ratings are quite independent of the quality of the student's teaching performance. Could it be because better teachers pay attention to their personal grooming? Could it be because attractive girls are more self-confident? There appears, incidentally, to be no relationship in these studies between teaching practice grades and the good looks of young men! There appears, again, to be evidence that factors *other than the individual's teaching performance* affect his grading.

If we look, finally, beyond the final teaching practice to the student's teaching career a further issue emerges:

Problem Number Five

A very considerable number of researchers, whose work is recorded in the literature, tell us that there is little positive evidence that specific grades of teaching competence determined whilst the student is in training *predict* that student's future teaching competence in schools.

Some studies have correlated grades given to students on their final teaching practice with grades given by the headteacher of schools that they are working in three to five years later. Such correlations have been as low as 0.07 and only as high as 0.34. Statisticians will recognise that such low correlations indicate the relationship to be spurious. Such low correlations could equally occur by chance. Even when the headteacher is asked to rate particular skills the young teacher exhibits five years after his initial training, the relationship between his assessments and those given to the teacher whilst he was at college have been just as spurious.

What then is the point of specifying in some kind of seemingly precise way an assessment that bears no relationship whatsoever to the later competences it is supposed to predict?

To sum up then, what I have tried to do here is to highlight what, for many people, are conclusions of research activity which they themselves might well have anticipated. I doubt whether there are many of you who have been suprised by what I have said. Yet, certainly up until comparatively recently there were still institutions in the United Kingdom and elsewhere which used a finely graded system for assessing practical teaching performance, in some cases basing the grading on a 12 point scale. The James Report, published in 1972, had made no bones about the matter. It said, without hesitation, "teaching competence should no longer be the subject of a graded assessment but should be assessed on a simple pass/fail basis".

I, therefore, rest my case and in doing so recognise that by removing the convenience of a finely graded system (and a convenience is all that it ever was) we give ourselves the important and more time-consuming task of ensuring that any report on a student teacher's performance in the classroom must be so written as to highlight his strengths and weaknesses and give guidance to him to improve or modify his future practice. In suggesting this I am also clearly indicating that the secrecy surrounding such assessments should be removed and the student given access to the advice such reports ought to properly contain.

It occurs to me finally that in the Maltese student-worker situation there is a much greater responsibility laid upon the schools and, in particular, the headteacher of these schools to assist in the whole business of helping its young practising teachers and in the compilation of such records.

The student-worker scheme, by its very nature, demands a much closer involvement of the professionals actually working in and associated with a particular school, all of whom have the professional task of helping students on their teaching practice improve their performance.

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L'Analisi degli Errori e l'Insegnamento dell' Italiano (Ricerca condotta su discenti maltesi)

J. Eynaud

L''insegnamento delle lingue straniere non è una cosa nuova, però è soltanto negli ultimi anni che si cerca di dare a questo studio una base più scientifica e più efficace. L'analisi contrastiva è uno di questi nuovi metodi scientifici nella didattica linguistica e si pone come scopo principale di rinnovare i metodi di insegnamento e riprogrammare il materiale didattico nella speranza di ottenere migliori risultati.

L'analisi degli errori parte dalla constrastivistica che si occupa del confronto tra due o più lingue con lo scopo di stabilire i punti di contatto oppure le dissimmetrie esistenti fra i due sistemi linguistici. La ragione è che quando la lingua nativa (LI) ha delle strutture simili a quelle della lingua bersaglio (LB) l'apprendimento della lingua bersaglio è reso più facile. Invece "quando l'unità o la struttura non sono comuni alle due lingue o si comportano in modo diverso dal punto di vista dell' organizzazione strutturale... si manifesterà il fenomeno dell'interferenza"[1]. L'interferenza della lingua materna presenta infatti le maggiori difficoltà nel processo di apprendere una nuova lingua. Perchè il discente ha superato i dieci anni, ai suoi primi contatti con la LB possiede già un repertorio verbale abbastanza ricco. Inoltre è ormai abituato a certe strutture della lingua nativa o di qualche altra lingua appresa prima (nel nostro caso l'inglese) e pertanto tende a trasferire questi schemi che già conosce alla lingua da imparare. A questo proposito Lado contende che "I singoli discenti tendono a trasferire forme e significati dalla loro lingua e cultura nativa alla lingua e cultura straniera, sia sul piano produttivo, nell'atto di parlare la lingua, o agire nella cultura, sia sul piano ricettivo nello sforzo di afferrare o comprendere la lingua e la cultura come sono presentate dai nativi"[2]. Infatti ogni volta che il discente si trova in difficoltà si riferisce alla lingua madre.

Dalla pubblicazione di Lado *"Linguistics across Cultures* nel 1957 fino ad oggi l'esame dell'interferenza della lingua materna nella lingua bersaglio è stato forse l'argomento più studiato e discusso nel campo della linguistica. Ferguson (1965), Politzer (1967), e Jacobovits (1970) danno tutti quanti molta importanza al trasferimento dalla LI alla LB nel processo dell'apprendimento. Eppure non è mancata neppure la critica e le obiezioni sono state parecchie. Ma forse l'obiezione più

valida è quella fatta da Wardaugh (1970) secondo cui non tutti gli errori sono individuabili nella lingua nativa ma potranno avere cause psicologiche, didattiche o psicolinguistiche. Non si nega l'efficacia dell'analisi contrastiva che prevede e indica certe fonti di difficoltà ed errori nella lingua bersaglio. Ma dall'altra parte bisogna rilevare che gli errori potranno avere un'origine non soltanto linguistica. Nelle parole di Nickel e Wagner (1968) "Per quanto si possa scoprire dopo lunghe osservazioni quali errori possono ricorrere nell' apprendimento, un'analisi di tipo contrastivo va al di là di una semplice elencazione, giacchè può fornire una spiegazione del perchè tali errori vanno commessi, di quale grado di difficoltà essi siano dotati e quali rimedi occorre prendere per evitarli"[3]. Non basta perciò una semplice elencazione degli errori ma occorre fare anche uno studio delle cause psicologiche, psicolinguistiche, didattiche ecc. senza cui non sarà possibile preparare un materiale didattico funzionante.

L'analisi contrastiva non è, come molti hanno voluto vederla, un metodo d'insegnamento che rende più facile l' insegnamento delle lingue straniere, ma è soltanto un parziale contributo nel programmare il materiale didattico. Come lo è anche l'analisi degli errori che è uno studio complementare alla linguistica contrastiva in quanto analizza le difficoltà dei discenti per poter risalire alla causa d'origine. Gli errori ci permettono di vedere quello che l'allievo riesce ad apprendere e di quali strategie si serva nei suoi confronti con la lingua bersaglio; se si tratta soltanto dell' interferenza dalla LI oppure se gli errori sono causati dalla stessa LB. Si dà anche molta importanza ai fattori psicologici, come per esempio la paura, lo stress, l'incertezza, che potrebbero a loro volta essere fonti d'errore.

Fino a tempi recentissimi gli errori erano considerati una cattiva abitudine se non addirittura un vizio da sradicare completamente. Invece oggi gli errori sono visti come uno stadio inevitabile nel processo dell'apprendimento. Essi sono le indicazioni di quanto il discente abbia appreso e di ciò che gli resta ancora da imparare. "L'atto di insegnare è tra l'altro regolato dalle condizioni di stimolo presentate dal discente ossia dalla sua peculiare reazione all'influsso dell'insegnante il quale ripropone e corregge i propri interventi in conformità alle risposte dell'alunno"[4].

L'insegnamento essendo un processo ciclico di azione e reazione tra docente e discente, esige una degna preparazione linguistica da parte dell'insegnante il quale potrebbe non soltanto percepire gli errori e le loro cause, ma potrebbe anche sviluppare gli esercizi preventivi o correttivi.

La regolare occorrenza di specifici errori indica che il discente nel processo di afferrare la L2 si serve di uno specie di "codice" personale e autonomo che gli serve per comunicare con un dato gruppo ma che un parlante nativo della LB non capirebbe facilmente. S. Pit Corder chiama questo fenomeno, "il dialetto idiosincratico" (idiosyncratic dialect) descrivendolo come "un linguaggio regolare sistematico (che) fa senso, cioè è grammaticale ed è in principio descrivibile secondo un principio proprio".[5] Sono dello stesso parere Nenser e Selinker che chiamano questo linguaggio sviluppato dal discente "sistema aprossimativo" e "interlinguaggio" (approximative system/interlanguage). Secondo i due linguisti non si tratta di una corruzione della lingua bersaglio ma di un sistema in continuo sviluppo e mutamento che s'avvicina sempre più alla completa conoscenza della LB. Abbiamo osservato che gli errori risultano o dall'interferenza della lingua madre o dalle interferenze interstrutturali della lingua bersaglio. Gli errori sono dei dati concreti e verificabili sui quali il docente potrebbe riformulare il suo materiale didattico e fondare il proprio metodo correttivo. L'analisi degli errori è in fondo uno studio diagnostico che dovrebbe mettere in luce le aeree di difficoltà dei discenti. Per la prevenzione e la correzione degli errori bisognerà "rimuovere abiti linguistici ormai consolidati e sostituire a questi, abiti corretti da consolidare. Per giungere a tale risultato è necessario esercitare ripetutamente le strutture interessate dell' errore fino a che si siano consolidati ed automatizzati nuovi abiti".[6]

In conclusione dobbiamo dire che l'analisi degli errori abbia molto da contribuire nella riprogrammazione del materiale didattico. Non si presume di risolvere il problema dell' apprendimento, ma si spera almeno di dare delle indicazioni valide e utili a tutti quegli insegnanti che intendessero applicare l'analisi degli errori all'insegnamento dell' italiano.

