Ninth International Conference
on Textbooks and Educational Media

Peace, Democratization
and Reconciliation
in Textbooks
and Educational Media

Edited by

Mike Horsley
Jim McCall

Peace, Democratization and Reconciliation in Textbooks and Educational Media

Ninth International Conference on Research on Textbooks and Educational Media

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This volume is a research publication. It presents overviews of current research questions, and research methodologies and results.

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IARTEM

HØGSKOLEN
I VESTFOLD

Mike Horsley
Jim McCall

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Introduction

This volume presents papers which were presented during the 9th IARTEM conference on learning and educational media, held at Vestfold College, Norway in September 2007, *"Peace, democratisation and reconciliation in textbooks and educational media"*. More than eighty participants attended the conference, coming from five continents and thirty different countries. This short introduction gives an overview of the conference and volume content.

Keynote Presentations

Three keynotes papers provided in this conference volume explored research questions concerning different ways of conceptualising the role of textbooks for the purpose of promoting peace democratisation and reconciliation.

Theoretical Presentations

Four theoretical papers developed conceptual frameworks for analysing textbook and educational media. These papers provide critiques and explorations of methodological issues in textbooks and educational media research.

Workshop 1: The balance between textbooks and educational media

This workshop invited papers that reflected on the balance between textbooks and educational media. This question of balance reflected critical thinking and textbooks; language policies and textbooks; post-modern pedagogies and textbooks; technology in educational media; computerisation in the process of education; and publishing insights in the approval and production of textbooks. The papers focused on both empirical research and theoretical conceptualisations to map and analyse the balance between textbooks and educational media.

Workshop 2: The use of textbooks and educational media

This workshop invited papers focused on the use of textbooks and educational media with regard to the recipient or the reader. The papers reflected questions thematizing the relation between the text and the potential reader/-s. The papers provided papers on textbooks in special education; questioning the authority of expository texts; pupils' access to textbooks in primary schools in Ghana; comparing Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks; the use of textbooks and educational media in Madagascar; and the development of development strategies in Lithuania. The papers provide a range of empirical studies and approaches to considerations of the use of textbook and educational media and the views of readers and recipients.

Workshop 3: Approval, selection and language policy in textbooks and educational materials

This workshop provided papers exploring the processes of approval and selection of textbooks from a range of countries and publishing systems. The papers reflected aspects of approval and selection policies and the criteria for approval and selection. Papers explored teacher perceptions of printed materials in Puerto Rico; English language textbooks in Norway and Palestine; textbook evaluation in education reform projects in the former Soviet Union; processes of textbook selection by primary school teachers; textbook evaluation selection criteria in Hungary; criteria for textbook evaluation and selection in Serbia; and quality improvement in Japanese school textbooks.

Workshop 4: Learning from texts and images in textbooks and educational media

This workshop provided papers considering the role of textbooks and educational media in facilitating learning. The papers considered important features of textbooks and educational media and the way that learning from textbooks and teaching and learning resources occurs. Papers explored geographical concepts in Geography textbooks; history metaphors in Norwegian social science textbooks; possibilities and limitations of using ICT teaching materials in Korea; learning from music videos; peace education in Israeli and Palestinian textbooks; problem solving environments in mathematics; physics lessons and science textbooks; textbooks and teacher education; illustrations in geography textbooks; and comparing paper and electronic versions of textbooks. The papers provide theoretical as well as empirical approaches to the affordances and constraints that textbooks play in promoting learning.

Some concluding remarks

Textbooks and educational media play a critical role in supporting learning and promoting high quality teaching. International student achievement evaluations such as TIMSS 2007 and the surveys students and teachers complete as part of these evaluations continue to show that teaching and learning materials, such as textbooks, continue to play a prominent role in classroom teaching and learning. This reinforces the role of textbook and educational media research.

This conference volume from the ninth IARTEM international conference provides a wide overview of current research questions, methodologies and results.

IARTEM's biennial international conferences offer a significant opportunity to exchange points of view from different perspectives and different countries, keeping in mind that education reflects many cultural and contextual features.

We hope this volume, taking into account the diversity and the quality of the different contributions, constitutes a major source book for research on textbook and educational media.

The following step is the next IARTEM conference in Santiago De Compostela in 2009.

Mike Horsley and Jim McCall
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List of Authors

Aamotsbakken Bente
Vestfold University College
bente.aamotsbakken@hive.no

Al-Badarin Mu'men
University of Bethlehem
mumenb@bethlehem.edu

Askeland Norunn
Vestfold University College
norunn.askeland@hive.no

Balčiūnienė Inga
Šiauliai University
balciuniene.inga@gmail.com

Dimopoulos Kostas
University of Peloponnese
koulaidi@uop.gr

Djurovic Arsen
University of Belgrade
arsendj@ptt.yu

Horsley Mike
Central Queensland University
m.horsley@cqu.edu.au

Knecht Petr
Masaryk University
knecht@posta.ped.muni.cz

Knudsen Susanne V.
Vestfold University College
susanne.knudsen@hive.no

Kojanitz László
Institute of Textbook Research
kojanitz@tankonyvkutato.hu

Koulaidis Vasilis
University of Peloponnese
koulaidi@uop.gr

Lorentzen Svein
University of Trondheim
svein.lorentzen@plu.ntnv.no

Lucas Nadine
GREYC CNRS Université de Caen
nadine@info.unicaen.fr

Lund Ragnhild
Vestfold College
ragnhold.lund@hive.no

Maagero Eva
Vestfold College
eva.maagero@hive.no

Mažeikienė Natalija
Vytautas Magnus University
n.mazeikiene@adm.vdu.lt

McCall James
University of Stirling
pubstudies@aol.com

Mohammed Jeniffer
University of the West Indies
jeniffer.mohammed@sta.uwi.edu

Naseem Muhammad Ayaz
Concordia University
manaseem@education.concordia.ca

Norlund Anita
Gothenburg University
anita.norlund@utb.boras.se

Opoku-Amankwa Kwasi
Kwame Nkrumah University of
Science and Technology
kopokuamankwa@googlemail.com

Oxfeldt Elizabeth
Vestfold College
elizabeth.oxfeldt@hive.no

Pogelschek Barbara
VERITAS
b.pogelschek@veritas.at

Ravelonanahary Micheline
DISREB, Madagascar
raked@wanadoo.mg

Reichenberg Monica
Göteborg University
monica.reichenberg@ped.gu.se

Rodriguez Montserrat Castro
CEIP Serra de Outes
hecasrod@ucs.es

Rodriguez Rodriguez Jesús
University of Santiago de Compostela
dojesus@usc.es

Selander Staffan
Stockholm University
staffan.selander@did.su.se

Šaparnienė Diana
Šiauliai University
diana@osf.su.lt

Šaparnis Gintaras
Šiauliai University
saparnis@cr.su.lt

Sikorova Zuzana
University of Ostrava
zuzana.sikorova@osu.cz

Tamošiūnas Teodoras
Šiauliai University
teo@smf.su.lt

Zapico Barbeito Helena
University of Santiago de Compostela
helenazb@usc.es

Zoughby Khader
University of Bethlehem
zoughby@bethlehem.edu

KEYNOTE PRESENTATIONS

Designs of democracy in contemporary learning resources

Staffan Selander

Introduction

The question of democracy in contemporary learning resources is a crucial question, not only for regions and states involved in war activities or for the relation between different religious, sexual or political groups, where "the Other" often is marginalized and the enemy is described as children of the devil, but also for continents which, like the European Union, try to establish long-lasting and friendly relations between people, regions and nations. Learning as a democratic enterprise will here be seen from a didactic and design-theoretic perspective, which highlights the importance of understanding multimodality in learning resources and its consequences for teaching, communication and learning. The perspective also puts forward learning as activities of "sequencing" information and "transforming" this information to "representations". The concept "design" entails different aspects: Learning resources are "sequenced" and teaching activities are about "sequencing" learning tasks. But also the learner is "sequencing" his or her own learning paths. This theoretic perspective will be related to a model called "Learning Design Sequences". However, learning shall not be understood merely as a technical process. A deeper understanding of learning relates to meaning-making and to the construction of different identities.

The question of democracy in school contexts – and in pedagogic texts

Even though everyone seems to agree upon the necessity of democratic education, its scope is varied. I will discuss democracy here both in terms of "knowledge of" and in terms of "agency", involvement and action space.

Democracy is one of the oldest political systems, stemming from Greece. However, much of this democratic system would probably not be acknowledged as democracy today: democracy as a privilege for men from the upper classes, depending on a system of slaves as labour force (even though slaves could earn money and purchase their freedom). The re-awakening of the democratic, political system is related to the birth of Nations during the 18th century thanks to the French Revolution – "Freedom, Equality and Brotherhood" – as well as to the American Revolution and the Act of Freedom. The establishing and political-cultural strengthening of new national states during the 19th century – not the least through new symbolic uses of the flag, a new poll system with one vote per person, a National school system, a National history etc. – made democracy become important and, at the same time, linked to a new capitalistic, not to say imperialistic, economic system. This development has taken place by way of different cycles, not necessarily following the same steps (as has been analyzed by Lorentzen, in press). A national identity and national borders are not given, they vary over time, and as a consequence what is called smuggling or trade, immigrants or citizens, varies as well. In Europe today we can see the awakening of a new nationalism in former Eastern (now Central) Europe, and at the same time

discussions are taking place to strengthen regions on behalf of Nations. And, for a new generation, a slogan could be "Alienation is my nation", meaning that "I find my mates wherever I am" (Sernhede, 2007).

Democracy as process or as a structure

A historical perspective of democracy underlines the role of processes and change (conflicts, power, legitimacy, etc.) in understanding human interaction and social systems. However, to see democracy as a process of constant change is but one view of democracy. Another view puts forward democracy as something given, self-evident, a natural structure. That is to say: nature explains human interaction and social systems. In schools textbooks these views might not be clearly stated, but can be understood as an underlying, explanative pattern. For example, a historical comparison between democracy in German and Swedish upper secondary schools from the 1960s to the 1990s shows that democracy in German textbooks is debated and tested, whilst Swedish textbooks to a much larger degree see democracy as something given and natural (Bronäs, 2000).

Definitions of democracy

Definitions of democracy vary a lot depending on ideological positioning. Liberals see individual freedom as a key term for democracy; social-democratic views highlight the role of solidarity and equality. Liberals wants to minimize the role of the national state, but social-democrats want to strengthen it (at least until Blair in England).

Most definitions of democracy involve representative political (parliamentary) systems, a set of "freedoms" like the freedom to meet, to talk, to discuss and criticize authorities, free elections and so forth. Other systems are organized differently, like dictatorship and oligarchy. A crucial point in democratic systems is "justice" - that every man and woman, notwithstanding education and social ranking, in principle shall have the same rights, and as important, national states shall not humiliate its citizens (Margalit, 1998).

Not the least, parliamentary systems are seen as a key institution. We can notice that foreign aid in African countries is often related to free elections and majority decisions. This is not an unproblematic view in countries where one ethnic group always is in majority, and kinship and tribal relations are as important as social bonds by way of economic agreements in Western countries.

Agency

One aspect of democracy in schools is the right "to know" all this, and to be able to explain foundational aspects of rights and plights in a plural society. But another aspect, and as important, is to see the question of democracy in education as an action space, as a potentiality to act and take part in social processes in daily life. This micro-level democracy is, as I see it, as important as the possibility to vote in free elections every third to fifth year or so. Agency in this context means, for example,

the possibility to take part in decisions concerning school work, the right to establish local councils of pupils and rhetoric training for public argumentation.

Learning and Designs for learning

"Learning" as a concept is as multiple as is "democracy". We are not talking about simple objects but about complex, social relations and regulations. Also in the case of "learning" we can talk about many attempts to define a complex phenomenon, in this case as: behaviour, identity construction, skills, memory capacity, and understanding. Whatever our basic view is of these phenomenon, from an analytical point it might seem more fruitful to investigate how these concepts are used, and by whom, in a social and historical context.

In this article, I will put forward an understanding of learning as an aspect of communication and meaning-making, where the learner is using different kinds of modes and media to orient him- or herself in the world. The uses of semiotic resources are here seen as crucial in the learning process. Different modes (words, gestures, tones, lines, colours, etc.) and different media (books, radio, computers, iPods, etc.) are resources to use in a meaning-making process; firstly, to try to orient oneself in a rhizomatic structure of signs; secondly, to transform and try out different kinds of meaning and frame the information in meaningful units; thirdly, to transform this information in a process of sign-making; and fourthly, to create a new representation by way of framing and re-configuring information-flows into meaningful units.

Designs for learning focus sign making and choices (environment, resources, representations, etc.) and its consequences in an institutional (formal or semi-formal) setting. One could say that knowledge is a capacity to engage in the world in a meaningful way, and consequently, learning is then seen as an *increased* capacity to engage in the world in a meaningful way. More precisely, if knowledge is seen as a capacity to use signs as meaningful resources in communicative situations (for example, both carpenters and writers use signs), then learning is seen as an *increased* capacity to use signs as meaningful resources.

A pedagogic text is, in this sense, a semiotic resource for learning. My argument will be that the way different semiotic resources are presented influences what is called knowledge in a school context. The way textbooks or other media present "knowledge", the way the teacher talks about a subject area, is the most crucial factor for understanding "new knowledge" from the learner's point of view. "Knowledge" is constructed by way multimodal resources and includes specific communicative metafunctions.

Multimodal designs of pedagogic texts

Different text genres do different things. A *narrative* works with time-lines, places, persons and conflicts. Typical expressions are "had", "did", "took place". *Explanatory* texts are indirect, structured, distanced and objectifying. Here authors use "is" and "has/have" to describe, explain or define a phenomenon. *Persuasive* texts are much

more oriented towards language like "should" or "ought to", whilst *instructive* genres are direct and directive in terms of an order or a suggestion and often use step-by-step instructions (Selander & van Leeuwen, 1999). The kind of verbal and pictorial expressions underline what kinds of outcomes (a narrative, an explanation, a new attitude or a new skill) that are expected after the student's engagement with the text.

Kress & van Leeuwen (2006) have suggested that different modes give clues to reading paths, to what is seen as centre or periphery, what is taken for granted and what is seen as new, what is ideal or real, etc. Also proportions, colours, and shadows are for example "reality markers" or markers of "objective scientific view". Verbal and pictorial texts do not necessarily give the same kind of information. A lay-out could thus be understood as a semiotic ensemble of meaning potentials.

Semiotic resources are starting points for orientation and engagement ("prompts"), but the institutional framing also suggests how the texts should be used and how the outcome will be assessed. This can for example be seen in the types of questions that are added to texts:

- **Memory questions:**
  Explain the words a) free election… c) parliament

- **Creative questions:**
  Make your own three questions and present them for the others.
  Construct an argument for/against free immigration!

- **Metareflective questions:**
  What did you know about this subject before? What is new? What will you remember in the future?