Descrizione della Ricerca

Oggetto della Ricerca: 230 elaborati con 40 quesiti a scelta multipla.

Livello: I quaranta quesiti sono stati scelti dall' ultimo test di K. Katerinov: *La Lingua Italiana Per Stranieri*. I quesiti includono quegli argomenti morfosintattici presunti più difficili nell' apprendimento dell'italiano da parte degli stranieri. Il test è stato somministrato ai discenti del quinto anno nelle scuole secondarie e quindi potrebbe considerarsi del livello della Matricola o "Ordinary level". Il campione non è selettivo in quanto comprende sia i promossi, sia i bocciati.

Numero complessivo degli errori: 5186

Media generale degli errori (per campione): 22.5

Elenco degli errori in ordine decrescente di frequenza:

Rango	Tipo	Frequenza
1	Pronomi Diretti/Indiretti	1045
2	Concordanza dei Tempi	833
3	Uso degli Ausiliari	546
4	Uso del Congiuntivo	448
5	Il Comparativo	251
6	Forma Impersonale del Verbo	248
7	Espressioni Idiomatiche	236
8	Forma Scorretta dei Verbi	232
9	Pronomi Possessivi	224
10	Forma di Cortesia	217
11	Pronomi Relativi	204
12	Particella - Ci	175
13	Particella - Ne	135
14	Discorso Indiretto	124
15	Nome Genere e Numero	119
16	Articolo: Forma e Uso	81
17	Accordo tra Sostantivo e Aggettivo	76
18	C'è, Ci sono	44

Analisi dell'elenco degli errori

1. L'Articolo - Uso Scorretto

A. *Articolo Indeterminativo* — *Errori*

		Errori
un'amico	∅ un amico	74
uno amico		2

B. *Articolo Determinativo*

il inglese	∅ l'inglese	1
lo inglese		0

Il numero complessivo degli errori dimostra che l'articolo presenta relativamente poca difficoltà specialmente nell'uso della forma determinativa. Bisogna rilevare però che il discente trova ancora difficile differenziare tra la forma maschile e quella femminile nell'uso dell'articolo indeterminativo al singolare.

2. Il Sostantivo

Genere e Numero - Uso Scorretto

le chiave	∅ le chiavi	95
i chiavi		22

Il discente in questo caso non sa che "chiave" è un nome femminile al singolare e si regola secondo la schema dell' accordo tra l'articolo e il nome (o - i) (a - e) eliminando la presenza dei sostantivi di desinenza "e" che non rientrano facilmente in questo schema.

3. L'Aggettivo
Mancata corrispondenza tra
Nome e Aggettivo

| verde | ∅ verdi | 73 |
| verdie | | 1 |

Come nel caso del sostantivo (2), l'allievo ha scelto l'accordo tra sostantivo ed aggettivo senza badare che l'aggettivo "verde" è singolare e non al femminle plurale come lui crede.

4. Il Pronome

A. *Devianze nell'uso del Pronome Possessivo*

i) suo	∅ il suo	19
il tuo		89
ii) la sua	∅ la loro	24
loro		64

Gli errori sono dovuti all'omissione dell'articolo con il pronome possessivo. Bisogna rilevare anche nel caso 4 A. i) l'uso della forma intima al posto della forma di cortesia che era appropria in quel caso. L'esempio illustra forse l'aderenza alla regola della lingua madre dove non esiste la forma di cortesia.

B. *Pronomi Personali con funzioni di complemento.*
Uso errato del complemento diretto e indiretto

i) risponderla	∅ risponderle	154
le rispondere		28
ii) le domanderò	∅ gli domanderò	15
lo domanderò		77
iii) Li piace	∅ le piacciono	45
la piacciono		40
iv) ha piaciuto	∅ le è piaciuto	119
le ha piaciuto		59
v) li abbiamo detto	∅ abbiamo detto loro	91
li abbiamo detti		36

C. *Pronomi Diretti e Indiretti Combinati*

i) mi ha raccontato	∅ me l'ha raccontato	80
mi l'ha raccontata		43
ii) posso te la prestare	∅ te la posso prestare	47
ti la posso prestare io		56

Gli errori sono imputabili ad inottemperanza alle regole grammaticali.

D. *Pronome Relativo*
Uso scorretto

i) chi	∅ che	66
quali		37
ii) del cui	∅ di cui	24
il quale		51

Il discente identifica il pronome interrogativo "chi" (who) nel caso 4. D. i). Nel caso 4. D. ii), il discente è abituato ad applicare l'articolo davanti a tutti i nomi e pronomi e pertanto non sa distinguere tra quei pronomi che prendono o non prendono l'articolo - impergeneralizzazione della regola.

5. Il Comparativo
Errori nell' uso della comparazione

| di | ∅ che | 123 |
| come | | 74 |

Al discente manca una sufficiente conoscenza della regola grammaticale. In questo caso si può parlare anche di una interferenza interna per cui il discente confonde l'uso di: "più...di", e "piu...che".

6. Verbi

A. *Mancaza di corrispondenza tra soggetto e verbo.*
Presente Indicativo

| è | ∅ c'è | 23 |
| ci sono | | 16 |

Per questi errori si può individuare l'interferenza della LI che ha una sola forma per individuare il singolare e il plurale di c'è, ci sono:

es. hemm dar - sing.
hemm id-djar - plur.

B. *Uso errato degli Ausiliari*
Essere ∅ Avere

| è preso | ∅ ha preso | 15 |
| è presa | | 36 |

Avere ∅ Essere

i) ho rimasto	∅ sono rimasto	79
ii) aveva accaduto	∅ era accaduto	71
iii) ha piaciuto	∅ è piaciuto	59
iv) aveva accaduto	∅ era accaduto	71
v) ho dovuto alzare	∅ sono dovuto alzarmi	84
vi) avesse stato	□ fosse stato	44

Gli errori sono dovuti ad una errata identificazione degli ausiliari nella L2 con quelli della LB.

C. *Verbi Riflessivi*
Uso errato dei Riflessivi

| sono dovuto alzarmi | ∅ mi sono dovuto alzare | 37 |
| mi ho dovuto alzare | | 84 |

D. *Concordanze dei Tempi e dei Modi*

i) *Pass. Pross. & Pres. ∅ Pres. & Pres.*

| sono stata in Italia. e parto domani | ∅ sono in Italia... e parto domani | 133 |

ii) *Imperf. & Imperf. ∅ Pass. Pross. & Pass. Pross.*

non uscivo........   ∅ non sono uscito
perchè stavo   perchè sono stato 52
poco ;bene   poco bene

iii) *Imperf. & Pass. Pross. ∅ Pass. Pross. &*
Pass. Pross.
non uscivo . . . . . .   ∅ non sono uscito
perchè, sono stato   perchè sono stato 59
poco · bene   poco bene

iv) *Pass. Rem. & Pass. Pross. ∅ Pass.*
Rem. & Imperf.
rispose che ha   ∅ rispose che pre-
preferito   feriva   95

v) *Pass. Rem & Cond. Pres. ∅ Pass.*
Rem & Imperf.
rispose che prefe-   ∅ rispose che
rirebbe   preferiva   72

vi) *Pass. Rem. & Pass. Rem. ∅ Pass.*
Rem. & Trap. Pross.
appena seppi   ∅ appena seppi
quello che accadde   quello che era
                      accaduto   28

vii) *Imperf. & Cong. Pres. ∅ Imperf. &*
Cong. Imperf.
non immaginavo   ∅ non immaginavo
che lei stia   che lei stesse   86

viii) *Pass. Pross. & Pres. ∅ Pass. Pross. &*
Cong. Imperf.
non ha voluto che   ∅ non ha voluto
paghiamo   che pagassimo   86

ix) *Pass. Pross. & Fut. ∅ Pass. Pross. &*
Cong. Imperf.
non ha voluto che   ∅ non ha voluto
pagheremo   che pagassimo   66

x) *Cond. Pres. & Pres. ∅ Cond. Pres. &*
Cong. Pres.
direi che tu devi   ∅ direi che tu
                      debba   67

xi) *Cond. Pres. & Cong. Imperf ∅ Cond.*
Pres. & Cong. Pres.
direi che tu dovessi ∅ direi che tu
                      debba   83

xii) *Pass. Rem & Fut. ∅ Pass. Rem. &*
Cond. Comp.
disse che verrà   ∅ disse che
                      sarebbe venuto   100

xiii) *Pass. Rem. & Cond. Semp. ∅ Pass. Rem.*
& Cond. Comp.
disse che verrebbe   ∅ disse che
                      sarebbe venuto   45

xiv) *Cond. Comp. & Cong. Trap. ∅ Cong. Trap.*
& Cond. Comp.
se ci sarebbe stato   ∅ se ci fosse stato
lui ci fossimo   lui ci saremmo
divertiti   divertiti   47

xv) *Cong. Trap. & Cond. Semp. ∅ Cong. Trap.*
& Cond. Comp.
Se ci avesse stato   ∅ se ci fosse stato
lui ci divertiremmo   lui ci saremmo
                      divertiti   44

Come è evidente dal gran numero di errori il discente è in grande difficoltà quando vuole effettuare la concordanza dei tempi e dei modi. Il problema non è certamente imputabile all'interferenza della lingua madre perchè mancano nella LI tutte le forme verbali della LB. Ma appunto per questa ragione il discente non è in grado di controllare queste nuove forme acquisite, perchè siccome non hanno una forma equivalente nella LI e nella L2, gli restano un po' confuse finchè non si abitui a decifrarli nel contesto della LB.

E. *Forme Impersonali del Verbo*

i) si parla	∅ si parlano	79
è parlato		24
ii) si va fatta	∅ va fatta	57
va fare		38

F. *Forme scorrette del Verbo*

i) cadè	∅ cadde	44
cadette		14
ii) rompè	∅ ruppe	60
rompette		18
iii) stasse	∅ stesse	47

Gli errori sono dovuti più che altro ad una ipergenerizzazione della regola grammaticale. Questo è più evidente nei casi F. i) e ii) nella scorretta coniugazione del Passato Remoto.

G. *Il Discorso Indiretto*
Devianza
di venire a travarlo   ∅ di andare a
stasera e di por-   travarlo quella sera
tarlo i dischi che ha e di portagli i dischi
comprato in quei   che ha comprato
giorni   40

che andare a tro-
varlo quella sera e
che portargli i
dischi che aveva
comprato in quei
giorni.   31

L'uso del discorso indiretto richiede una grande capacità da parte del discente perchè se lui non è ancora impadronito della LB non potrà facilmente manipolare il discorso. Infatti, malgrado il numero limitato registrato per gli errori, bisogna dire che la maggioranza dei discenti ha evitato di rispondere a questo quesito. Per precisare ancora meglio diciamo che 53 su 230 discenti non hanno neanche tentato di rispondere.

7. Le Preposizioni

Errori nell'uso delle preposizioni

i) fa tre mesi   ∅ da tre mesi   21
    tre mesi fa   73

ii) per   ∅ da   67

L'uso errato delle preposizioni è dovuto ad una falsa identificazione delle preposizioni della LB con quelli della L2.

8. Le Particelle

A. *La Particella "NE"*

i) *Omissione della Ne*
   ho fumato molte   ∅ ne ho fumato
                        molte   86

ii) *Mancato accordo nell'uso del Ne*
   ne ho fumato   ∅ ne ho fumato
   molto   molte   46

B. *La Particella "Ci"*
   Omissione della Ci

i) è   ∅ c'è   23
ii) si annoia   ∅ ci si annoia   127

   Inversione Sintattica
   si ci annoia   ∅ ci si annoia   25

Gli errori dimostrano che il discente non è ancora capace di usare bene le particelle perchè forse non è conscio del loro significato.

9. Forma di Cortesia / Forma Intima

Uso scorretto della forma Intima
non dimmi   ∅ non dirmi   58

Confusione tra le Forme di Cortesia/Intima
i) il tuo   ∅ il suo   89
ii) non mi dica   ∅ non dirmi   58

E'evidente che il discente non ha ancora assimilato queste forme e specialmente la forma di cortesia che non si riscontra nè nella lingua madre, neanche nella L2.

10. Errori Intralinguistici

Scelta inesatta dei moduli espressivi della LB
i) oggi il tempo fa   ∅ fa brutto tempo   108
   brutto
   oggi è il tempo
   brutto   22
ii) alla casa sua   ∅ a casa   22
   alla sua casa   75

Gli errori sono dovuti ad una inesatta conoscenza della espressione idiomatica della LB. Questi tipi di errori rivelano la competenza del discente che però non riesce ancora ad assimilare a fondo i moduli espressivi.

Osservazioni Generali sulla Ricerca

I risultati emersi dalla presente ricerca non si possono ritenere valide in assoluto in quanto i quesiti a cui hanno risposto i discenti insistono soprattutto sulle maggiori aeree di difficoltà nell'apprendimento dell'italiano. Bisogna dire però, che gli errori sono la produzione effettiva e concreta dei discenti e come tali rivelano i problemi e le difficoltà reali dello studente nel suo tentativo di impadronirsi della lingua bersaglio.

I dati ottenuti indicano che anche dopo cinque anni di studio dell'italiano lo studente non dimostra che una discreta competenza della lingua. Per ogni studente si sono registrati 22,5 errori, vale a dire il 56.25 per cento dei quesiti risultano scorretti. La distribuzione degli errori rispecchia per convenienza una media statistica. Ma volendosi dare una occhiata più da vicino ai casi singoli il quadro si fa più sconcertante. La più bassa occorrenza verificata è di sei (6) errori, ma la più alta è stata di quaranta (40) errori, cioè un elaborato più completamente sbagliato. Questo è già molto sconcertante dato che da 40 quesiti, 22.5, e cioè più della metà, sono risultati sbagliati.

Tipologia e Frequenza degli Errori

La tabella riportata a pagina 17 segna gli errori secondo la tipologia e frequenza. L'elenco che registra in ordine decrescente gli errori più comuni negli elaborati è inteso ad indicare gli argomenti più difficili e i problemi effettivi degli alunni. Sarebbe dunque inutile ripetere a questo punto il discorso sulla causa e la natura degli errori che sono stati già spiegati. Pertanto ci limiteremo a qualche osservazione.

Un'alta percentuale di errori si è verificata nell'uso dei Pronomi Diretti e Indiretti (1045 errori) e nella concordanza dei Tempi e dei Modi (833 errori). Le devianze sono dovute maggiormente ad un mancato o imperfetto apprendimento delle regole e strutture grammaticali. Di solito risulta come maggiore difficoltà la concordanza dei Tempi e dei Modi e infatti la bassa frequenza per questo tipo di errore è dovuta al maggior numero di quesiti basato sui Pronomi.

Del resto gli errori registrati rivelano una notevole difficoltà nell'uso dei Verbi. Le devianze più frequenti interessano i Verbi Ausiliari (546 errori), l'uso del Congiuntivo (448), la forma impersonale del verbo (248) e inoltre, 232 errori si sono verificati nella forma scorretta dei verbi. Da 5186 errori registrati, 2307 errori interessano i verbi. Questo significa che benchè s'insista tanto sull'insegnamento/apprendimento dei verbi nelle nostre scuole, riescono sempre più difficili le forme verbali, anche quelli più elementari.

I problemi di competenza stilistica interessano l'uso del linguaggio idiomatico. Gli errori di questo tipo salgono a 236 e hanno un loro valore in quanto riflettono gli sforzi del discente alle prese con la lingua bersaglio.

Un argomento che lascia perplesso il discente è l'uso della forma di cortesia (217 errori). Questo avviene per il fatto che questa forma è inesistente nelle L1 e L2 e pertanto lo studente non ne può fare un uso cosciente. Volendosi riproporre questo problema il discente dovrebbe essere stimolato mediante una intensiva esercitazione.

L'incapacità di distinguere tra genere e numero causa delle difficoltà nell'uso dell'articolo (81 errori) e nell'accordo tra sostantivo e aggettivo (76). Le voci che finiscono in "e" mettono in imbarazzo il discente che non può riferire queste voci allo schema tradizionale che distingue tra femminile e maschile: o - a, a - e. Lo schema citato lascia incerto lo studente nei confronti di sostantivi e aggettivi di desinenza "e".

Di particolare interesse sono anche le devianze nell'uso del discorso indiretto (124 errori). Da 230 discenti 53 non hanno neanche tentato il quesito e questo riflette chiaramente che il discente non ha ottenuto ancora il possesso della LB per poter manipolarla come richiede il discorso indiretto.

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Appendice

Elenco di tutti gli Errori Registrati

Risposta	A	B	C	(Nessuna Risposta)	(Totale Errori)
1.	73	**157**	1	2	76
2.	108	**96**	22	5	135
3.	91	36	**45**	26	153
4.	21	73	**97**	40	134
5.	**152**	74	2	2	78
6.	154	**45**	28	3	185
7.	119	**52**	59	8	186
8.	**104**	52	59	15	126
9.	**106**	19	89	12	130
10.	86	**85**	46	3	135
11.	66	**121**	37	6	109
12.	37	84	**81**	28	149
13.	**94**	47	86	3	136
14.	**116**	47	44	21	112
15.	86	**73**	66	5	157
16.	**53**	96	72	9	177
17.	24	64	**136**	6	94
18.	**23**	133	67	7	207
19.	**227**	1	0	2	3
20.	22	75	**129**	4	101
21.	95	**111**	22	2	119
22.	100	75	45	10	155
23.	15	36	**172**	7	58
24.	**186**	23	16	5	44
25.	80	43	**97**	10	133
26.	58	36	**99**	34	128
27.	79	**111**	24	16	119
28.	127	25	**53**	25	177
29.	**135**	24	51	20	95
30.	**107**	49	53	21	123
31. a)	44	14	**151**	21	79
31. b)	60	18	**125**	28	106
32.	79	**81**	47	23	149
33.	**102**	57	38	34	129
34.	15	**108**	77	30	122
35.	**90**	71	28	41	140
36.	47	**87**	56	40	143
37.	45	**107**	40	38	123
38.	67	**31**	83	39	189
39.	**92**	74	21	43	138
40.	40	**116**	31	53	124

1   R. Lado *Per Una Didattica Scientificia Delle Lingue, Minerva Italica: 1974.*

2   R. Lado *Linguistics across Cultures* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press: 1957

3   G. Nickel/W.H. Wagner *Contrastive Linguistics and Language Teaching,* I.R.A.L. 6/1968 p. 247.

4   R. Titone *Psicolinguistica Applicata,* Armando. Roma. 1973 p. 13.

5.   S.P. Corder *- Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis,* 1971. Il linguista descrive così il dialetto idiosincratico: "it is a regular, systematic, meaningful, i.e. it has a grammar and is in principle describable in terms of a set of rules of the target social dialect. His dialect is unstable (we hope) and is not as far as we know a "langue" in that its conventions are not shared by social group and lastly many of its sentences present problems of interpretation to any native speaker of the target dialect", da J.C. Richards - *Error Analysis* - Longman 1974, p. 161.