Meta-levels in texts

One way to organize an analytical approach to communication, or texts in a broader sense, is to use Haliday's three meta-functions (Jewitt & Oyama, 2001; Kress, 2003) even though they do not capture *all* communicative aspects (van Leeuwen, 2005). Still another view is proposed by Selander (2008a), suggesting a fourth, didactic, meta-function concerning the institutional framing, in order to understand how the other three operate. In relation to pedagogic texts, these meta-functions are:

- The didactic meta function: Pedagogic texts are coherent with learning practices and norms/routines for testing

- The ideational meta function: Pedagogic texts represent those aspects of the world worth knowing (ideology; established knowledge domains);

- The textual meta function: Pedagogic texts are coherent with existing text practices;

- The interpersonal meta function: Pedagogic texts construct a situated and specific kind of learner.

Learning Design Sequences

The concept of "designs for learning" highlights the material and temporal conditions for learning as well as the learning activity itself. The use of modes and media in processes of interpretation and identity construction is here central for the understanding of learning activities.

"Designed information and teaching sequences" is a concept that captures the world of prefabricated learning resources, formalized work and strict timetables (lessons). The role of the teacher is to "bring" knowledge to the student, and the student's role is to remember by heart and to learn specific skills. However, the amount of information makes it almost impossible today to enforce narrow standards for what knowledge is about. The ability to search, select and critically evaluate information, as well as the ability to present information, is of importance today. Remembering by heart is no longer the only aspect of being educated.

"Learning Design Sequences" (LDS) is a theoretical map for the purpose of analyzing critical incidents in (a creative) learning process, in a process of meaning-making. This model enhances the process from 1) a defined setting, like in an exhibition, or a teacher's (or a computer program's) setting of a "scene" in a formal learning process, through 2) the transformation of signs to the making or forming of 3) a representation.

The process, here characterized as the transformation and formation of signs, is in the school context embedded in institutional, formalized horizons of expectations and regulations, with formative and summative assessment procedures and with a clear goal to produce new representations (essays, power point presentations or tests). This Primary Transformation Unit is followed by a Secondary Transformation Unit, where students are expected to present their understanding and reflect on both the process and the outcome (the representation). This is where the product finally is assessed.

A sequence starts when the teacher introduces a new task and sets the conditions for the work. The Primary Transformation Unit then entails the interpretation of the task and the setting, and the process of transformation and formation of knowledge – by way of different modes and media. The Secondary Transformation Unit starts with students presenting their work. If the goals, as well as the expectations of the process and the product, are clearly defined and explained in the beginning, both students and teachers will have a powerful tool for reflection and evaluation. During the whole sequence, teachers make interventions and have the possibility to reflect on the signs and indications of learning that occur during the process.

Formal - LEARNING DESIGN SEQUENCE
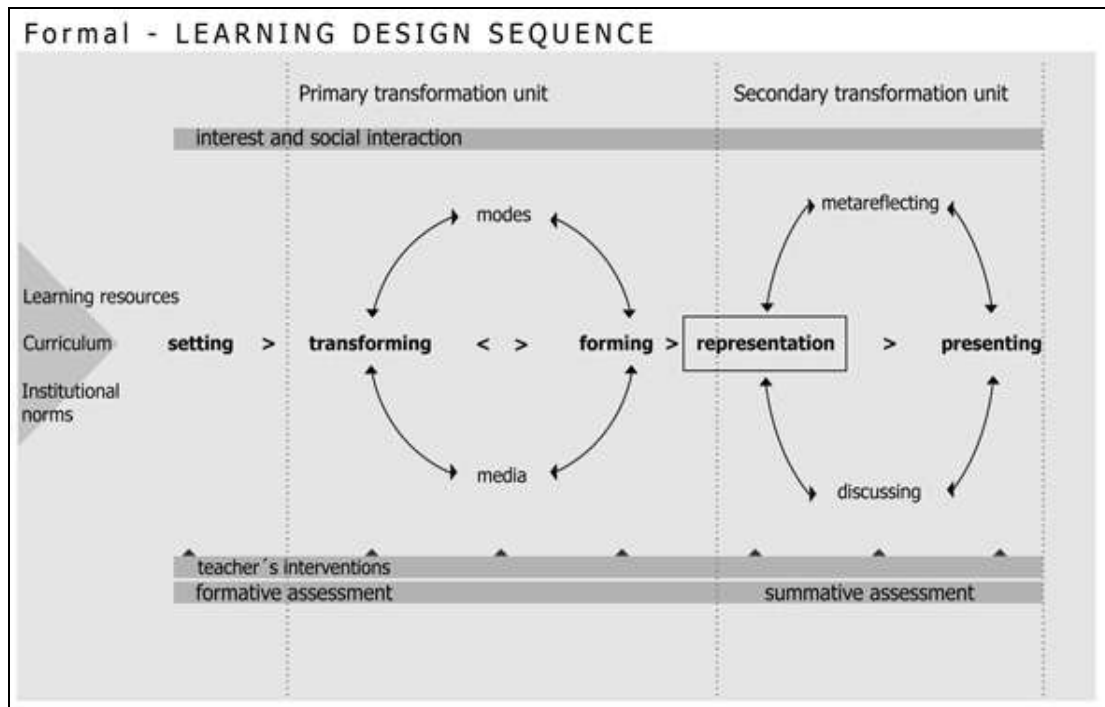
Empirical examples

I would like to give a few examples to illustrate the theoretical approach I have outlined above. First, let us think over the narrative history textbook (Picture 1, Castrén et. al. 2000) as compared to the biology textbook (Picture 2, Rökö et. al. 2000). In the first book, knowledge is presented as narrative, both verbally and in its illustration. The crucial questions in a school context are: What are the students expected to do? And how shall they represent their increased knowledge? First of all, they have to read the story, and they can have a look on the illustration, which seems to give the same narrative albeit in another mode. Students can learn to underline important words or facts, and they will probably show their learning by retelling the story. In the classroom work, the teacher can, for example, enforce discussions; he or she can relate the story to historical events. This narrative can also be related to political structures and be compared to what happened after this period in time, even though this specific example does not explicitly say anything about it.

Picture 1

Picture 2
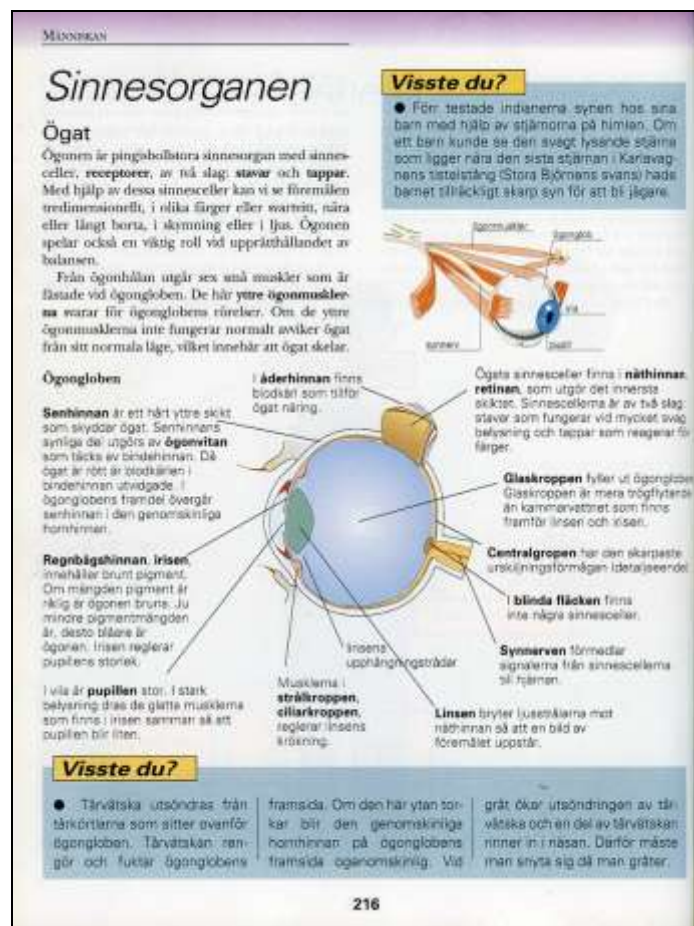
The second example about the eye, the information in the pictorial elements is as important as in the verbal elements. Information is build up as integrated units, and the students have to work multimodally to be able to show their understanding and knowledge about the eye. In other words, they will be trained not only to talk and write, but also to illustrate by way of colours, areas, what should be placed in the centre and in the margin, etc.

There is nothing definitive about these ways of presenting information. In history textbooks from the 1940s narratives were placed as verbal elements and facts as pictorial elements. In textbooks from the 1970s this was reversed: narratives were placed in the pictorial elements and facts in the verbal. The configuration of semiotic resources is depending on "educational style" (institutional/didactic meta-level) as part of educational politics, but of course also developments in printing techniques, lay-out, etc. (textual meta-level). How the students are expected to interact, and how they actually do interact, with the texts (interpersonal meta-levels) and represent their understanding, which will be assessed in relation to knowledge-standards (ideational meta-level), can then be shown by way of using the model Learning Design Sequences (LDS), where the different actions during a period of time are studied and analyzed. The LDS-model also give clues to learning paths that are beside the rationally expected learning routes, and can thus give us a deeper understanding of learning processes in relation to expected levels of subject-knowledge.

Picture 3
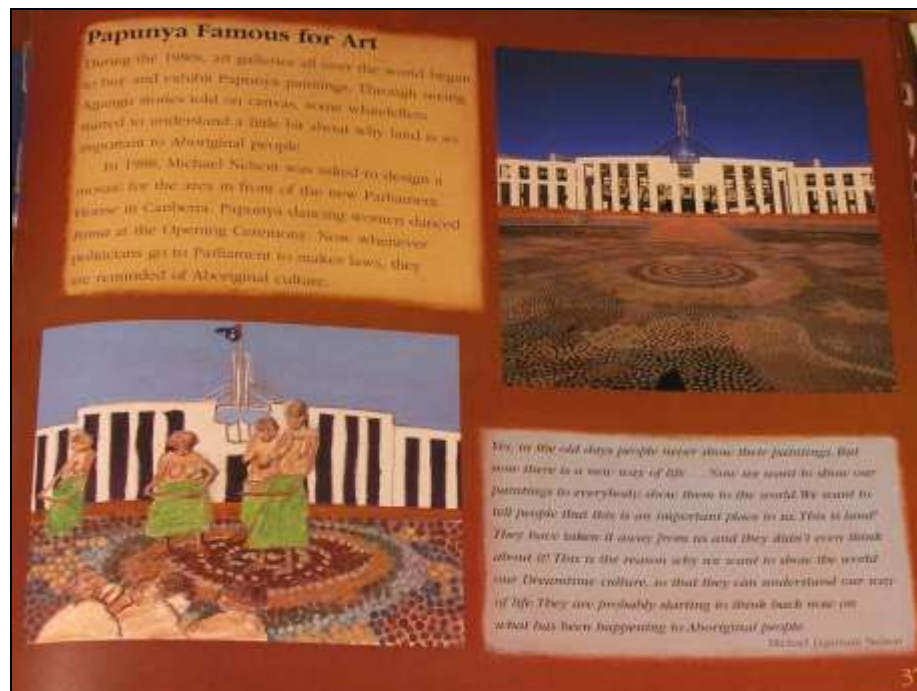
Finally, we shall look at an example from the first aboriginal history textbook in Australia (*Papunya Schoolbook of Country and History*, 2003). Here, the modes differ from Nordic textbooks both in terms of colour and the way the space is used and in terms of lay-out. Even if the school context is the same as for traditional Western textbooks (institutional/didactic meta-level), the ideational and textual meta-levels differ a lot. This textbook relates to aboriginal heritage, narratives and ways of using words and illustrations. Even if it is not clear from the book alone how it is supposed to be used (interpersonal meta-level), the resources given in the book open a space for more aboriginal-oriented transformations and representations than do traditional Western history textbooks. History in this case is as much about identity formation as

about historical facts. Perhaps it has always been like that, but in this case "the Other" makes that very obvious.

Conclusions

I have argued for a triple perspective in understanding the role of textbooks in education. Firstly: the importance of understanding how pedagogic texts and other learning resources are structured, how information is multi-modally represented. Secondly: I have put forward the role of the teachers' design of the learning environment (framing), time allocation (sequencing) and the organisation of classroom talk. Thirdly: I have underlined the importance of understanding the learner's own design of his or her learning process, to understand how information is transformed into a new understanding, a new representation.

We live in a period of time when a) school is under pressure, new de-contextualized standards are established, mainly for the possibility to make international comparisons, and new pressure is put on teachers' work. On the other hand, we also live in a society with b) new demands on future labour force and citizens, global migration, IT-technology and new communicative patterns. The a)-oriented politician often talks about the necessity of going back to "good old schooling", whilst b)-oriented citizens talk about the necessity to establish new communicative patterns also in the school context.

How this tension will be handled is problematic. But what seems to be the case is that future pedagogic texts and learning resources have to be both structured and multi-levelled and flexible, both relevant in a school context and for the individual learner in terms of personal connectedness, identity formation and social action space with space also for playability and aesthetics.

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Texts of War/Texts of Peace: Dismantling Violence and Constructing Peace in Textbooks and Educational Media

Muhammad Ayaz Naseem

Introduction

In this paper, I take my cue from the UNESCO maxim that reads, "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed". My central argument is that in order to construct the defences of peace in minds of people it is imperative to first deconstruct or dismantle the constructs of war from these minds. One of the most likely places where such an exercise can begin is the site of the textbooks, curricula and educational media as these are the very sites where war and violence is constructed and inculcated into young minds. These are also natural sites for the construction of defences of peace as inherent in them is space for agency from where resistance to war and violence can be mounted.

I have organized my paper in three parts. First, I discuss some key developments in textbook research internationally. In the second part, I briefly explain how war and militarism are constructed by the educational discourses through curricula and textbooks. In this respect, I take textual and discursive date from Pakistan to illustrate my arguments. Finally, I discuss how agency and peace is and can be constructed in and by educational media such as the World Wide Web.

Textbook Research: The State of the Field

Historically, there have been two main motivations that have driven the agenda of research on curricula and textbooks. Broadly, these motivations are: avoidance of conflict and the desire for peace on the one hand and quest for social equity and justice on the other. Research related to the first motivation has resulted in a body of literature that explores the possibilities of international or inter-state peace while the second motivation has resulted in research that has a more domestic focus. In the research on textbooks, curricula and other educational materials the first trend is more visible in research conducted in Europe especially in the post World War II period, while the second motivation is more intrinsic to textbook research in North America (with the exception of studies like the US/USSR textbook study from 1978 to 1989). In the developing world textbook research is still at a rudimentary stage and focuses on international and inter-state peace building. Perhaps the most number of studies in the developing world are in the context of analyzing the Palestinian-Israeli conflict. There is a scattering of studies in the African and East Asian contexts and precious few in the South Asian context. Initiative and impetus for textbook research has mainly come from multilateral agencies such as the UNESCO and the Council of Europe and national governments in the industrialized democracies. Methodological advances in the field of textbook research have largely mirrored those in the main disciplines of the social sciences. However, broadly speaking research on textbooks has been conducted from four main methodological orientations. These are: quantitative, qualitative, hermeneutics, discourse analysis.