6.   K. Katerinov *L'Analisi Contrastiva e l'Analisi degli Errori applicate all'insegnamento dell'italiano a stranieri,* 1975, p. 14.

Hanno collaborato a questo studio: Joan Cauchi, Pierre Buttigieg, Cettina Callus.

A Preliminary Survey of the Teaching of History and Social Studies in Maltese State Primary Schools.

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Social Studies is the study of man in society

Man emerges as a central figure in all the work in Social Studies. The aim of this brief study is to check *if* and *to what extent* current ideas on the teaching of the subject are being actually implemented in Maltese State Primary Schools from Year 3 to Year 6 so that they will fit adequately into the concept and definition of Social Studies as described above.

The survey

This study was carried out in 11 Maltese Primary Schools during the scholastic year 1983-84. A desire for a balance between schools in urban and rural areas was kept in mind. The sample was made up of information collected from 100 teachers representing a good cross section of the teaching population in Malta, with a span ranging from 1 to 40 years teaching experience. The dates when teachers finished their teacher training varied from 1946 to 1983.

Aims and objectives of Social Studies

When teachers were asked to state aims and objectives of Social Studies teaching in the Primary school, 52% said that the main aim was that of understanding the environment. Although this is a general statement one could assume that it implies the awareness of a fundamental aim of Social Studies teaching i.e. the objective of providing children with an opportunity of acquiring knowledge and understanding of the society in which they live. Other aims stated were: the creation of moral, social and national awareness (i.e. the formation of good citizens) and the increase of general knowledge, which, besides being a vague objective, indicates that the major concern of teachers is that of presenting chunks of information through factual knowledge. However, in the modern approach, the emphasis should be on where to find out the necessary information and how to achieve "learning to learn" skills rather than on "haphazard memorization". This is a fundamental current concept which should be immediately implemented in Social Studies teaching.

Whatever the aims and objectives, stress should be laid on concept development rather than on facts. Results of the present survey show that in 52% of the sample, emphasis is mainly on presentation of factual knowledge. This necessarily leads to a compartmentalised syllabus, simple source information, memorisation and recitation. On the contrary, the stress should be on discovery, analysis, rational thinking and initiative on the pupils' part.

It is interesting to note that 12% of the teachers state that "increasing an interest in nature" is a major aim in the teaching of Social Studies. This is a clear indication that a good number of teachers incorporate Nature Study with Social Studies rather than with Environmental Studies. This should not be the case since Social Studies is centred on *man* while Environmental Studies is centred on *nature*.

Social Studies in the School

The Curriculum

All teachers in the survey agree that Social Studies should have a place in the curriculum. However, when asked whether it should be given more importance in the curriculum of the school, 65% of them were opposed to this idea. A good number of teachers argue that Social Studies can be mediated through incidental teaching during other lessons by integrating it with Reading, Religion, Languages and so forth. In addition, according to these teachers, Social Studies should aim at the widening of children's general

knowledge. These two main reasons given by the teachers to justify their stand, however, clearly show that in this respect they are not up-to-date with current ideas about the aims of Social Studies, since we know that current literature about the teaching of Social Studies stresses the fact that, as P. Mathias states, "a knowledgeable person is not necessarily educated" (1973). Moreover, although integration with other subjects is encouraged since, according to D.G. Watts "history lends itself readily to illustrating and supporting other subjects" (1972), the teacher should not rely completely on incidental teaching of Social Studies as the tendency will be that it will be discarded and most of its importance for the children's education will be lost.

The Syllabus

The data emerging from the survey shows that not all teachers work from a Social Studies syllabus. The great majority suggest a better planned, more "open" type of syllabus with new and varied topics. They suggest that such a syllabus should enable the children to develop, with the teacher's help, crucial techniques (e.g. criticism, discussion, inquiry, problem-solving skills and so on) that will not only render Social Studies more appealing to children but also help them acquire a better understanding of man in society. This is, after all, the ultimate aim of Social Studies. The request for a clearly defined syllabus indicates that the great majority of teachers are up-to-date with current ideas about the teaching of Social Studies. As Ian Steele states: "There is the need to define the common elements and the distinctive qualities of the various areas of study. If the character of these can be established it will become much simpler to make decisions about the shape and content of the school syllabus and about the teaching strategies that should be employed in the classroom" (1976).

Social Studies in the Time - Table

In the Primary School time-table, 3 hours a week are reserved for Social Studies. However, it seems that not all teachers give it this importance in matters of time, since 76% devote $2^{1}/_{2}$ hours or less per week. (See Table A). This is because of the importance given to the three main subjects - English, Maltese, Maths - especialy in Year 6 classes preparing for their Junior Lyceum examination.

The hours devoted to Social Stdies should be organised in approximately $1^{1}/_{2}$ hour sessions in which multiple activities and varied presentations should be carried out. In half-hour sessions (which are still being employed by the majority of teachers), the main activity would probably be note-taking, which is detrimental to the aims of Social Studies.

Table A

Time allocated	%
1 hr	16
$1^{1}/_{2}$	22
2	22
$2_{1}/_{2}$	16
3	12
$3^{1}/_{2}$	6
5	2
No answer	4
Total	100 %

Teaching Approaches and Methods

Separate or Interdisciplinary Approach

From the two basic approaches i.e. the separate or compartmentalised approach, and the integrated or interdisciplinary approach, the former seems to be the most applied either directly by calling Social Studies as History, Geography, Civics or by taking such subjects separately even though referring to the whole chunk as "Social Studies".

Teachers reason that they prefer the traditional compartmentalised approach because of its convenience, logicity and simplicity. Some argue, however, that there are more pedagogical justifications for the use of the interdisciplinary approach. It is more interesting for young children since the topic approach is closer to real life situations are therefore more motivating. M.A. Crutchfield (1983) points out that in the traditional separate approach the teacher looks upon the student as a "sponge' to soak up facts which he must recall on demand. In the new Social Studies approach the teacher sees the learner as an inquirer who examines information from different sources and uses problem-solving methods in acquiring concepts.

Expository or Guided-discovery Methods

Most teachers in the survey prefer to use a combination of the Expository (teacher-centred) and the Guided-discovery (learner-centred) methods in the teaching of Social Studies since such a combination helps children, as Mathias points out "to acquire a method of work and develop a sense of inquiry through discovery" (1973). Teachers have also clearly indicated that it is the kind of topic to be dealt with, the resources available, and the aptitudes and skills of the pupils that determine the method of teaching they have to

adopt. This idea is in line with what Ian Steele states: "The methods employed by the history teacher are bound to reflect the aims and objectives in teaching the subject... Increasin-gly teachers are concerned with the attitudes of their pupils towards the subject, and with the pupils' acquisition of the skills involved in the study. Inevitably this has important implications for the teaching techniques employed" (1976).

Media and Activities
Sources and Resources

Sources and resources can be classified as first, second, third and fourth order ones. First order resources are those which are immediately available to the teacher such as the blackboard, oral work, etc. Second order resources are the written and spoken words i.e. books, family and oral history, etc. Third order resources are the mechanical aids, such as films, slides, etc. Fourth order resources are those found outside the school such as museums and historical sites.

Table B

Source Source	Order Type	%
teacher/blackboard	1	90
discussion in class	1	74
textbook/handout	2	24
books/magazines	2	20
relatives/friends	2	12
T.V./media	3	24

In this survey, first order resources (66%) scored the highest percentage. Second order resources totalled only 24%, whereas 10% of the teachers use third order sources. No fourth order resources were mentioned (See Table B). This clearly shows that in the use of sources and resources, current ideas are not much implemented in our schools.

Quite a good number of teachers still rely on blackboard work for teaching the subject, from which children then copy out notes. No mention has been made of time lines and time-charts (which are very important means in conveying to children the difficult concept of time), or of simulations and dice games. Documents, topic cards, etc. all registered a low percentage in this study (See Table C).

Table C

Teaching Aids	%
Charts	92
Illustrations	92
Maps	90
Old objects	52
Photos/Slides films	40
Work cards	28
Tape-recorder radio	16
Time lines	14
Documents	8
Topic Cards	8
Life lines	6
Family plans	0

Teachers interviewed argued that most activities depend on the resources available. Schools in general lack modern resources, thus often constraining most teachers to adopt traditional teaching techniques.

A limited number of teachers are not discouraged by the fact that some resources are not available at their school, and actually do their best to provide and use a variety of resources in their teaching (e.g. films, film strips, tapes, discs, simulated documents, work sheets and topic cards), to make Social Studies as interesting a subject as possible.

As regards books, most teachers are of the opinion that there should be a standard textbook. However such a textbook would have a number of setbacks: it can be excessively authoritarian, and often dull; there also runs the danger of it dictating the syllabus, or giving the wrong idea that history or some other subject in Social Studies exists only as one fount of knowledge; moreover it can provide one type of format and illustrations. It would be a better idea if instead of a textbook one introduces Educational packs/folders containing pictures, notes, handouts, etc. which are more appealing to children, more handy, and better suited to be updated from time to time.

Activities

The commonest activity in class is still note-taking (74%). It seems that teachers do not believe that children are able to compile their own notes. In 86% of the cases, informatiom is recorded in copybooks. 42% use scrapbooks (adding percentages total more than 100% since in some cases both copybooks and scrapbooks are used),

which are surely more suited for Social Studies. Very often notes are distributed to the children. On the other hand typical of the new model of teaching is the case where children's work, like written work, drawings, three dimensional objects, etc., are stuck on a large board in the classroom. In 80% of the cases, writing is not the only activity. Teachers mentioned sticking pictures and drawing as additional activities.

Quite a large number of the teachers (32%) do not use activities such as games, role playing, model making and drama/mime. Only 18% use three or more of these activities. Games and action maps are the least used (12% and 6% respectively) and drama is the most used (48%).

58% of teachers succeeded in holding an exhibition of children's work during their teaching career. However, some of the topics chosen e.g. "Homes in the Fiji Islands", seem to be too far removed from the children's experience.

74% of the teachers never had a "Things of the Past" table in their class. Moreover, for the remaining 26%, the "History corner" seems to be merely a demonstration place with no labelling, descriptions, or proper use for incidental teaching. Only 6% of the total sample have a miniature musuem in the school.

Educational visits

Quite a large percentage of teachers (88%) took their class out at least for one visit during the scholastic year in which the present study was carried out. The rest claim that red tape, lack of time and lack of pupils' appreciation are factors which impeded them from doing this type of activity.

Table D

Type of preparation	%
a) Few words (max. 1 lesson about places/things about to be visited.	46
b) Series of Social Studies lessons	30
c) Oral discussion about place and and what to look for	8
d) Reading on textbooks/showing them pictures	6
e) Reading story of place	4
f) accustoming children with handout or worksheet to be filled by children on site	4
g) Following route on map of historical places to be visited	2
Total	100%

In 92% of the cases there was some form of preparation before the visit. Table D shows that only in 30% of the cases there seems to be a valid continuation of the teaching programme between class teaching and visits. Current trends are only very slowly being introduced.

As regards the visit itself, 70% of those interviewed rely on the guide or on their knowledge for information. Students are little encouraged to listen and observe during such visits and instead they are left to the passive activity of hearing and seeing most of the time. There was some sort of follow-up in 90% of the cases though most of this follow-up consisted only in sentence writing or drawing.

A limited number of teachers (8%) managed to bring resource-persons from outside the school to conduct or participate in lessons. All this shows that the teacher and the textbook still seem to be the only resources for the learning of Social Studies in some classes.

Pupils' Initiative and Participation

When teachers were asked their method of selecting topics in Social Studies, a very large number (70%) clearly showed that they do not take into consideration children's preferences of topics. Most of the teachers claim that the syllabus is the determining factor when it comes to choosing topics. 94% of the teachers state that most children participate during the Social Studies lesson in some way or other. Discussion and conversation (46%) is the most widespread of these forms of pupil participation. Other forms of participation include the bringing of books and pictures (36%), writing and drawing (24%), and the raising of questions on the learners' part (24%). Only 58% of the teachers allow discussion about controversial subjects or ideas which arise during lessons.

General Comments

1. Current ideas are being implemented in Maltese Government Primary Schools, but to a very limited extent. By and large, things seem to progress slowly since the traditional model is still the main component of Social Studies teaching.

2. The main causes behind all this seem to be the slavery to the syllabus and the examinations. These appear to be forcing the teacher to adopt the traditional way of teaching (this idea was expressed by many teachers).

Examinations seem to be leading to note-taking in the classroom in order that pupils would find something concrete on which to rely when revising for examinations. Moreover, learning

Smallness and Infinity in Mathematics

An Intuitive Approach

A.P. Calleja

he widespread availability of pocket calculators has widened the domain of possible investigations at certain levels in mathematics, in the secondary school classroom no less than in the university lecture-room. Most school boys and girls use the calculator and many of them may have asked what is the meaning of the letter e which appears on the key e^x. This article is intended to explain the background which is necessary to understand the meaning of e and it is hoped that the numerical value of 2.718 assigned to e will no longer remain mysterious to readers who are non mathematicians. A knowledge of the realistic fractions e.g. that $1/6$ is less than $1/4$, is the kind of mathematics required to follow the discussion.

Section I

Adding the endless

onsider the sums S of the successive distances shown in Fig. 1. We use S_n to mean the sum of n successive distances starting with 1. Each distance is called a *term* of the series. We illustrate the first few series:-

$$S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$S_3 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \qquad = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} = 1\frac{3}{4}$$

$$S_4 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} \qquad = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} = 1\frac{7}{8}$$

$$S_5 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} = 1\frac{15}{16}$$

What is the value of S_6? That's easy. What is S_{10}? Now wait a minute. That's too long to write down. So we look for a shorter way of explaining S_n. Both from Fig. 1. and from the above illustrations of S_1, S_2, S_3, etc, it is clear that the increasing value of S_n is getting close to 2. In fact as one takes more and more terms (i.e. an endless number of them), S_n gets nearer and nearer to 2. See Fig. 2.

Also the difference between 2 and S_6 is:

$$2 - S_6 = \frac{1}{32} = \frac{1}{2^5}$$

The difference between 2 and S_7 is:

$$2 - S_7 = \frac{1}{64} = \frac{1}{2^6}$$

Therefore S_{10} is explained by the statement:

$$2 - S_{10} = \frac{1}{2^9} = \frac{1}{512} \qquad [1]$$

Without computing what is the difference between 2 and S_{15}?

$$2 - S_{15} = \frac{1}{2^{14}}$$

and we may leave it at that.

Next let's ask the followng questions and provide answers first in mathematical language and then in mathematical symbols.

(i) Do you think it is possible to find a large enough n so that the difference between 2 and S_n is less than $1/1000$?

Yes. We have almost done it in statement [1] because.

$$2 - S_n = \frac{1}{512}, \text{ where } n = 10.$$

Now, try n = 11,

$$2 - S_{11} = \frac{1}{2^{10}} = \frac{1}{1024}, \text{ which is less than } \frac{1}{1000}.$$

Therefore for all whole number values of n larger than 10 (i.e. n = 11, 12, 13, etc) the difference between 2 and S_n will be less than $1/1000$. In mathematical symbols this statement becomes.

$$2 - S_n < \frac{1}{1000} \text{ for n} > 10.$$

(ii) Consider

$$2 - S_n < \frac{1}{100,000}$$

This statement asks us to find a large enough n so that the difference between 2 and S_n is less than $1/1000\,000$. Is it possible?

Yes. Try $n = 21$. Remember that $2 - S_{21} = \dfrac{1}{2^{20}}$

From the above two statements, we may conclude that:

"no matter how small we wish the difference between 2 and S_n to be, there is a whole number n that will do it".

Alternatively we may state the same conclusion in the following way:

"it is always possible to find a value for n large enough so that S_n is as near to 2 as we wish".

Since this is the case, then

"the limiting value of S_n as n becomes very large is 2" ----- [2]

In mathematical language statement [2] is written thus.

"the limit of S_n as n approaches infinity is 2" and using mathematical symbols, statement [2] is $\lim\limits_{n \to \infty} S_n = 2$ . . . . . . [*]

So we have established the important result that:

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \ldots = 2,$$

or, what is the same thing:

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} + \frac{1}{2^5} + \ldots = 2$$

These three dots (and not more than three!) at the end of the series indicate that the number of terms is endless or infinite. As more and more terms are added the difference between 2 and S_n becomes smaller and smaller. Thus we have found the sum of an endless series of terms. Finally, to show more forcefully that an infinity of terms of the series will make the sum exactly 2, we write:

$$S_\infty = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \ldots = 2 \qquad [3]$$

The symbol ∞ stands for an infinite number of terms of the series S.

Section II

The Meaning and Value of e.

We consider another series S_n' given by:

$$S_n' = 1 + \frac{1}{1.2} + \frac{1}{1.2.3} + \frac{1}{1.2.3.4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{1.2.3 \ldots n} \cdots$$

where the dots in the denominators imply

multiplication. If we take an infinite number of terms, the above series is written thus:

$$S_\infty' = 1 + \frac{1}{1.2} + \frac{1}{1.2.3} + \ldots$$

For simplicity (and economy in writing) we replace:

1.2 by 2! (read: 2 factorial)
1.2.3 by 3! (read: 3 factorial)

and so on, then:

1.2.3...n = n! (read: n factorial)

Therefore S_n' and S_∞' now take the following forms:

$$S_n' = 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} \cdots \frac{1}{n!} \cdot$$

$$\text{and } S_\infty' = 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \ldots$$

Our next exercise is to compare the magnitude of S_n' given above with the magnitude of S_n of Section I. To examine the comparison more clearly we rewrite S_n and S_n' in their proper values:

$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} \text{ etc.}$$

$$S_n' = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{120} + \frac{1}{720} \text{ etc.}$$

These two series begin to differ from the third term onwards. We observe that.