Peace Education and Textbook Research: New Directions

Despite many impressive strides and advances in the field of textbook analysis, it still remains on the margins of mainstream research on peace building, peace education and peace studies. The need to bring textbook analysis to the mainstream of peace research can no longer be ignored.

There are a number of important changes in the last 50 years because of which it has become important to take into cognizance the importance of the field and also newer directions in textbook research. Broadly, these changes can be located at three levels: On one level, there has been a significant shift in both the number and the nature of violent conflicts both within and between nations and societies. Since the end of the Second World War, there has been an exponential increase in the number of violent conflicts. Similarly, the nature of violence has also changed. It will not be too far fetched to say that the change has been graphic. The incidents of the use of rape, mutilation, abduction of children with intent to use them as soldiers and human weapons, are few examples of this graphic change. There have been more incidents of genocide in the last 50 years than at any other time in history. These factors call for a renewed effort for textbook research for the purpose of peace building and reconciliation through education.

On the second level the availability of newer educational media through Information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as the internet calls for widening the epistemological as well as methodological scope of textbook research in order to explore the possibilities of peace building. While textbooks are still pretty much under the control of the state especially in the developing world the emergence of the World Wide Web as a space for agency has changed the dynamics of what can be taught to the pupil-citizens.

On the third level, the advances in social science inquiry, especially the qualitative advances, have opened up newer vistas from where to explore new directions in textbook research. These include but are not limited to methods developed by critical ethnography, feminism, post-structuralist theory, critical discourse analysis, etc.

Textbook analysis has always been a hybrid field of inquiry. Now it is even more so as it prepares to cross and bridge the methodological as well as the medium divides. Newer frameworks of analysis show ways in which the quantitative and qualitative methods can be used in a complimentary fashion to gain a more meaningful understanding of what is being taught and for what purpose, without sacrificing the depth of the qualitative analysis or the veracity of the quantitative analysis.

The new directions in textbook analysis call for a research agenda that is deconstructive and affirming at the same time. In the former sense, research should be geared towards deconstruction of texts that are designed to inculcate violent messages and militaristic value systems. In the latter sense research should aim to find, create and affirm the spaces for agency and resistance; spaces from which defences of peace could be built.

Background of Conflict and Violence in South Asia

South Asia is one of the most populous as well as volatile regions in the world. This region is also home to two nuclear powers, namely India and Pakistan, which, in the last 60 years have gone to war with each other three times and have returned from the brink of armed conflict on a number of occasions. More than a billion people in South Asia have been living under the shadow of war for the last 60 years and that of a nuclear war since mid 1990s. While the rival states, especially India and Pakistan spend billions of dollars to remain in a state of war preparedness a large majority of this population lives below the poverty line. Peace initiatives between the two countries have always been short lived and mutual perceptions of hostility, deceit, mistrust and enmity define the relationship between these two countries and their populations. Politicians have made promises of 1,000 years of wars (Pakistan's Z. A. Bhutto in 1970) and telling defeats (India's L. K. Advani in 2004). Lately, India and Pakistan have finally embarked on a path of détente and peace. Yet there is scepticism and even resistance in large segments of both countries' populations to the latest peace process.

There are many causes of distrust among the politicians and the people of India and Pakistan towards each other. Some of these causes such as the dynamics of the partition of India in 1947 and the resultant bloodbath, geo-political and geo-strategic dynamics of the region, the realpolitik and the dynamics of the Cold War have been amply researched. However, one of the major causes of the distrust that has received scant attention from researchers and scholars is the use of education by the rival states in first sowing and then nurturing the seeds of mistrust. The education discourses in India and Pakistan are a major site where the construction of the 'other' takes place. The constraints of time and space do not allow for a detailed comparative exploration of this process in this paper. However, let me take some examples from Pakistani curricular documents and textbooks pertaining to the teaching of Urdu and social studies to show how this 'othering' is conducted and how it contributes to the construction of distrust, enmity, violence and war.

Textbooks and Curricula in Pakistan

In Pakistan, there is a state monopoly over the production of textbooks for public sector schools. While education is constitutionally a provincial responsibility, it is placed on a list of concurrent subjects where the Federal Government provides curricular direction. The prescribed textbooks are developed based on curricula approved by the Curriculum Section of Pakistan's Federal Ministry of Education. These books are often badly designed and badly produced by approved publishers who have no input in the content of the textbooks. The quality of research leaves much to be desired. The data are inaccurate and editorial mistakes abound (Aziz, 1993). Of the two subjects examined for this research Urdu is a compulsory subject that is taught at all levels starting in class 1, while Social Studies is also a compulsory subject that starts at the level of class 3. Prior to 1958 the curricula contained separate subjects of history, geography and civics. However, the military regime of Ayub Khan abolished history as a subject and introduced a new subject by the name of 'Muasharati Uloom' or Social Studies (for classes 3-8) and another subject by the name of Mutala Pakistan or Pakistan Studies for classes 9-12 (Aziz, 1993). Both these

subjects are an amalgam of history, economics, civics and social studies (Aziz, 1993). The combination of history, geography and civics into one subject amounts to a fusing of time, space and the relations between citizens and the state into one subject of study through which knowledge is to be imparted to the students. In the following space I will briefly illustrate how the language (Urdu) and the Social Studies text in Pakistani public schools construct the 'other', both domestically and in relation to India and how these texts construct militaristic tendencies and mindsets.

Construction of the 'Other'

I draw upon the feminist articulations of the 'other' to understand the notion and process of 'othering'. As Beauvoir articulated, men, in order to have a complete notion of the male self, needed an 'other' who was everything that the male self was not. This other was the woman. Thus, binaries such as rational/emotional, public/private were created where the first element is good, better, superior, rational, privileged - in other words the 'self' - and the second bad, worse than, inferior, irrational - in other words, the 'other'. A similar process can be noticed in the case of nations in conflict. In order to complete the national 'self' an 'other' is constructed through meaning fixation that involves ascribing certain values to certain signs (notions, words, symbols, concepts), the privileging of certain signs by ascribing to them superior meanings, creation of the 'other' using binaries (e.g. male-female, nation-enemy binary etc.).

The educational discourse in Pakistan constructs and demonizes India/Hindu as the 'other'. It is in relation to this 'other' that the national Pakistani self is articulated and understood. According to the master narrative constructed by the educational discourse through textbooks, the Indian/Hindu other is hell bent on destroying the existence of Pakistan, primarily by military means. Thus, there is an inevitability of war. The 'other' cannot be trusted (thus, any peace initiative must be viewed with scepticism and suspicion) and must be countered (thus the need to be in a constant state of military preparedness).

Students (or pupil-citizens) are exposed to such messages and meaning making from a very early age. As they grow up and move through their educational careers, the educational discourse exacerbates and intensifies the militaristic meaning making. As a result, when these pupil-citizens enter their practical life they have deeply ingrained images of the rival states and their populations as the 'other' or the enemy. Such images make these pupil-citizens overly suspicious of the intentions of the rival states while also rendering them sceptical about the confidence building and peace initiatives and thus about the prospects for peace.

Construction of the 'Other': Some Illustrations from the Curriculum Documents

Let me briefly illustrate this point by taking some examples from the curriculum documents (hereafter CD) issued by the National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks, Ministry of Education from 1995 to 2002. According to the learning objectives prescribed by these CDs, the child should be able to understand that Hindu

Muslim differences (in combined India) and that the need for a separate homeland was necessitated because of these differences (CD for Classes K-V: 1995). Other learning objectives prescribed by the CDs include identification of events that testify Hindu-Muslim differences, identification of India's evil designs against Pakistan through the three wars between India and Pakistan, identification of India as the aggressor in each of the three wars, and understanding of the forces working against Pakistan.

The textbooks respond to these learning objectives in the following way: A Class 5 Urdu textbook (2002), for example states that, "Hindu has always been the enemy". This reinforces the message contained in the Urdu textbook for Class 4 (2002), which wants the students to understand that the Indians/Hindus are scheming and conniving people. A Class 4 Social Studies textbook (2002) tells the students that it is the Hindu religion that makes them so as it does not teach them 'good things'. The textbooks also inform the students that it was India that conspired with the Hindus of East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) in order to dismember Pakistan in 1971 (Social Studies, Class 5, 2002)[1]. Similarly, learning competencies that the CD for Social Studies for classes 1-5 (GoP, 2002d) seeks to develop include: developing an understanding of Hindu-Muslim differences and the need for Pakistan; enhancing the understanding of the forces working against Pakistan; promoting realization about the Kashmir issue; evaluating of the role of India with reference to aggression; and discussing of the role of the present government in re-establishing the sound position of Pakistan and its freedom fighters before the international community (p.31). In sum, the educational discourse seeks to normalize the Hindu-Muslim binary, the normalcy of war between India and Pakistan, the notion of Jihad and the normalcy of the state as the ultimate protector. In other words, the texts normalize militarism.

Texts of War: Discursive Constitution of Nationalism and War in Textbooks

The educational discourse in Pakistan constitutes nationalism, militarism and war by means of what is included and excluded from the textbooks. Then, the nationalism, militarism and war are normalized through religious notions. In terms of inclusion, the textbooks are replete with stories, essays, poems etc. about military battles from the early Islamic history, wars between India and Pakistan, military heroes and other related figures[2]. At times 50-60% of the content deals with nationalist subjects (Aziz 1993).

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[1] These are only few of the examples. The textbooks are replete with them. I have dealt with them in detail elsewhere. See for example, Naseem, M. A. (2006). The Soldier and the Seductress: A Post-structuralist Analysis of Gendered Citizenship through Inclusion in and Exclusion from Language and Social Studies Textbooks in Pakistan. *International Journal of Inclusive Education.* vol. 10, nos. 4&5, July-September: 449-468.

[2] Captain Mohammad Sarwar: Urdu for Class 3 (Punjab Board), Lance Naik, Mohammad Mahfooz—Urdu- for Class 3 (GP, 2002) Rashid Minhas—Urdu-4, Sawar Mohammad Hussain—Urdu-5, Major Tufail—Urdu-6, Sarwar Shaheed and Lance Naik Lal Hussain—Urdu-7. In the textbook for Urdu for class 8, all those who received the military award are discussed in one essay. Other than the ones listed above the list includes Major Raja Aziz Bhatti, Major Mohammad Akram, Major Shabbir Sharif, Hawaldar Lalak Jahan, Captain Colonel Sher Khan. It is interesting to note the name of the last mentioned. The second word in the name colonel does not designate his rank but is his middle name. This is a common tradition in some areas of Pakistan from where traditionally men are recruited for the

There are two major types of exclusion: one, prominent Pakistanis other than the military heroes and the leaders of the nationalist movement are excluded from the educational discourse. There are no scientists, artists, social workers, journalists or statesmen who are deemed worthy of inclusion in the texts: Not even the Nobel Laureate Abdus Salam or the acclaimed social worker Abdul Sattar Edhi (considered to be the Mother Theresa of Pakistan) are mentioned in any textbook. Secondly, all minorities, religious, linguistic or ethnic and women are also excluded from the texts.

In addition to the first construction that of Indian/Hindu as the conniving other hell bent on undoing the existence of Pakistan the second major construction is that the military is the most important institution in the country; military heroes are the only heroes; Jihad is the most important religious duty and activity; and since all of them have a religious sanction that none of them can or should be questioned.

Militarized Citizenship through a Gendered Totalization of Time

Educational discourses and textbooks in most societies purport to inculcate and foster a sense of nationalism in students. However, the educational discourse in Pakistan constitutes nationalism and nationalist subjectivities in a unique manner. At the heart of such constitution is the creation of xenophobia. While this xenophobia does bring in some measure of cohesion, the resultant bonding is stronger against the real or perceived enemy abroad but internally the bonding among the citizens is weak. One of the ways in which the educational discourse and the texts accomplish this is by making the time boundaries fluid. For example, a Social Studies text from 2002 (PTB, 2002k, p.13) states:

> Before Islam, people lived in untold misery all over the world. Those who ruled over the people lived in luxury and were forgetful of the welfare of their people. People believed in superstitions... and worshipped false gods. In Iran and Iraq people worshipped the sun also. In South-Asian region the Brahmans ruled over the destinies of the people. They believed that certain human beings were untouchable. There was an all powerful caste-system. The untouchables lived worse than animals. Human beings were sacrificed at alters of false gods.

First by marking and then by collating the boundaries of time, this span of one thousand years, i.e. between the advent of Islam in Arabia and its advent in India, is totalized as one period. Such a construction of time also then portrays Muslims as saviours who salvaged the people of Arabia and India from the dark ages. At the same time the people of pre-Islamic Arabia and Hindus are also collated as one and the same.

In other words, in the textual representation, Hindus virtually become an extension of the Quraish of Makkah (a tribe opposed to Prophet Muhammad in sixth century A.D.) despite a span of more than one thousand years between them. In the same way, Indian and Pakistani Muslims become an extension of early 6th century Muslims who after being oppressed by the 'infidels', rose up and fought back and eventually not

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Armed forces to name sons after ranks or attributes such as Bahadar (brave), Shaheed (martyr), Ghazi (victorious), Mujahid (Islamic fighter) etc. This is one example of the normalcy of militarism.

only won but also salvaged these civilizations. The Indian Muslims' quest for a homeland becomes an extension of the Hijra (Prophet Muhammad's migration from Makkah to Madina) and Pakistan itself an extension of Madina; the first city-state of Islam.

Texts of War: Discursive Constitution of Nationalism and War in Textbooks: Some illustrations

Shahadat and Jihad: Normalizing War:
There are five essential pre-conditions for being a Muslim: Faith, prayer, fasting, charity and Hajj: Jihad is not one of them. Secondly, as laid down in the scriptures Jihad by way of armed combat is only one of the 50+ types of struggle, yet the curriculum documents and the textbooks construct it as one of the essential preconditions for being a Muslim and armed combat as the only form of Jihad.

Let me illustrate this with few excerpts from the curriculum documents.

The curriculum documents mandate textbook writers to fashion the textbooks to create feelings among the students who are members of a Muslim nation and thus following the Islamic traditions they have to be honest, patriotic and self-sacrificing warriors of Islam (mujahids) (CD-Primary Education, Classes K-V. 1995). The curriculum documents further mandate that stories about martyrs of Pakistan (cf fn 2) be used to incite jihad, create love and aspiration for Jihad, Tableegh (prosyletization), shahadat (martyrdom), sacrifice, ghazi (victor of war)… and that the students are taught to make speeches about the primacy and importance of jihad (CD-Primary Education, Classes K-V. 1995).

Agency, Educational Media and the Construction of Peace

While the educational discourse in Pakistan aims to constitute gendered, militaristic and nationalistic subjects by means of the curriculum documents and the textbooks there are newer educational vistas that bear the promise of peace. Among the new educational media, the World Wide Web and the cyberspace have emerged as important media. At the outset, however, I must point out that the World Wide Web, as an educational medium, is still more a privilege than a norm in countries like Pakistan.

One of the most important features of this new education medium is its capacity and ability to bypass governmental and state controls over meaning making and its potential to provide a space for dialogue and interaction outside the state discourses. In this sense, the World Wide Web provides or has the potential to provide a space for counter-narratives and to facilitate cross border and cross cultural interactions and multilogues that could develop into counter discourses and counter narratives. These multi-vocal counter narratives, in my opinion, have the potential to dismantle the 'other' that, as discussed above, is constituted by the educational discourses.