$1/6$ is less than $1/4$,
$1/24$ is less than $1/8$,
$1/120$ is less than $1/16$ etc.

We say that S_n' is less than S_n by comparing their terms. And if infinity of terms be taken we will have the result:

$S_\infty' < S_\infty$, the latter seen beeing equal to [*]. Thus.

$$S_\infty' = 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \ldots < 2.$$

If we add 1 to S_∞' we get

$$\left(1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \ldots\right) < 3$$

The endless sum in brackets is clearly greater than 2. It is denoted by the letter *e*.

Therefore:

$$2 < e < 3$$

My calculator gives $e = 2.718\ 281828$. The value 2.718 is sufficiently accurate for most purposes. The letter *e* stands for the word *exponential*. In mathematics beyond O Level a more general series is studied, namely.

$e^x = 1 + x + x^2/2! + x^3/3! + \ldots$ which is valid for all values of x. We have discussed only the particular case of e^x namely when $x = 1$,

i.e. $e^1 (= e) = 2.718$

Fig. 1

S_1 S_2 S_3 S_4 S_5

1 1/2 1/4 1/8 1/16 1/32
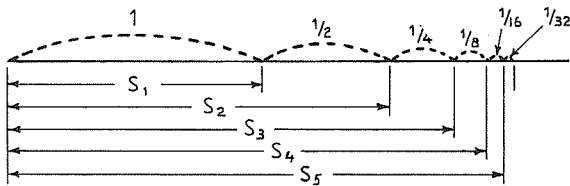
S_n

2 1³/₄ 1½ 1

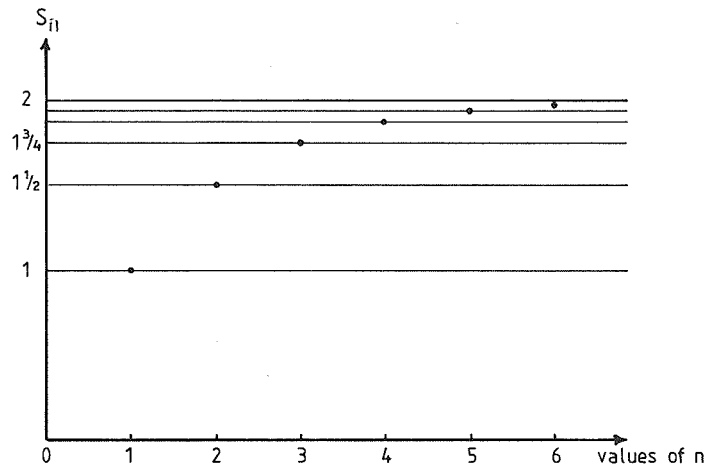0 1 2 3 4 5 6 values of n

Fig. 2

Continued from Page 21

becomes susceptible to cramming since there is pressure to cover all the syllabus for the final test. What is required of pupils in order that they will pass this test-hurdle is just memorisation of some facts. This method is detrimental to concept formation and skill acquisition.

3. Besides, examinations (especially those for entrance into the Junior Lyceum) put more emphasis on Maths, English and Maltese, and this approach deals another blow to Social Studies teaching in the Primary sector. Results of the present survey show that many teachers do not allocate all the hours allotted for Social Studies in their personal time-table.

4. It seems though that in the present framework where examinations are the focal point of learning and teaching there still could be some changes in Social Studies teaching.

Regular meetings between members of the staff to discuss Social Studies teaching could become more frequent and regular.

Teachers should be given concrete hints on the modern trends through in-service courses. A seriously planned syllabus should be compiled. A copy of this should be given to each and every teacher and then some way of supervision should ensure that it is being adequately implemented.

Only through such a professional approach will teachers be able to raise and revive their methodology. The teaching of Social Studies should not deteriorate from the moment the teacher leaves his training institution. It should not be based solely on note-taking. The teacher must make of it a pleasant activity for the learners.

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This study was presented as course work assignment in Early and Middle Years area of the B.Ed (Hons) programme, and was monitored by the course tutor Mr. M.A. Sant.

Impetus to Geography teaching in 19th Century Elementary Schools in Malta.

Carmen Camilleri

I n the first half of the nineteenth century, the Elementary School curriculum in Malta was a very narrow one. In 1850 when Canon Paolo Pullicino, the newly appointed Director of Education on his return from Dublin, where he had gone to study the Irish Education system, initiated the first attempts towards reform, he was so disappointed with the existing system of education in Malta, that he devoted a great part of his First Report (1850)[1] to expounding its main defects. He criticised the quality of instruction being imparted in the twelve primary schools in Malta and the two schools in Gozo, and complained that the instruction given was inadequate:

> "All teaching reduces itself to.. a little italian, a smattering of English, the first and most elementary notions of arithmetic, and some very rare exercises in handwriting, and the mechanical repetition of the Religious Catechism of the diocese. To which one can ultimately add some general notions of grammar, and some superficial ideas of geometry and geography"[2].

Pullicino concerned himself with the broader and more refined aspects of education since he believed that the full development of a child could not be achieved through the restricted teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic but through a more liberal curriculum. Pullicino, took it upon himself to expand the curriculum to include "unimportant" subjects such as history and geography. Indeed, throughout his career as a Director of Primary Schools, Pullicino continually emphasised the importance of geography and endeavoured to improve its teaching. Indeed, in his many articles and books, he provided local teachers with the basis of coherent theory for the subject.

The decision to include geography in the curriculum of Maltese schools seemed to reflect a then generally accepted belief that no man could be called educated if he possessed no knowledge of the position of continents and regions of the earth. For example the text-book *English and Maltese Reading Book For The Use of Government Primary Schools,*[3] attributed to Cosolani (1893) considered it a mark of extreme dulness not to desire to know something of those numerous scenes which lie beyond our sight... and still duller should we be, if we could not help feeling a great desire to know what kind of houses our fellow-beings find in other distant regions... (and) what difficulties or dangers they have to encounter in providing for their wants". In a period when the dark corners of the earth were being explored and annexed, geography was considered a subject of compelling interest.

However, this enlightened view took a long time to permeate into the Maltese system, and it was only very gradually that geography began to be an accepted subject of elementary education. From a prospectus (1852)[4] showing the branches of instruction, geography was to be considered and organised as a separate subject only in those schools where it could reach a certain required level. In other village schools, referred to as "scuole comuni" by Pullicino in his Third Report[5] geography was to be considered only as complementary to reading. In this context, the principal scope of geography was to render the reading lessons more intelligible and interesting. At a time when the vast majority of people were illiterate and inumerate priority was given to the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic.

As explained earlier, before Pullicino's time, the teaching of geography consisted in the study of political divisions, the extent and relief of land, the names of mountains, rivers and seas. Pullicino attempted to develop the study of geography further than this, and when programmes of instruction for schools were published in 1856[6], geography was conceived as being made up of various interdependent branches, namely Descriptive, Physical, Mathematical, Cosmographical and Political. This course was streamlined with the then prevailing paradigm of geography as the study of physical factors influencing human activities. The descriptive and physical aspects of geography were unduly emphasised however, with consequent neglect of, or at least an indifference to, other aspects of the subject. Mathematical geography was a very much neglected branch, as Keenan pointed out in 1878[7]. The reliance on the physical basis of the subject persisted even when a liberal interpretation of geography admitted the possibility of a more human approach. At the same time, Pullicino also

recommended the study of the etymology of geographical words, whereby pupils would endeavour to trace the origin of certain words.

At this time, the study of subjects related to Malta, including the Maltese language did not feature strongly in the local system of public education. Indeed, local geography was left completely out of the picture. So whilst children could flippantly and thoughtlessly repeat the names of all the countries of England and Wales, or of the countries of Europe, their capitals, chief products and names of capes and bays, scarcely anyone could tell the length or breadth, or the population of Malta. When Keenan questioned school children about the Island, they thought he was indulging in a sort of playful surprise to amuse them and they "appeard heartily and innocently to enjoy their own ludicrous guesses".[7]

This almost total ignorance of the geography of Malta was both strange and disappointing since the Second Italian Reading Book, in the first lesson after the description of the continents, contained a short but interesting account of the Maltese islands.

From an educational point of view, this neglect of the geography of Malta was the more strange at a time when Malta was an important maritime centre of the British colonial world and a vast proportion of the ships in the Grand Harbour were bound for, or returning from the British dependencies in India, China, and Australia. On their return voyages, the ships freighted the treasures of the East and the South. One would have expected the voyages of these ships to serve as excellent material of geographical instruction. Reference to Malta's role in this aspect would have rendered the study of the location and geography of Malta to Maltese children one of great attraction, relevance and practical value.