Let me take one example of the deconstructive and dismantling capacity of the World Wide Web and the cyberspace to illustrate the above point.

Contesting Dichotomous Discourses: Agency and Cyberspace

Chowk.com is an example of such discursive space where the citizens of India and Pakistan can and do come together and try to listen to, interact with each other, discuss, attempt to understand and appreciate the issues that a while ago seemed unsolvable. These Indians and Pakistanis have their own security discourses that are starkly different from the security discourses of their respective states. In other words, the teeming millions who live below the poverty line are more concerned about putting food on the table than about the nuclear security of their respective countries. Members of this 'other' South Asia, while sharing the same security discourse, have also been kept deliberately separate from each other to the extent they simply do not know each other except as enemies. Chowk.com provides these people from rival (enemy) states with a space that has the potential to break down group narratives of the other and governmental discourse that promotes "us" and "them" dichotomous narratives.

Construction of Peace in the Cyberspace: Chowk.com

Let me take one conversation on Chowk.com between common people from India and Pakistan to illustrate the potential of cyberspace as an educational medium that has the potential to bring out the agency of subjects of militarizing educational discourses.

In a short but perceptive article titled Kashmir: Time for a Radical Approach originally posted on March 31, 2003 'Temporal', a regular chowkwalla writes:

> In the unsolved Kashmir conundrum between India and Pakistan foreign conglomerates, desi bureaucrats, politicians and business magnates win. Ram Babu and Allah Rakha lose perennially. Contrary to popular reporting lives are not lost in Kashmir or Kashmir related terrorist acts elsewhere in India and Pakistan only. The janata-awaam (public, translation mine) lose out in their respective countries as well when limited resources are diverted from beneficial and quality-of-life enhancing activities (relating to Health, Education, Social Welfare, Law and Order to name a few) to Defence.

He goes on to write:

> In the meantime, foreigners are selling us big-ticket armaments; our defence honchos are becoming fat and business leaders fatter. And the janata-awaam is getting leaner and suicidal. In the absence of reason, common sense and valid national interests, a new cancerous cell is now gnawing its way into our body politic. Both nations have clouded the ideals of Gandhi and Jinnah. Aside from their portrait hung in all government offices their only practical legacy is etched on the 500 rupees note to facilitate corruption. In Pakistan this cancer has passed the stage of non-malignancy and has now become malignant. Prognosis calls for drastic measures. If not checked at this late stage it might consume the entire body. In India this cancer is still in the benign phase. But for how long?

What interests us here is the quantity and quality of interaction between the ordinary people of India and Pakistan that took place on Temporal's opinion. The article, according to the statistics on Chowk.com has been accessed and read by 15,776

people since it first appeared in March 2003. As of August 2007 a conversation/multilogue spanning four years between 447 participants and more than 15,000 listeners and observers has been going on[3].

What is obvious in this multilogue is the fact that the younger generation of Indians and Pakistanis who have a chance to talk to each other outside the state discourses is willing to go beyond the enemy images and constructions of the 'other'. They have the desire to get on with life and focus on more pressing problems of development in their respective societies. It is also evident that this generation is well aware that the obsession with the military solutions to bilateral problems between India and Pakistan has taken its toll on social and economic development in these societies. Thus, there is a clear desire in members of this generation to talk about and seek non-military and more permanent solutions to bilateral issues and disputes.

However, as the conversation progresses it also becomes apparent that the subjectivities historically constituted by the dominant discourses of the state, education media etc. are still well entrenched. The subjects constituted by these discourses still believe in the respective state discourses on Kashmir (with either state claiming to be on high moral ground on the issue and each claiming Kashmir to be its integral part).

At the same time this is not without its limitations. To begin with, this interaction is limited only to those South Asians who are privileged to have computers and are connected to the Internet. Keeping in mind the fact that the majority of Indians and Pakistanis live below the absolute poverty line and do not have access to even the basic civic amenities such as potable water and required caloric intake, this is a major limitation to inclusive participation of various members in economically stratified societies. Similarly low literacy levels, lack of educational opportunities, and the presence of colonial and nationalistic educational discourses further restrict the full use of this potential. Thirdly, language barriers also place limitation on the full use of its potential. Yet by its very presence and availability, no matter how restricted, it becomes a major and viable space where ideas can be discussed, misconceptions and misperceptions dismantled. Even if some can fully use the potential the hope is that these few will be able to pass on the alternative discourse through conventional means till such time that technology is more widely available[4].

Conclusion

To conclude, the need to build defences of peace is now more critical than ever. Peace building needs an urgent and multi-pronged approach. While bilateral and multi-lateral diplomatic and confidence building measures have an important place in reducing the chances of inter nation violence, other avenues for peace and confidence building must be proactively explored. The potential of curricula, textbooks and

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[3] The way Chowk works is that anyone is free to post comments as long as they are within the bounds of decency. Others then respond to these postings.
[4] For a detailed discussion see M. Ayaz Naseem (In Print). Peace-Educational Value of the World Wide Web: Dialogue and Confidence Building in the Cyber Space; an Analysis of Chowk.Com. In: Jing Lin and Christa Bruhn (eds.), *Educators as Peacemakers: Transforming Education for Global Peace*. Greenwich CT: Information Age Publishing.

educational media as sites for deconstructing violence and building peace is immense. This potential must be recognized and realized and dedicated efforts must be made at all levels (research, policy, action) to use textbooks and educational media for peace building purposes.

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War, Peace and Nationality - How history textbooks in Norway have used war and peace in the construction of changing national identities

Svein Lorentzen

Introduction

The ninth international IARTEM conference has invited us to discuss aspects of the overall theme: *Peace, democratization and reconciliation in textbooks and educational media*. My contribution will use history textbooks as the chosen educational medium. It will focus on the important role these textbooks have played in a 200 year long nation-building process in our host country, Norway. I have chosen not only to include the importance of peace and reconciliation in nation-building, but have found it inevitable also to add war as the necessary counterpart to peace.

Creating a national identity

In the wake of the Napoleonic wars an assembly of Norwegian gentry worked out a national constitution, modelled after the French and American ones. The ambition was to establish an independent nation state with its own constitution after 400 years of Danish rule. But due to territorial agreements between the major European powers, Norway was forced to enter a union with its other Nordic neighbour, Sweden. So during a few months in 1814 the country went from one union to another, but with one substantial difference: the new constitution.

Norway was now ruled by the king of Sweden, and foreign affairs controlled by the Swedish parliament. In spite of this, the constitution of 1814, after severe negotiations, was accepted by Sweden. This called for an elected Norwegian national assembly (the Storting), to govern the country according to the liberal principles of the constitution. This again was the platform on which the new nation state of Norway had to be built. Throughout the 19th and most of the 20th centuries, schooling in general – and textbooks in particular – have played an important role in the creation and development of a common national identity. I will now try to show how this identity building process included an active and deliberate use of textbook examples from times of war, peace and reconciliation. I will also show how the examples have changed over time, reflecting the shifting purpose of their use.

For elementary, compulsory education – which is my focus in this presentation – the first history textbooks commonly used appeared during the 1830s, 40s and 50s. The predominant task of these textbooks was to create in young minds a national identity, based on a combination of territorial justification and a common ethnic heritage, a Norway for Norwegians.

Ethnic heritage was justified through the popular immigration theory of the time, put forward by leading historians. According to this now long-gone theory, the Norwegians inhabited the country form the North-East, only a few centuries BC.

A major aspect of this dominant immigration theory was that the territory could be rightfully claimed by the immigrating tribes as their own - in plain words: that it was free to grab. As the Europeans flooding North America nearly two thousand years later had to cope with the native Indians, the Norwegians had to define the resident Sami population. In the history textbooks this was done by stressing that the Sami population – or the Finns, as they were named at the time - represented a minor problem in numbers, and that the takeover by the Norwegians did not really represent any harm to their well-being or their way of life. On the contrary – reading a history textbook from 1852 gives the impression that the immigration process represented an advantage to both parties:

> *As the Finns lived from their Reindeers, and the Reindeers have their home in the*
> *Mountains, the rest of the Country was more or less empty and inhabited. As the*
> *Valleys were cultivated and the Norwegians moved in, the Finns had to withdraw*
> *to the more remote border-mountains, where they now have their true Home.*
> *(Munch 1852, p.5)*

The scene is deliberately peaceful, convincing the pupils that the nation was there in its own historic right. Similar examples could be taken from other textbooks, in other countries at other times. The overall message is: We are in this country because we were here first, or, at least: we were the first to cultivate it, and: we did harm to no one. The true story of how the Sami population was treated by the Norwegians surfaced in the textbooks only a few decades ago.

War and peace as nation building

War enters the history textbooks when it comes to defending the national territory against enemies. For the early Norwegian textbooks, this applies to detailed descriptions from the Viking age, where the territory was divided between regional kings and warlords, often supported by various foreign powers. When this period – more than a thousand years ago – is given such an enormous space in the early textbooks, the reason is at least threefold: Firstly, the tales are dramatic, where blood easily and richly is shed for loyalty and treason. To the pupils, the imaginary world of the Viking age must have been a most welcome escape from the poor 19th century country schoolhouse. Secondly, the morale of the tales was a major aspect in the nation-building process. The heroes were the ones who struggled for national unity, freedom and sovereignty; the villains were normally those who conspired with foreigners at the cost of their fatherland.

The first generations of history textbooks were not illustrated, but from the turn of the 19th century and into the 20th, the illustrations helped to underline the nation-building perspective of Viking kings, as examples of strong character and moral integrity, restlessly defending the fatherland against its enemies. Let us have a look at one of these textbook illustrations, of the Viking kings, as icons of national unity.

Illustration 1:

The most famous Viking king of all: Olav Tryggvason, here in the stem of his royal ship, with the following text: "He was a handsome and brave man, and the first among athletes".

As tensions grew within the union with Sweden, history textbooks used earlier military successes in conflicts with the union partner, partly to strengthen national self esteem, partly to cast a negative light on the Swedes. Norwegian victories at war with the far stronger Sweden were hard to find, but a few incidents were used for all its worth. A favourite in the textbook tales was the adventures of naval officer Peter Wessel Tordenskiold, known for his bravery when Norway – as part of the Danish kingdom – in the early 18th century fought the Swedes and their king Karl the 12th.

Particularly well known was an incident in the fjord *Dynekilen*, so narrow that warships could hardly pass, and guarded by a large number of cannons and 4,000 Swedish soldiers. As commander of a group of vessels, Tordenskiold managed to defeat the Swedes. This incident was for more than a century a compulsory tale in history textbooks, where both illustrations and text were strong contributions to the nation building process.

Illustration 2:
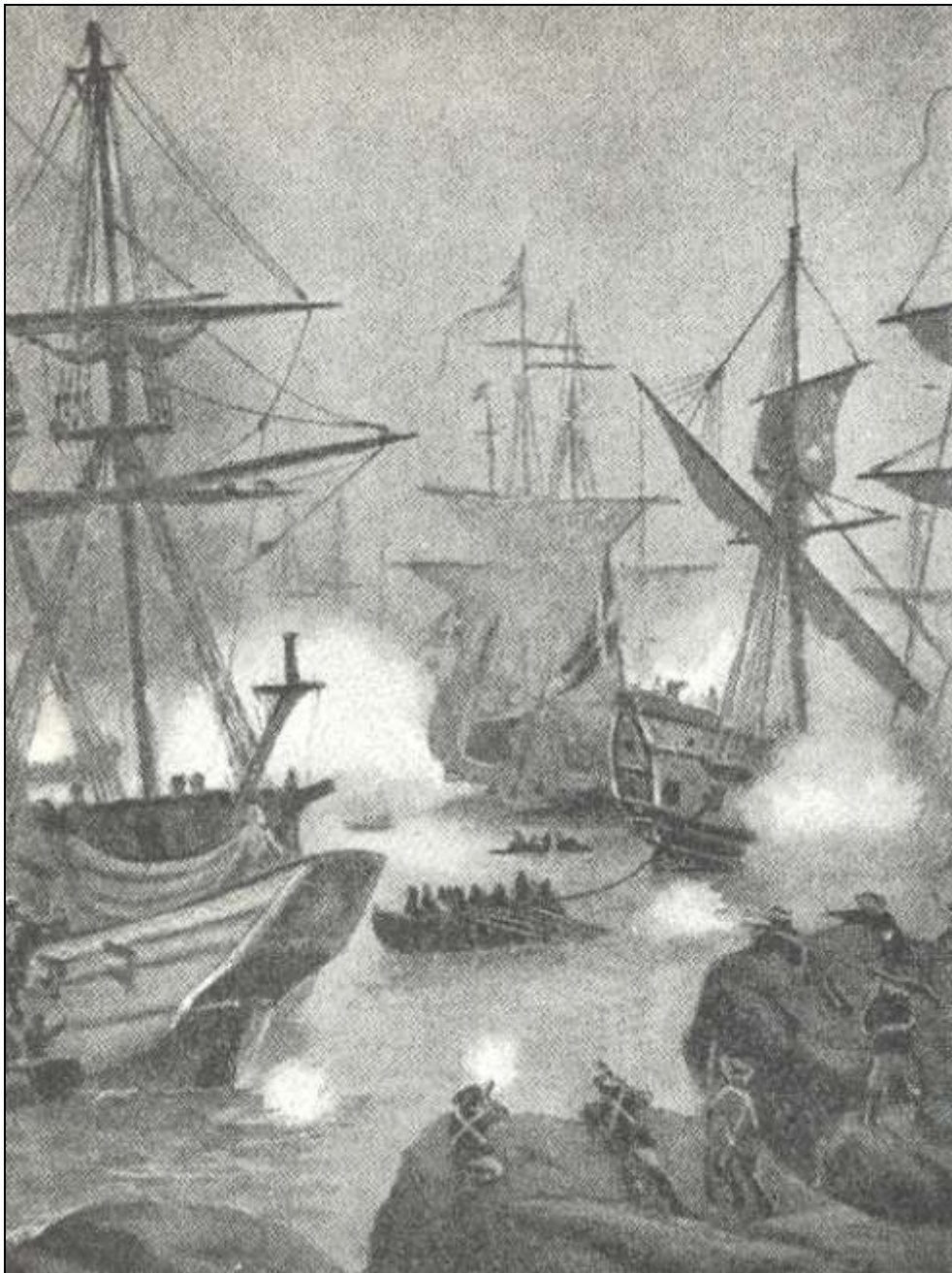
Tordenskiold at Dynekilen: Textbook illustration from the period of the break from the union with Sweden, accompanied by the following text:

> *Then they sailed into the fjord at good winds, while the Swedes thundered and fired from both sides. Tordenskiold did not answer the fire with a single shot before he had reached the end of the fjord. From a broadside position he then fired back for three hours. At 11am the Swedes started to abandon their ships. Then Tordenskiold and his brave boys cleared the entire harbour, while 4,000 Swedes fired from the surrounding cliffs. At 9pm Tordenskiold stood out the fjord with a rich loot. The Swedes had lost 44 ships. Karl the 12th went back to Sweden. Norway was saved.*
> *(Haereid 1909, p.111)*

In this way, textbook tales of bravery and heroism at war were used to foster national pride, as an important part of the nation-building process.

Then the tide turned. The First World War wiped out an entire generation of young men on the European continent, and textbook images of war as heroism were impossible to sustain. On the contrary, horrors from the trenches of Belgium or Luxemburg were actively used in history textbooks all over Europe to promote the international peace movements of the 1920s and early 30s.

As a neutral power during the First World War - with no national interests to defend - it was particularly easy for the Norwegian textbooks to act as agents of peace and reconciliation in the years after the earthquake of the war. National history in general, and traditional war history in particular, was no more the core of the history curriculum. The dominating key-words were now democracy, peace work and international solidarity and, above all, a warning against the new war, which from the middle of the 1930s had to be considered as a possibility in the foreseeable future. In one of the most popular history textbooks of the 1930s one could read in the author's introduction:

> *The next war, if it comes, will be so horrible, that what we have seen so far of savageness and cruelty, this will only be child's play to what the world then will have to witness. All kinds of devilish means, as poisonous gases and dangerous chemical devices, will be used to fight down the enemy. And this will not only affect the soldiers. No one will be spared. Towns and rural areas will be destroyed by bombs, thrown by aircrafts flying so high that they can neither be seen nor heard. Our forefathers' old, frightening tale of Ragnarok will in case become a terrible reality."*
> *(Knutson 1934, p.6)*

After the Second World War, Norwegian history textbooks again changed. For several decades the urge for peace and international solidarity was now mixed with a rather stereotypical and heroic approach to the war won. The reason is obvious: In this war Norway was actively involved, and the war as struggle between good and evil, represented by the Allied forces against Germany and its allies, dominated the textbooks as far as the 1970s. While the Germans first and foremost were characterised through the destiny of the Jews, Allied warfare was described and pictured through symbols of fighting spirit and winning capacity.

Illustration 3:

From one of the Norwegian warships participating on the Allied side, with the accompanying text "In a short break between the many dangerous missions, they nearly managed a smile".

Illustration 4:

An almost compulsory picture of Winston Churchill, with the accompanying text: "With his cigar, cane and black hat he became the symbol of the unbreakable British determination to win".

From the late 1960s, and in particular from the 1970s on, history textbooks have again used war and warfare predominantly to promote peace and reconciliation. War-heroes, kings and battles were definitely out; in were tolerance, cooperation and global awareness. The Vikings were no longer portrayed through tales of bravery and heroism, but more and more as aggressors, spreading fear and terror wherever they went.

Illustration 5:

Norwegian Viking-raid of the monastery of Lindisfarne: Textbook illustration, accompanied by the following text:

> *The Vikings strike at churches and monasteries along the coast. Here are often large fortunes: candles and holy silver chalices, shrines and holy pictures, engraved with costly metals. They meet little or no resistance. Priests and monks do not carry weapons. (---) They had no mercy on those who stood in their way; men, women and children were killed or taken away as slaves. Often they were sold. Many stories from this time tell that the Vikings behaved like the worst of villains.*
> *(Hansen 1966, p.116)*

Indeed a contrast to the texts and illustrations used only a few decades earlier.

If we return to our war-hero Tordenskiold, fighting the Swedes at Dynekilen (illustration 2), history textbooks of the 1970s and 80s used the same incident not to glorify Tordenskiold, but to give a detailed, realistic description of the costs of the hero's bravery, represented by the many badly wounded:

The ship's doctor has gathered all the wounded in his special corner between the mainmast and the ladder to the commander's quarters. They are lying on deerskin and have folded hammocks under their heads. He pours them hard liquor, which is the only thing he is sufficiently supplied with, and lashes tar-rope around the wounded limbs to stop the blood. Some of the wounded are in deep pain, and complaining. One is blinded from a bucket of gunpowder, which blew up in his face.
(Sveen/Aastad 1987, p.102)

The world wars were also used to underline the overall message of peace and reconciliation. Both in text and illustrations, war as terror, death and destruction was the main agenda, as here, where a textbook from the late 1990s, in large pictures shows the disastrous results of the second world war on the Dresden and Murmansk.

Illustration 6:

Dresden

Illustration 7:

Murmansk

The Dresden-picture would not have been possible to publish in the first textbook-generation after the war, when the focus was one hundred percent on Germany as the aggressor, not also as a victim.

Into the post-nation building period

In the 1960s, Norway – in its own eyes – had reached all the major goals of the traditional nation-building project: Democracy was long secured, so was the Scandinavian *Welfare-state*, with a high standard of living, and a tax-system which promoted collective, state-regulated solutions in schooling and healthcare. History textbooks are no longer humble. On the contrary, they promote a national self-sufficiency which clearly indicates that the original nation-building period has come to an end.

An interesting development in the now 30 to 40 years of *post nation- building* is the textbooks' use of peace and reconciliation in the construction of a less national, more multicultural and multi-ethnic society. History textbooks have increasingly used Norway's participation in various peace-keeping forces as examples of how the mature nation has taken its (right) place in the international society. Descriptions and portraits of Norway's Trygve Lie, the first general secretary of the United Nations, underlines the beginning of a new trend, where Norway is seen as an important negotiator between parties in conflict, and a valued member of the UN peace-keeping forces around the world. In addition, Norway's role as a major economic supporter of

the UN and other international organizations' aid to people who suffer from warfare and other humanitarian disasters, are also given a substantial place in the textbooks.

Both with respect to the international participation, and – even more – when it comes to conflicts between majority and minorities within Norway, the approach of the newer textbooks is one of multi-perspectivity. Descriptions of Norway's role as negotiator in international conflicts are balanced by statements which underline the country's rigid policy towards refugees, and the dominant perspective of national trade interests, when it comes to foreign aid strategies.

Minorities within Norway, first and foremost the Sami population, are treated with the same multi-perspectivity. On the one hand, earlier and current suppression of Sami interests is clearly on the textbooks' agenda; on the other hand, the last decade's process of reconciliation, on terms acknowledged by the Sami population. One of the striking differences between earlier textbooks and the ones published today, is the space used on minorities in general, and the Sami population in particular. The present generation of history textbooks have major chapters on the theme, with focus both on Sami history and culture.

Summary

The history textbook's changing use of war and peace fits a pattern of stages in the nation-building process. The first stages represents the developing nation, where ancient kings and warriors are important symbols to a new national identity, often – as in this postcard from the late 19th century – portrayed as mere stereotypes:

Illustration 8:

The example of the brave and successful, in struggle for national pride and honour, is to be found in history textbooks in all developing nation states. The details and examples may vary, but the pattern is always the same: to strengthen national unity, often at the expense of others, and often through vivid descriptions of wartime bravery.

As the nation is fully developed, and has reached a high level of national confidence and self esteem, the initial nation-building process has come to an end. In the case of Norway, this happened in 1960s, when the total dominance of social democracy came to an end. In 1963, the ruling Labour Party ceased their power to a coalition dominated by the conservatives, introducing a still ongoing period mostly characterized by coalition governments. The textbooks of the 1960s presented a country of high self-satisfaction, where the modern welfare-state was seen as a model for other countries. Nothing was left of the national humbleness of the early 19th century; Norway had, in its own eyes, reached all the goals of the developing nation. At this stage, there is little use for wartime heroes. Textbook examples of wartime cruelties are used to promote peace, and focus is on reconciliation and how democracy has prevailed.

Entering the 1970s, a much more critical textbook period emerged, based on the newly gained understanding of how the rich and developed Western countries for centuries had exploited the rest of the world. During the last 30 years, Norwegian history textbooks have balanced the blessings of the welfare state with examples of how also Norway through its national history has participated in the exploitation of other countries, often in a far from peaceful manner. At the same time, much focus is laid on reconciliation between nations, religions and races, promoting Norway as a multi-ethnic and multicultural society, but not at all as a rose garden.

An unanswered question today is, if this last stage is a new step in the ladder of nation building, or a step away from the traditional thinking of nation and nationality, pointing at a future where national identity is far less important than before, and where international peace and reconciliation has priority to national borders and historic stereotypes. The Norwegian society is rapidly changing into multi-ethnicity. What does this fact do to national identity? And what kind of national identity (or identities) is preferable? Curricula and textbooks give few answers. The multi-society is clearly promoted: Multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multi-religious.

But when it comes to a common set of characteristics, defining a Norwegian identity of the early 21st century, curricula and textbooks are so far of little help. With a strong and expanding European Union, chances are, of course, that supra-national bodies eventually will replace national ones and, by that, lift the focus of national identity to a higher level. On the other hand, growing internationalism in politics may foster new aspects of national identities at home. Today, we can only observe that peace and reconciliation between nations and within nations are an important part of the textbook agenda. Hopefully, time will show if this trend will weaken national identities, or just change them.

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THEORETICAL SESSION

The Influence of Reflective Tools on Citizenship Development

Inga Balčiūnienė, Natalija Mažeikienė

Introduction

Today discussion about the importance of developing citizenship competence is high on the agenda in the field of education. Several questions concerning this issue are analyzed: What does it mean to be a good citizen in a democratic society (Westheimer, Kahne, 2004)? What are the citizenship competences and what competences should be developed (Gotlieb, Robinson, 2002; Torney-Purta, 2000)? What are the best educational tools/methods for developing citizenship competences (Syvertsen et al., 2007; Kahne, Westheimer, 2002)?

Educators agree that citizenship is a very complex phenomenon, there is no common agreement concerning the concept of citizenship. Different authors present different models of citizenship and give different advice for the curriculum development. Some researchers emphasize the need to educate a citizen who is able to live and to communicate in the diverse society, is able to engage in dialog and be tolerant to otherness (Childester, 2004; Jackson, 2004). Other writers place a great emphasis on the need to educate socially active and responsible individuals (Torney-Purta, 2000). Others' vision emphasizes the need to educate critical thinking in analyzing social policies and priorities, in preparing informed voters, in training students for public deliberation (Callan, 1997, Youniss & Yates, 1997). Westheimer, Kahne (2004) present three visions of citizenship: personally responsible citizenship (honest, responsible law abiding members of community, who act responsibly in their community, work and pay taxes, obey the laws, participate in voluntary activities); participatory citizenship (active members of community organizations who organize community efforts to care for those in need and know how government agencies work); and justice-oriented citizenship (citizens who are able critically assess social, political and economic structures, solve problems and improve society, question and change established systems and structures).

While searching for the best educational tools to improve citizenship competences, many educators see service learning as a powerful tool for developing not just skills of the specific subject but for developing civic competences as well (King, 2004; Gottlieb, Robinson, 2002). Service learning is usually described as a type of experiential education when classroom work is combined with participation and serving in NGOs or/and other communities. Service learning is based on the philosophy of pragmatism, which declares the importance of experience in the learning process. Authors agree that service learning develops social competence and civic skills, learning skills, career awareness, communication skills, social responsibility, multicultural understanding, leadership, personal growth, etc.

Service learning is also rooted in the action-reflection theories of John Dewey and David Kolb, who describe the importance of combining individual action and engagement with reflective thinking to develop greater understanding of the studied content. Many other advocates of service learning (e.g. Leming, 2001) believe that reflection on the experience in the community is as essential an element of effective

practice in service learning as it helps a better understanding of the course content, of the discipline and its relationship to social needs, and enhances the sense of civic responsibility; besides, it develops critical thinking skills (Hatton, Smith, 1995). Authors describe reflection as a persistent search for explanations in an attempt to resolve perplexity within an experience, thinking about dissonance and examining observations, problems, conflicting philosophies, belief systems, and ideologies (Christensen et al, 2001). Many authors writing about service learning notice, when students complete their service activities, there is potential to reformulate assumptions, create new frameworks, and build perceptions that influence future actions. However, if students do not reflect on their service, their experience may support presuppositions, reinforce stereotypes, and fail to critically guide future action.

The authors present different reflective tools to be applied in service learning to integrate reflective activities, the most common of which are reflective journals and logs, case studies, written portfolios, protocols, interviews, small or large group discussions, essays, in-class presentations, etc. (Marchel, 2004; Lott, 1997; Hatcher, 1997). Although reflective tools are mentioned by various authors, the pedagogical impact of using reflective tools in experiential learning for citizenship, cognitive and personal development is little examined.

Method

A case study method was used to examine the influence of reflective tools on citizenship development. Subjects for the study were 26 fourth year students who studied a course of "Applied Ethics" according to the service learning method at Šiauliai University (Lithuania) in 2006. Students visited and participated in six different religious communities. The aim of the course was to develop competences of the specific subject (Applied Ethics) as well as citizenship competences. It must be noted that competences required to be developed for the subject quite often go along with citizenship competences. For example, such citizenship skills and attitudes as ability to reflect, critical and analytical thinking, tolerance and openness to diversity, communication skills, dialogical attitude, and responsibility are relevant to the aims of the subject as well. Specific competences to be developed were such competences as knowing basic ethical rules, theories and being able to apply those for solving real, specific ethical dilemmas. In religious communities students took part in different activities: in discussions, religious services and rituals, social activities. By participating in these activities they had to gain knowledge and analyze religious and moral beliefs of the specific community, their religious and social activities. They had to compare ethical beliefs of different communities, as well as be able to analyze those by applying ethical rules and theories.

Several reflective tools were employed in the course - reflective journals, reflective seminars, reflective essays and interviews, which were believed to encourage the students' reflection better and reveal their feelings, attitudes, beliefs. In order to examine the development of citizenship competences, the reflective tools were used not just as pedagogical tools but as research instruments too, the data of which were analyzed with the help of content analysis.

The structure of the course was designed following Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model which implies such stages as concrete experience, reflective

observation, abstract conceptualization, active experimentation – going in a cycle (see Figure 1). At the beginning of the course, before participation, theoretical ideas of the course, the main course ideas and the participation strategy were presented followed by participation and reflective processes. At the end of the course students had to summarize what they had learnt and experienced.

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Preparation (Presentation of the course materials; the main ideas; participation strategy)	Participation (in the religious communities) Reflection (Reflective seminars,	Feedback (Reflective essays, interviews)
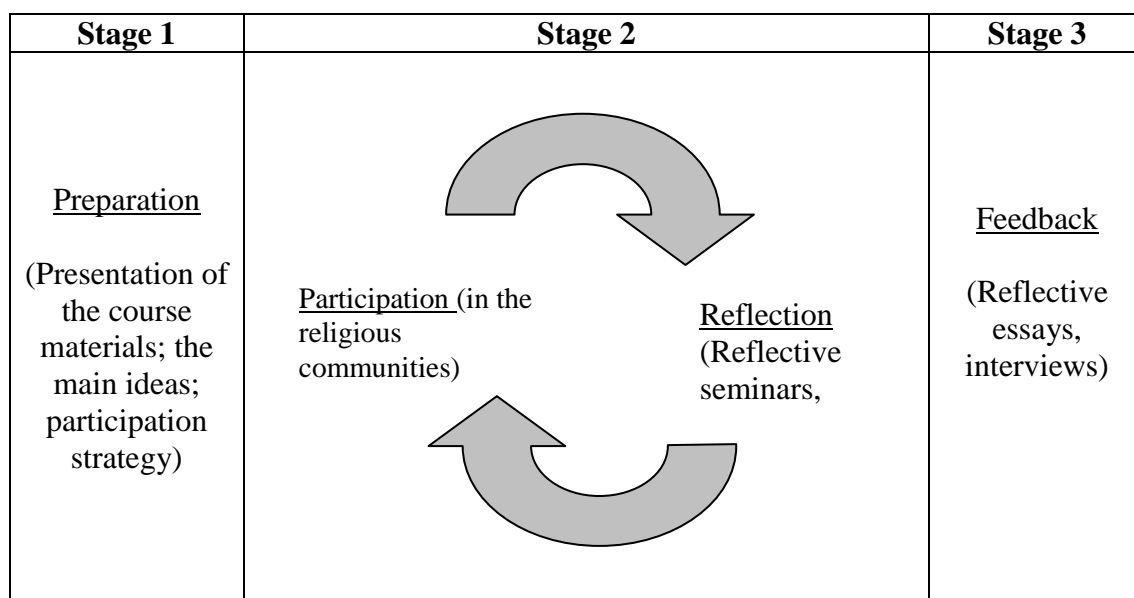
Figure 1. The structure of the service learning course

Four above mentioned reflective tools (reflective journals, reflective seminars, reflective essays and interviews) were chosen to complement the aims of the service learning course.