In view of the above, it is not surprising therefore that the 1865 Storks Commission of Inquiry was extremely critical about the teaching of Geography in Maltese Schools. Members of the Commission complained that in certain schools there was no trace whatsoever of geography teaching. The bad results attained by children in the schools, implied that the complete geography course, as specified in the programmes of instruction, was inserted chiefly to show what Pullicino would have wished to be taught rather than what was actually done. With this view in mind, the Commissioners recommended that "no instruction in the country Primary Schools is to be extended beyond reading, writing, spelling and the elements of arithmetic and geography".[8]

Although attempts to improve the teaching of geography continued, progress was extremely slow. In 1878 there were traces of teaching the physical geography course prescribed by Pullicino in every school, but in the unskilful hands of many teachers the well-designed course had generally degenerated into a mere system of rote leaning. Geography was taught in too detailed, factual and piecemeal a fashion for it to be effective. According to Keenan each teacher had the "same set of questions and each put his question in the same phraseology as every other teacher".[9] The pupils, it was repeated, sang out a string of identical replies. It is evident that the major aim of the teachers was to impart the geographical "where" with the neglect of the "what" and the "why".

The scope was to make children acquainted with all the different parts of the earth. Geography became a litany and catalogue of products, lists of rivers, mountains, towns and villages, which could be more satisfactorily termed "catalogue geography".

Resources

Prior to 1850, schools lacked even the most necessary and elementary equipment, and even the scanty apparatus available, was found to be in a very bad state. It was only in the Boys' Schools of Valletta and Zejtun that maps were found, and these were mainly inadequate and unsuitable to pupils' needs.[10] Pullicino, who was convinced of the need for aids to improve the teaching of geography, recommended the purchase and supply of maps and other visual aids. Maps and diagrams, printed for use in Irish Schools, were eventually introduced in Malta. These maps had clearly marked features which made them suitable for use in the Elementary schools; later, cardboard maps in relief were added. By 1878, there was a fair supply of maps in most schools, although a few had hardly any for the teaching of geography, among them.

Several attempts were made to improve the resources for the teaching of geography, among them a small collection of minerals used in physical geography.[11] At one time, Pullicino requested the National School Society of London to send him catalogues of apparata and the list of prices.[12] On another occasion he requested the colonial government for the sum of £21. 4s. 8d. to buy maps and geography books for the Valletta Primary Schools.[13]

It is not certain, however, that teachers made much use of these resources. Pullicino advised teachers that as far as possible they were to illustrate geography lessons by charts, diagrams, specimens and demonstrations. They were to end the lessons with the method already tried with success in Germany, whereby pupils, without the aid of the textbook, delineated different parts of the world on the blackboard. In spite of Pullicino's

FIFTEENTH
READING LESSON.

ON GEOGRAPHY.

If we suddenly found ourselves placed, by some circumstance,[1] in a large and noble mansion, the first desire we should feel would be to run through its various apartments, and inspect[2] as closely as we could the rich furniture, the various curiosities, and antiquities, which we might suppose it to contain: or if, some bright day in Summer, we obtained[3] admission[4] into an extensive pleasure ground, where we might see, through the openings[5] of the trees, glimpses, of beautiful gardens, of lofty hills, and foamy[1] sparkling[9] cascades,[9] we should naturally feel eager to fly[10] across the space between, and explore[11] the whole range of glade,[12] hill, and valley.

But suppose we found that the only room in the great mansion left open to us was that to which we had been admitted; or that to go over the apartments not immediately around us, would take a longer time than we had to spare; or that there was some cause which would render it dangerous for us to

1 ...   3 ġula...na   4 madħala   5 fetħat
6 fem...   7 ...ħawia   8 jeroġ...n   9 waġħét   10 natiru
11 neteħ...   12 ...ħra

penetrate[13] through the winding[14] passages[15] and galleries of the building; what should we then do? We should not be less anxious[16] to learn what the building contained; our curiosity[17] would rather be increased; and we should no doubt be pleased, if we heard that there was some one in the house who knew every thing it contained; all that had happened in it; how its rooms were furnished; what curiosities were stored[18] in its innermost[19] recesses;[20] and that this person would willingly[21] come and satisfy[22] us on whatever point we might like to question him. Suppose in the same mansion, that the pleasure-ground were far too extensive to allow of our traversing[23] them, but to a small degree; that the hills and waterfalls[24] lay[25] at a considerable distance from us; it would, no doubt, be very agreeable, if some one well acquainted with the windings of the paths, could take us to a point of rising[26] ground, whence the whole scene might be contemplated[27] with ease[28] and at leisure.

Now the world is like this magnificent mansion or these vast plantations;[29] we can see but a very small portion of it; the wonders[31] of its different climates are hidden[32] by distance. Oceans[33] and deserts[34] must be crossed,[35] if we would view with our eyes

13 nedħla   14 munħawwegin   15 treġat   16 muħewġin
17 reħba   18 maħzunin   19 el-aktar gewwenin   20 ġawdaħa-munfarida   21 b'...eda   22 ħebbaħna   23 noforġu
24 waġħet-el-ma   25 joġoħdu   26 ħalia   27 maħsuba
28 mestrāħ   29 fada   30 munħawwalèn   31 ħeginbiet   32 munħbijn   33 ehħra   34 harriet   35 mħoddijn

Ctieb tal Geografia

IL GHERF BLA MICTUB
TAL MALTIN

By Courtesy of the National Library of Malta.

A. FERRIS.

IT-TIENI KTIEB
TAL
QARI MALTI
GALL ISKEYYEL TAL GVERŃ.

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efforts, however, Keenan was not impressed by the local teachers. In 1878, he commented on the lack of good display of maps on the walls and urged teachers to refer to the outlines of Malta when introducing map reading to children.[14]

Textbooks

For many years local education relied on reading books for Maltese and English to impart geographical knowledge. Again on being appointed Director of Education, Pullicino felt that more suitable textbooks were required. He travelled wide to see what textbooks were being used abroad. His choice was eventually that of H. Reid's "Physical Geography" and a "Compendium of Geography" published by the Irish National Schools.[15] Later, Pullicino enlisted the help of two experienced local teachers, Annibale Preca and Achille Ferris to write badly needed textbooks.

The majority of the ninetheenth-century Maltese textbooks contained lessons in political and descriptive geography. The language generally used, and often the content too, appears to have been difficult for young children. Keenan reported that "At the Zebbug Boys' School and indeed at many other schools, I found that the children were quite bewildered by the hardness of the words, and the difficulty of the matter".[16] To make matters worse, the format of the textbooks was most unstimulating; consequently learning was reduced to the routine where the class as a whole was required to read a chapter, paraphrase it, add a map in illustration. As many textbooks included a list of exercises at the end of each chapter, homework or classwork was based on these.

In spite of all the difficulties and shortcomings, however, the teaching of geography in Elementary Schools was given an impetus, mainly through the efforts of Can. P. Pullicino, the Director of Education at the time.

PROGRAMMA D'ISTRUZIONE
Corso Primo

Classe Prima	Rami d'Insegnamento	Libri
Geografia	Nozioni elementari di Cosmografia Forma Movimenti del Globo col Sole. Rapporto del Globo colla Luna. con altri Astri	Physical Geography by H. Reid

Corso Secondo

Geografia.	Descrittiva. Descrizione delle parti del Globo. Esercizio di delineare mape sul Tabellone	

Corso Terzo

Geografia	Fisica. Natura delle parti del Globo. Descrizione delle Terre. Descrizione deglie Esseri viventi. Fenomeni naturali. Esercizio di delineare. Circoli della Sfera. Gradi del Globo. Mappe sulla Carta.	Physical Geography by H. Reid

Corso Quarto.

Geografia	Politica. Divisione dei Paesi. Leggi. Statistiche. Costruzione sulla carta. Mappe generali con gradi	Compendium of Geography

The geography Course prescribed by Pullicino for the Primary Schools (1852).

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pages 237-238). He however stresses the need to politicize oppositional behaviour, which, in the classroom as well as outside it in bourgeois society, has been depoliticized by hidden economic and political interests which exploit the masses (ibid. page 237). Because of these hidden interests,

> ..radical education cannot rely on existing institutions to promote emancipatory change. The power of such insitutions to set and limit the agenda for debate, the disrespect they exhibit for the oppressed,their willingness to take economic and political action against oppositional voices make them unreliable as primary insitutions for social change. Oppositional public spheres, on the other hand, provide the possibility for using collective aspirations and criticisms in the development of alternative cultures. (Giroux, 1984: page 133).

Although Giroux, in making a distinction between "schooling" (which takes place within institutions that are linked through the state through public funding or state certification requirements, embodying the legitimating ideologies of the dominant society and "education" (referring to forms of action and learning based on commitment to the elimination of class, racial, and gender oppression), seems at first glance to despair of real emancipatory possibilities in the school, he does generate some ideas and directions for a radical pedagogy. According to Giroux, theories of resistance point to ways of constructing a radical pedagogy by developing analyses of the ways in which class and culture combine to offer the outlines for a "culture politics". At the core of such a politics is a semiotic reading of the style, rituals and language, and systems of meaning that inform the cultural terrains of sub-ordinate groups. Through this process it becomes possible to analyze what counter-hegemonic elements such cultural fields contain, and how they tend to become incorporated into the dominant culture and subsequently stripped of their political possibilities (a process excellently documented by Willis' classic ethnographic study, *Learning to Labour* 1977). Implicit in such an analysis is the need to develop strategies in schools in which oppositional cultures might be rescued from the processes of incorporation in order to provide the basis for a viable political force.