Educators who implement journal writing in their service learning practices consider journal writing as a useful tool which stimulates students' reflection, observation, thinking and evaluating skills, skills of awareness and introspection (Coghlan, 2001, Lott, 1997). It is also discussed as helping students to relate theory and practice, theory and personal insights and personal experience, to make sense of the service activity and to integrate new experience with past experience and course subject material (Wagenaar, 1984; Lott, 1997). Journal writing could bring students useful insights about their activities, feelings, emotions and perception. By recording their activities, experiences, and emotions students are able to follow their personal development, changes in their attitudes and thoughts. Moreover, students' journals are useful texts for the lecturers, as they reveal what students do, and help to understand what students think. They give information about the dynamics of students' knowledge, values, attitudes and skills (Colton, 1993; Lankard, 1996).

Usually, different kinds of journals are implemented in service learning courses. We implemented semi-structured reflective journals. The questions which directed students' reflection were given, but students were able to choose the questions to be answered as well as the form of presenting their thoughts. The content of questions given in the journal consisted of three blocks: knowledge (students were asked to analyze religious and social practices of the communities, ethical issues relating them

to the ethical theories); emotions (students were asked to describe their feelings, internal and external conflicts, their solutions); and activities (they had to describe their activities and events they had taken part in). Students made entries after each participation in the community.

Reflective seminars is another reflective activity which helps to link content of the course to experience in the community. Reflective seminars give students an opportunity to discuss, analyze their experience, learn from each other and help students to see how course content helps to explain issues raised by their service experience (Hatcher, 1997; Lott, 1997).

Once a week students participated in the reflective seminars, where they shared their experience and gained knowledge with other students, analyzed ethical problems together, tried to compare their experience, and share the difficulties they had while participating, trying to find solutions together. The future actions were planned as well. All the discussions were tape-recorded.

At the end of the semester the students generalized their experience and knowledge in the final essay. Recently, reflective essay has been described as one of the most effective pedagogical tools which helps to generalize the experience and knowledge, to analyze ups and downs, to reflect values, and to relate past, recent and future attitudes (Cooper, 1999). Furthermore, reflective essay is an informative text which helps the lecturer to see if she/he was successful as a moderator and what should be done to realize the aims of the course better.

Question guide for the final essay, which helped the students to think all the time they participated in the communities, was given in advance. At the end of the course all 26 students were interviewed in order to see the dynamics of their attitudes, knowledge and their reflection on the overall experience. All the interviews were tape-recorded.

It must be noted that all four reflective tools were considered not just as pedagogical tools encouraging students' reflection but also as texts which helped to see what students think, feel, what their beliefs were about different ethical issues and the situations they had been involved in. These texts allowed the researchers to follow the dynamics of students' feelings, emotions, and attitudes.

Following Stephen's (1995) and Toole &Toole's (1995) stages of reflection, our reflective processes could reflect all three indicated stages: pre-service, during service and post-service. In pre-service reflection activities students made the first journal entry. The questions were based on their prior feelings, views, and attitudes towards communities and service activities in the communities, about the prior knowledge on communities' religious and ethical ideology, customs, ways of living, activities and so on. For example: What do you know about the community? Could you describe the belief system, customs and activities of the members of the community? What are your emotions when you see the members of the community confessing their religion, performing their religious activities, when you hear them talking about their religion? Why do you have such emotions? During service reflection activities consisted of journal writing and reflective seminars. The questions for the journal were divided into three blocks mentioned above: knowledge (e.g. what new knowledge do you have

about the ideology, customs and activities of you community? Compare their belief system with your own one, compare the community with other communities); emotions (e.g. is there anything you are worried about while participating in the community? What are your feelings when you see members of the community performing their religious activities, hear them talking about their religion and religious beliefs?); activities and communication (e.g. what do you do in the community? What do you think about your work in the community? Do the activities you perform in the community correspond to your worldview? Did you have any conflicts? How did you solve these problems? Is your communication with the members of the community successful?) Post-service reflection activities comprised the interview and the reflective essay, where students generalized their work, participation, feelings, projected their future actions.

Journal entries, essays, the records of the seminars and interviews were collected, analyzed with the help of content analysis and interpreted. The content of the reflective tools was carefully read searching for the notional units reflecting citizenship competences. In the search for citizenship manifestations, students' attitudes and thoughts before participation were analyzed (first journal entry) and the dynamics of students' attitudes ant thoughts in the process of participation was observed (other journal entries, seminars, essays, interviews).

Results

The content analysis of the first journal entries revealed five basic categories which were named as fear, insularity to new knowledge and new experience, the lack of initiative, intolerance and the lack of dialogical attitude.

The first category found, and frequently present in the students' journal entries, is fear. Students were afraid of being involved in the religious community, of being forced to perform religious practices or to manifest the "strange" religion in public. They didn't like the idea of spending their time in the social environment which was strange to them, to communicate with people who had different beliefs, and whose way of life was completely different from their own world view. Student A claims: "Our beliefs are completely different, their religion, religious ideas are not acceptable to us. I don't want to be with them. I am afraid of being involved, of being brainwashed". Some students even panicked finding out that they would have to participate in the communities which are in our country referred to as sects and very often imaged in mass media negatively.

Insularity to new knowledge and new experience is another category which goes along with fear. Students revealed their unwillingness to communicate with the members of religious communities, to see their religious practices and rituals; they didn't demonstrate any interest in finding out about the activities, beliefs and ideology of the religious communities, in acquiring new knowledge. (e.g. "If I had a possibility, I wouldn't communicate with this community at all. I have no wish or any concern to find something more about them. It's quite enough for me, the information I have about them now").

Students declared their attitude to be passive in the religious communities, they refused to help the community members in charitable work or give any other help.

This was considered to be lack of initiative. Students claimed that they were going to be just observers.

Negative attitudes towards the "others" who hold different religious attitudes, based on stereotypes and assumptions which are widespread in the society, were often found in students' journals. We named these manifestations as intolerance. Students claimed that they see religious rituals as ridiculous, religious ideas or ethical rules the members of community hold as absurd.

Negative attitudes and negative feelings towards religious communities are revealed by one more category, the lack of dialogical attitude. Students hold the position of defensiveness; they assume that they will have to fight for their ideas, beliefs, and values. Students' ideas do not reflect the dialogical attitudes, their disposition for the mutual respectful discussion (e.g. "I will stand firm for my position, my beliefs. I will keep my distance from them").

The first journal entries revealed the lack of positive approaches in students' pre-service attitudes. Negative aspects, such as intolerance to the diversity, insularity and fear of innovations and otherness, were dominant at this stage.

Analysis of the other journal entries as well as other reflective tools revealed the dynamics in students' attitudes. The dynamics could be divided into three stages (see Table 1). The first stage is very similar to the pre-service stage. Similar categories are found while analyzing four other journal entries as well as records of reflective seminars. At the beginning of participation the same categories are found. Students hold negative attitudes towards their activities in the communities, towards "strange" religious practices and rituals, religious ideology, moral ideas, different way of life and different worldview. They claim that they are observers and are unwilling to be active in the communities. They follow the same assumptions, prejudice and stereotypes; satirize community members and their attitudes.

Table 1

1st stage (1-4 weeks)	2nd stage (5-13 weeks)	3rd stage (14-16 weeks)
- fear - insularity to new knowledge and new experience - the lack of initiative - intolerance and the lack of dialogical attitude	- tolerance - dialogical attitude - openness to new experience and diversity - intercultural competence - the attitudes of voluntary help - responsibility - critical-analytical thinking	- attitude of voluntary help in the future - future communication - openness to new experience

The second stage revealed new categories. In the middle of the course with the help of constant reflective practices, students started analyzing and comparing ideology,

religious practices, the way of life, religious and social activities of different communities; while analyzing different ethical issues they started applying ethical theories.

New categories, such as tolerance, dialogical attitude, openness to new experience and diversity, intercultural competence, the attitudes of voluntary help, responsibility, critical-analytical thinking, were revealed.

In the middle of the course, the students' cognitive processes are very high. They compare information from different sources, are able to find similarities and differences, give argumentation while analyzing ethical issues, they are able to compare information they had with new information. They question not only the arguments and beliefs of the community members, but other students' and even their own arguments and beliefs. While analyzing different religious practices, they find similarities and differences with their own religious practices. Students' reasoning is based on the arguments, on the insights, not on the emotions as could be seen in pre-service or the first stage of during-service reflection activities. Such manifestations were referred to the critical and analytical thinking category.

One more category found in students' journals and records was tolerance. Students notice that by participating in religious communities they get valuable information about ideology, system of beliefs, meaning of the activities of religious communities. Knowledge, reflection, analysis and searching for the similarities and differences allowed them seeing the "others" as having the right to make their choices, to have their attitudes and beliefs. "Certainly not everything corresponded to my beliefs, but every person is unique, different, so it can't be the total concurrence of opinions").

The category dialogical attitude is one more category which comes from or goes along with tolerance. Students move from unilateral statements to compromise, a wish to understand reasons and arguments of "the others". An ability to communicate with others who hold different beliefs and values was revealed. Students recognize the right to choose, the right to make personal choices. Such manifestations as ability to communicate in a diplomatic way, ability to express own opinion politely and share own insights with other students are easily found.

Insularity, unwillingness to communicate with people who are perceived as "different", negative attitude towards experiential learning, which was very evident in pre-service stage, turn to the other dimension which is named as openness to new experience and diversity. In the middle of the course, students express their interest in different approaches towards way of life, religions, beliefs, rituals, and social activity each religious community presents. Students express the idea that it is useful to live in the diversity, to see different worldviews and ways of life, to know different arguments different cultural groups hold as it improves reasoning skills and ability to live and to cope with diversity.

The element of intercultural competence was also found in students' texts. Perception of diversity and contrasts in social life are found in students' thoughts in the middle of the course. These manifestations were named intercultural competence (e.g. "I was raised as a Catholic and I believed that our religion is the true one. I believed that all

the others are sectarians. But when I heard the same ideas in the community, I somehow started to think more widely").

Students' interest in activities they perform in religious communities and ability to be helpful in the communities is also noticed. It is named attitudes of voluntary help. Students feel satisfaction at having an opportunity to help community members, to be useful in the community, to collaborate, to join collective work. The perception of their role in the community as passive observers changes to the perception of their role as actors in the community, who give their help and contribution. Participating, that at the first stage was perceived as an involuntary act required by the aims of the course, turned into voluntary participation, bringing satisfaction because of being helpful, performing socially useful work. It must be noted that changes of voluntary help are mainly evident in the records of those students who participated in the communities which perform active social work, give voluntary help and engage in charitable activities. For example, organization of after school activities for children, visiting old people's homes, etc. (e.g. "I am glad to help them, to be helpful", "At the beginning I perceived myself just as an observer, but the longer I am in the community the more involved I am in their activities").

One more evident category is responsibility. Students feel responsible for their activities and work in the community; they try to perform their activities as well as possible, spend in the communities more time than required in the aims of the course (e.g. "I feel responsible, I want to do everything as well as possible").

It should be noticed that fear and hostility towards communities, towards the innovative educational method, experiential learning, which were evident in pre-service stage and the fist stage of during service reflection, disappear. Students don't think about fear of being involved any more. They feel more self-confident in their religious ideas and discussions about religion and morality with community members. Supposedly this change could be related to knowledge they acquired in the communities, experience of being in the communities among the people who were treated as being outside their scope of communication before participation. It can also be assumed that constant reflective practices were also an important factor of change in the students' attitudes, as reflective activities help to reason, search for the arguments for and against, search for the similarities and differences in ideologies and to search for the reasons which are at the basis of different religious and social practices religious communities engage in.

Summarizing the second stage of during-service reflection, it could be claimed that in the process of constant participation and reflection students analyze, reflect, compare and find the existing diversity in attitudes and approaches. Perception of diversity leads to tolerance towards "the otherness", to the development of critical-analytical thinking. Gray et all (2000), Gottlieb & Robinson (2002), evaluating the impact of service learning on the development of citizenship competences, notice that participation in the communities could be of great help in developing cognitive abilities. The impact of reflective tools on the development of critical-analytical thinking is also emphasized in the works of reflection theorists, such as Barrett (2004), Hatton, Smith (1995).

At the last stage of participation (the last two journals and the last two reflective seminars) students reflect upon, review their overall experience in the communities and knowledge; they generalize and revise information received in the communities, consider their future prospects, consider the value of such experience and the possibilities of application of their experience and knowledge they got while participating in the communities. Students consider possible voluntary help in the future, project their further communication and collaboration with the members of the communities. They express their wish to know more about different religious organizations and different ideologies as well. Students notice changes in their attitudes themselves. Such categories as attitude of voluntary help in the future, future communication, and openness to new experience are found at the end of the course.

The first category, which is found in the third stage of during–service reflection activities, is attitude of voluntary help in the future. Students express their wish to continue performing voluntary activities in the future and notice that prior attitudes of compulsory participation in the communities in the process of participation changed into interest and willingness to help. Willingness to continue the work in the communities appeared together with the feeling of successful self-realization, of realization of their own potential. Students expressed their wish to help children in their after school activities, to participate in charitable work (e.g. "I was interested in their work in different fields. I would like to help them next year, too").

The second category singled out is future communication. Students are willing to communicate, maintain their relationship, share their ideas and discuss different ethical and religious issues with community members in the future (e.g. "Participation in this community was not just a duty, but a pleasure as well, because we became very good friends with the members of the community. I hope that our friendship will not end after the course finishes. I think we will communicate in the future").

The last category singled out was openness to new experience. It covers openness to the diversity, to new knowledge, to new experience, interest and a wish to contact with "the different" in the future, to know more about non-traditional religious communities, to know more about ideology of the religious communities (e.g. "I would like to visit quite different religious community next semester"; "I was really captured"; "Now I think that if I had to participate in such kind of religious communities in the future, I would do it with great pleasure"; "There are so many things, I would like to know about them. If I don't manage to find them out now, during this course, I will participate there individually"; "Participation in the community gives us a lot. It depends on each of us how much we should take. I try to take as much as possible and I believe that I will visit these people in the future, because I will not manage to find out everything I want. I don't have to be the member of their community in order to be able to participate in it. I can choose the status of a friend and successfully communicate with them. I think I will do this. I am very thankful for the opportunity to participate in this community and to know about it").

Post-reflection activities (seminars and interviews) revealed the students' attitude towards their change, the competences they believe they developed in the course. Students claimed that experiential learning combined with reflective tools encouraged their reflection, critical and analytical thinking, encouraged them to collect

information, to be active learners, developed their citizenship competences such as tolerance, openness to diversity, social responsibility. Table 2 indicates some examples of the main categories of the benefit of reflective practices revealed in the students' ideas.

Table 2 Types of reflective practice

Type of reflective practice	Category	Examples of students' thoughts and opinions (the interview)
Reflective journals	Help to develop ideas	"Writing journals was very useful because it helped to express and develop the ideas".
	Allow emotional discharge	"Writing journals is a way to slop over in the first place. It gives a relief after you write down everything that is in your heart".
	Give a possibility to follow dynamics of own emotions, feelings, attitudes	"It will be useful in the future. I will always be able to follow the dynamics of my feelings. I believe that one month later it will be very interesting for me to read what I am writing now. When I read the very first entry, it was so interesting to see the emotions I experienced at the beginning".
	Influence students' attendance in the community	"We asked to let us come to the community one more time just because of journal. Because we had to complete all the journal entries".
	Are a good aid for the essay	"It helps when you write the essay".
	Have information residual value	"Journal writing was very useful. When you come home and write everything, you remember everything better. I suppose that if I don't write everything down, I will forget many things later. I keep all the copies of my journal entries. I think that it will be very interesting for me to read some day".
	Encourage deliberate participation	"When you come, time flows very quickly, and you notice that it is already the time to go, but you wish to stay, to see, to experience, to know something more because you will have to write a journal".
Reflective seminars	Give a possibility to explain ideas which were expressed in the journal, help to notice, to think everything over	"Citation from the journals, re-questioning your questions during the seminars, allowed us to penetrate into the things we didn't know. We got general information but we couldn't sift it. Your questions allowed us cataloguing information. The final essay was easier to write as well".

	Allow emotional discharge	"Our discussions during reflective seminars allowed me to feel well. After the participation in the community I was able to tell what was wrong, what was right. If there weren't discussions, journal writing could be very hard, because you are full of emotions and you need to discharge them".
	Help to share the information, experience and to master knowledge better	"Reflective seminars are very helpful. When you discuss you understand more and you master everything better. We found out the basic things in the process of reflection and discussion".
	Encourage to search for the information responsibly	"It encouraged me to seek information to be able to tell the others about my experience and to provide reliable information about the community, to give reasonable arguments and to debate".
	Encourage to think and analyze	"You are able to express your own opinion and to hear the opinion of other students, to think everything over and sometimes perceive and to accept everything differently. When you have just your own opinion and you don't know the opinion of other students, it's not good. Besides, the constant questions, re-questioning encourages you to think more. It was very useful".
	Encourage discussion, develop discussion skills	"The discussions, competing and diverse opinions revealed the liveliness of the course. We took part in voluntary discussions; we were willing to discuss ourselves".
	Encourage discussion, dialog because of the feeling of safety and trust the seminars create	"I liked that our discussion groups were small. It allowed us to express our ideas, to express them safely. The students in our group are not friendly. Some students always talk but they do not usually allow the others to express their ideas. Everybody could talk because of small groups".
Reflective essays	Encourage to be active searching for the information	"When I was writing an essay I met the members of the community one more time, because I had extra questions".
	Help to relate theory and practice, to systematize knowledge	"The final essay makes us read scientific literature, secular literature, feminist literature, for example. In the final essay it is necessary to generalize and to confirm your knowledge".

Conclusions

The research revealed that reflective tools are not just useful tools for developing reflection skills, critical and analytical thinking, but as created texts they give the opportunity for the lecturer and students themselves to follow the dynamics of students' attitudes and skills. The analysis of the content of reflective tools revealed

the dynamics in the students' attitudes, when their negative attitudes such as insularity, hostility, lack of dialogical attitudes and tolerance changed into openness, ability to accept the otherness, dialogical attitude, attitudes which are considered to be important citizenship competences. Reflective tools allow seeing what students think and feel, how they perceive and accept their experience and everything they experience in the community. Thus we can see the students' attitudes and follow their cognitive processes.

The research revealed that reflective tools contribute to the development of such forms of citizenship as cultural citizenship which emphasize tolerance, respect for diversity, ability to live in the plural society and ability to perform a dialog. These tools giving the opportunity to encourage and follow the students' cognitive processes are also useful instruments for developing justice oriented citizenship, which emphasizes critical thinking, ability to critically assess social, political and economic structures.

Even though such citizenship attitudes as attitude of voluntary help were revealed in the students' texts, it is difficult to trace other forms of citizenship, such as participatory citizenship or socially responsible citizenship, directly as these forms require concrete actions to be taken. The reflective tools such as journals, seminars, essays, interviews are useful instruments, which reveal what students think and feel, what is in their mind, what they mean by saying one thing or another, but they do not allow evaluating their activities in the community, as for example, could be done by using observation or assessing students' project work and problem-solving situations.

Nevertheless, these tools revealed positive impact on the development of socially responsible citizenship; it is worth considering the combination of reflective practices and tools with other forms of learning and assessment activities (project presentations, written protocols on problem solving, etc.) in order to develop, reinforce and evaluate all above mentioned forms of citizenship – personally responsible, participatory and socially responsible citizenship.

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Learning Experiences, Learning Materials: Textual Relationships

Dr. Jeniffer Mohammed

Social studies is an interdisciplinary and experiential study of social life focusing on good citizenship and becoming more human. In Trinidad & Tobago and other countries these purposes tend to be subverted by the use of texts with a traditional focus on the transmission of facts, knowledge and skills. To nurture commitment to the ideas inherent in being a good citizen or a good human, teaching and learning must necessarily tap into and use the experiences of students. To be able to study social life meaningfully, teaching and learning must necessarily be interdisciplinary and grounded in social and cultural contexts. This study examines several social studies texts in use in the education system in Trinidad & Tobago to explore their approach to interdisciplinarity, how they tap into and integrate the experiences of the learner, and how they portray culture and society in the context of citizenship in Trinidad & Tobago. Secondly, the study examines the nature of the challenge involved in attempting to realize the purposes of social studies through textual materials – largely that of re-conceptualizing the relationship between teachers, learners and text/educational media.

Introduction

Social studies deals with social situations and everyday life (such as becoming human and being social) but textbooks to a large extent treat with these issues in a formal and formulaic manner. At school social studies holds the promise of being an avenue to critical thinking, democracy and good citizenship. However, these goals fade in the face of a plethora of perspectives and ideologies (indicative of social life) where those that predominate regard the subject as akin to the other disciplines so that it is taught as a body of factual knowledge and skills. This is also indicative of social life where positivist assumptions underlie much of what we do. This inherent ambiguity has tended to obviate the essential 'social' nature of social studies. Whether via textbooks or classrooms, teaching and learning in social studies is essentially *anti*social studies. This paper discusses through an analysis of social studies texts in use in Trinidad and Tobago the kinds of challenges that social studies presents to textbook writers, especially in a reform climate that expects more than just expository materials. It proposes some principles to assist writers in confronting the 'social' nature of the subject. The latter is clarified through attention to learning as a social construction; that students are social beings and have experiences that can inform their own learning, and that social life unfolds largely in an interdisciplinary way. Students are more likely to relate critical thinking, democracy and good citizenship to their own lives if the social is emphasized over traditional disciplinary knowledge.

Social Studies: Perennial Issues

Social studies is perhaps the only subject on the school's curriculum that has been plagued by so much on-going criticism and disagreement about what it is (Egan, 1983, Beardsley, 2004, Carpenter, 2004, and Crocco, 2004). In the US three traditions evolved in conceptualizing knowledge of the social and therefore how to teach and write about it - citizenship transmission, social science knowledge, and reflective inquiry (Barth, 1989). Citizenship transmission was concerned with improving social life through learning about democracy; knowledge of the discrete social science disciplines of history, geography, economics, and civics were also believed to contribute to a well-informed citizen; and improvements in society or being the 'good citizen' could come about as well through reflective inquiry about social problems. Later reforms in social studies saw Bruner (1966) and others emphasizing student experiences. This new *"...attitude of social studies curriculum designers ... was characterized by a concern for effective education as identified not by scholars from the disciplines but by the students themselves"* (Barth, 1989, p.13).The questions posed by Bruner still have merit in thinking about the field of social studies and the approaches for teaching and learning and textbook writing, "What is it to be human?" and "How can we become more so?" These key questions acknowledge the 'social' nature of the subject.

However, the *New Right* did not go far enough in helping social studies educators to develop ways and habits of dealing with these questions and social studies learning continues to be approached through textbooks. It is not that textbooks are not useful, but the approach to the process whereby these materials are produced needs to be carefully scrutinized. For example, just like any other discipline, the knowledge in social studies textbooks is treated as if it is 'finished' – it becomes a matter to teach it and learn it. Writers as they prepare to construct their texts do not really believe that students already have this knowledge – or some part of it (Cunningham, Duffy & Knuth, 2000). The relationship that the writer has in his or her mind with potential users of the text is basically one of transmitting important knowledge to a young person about being a good citizen. The New Right has sensitized us about being student-centred and interdisciplinary, but social studies educators and textbook writers continue to grapple with how to realize these goals.

Social Studies Texts

In the era of independence and decolonization (the 1960s and 1970s) African, Caribbean and other ex-colonies adopted the US social studies model with a view towards building citizenship and patriotism (Barth, 1989). Inevitably, they also adopted the ambiguities in the field and even though periodic revisions have occurred there is still a very 'traditional' slant to school social studies – rhetoric about citizenship and critical thinking on the one hand and a practice of teacher dominated classrooms on the other (Tabulawa, 1997, and Mohammed & Keller, 2004). In Trinidad & Tobago today the latest reforms have produced a national curriculum for forms 1 to 3 (ages 11 to 15 years) in lower secondary education. The textbooks analyzed for this study represent the first complete series written in accordance with the new curriculum. The syllabus document, while it sees students as understanding *"themselves as social beings, with relationships with others, family members,*

community, nation, state, the Caribbean region and other parts of the world" (Republic of Trinidad & Tobago, 2002, p.2-2), lays a great deal of emphasis on explicating 'Learning Outcomes' in terms of Knowledge, Skills and Values. This presents a dilemma to textbooks writers and publishers who tend to opt for giving maximum coverage to the concepts rather than attempting viable student-centred pedagogies.

Methodology

The paper analyzes one series of social studies texts in use for forms 1 to 3. This is the only series on the market at present, written in accordance with the new curriculum, and it has been approved for use in schools although it has not been piloted. It consists of three texts:

1. Ramsawak, R., & Umraw, R. (2005). *Interactive Social Studies: Form 1 Focu*s. San Fernando, Trinidad: Caribbean Educational Publishers. Rev. ed.

2. Ramsawak, R., Jodha, S., & Gangapersad, G. (2005). *Interactive Social Studies: Form 2 Focu*ses. La Romaine, Trinidad: Caribbean Educational Publishers.

3. Ramsawak, R., Jodha, S., & Bidaisee, S. (2006). *Interactive Social Studies: Form 3 Focu*ses. La Romaine, Trinidad: Caribbean Educational Publishers.

Analysis focused on questions about how *the social*, interdisciplinarity, and student experiences were explored and less attention was paid to other features of a text such as readability, organizational structures, and advance organizers (Newton, 1990).

❖ The *social* refers to social life – how different persons or groups perceive or experience some thing or issue, and how that compares with others, for example in the community, or at the level of the nation and beyond. It is essentially a relational experience.

❖ *Interdisciplinarity* is often interpreted as multidisciplinarity or seen in the efforts by teachers to integrate disciplinary knowledge (Hinde, 2005, Klein, 2006). Less often is there an appreciation that *interdisciplinarity is brought by the students via their own experiences.*

❖ *Student experiences* are evident through the relationship that a writer adopts with users of the text.

Overarching Questions

(A)   How are social studies conceptualized?
  o   What, if any, evidence is there that this is a 'social' study?
  o   What insights are gained about the relationships between text and reader in social studies and how could those relationships be further enhanced through textual as well as other media?

(B)   Substantive Issues: Content (Knowledge, Skills, Values)
  o   How does the text focus on social studies as an interdisciplinary/experiential study?

(C)   Pedagogy
   o   How do the approaches used in the text encourage learning?
   o   Do the materials ask for and integrate the students' experiences in the body of the text and in the exercises?
   o   Does the text use the exercises to add new knowledge (about the topic and the learner) not just assess what has been covered?
   o   Does the text make use of a range of formats to elicit an examination of many aspects of an issue?
   o   Does the text seem to motivate students to carry out their own investigations as an integral part of the teaching-learning process?

Analysis: Textual Relationships

Form 1 Focus:
The subject matter includes – *My Personal World, My Community, and Citizenship*. Much of it focuses on the individual as a developing adolescent, moral and values education and the family told through stories, narratives, poems, biographies, cartoons and pictures of family situations to motivate the student to compare his or her own experiences. The exercises also sometimes pose interesting questions to engage the reader – "When does the life of an individual begin?" (p.3) and "What problems would occur if all people were identical?" (p.28). The introduction of a 'future wheel' (p.71) provides a meaningful device of approaching change and consequences in the family as well as in other relationships. All these are positive examples of how the text envisages 'the social'. The vocabulary exercises appear useful as the student is expected to use the words in context.

The authors tend however only to use 'you' in the exercises whereas it would have been a simple way of introducing the learner and his/her experiences directly in text. The very first page shows a diagram of a circle with photographs of the life cycle of "an individual", complete with the terms "pre-natal" and "senescence". At no point is the learner directly involved – the text continues *"Childhood covers the period from…"* (p.6), and proceeds to tell children about childhood. Somewhat disturbing is how the whole issue of puberty and sexuality is treated. As early as page 6 of the text, without the benefit of any questioning or discussion, the text asks the students (11-year-olds, in possibly their first week in secondary school) to defend their stance on abortion. To learn more about adolescence they are encouraged to go to the library and then fill out a table asking for hormonal, physical and emotional changes (p.9). This is soon followed by a class discussion on being sexually active: *reasons for remaining a virgin as an adolescent* (p.10). It may not have been intended but because a 'virgin' is normally associated with females double gender standards are being reinforced. The text improves as it goes on to treat at some length with the worries and concerns of adolescents. However, the authors evade the biology of puberty and how that is experienced by young people. They leave it up to the students to research. It would seem to be an anti-social decision to construct the text in this way – adolescents evince a deep interest in their own developing bodies and that of others - but the text tries to sidestep the students' lived experiences.