Radical Pedagogy

As has already been discussed, Giroux adopts a view of theory put forward by the Frankfurt school... though he says that the first attempt to fight against the forces of domination rests with recognising them, and hence the role of critical theory in conscientising educators and students

alike, yet Giroux goes on to show the need to translate this understanding into political struggles in many sites and at a variety of levels of action. In "Rationality, Reproduction and Resistance" (Giroux 1983) the author addresses radical pedagogy to the depth psychology of personality, where "unfreedom reproduces itself in the psyche of human beings" (page 74). Alienating need structures represent one of the most crucial terrains on which to address a radical pedagogy:

> ..The question of historical genesis and transformation of needs, in my mind, constitues the most important basis for radical educational praxis. Until educators can point to the possibilities for the development of radical needs that both challenge the existing system of interest and production and point to an emancipated society, it may be exceptionally difficult to understand how schools function to incorporate people as well as what it might mean for establishing the basis for critical thinking and responsible action... without a theory of radical needs and depth psychology, educators have no way of understanding the grip and force of alienating social structures as they manifest themselves in the lived but, often, nondiscrusive aspects of every day life. (Giroux, Ibid.: page 74).

This is of course based on Marcuse's notion of depth psychology, but my reading of it seems to incorporate it with Gramsci's concern with putting the present "common-sense" reality in its totality and its historical relation. Thus, historical consciousness, as an instance of ideology critque and radical pedagogy in this perspective, functions so as to perceive the past in a way that makes the present visible as a revolutionary moment.

Giroux therefore argues that radical pedagogues would help students view their own ideologies and cultural capital as meaningful, so that they then can critically probe their strengths and weaknesses.

> ..Students cannot learn about ideology simply by being taught how meanings get socially constructed in the media and other aspects of their daily life. Working-class students also have to understand how they participate implicity in ideology through their own experiences and needs.. an essential aspect of radical pedagogy is the need for students to critically interrogate their inner histories and experiences. It is crucial for them to be able to understand how their own experiences are reinforced, contradicted and suppressed as a result of the ideologies mediated in the material and intellectual practices that characterize daily classroom life. (Giroux, 1983 [ix]: page 237).

A radical pedagogy informed by a transformative discourse is moreover not only taken up by a critical analysis of the ideology underlying the explicit and hidden curriculum, or to an exposition

of the hierarchically organised bodies of knowledge, or to the way in which this marginalizes or disqualifies working-class knowledge as well as knowledge about women and minorities. Giroux calls for an appropriation of the useful material and skills within this framework, to restructure them as part of the production of new ideologies and collective experiences. Such a transformative perspective would promote the development of texts for pedagogy which "contain interests that may promote modes of schooling based on the critical dimensions of an emancipatory ideology". (Giroux 1983 [ix]: page 160).

Applications

Giroux applies the above theoretical framework to two areas. One is an approach to citizenship education based on an emancipatory rationality perspective which retains the model of man as active, with intentionality, while socially locating him within a context which may resist, block or distort his projects (cf Giroux 1980 [ii]). Giroux redefines citizenship as a central element in the struggle for self and emancipation, and citizenship education as the theoretical lens for analyzing the depoliticization of the masses in contemporary society as well as their possible self-transformation toward a conscious and active citinzenry. A citizen should demonstrate "civic courage", a form of behaviour in which one thinks and acts as if one lived in a real democracy... a form of bravery aimed at exploding reifications, myths and prejudices.

Another area Giroux discusses in a number of aricles is literacy (cf "Mass Culture and the Rise of the New Illeteracy: Implications for Reading" [1980]: "Literacy, Ideology and the Politics of Schooling" [1983] among others), where, like Freire he goes beyond functional literacy, making it a tool to bring critical awareness to the oppressed of their situation and motivate them to act as beings in their own and overcome their state of oppression. For Giroux, "radical literacy" informs the way in which people critically and politically embrace the concept of citizenship and the task of demonstrating civic courage. Literacy in this case not only provides the tools for "reading" oneself and the world critically... it also becomes the vehicle for demonstrating that education has broader implications that creating an educated and skilled labour force. In terms of what we have discussed above, critical literacy means developing a deeper understanding of how knowledge gets produced, sustained and legitimated and most importantly, it points to forms of social action and collective struggle (cf Giroux 1984: page 132).

This theoretical framework can of course be applied to many other areas relating to the schooling process. Indeed, I am finding Giroux's work very useful in my analysis of the process of transition from school to work and "non-work" in a period of labour market contraction. One relevant direction for research in education in Malta using this perspective would be a study of education and privelege, the dynamics of which have received a lot of attention within the "new sociology" of education, and which certainly need to be discussed at this theoretical level locally.

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Issues and Events

Staff Seminars

This semester, in the series of staff seminars, two topics were discussed: students' dissertations and assessment of students' work.

Dissertations:
Objectives and Expectations

This seminar, chaired by Mr. M. Sant, was introduced by Prof. J. Falzon and Dr. G. Wettinger.

In his introduction, Prof. Falzon put in a word of caution as far as expectations go. Students are carrying out research at undergraduate level and, therefore, it is not expected of them to make original contributions to knowledge. He expects them, however, to be concise, lucid and to the point in their writing and to learn the techniques of presentation.

With regards to the objectives, the speaker stated the emphasis should be, first to train students in research methods, hence the process of research is more important than the product; and, second, to encourage students to carry out field studies rather than library work.

In Prof. Falzon's view, students come up against difficulties when it comes to choosing the field of research. Usually they go to the tutor with no idea at all of what they intend to do.

In the main, Dr. Wettinger was in agreement with what Prof. Falzon had said. He expects students, however, to be original within limits - this originality should be evident in the conclusions the student reaches or the new pathways he indicates. Furthermore, the student ought to acquire research techniques, get acquainted with research problems and obtain the necessary training in the writing of the dissertation itself.

The difficulties students face, in the speaker's opinion, emanate mainly from their immaturity, ignorance of the subject and lack of skill in decoding documents, in the case of historical research.

In the discussion which followed there was broad agreement with the views expressed by the two speakers and the following suggestions were made: First, the Faculty could identify projects beforehand which would entail research by groups of students under the supervision of one or more tutors; second, with the exception of certain research areas, like longitudinal and developmental studies is psychology, which demand a longer period of research, students should not be obliged to submit proposals for their dissertations very early in their course, so that they would have ample time to become familiar with the various areas of study.

<div style="text-align: right">J. Fenech</div>

Assessment of Student's Work

After a brief introduction by Mr. A.P. Calleja, who was chairing the seminar, the speakers, Dr. P. Vassallo and Mr. F. Ventura, addressed the following issues:

— what consituttes 'A' grade work;
— whether there should be rigid adherence to a system of grading according to a predetermined distribution;
— whether the 'B' band in the present grading system should be widened to include the Upper 'C';
— whether there is a comparable distribution of grades between subjects and within the main subject areas of study.

There was a lively discussion at the end during which members of staff gave divergent opinions about the issues addressed by the speakers.

Diploma Courses

This year, in continuation of its policy of holding diploma level courses, the Faculty started two courses, one in Educational Administration and Management and another in Guidance and Counselling. Both courses are part-time and participants are required to attend two evenings a week for two years.

The Educational Administration and Management course is intended for teachers holding or aspiring to posts of administrative responsibility in education. It aims to acquaint participants with theories and research in the behavioural sciences that are related to the study of organizations. Within the framework of current developments in educational theory and practice, it also aims to provide participants with opportunities to analyse situations and formulate strategies for administrative and management problems in education.

The course will focus on the following areas of study:

A.   Theoretical Prespectives for the study of Educational Administration.

B.   The Planning and Management of Educational Institutions.

C. Current Issues in Educational Theory and Practice.

Besides, participants, in consultation with tutors, will identify a theme, topic, issue or problem as the subject of a long essay or project to be completed during the final year of the course.

The Educational and Counselling course is open to experienced teachers and provides training in educational, vocational and personal counselling in the context of the school guidance programme. Within this framework, participants have the option to specialize in the secondary, technical or special sectors of the education system.

The course will focus on the following areas of study:

A. Psychology and Child Devlopment, Handicaps in Learning.
B. Guidance and Counselling, Special areas of Guidance.
C. Socio-Cultural Aspects of Education.
D. Measurement and Statistics: Test Construction, Record-Keeping.
E. Professional Issues.

As in the other course, participants will be required to write a long essay or project report in the final year of the course.

In both courses participants are required to sit for a final examination.

Workshop in the Mainstreamed Deaf Child

A workshop on "The Mainstreamed Deaf Child" was organised recently in the University of Malta Resource Centre under the auspices of the University of Malta Faculty of Education and the Education Department Special Education Sector.

The participants included teachers who are currently involved in teaching a hearing-impaired child in the normal classroom, peripatetic teachers of the deaf, speech therapists and a few parents of hearing-impaired schoolchildren. The workshop was directed by Dr. Marie Azzopardi, a lecturer in Phonetics and Linguistics in the Faculty of Education. Professor Charles Farrugia welcomed the participants.

During the workshop various issues were discussed. These related primarily to the specific difficulties of the mainstreamed hearing-impaired child and the teamwork necessary to facilitate the class teacher's work and ensure the child's successful integration and full development.

It is hoped that the workshop will become a regular event.

P.S. The charts seen in photograph 1. were produced by a group of hearing children as part of a school project.

NOTES ON
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