While there is much of interest in the section on "Relationships" in families and "How families begin" (p.38), largely because of the scenarios posed accompanied by drawings of family scenes, at the same time there is bias in the attempts to urge choices upholding the status quo. For example, nuclear families are depicted in a positive light whilst common law unions are associated with persons who have temporary jobs and are of lower socio-economic status. Interestingly, the arranged marriage (p.40) has the stamp of approval (everybody is smiling) whilst an elopement because of religious objections by parents (p.41) shows the male partner as a sinister character. (Objection to marriage based on religion is portrayed as a norm).

In "My Community" the authors give a detailed study (pages 160-211) of a small community, Tulsa Trace, in Penal – a district overwhelmingly inhabited by people of Indian origin in Trinidad. The authors intend the study to be a sample and as students follow the format they would learn how to study their own community. However, in an ethnically charged context (in Trinidad descendants of Indians and Africans are almost equal in number) the book is promoting one ethnic group through extensive coverage. At the very least two communities could have been studied.

The book ends with a section on Citizenship – the raison d'être of social studies. The syllabus objectives are – "To demonstrate:

- the importance of rules and regulations to society
- the processes involved in making rules and regulations
- the parliamentary process and the making of laws
- the role of the judiciary and the police
- the functions of government
- the importance of the electoral process
- the function of local and central government
- human rights and freedoms, including the rights of the child
- citizenship and the responsibilities of citizens" (p.212)

The authors try to 'manage' these rather narrow but very detailed set of objectives by focusing on 'telling' the student through a variety of ways (definitions, text, drawings and stories) how they should act as responsible citizens. It is a bland approach that does not situate the discussion in the political context of Trinidad & Tobago – in discussing elections, names of actual political parties are avoided and the recent history of party politics is ignored. The goals of critical thinking, democracy and good citizenship cannot be achieved by mere 'telling'.

Form 2 Focus:
The text is divided into four parts: Part 1 *Evolution and Change*, Part 2 *Technological Change*, Part 3 *Economic Resources* and Part 4 *Economic Development*. Again it is quite comprehensive and so each topic is dealt with in a summary way but supported by many pictures, drawings, biographies, and a variety of objective type and more open ended exercises. However, unlike Level 1 there are no narratives or stories perhaps, because of the intent to deal with the content as factual knowledge and perhaps, because the students are one year older, the authors felt that stories were not so appropriate. Little opportunity is taken to elicit interdisciplinary connections – for example, in the section Technology and Health (p.142) the text remains at the level of immunization, drugs, HIV/AIDS and ultrasound equipment. Technology is not

viewed as originating with ideas and human problems that are context based but rather as devices and processes in modern life. Student experiences are tapped in the exercises and activities showing, in the writers' minds, a clear separation between learning and applying that knowledge to one's life. This fails at being experiential or social.

Form 3 Focus:
There are only two sections - *the Physical Environment* and *the Social Environment* - with longer expository sequences and a multitude of exercises and activities, and there are no stories. The physical environment is treated as geography with much more detail than required by the syllabus. For example, the Form 3 syllabus states that rivers should be studied as an example of a natural system (p.2-5) but the text treats with *saltation* and *traction,* different processes of transport in a river. In doing so, there is little difference between what is deemed important as social studies for Form 3 and what a student is expected to learn in Form 5 for the terminal examinations in geography. Similarly, there is a wealth of detail on different branches of the government, parliamentary procedures and how a bill becomes law. A topic that could bristle with controversy unfolds as factual knowledge, much of it echoing what was presented in Level 1 as Citizenship.

Summary: Analysis of the Texts

This series assumes a relationship with the student as one embedded in transmission. There is no role for the teacher except to follow the guidance of the text and the learner too is largely irrelevant to the discourse. The text clearly shows accommodations to satisfy stakeholders who may be looking for a one-to-one correspondence between syllabus and text. It is entirely probable that the writers feel that there are limits to what can be accomplished by a text and so enlivening the exposition has been their approach – namely, emphasis on the visual and varying the exercises, strategies aimed at exciting the learner. If 'the social' is tackled, or an interdisciplinary or experiential strategy emerges it is merely serendipitous.

Constructing Textual Materials in the Social Studies

A number of issues arise pertinent to the construction of more authentic social studies texts:

(1) *Interpreting a syllabus*. For other disciplines it may be just a straight forward matter of treating with the content outlined but for the social studies *the content itself* needs to be deconstructed as a preliminary task in writing a text.

(2) *Managing the dilemma*. 'Covering' the content *and* engaging with the social has to be an explicit goal for writers through:
   - inclusion of how others or other groups are experiencing something e.g. citizenship
   - relating to individual, group, community, national, regional and, global levels e.g. co-operation
   - relating to the past, present and future e.g. settlements and change

- using a variety of places to show differences and commonalities e.g. culture, customs, dress
- trying to show many different sides of some issue e.g. crime, technology.

(3) *Interweaving teaching, learning and testing*. Traditional (mainly behaviourist) views on learning separate exposition from assessment. Texts mirror this assumption by introducing innovative activities, questions and exercises as *separate tasks*. Each chapter is systematically designed around exposition materials punctuated by a medley of tests and tasks, and this gives the book a structure and coherent feel. More constructivist views about learning however do not compartmentalize learning and assessment seeing it as one process; to design such materials however would be breaking new ground for textbook writers.

(4) *Developing an authentic relationship between text and users:*
- student-centredness makes the curriculum interdisciplinary. In reflecting on their experiences students draw on everyday knowledge and in so doing span a range of disciplines without necessarily being able to say that the pollution of the river nearby is due to a combination of factors that could be studied as geography, history, sociology, culture, or biology.
- student-centredness allows the writers to make connections with users. If writers see their role as filling a void in students then the materials will not acknowledge users as genuine social beings with some knowledge or experience to share but as people who have to 'cover' some material for a test.

Discussion

Confronting a large body of social science content seems to be the greatest problem besetting textbook writers in social studies. They make certain assumptions in converting this content into textual materials, namely the urge to treat the content as given and the curriculum goals as narrow, direct and specific. The content and curriculum goals become the starting point for the writing exercise and the content becomes the text. However, if due attention is paid to the *subtexts* being advocated (being social, experiential and interdisciplinary) the 'text' would not loom as large, the sub-texts would take over. The idea we want to put forward is that if a social studies text is to be regarded as authentic learning materials the subtexts have to emerge.

How then can would-be authors 'confront' the material to be covered? Let us look at the design of interactive/social experiences. Starting with the content as outlined is not a good idea as it cannot in itself be made interactive. For example, 'agriculture' can be very well understood in terms of location, climatic and soil controls, pests and diseases, natural disasters, marketing, and so on, but in a transmissive mode. Interaction has to be deliberately worked in resulting in 'school' knowledge – important for passing examinations but not necessarily about social life. However, if the authors realize that there are perspectives *to the content* then they would from the inception be able to craft an approach that better reflects the 'social' and a more transactional pedagogy.

Perspectives on the content can include the following approaches: as social issues, social problems, social categories and social services. Usually authors tend to adopt one approach which minimizes the different dimensions inherent in the topic and the possibilities for interaction. A study of agriculture as a *social issue* focuses on it as a sustainable economic activity especially in terms of food production important to small island developing states with few resources. As a *social problem* the focus shifts to the reluctance of citizens to engage in agriculture, the social sanctions associated with hard, manual labour largely through our historical connections with slavery and indentureship, and the distribution of lands previously held by large plantations. A *social categories* approach would emphasize types of agriculture – plantation, peasant, subsistence, mixed farming and market gardening – where each is located, how it is organized, and characteristics of the labour supply and markets. *A social services* approach would highlight the nature of arrangements through which agriculture is involved in poverty reduction strategies and the empowerment of communities and groups such as rural women leading to increased food security and agricultural development. Thus, to bring economy to the task of writing a social studies text a broad sweep is necessary at first through these perspectives giving different conceptualizations of the content. The authors may choose which to emphasize for different topics but the whole syllabus would have to be envisaged in this multiperspectival way.

Levels of variety and relationships would then imbue each topic making it more of a 'social' study. This could be deepened if the authors operate from the premise that the student must have some experiences of the topic and so a transactional approach begins to develop. A series of questions, some based on personal knowledge, maps, pictures, statistics and some based on the student's own decision about what to research can produce a broad spectrum of knowledge. Interrogation can involve other disciplines without necessarily separating them out and tap into different levels of social life: "Why is farming a low-status occupation in our country?" "What are the conditions like in those countries where farmers make a good living?" "What policies are being put in place to improve agriculture in different communities"? "How does farming in Trinidad and Tobago differ from that in Guyana and how similar is it? Here the subtexts begin to emerge.

The issues do not always have to be couched as direct questions. Narratives could be created where the questions are immanent, built into the materials, so that the learner could actually discover contradictions/ insights/ interesting ideas for discussion and ongoing research. Retrieving information will engage the learner in looking for and assessing materials. The teacher can learn not only where the learner stands in relation to the content taught but can use these experiences to learn more about the learners and, how they learn. It is possible that a text written like this where the teaching and learning is not separated from the assessment would look far different from a traditional text in social studies. Lest that be a frightening prospect, perhaps we can mull over the idea of a 'good' text to convince ourselves that we really do need more authentic learning materials.

- A good text does not have to repeat material from other texts. One should not go to a text for information especially if that information can be accessed from other sources. For a student it is more about use of a text in

an active and experiential way than procuring information. The same materials will be covered as in other texts but it is the student who follows up and reads widely – it is not all laid out in the text.

- A good text tries to capture the experiences students are having now and so cannot be written by persons holed up in their libraries or in front of their computers imagining what may be of interest to children. Writing should be a process involving children from the beginning hearing their responses and delving into their understandings.

Ideas about what constitutes a 'good' social studies text are commensurate with initiatives today that stress the need for a curriculum for peace and democracy. Ironically, the school subject primarily entrusted with the goal of 'good citizenship' has been doing so through texts that limit the social dimensions of issues, limit the view of the learner as actively involved in learning and limit the experiences that learners bring. However, when the sub-texts of a social, interdisciplinary and experiential curriculum are allowed to emerge learners are more likely to feel empowered and connected to others, dispositions eminently suited to peaceful and democratic outcomes.

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Walking and wandering in a theoretical scenery - The usefulness of reader-response theories in today's work with educational texts

Bente Aamotsbakken and Susanne V. Knudsen

Introduction

During the last decades of the 20th century reader-response theories were introduced and discussed in much of the research of literature and media. [1]The theories were inspired by different epistemological positions such as semiotics (Eco 1979, Riffaterre 1978), phenomenology (Iser 1974, 1976, Jauβ 1982) and post-structuralism (Fish 1980, Felman 1982 [1977]). Most of the theories were introduced as literary theories, and transferred to media studies. In literary pedagogy and media pedagogy the theories were related to professional readers, i.e. readers connected with the curriculum subjects. The reader-response theories were opposed to a content-oriented analysis, which focused on texts and pictures. The theories have more or less tried to combine text, reader and context. Some theories were regarded useful, due to the awareness of the interaction between the text and the reader and thus focusing on the reader positions in the text. Other theories were to a greater extent focusing on the readers meeting the text as individuals and as subjects in a context of interpretive communities. The step from the readers' meeting the text in the interpretive communities into to the world outside the classroom was an attempt to integrate the political and ideological discourses of cultural practices (Corcoran 1994). Discourse theory was regarded as useful in order to shed light upon the interconnections and interplays of texts in changing cultural contexts.

This article reflects on the use of the different reader-response theories in analyzing educational texts, textbooks for schools and educational media. The aim is to present the various theories by showing in different ways how they can inspire reading and usage of educational texts. In the first section, the concept of literacy is used to introduce the competences of the readers, developing the concept into the plural form, literacies. Then the paper introduces the concepts of interaction and transaction in the second section to map the ongoing discussion on the text and the reader in a pedagogical setting. The third and fourth sections concentrate on two of the most well-known theorists of reader-response theory – Umberto Eco and Wolfgang Iser – in order to reflect on how to use these theories in an analysis of educational texts. In the fifth section radical readings are presented as ways of deconstructing educational texts.

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[1] The theories are often separated in reader-response criticism and reception theories. Some researchers connect the reader-response criticism to the American influenced theories by for example Norman Holland and Stanley Fish, and the reception theories to the German aesthetic impact theories, also labelled "the Constance School" by for example Wolfgang Iser and Hans-Robert Jauss. However, the German inspired theories can also be represented by the Italian Umberto Eco. Researchers can also connect reader-response criticism to literature, whereas reception theories are used in media analyses. Furthermore, Wolfgang Iser and Umberto Eco can be placed in an anthology about reception theories (Olsen og Kelstrup eds 1996). In this article we use the concept of reader response theories to introduce theoretical positions across the countries, "schools", literature and media.

Finally, the sixth section points towards culturally oriented practices to include the world outside the classroom.

Literacy/literacies

Today using literacies in the plural form is introduced in theoretical approaches to the extended field of literacy research (Knudsen and Aamotsbakken 2007). In the 1990s the concept of literacy was discussed by the Lancaster group of researchers headed by David Barton. In that decade the most common definition of literacy was understood to be the ability to read and write (Barton 1994, Mjelve 2002). Along with the introduction of digital media in the same decade the definition was broadened to be "the ability to understand information however presented" (Lanham 1995). This understanding of literacy can be referred to as digital literacy, a competence that incorporates the ability to use multimodality and hypertextuality, and furthermore, it includes interactive ability.

Colin Lankshear and Michele Knobel have made a critical comment on what they call the "mainstream definitions of digital literacy" (Lankshear and Knobel 2006, 14). They find that it is all too oriented towards information, that it is used as "skill, tool, technique", and that it turns the awareness towards "It is something you 'have' or lack, and anyone who lacks it 'needs' to get it." (ibid., 16, 15). From a sociocultural perspective they argue that there are many digital literacies:

> We should think of "digital literacy" as shorthand for the myriad of social practices and conceptions of engaging in meaning-making mediated by texts that are produced, received, distributed, exchanged etc., via digital codification. Digital literacy is really digital *literacies* [...] There are many different social practices and conceptions of searching, of navigating links, of evaluating credibility of sources, of "posting", and so on. These vary according to how people "identify" themselves: that is, according to the values they have, the social groups they relate to, the affinities they invest in and attach themselves to, the purposes they see themselves pursuing, the kinds of images they seek to project, and so on. (ibid., 17).

When dealing with educational texts it seems highly relevant to be aware of the many literacies that are required of the students. At various levels of the educational system today they have to cope with a number of literacies. The ability to read is basic and essential, and connected with this is the ability to read in various ways. A different way of reading is employed when reading texts and pictorial expressions on paper as compared to reading on the Internet. It could turn out paradoxically that people today on the one hand are supported by a growing number of digital tools like iPods, cell phones, computers, Bluetooth, etc., while on the other hand these items challenge literacy competences and require various literacies of the reader or user.

In order to shed light on the different demands on today's reader it is worthwhile reflecting upon the situation of the readers in earlier epochs. It is reasonable to start the reflection with the development of the schooling system as such and choose the event of the introduction of a compulsory school in the Nordic countries. This took place in the 18th century, but in the beginning reading was solely connected to the reading of religious texts. When reading was made common for every student in primary school in the 19th century, the principle of decoding the text attracted attention. Reading should be fluent, with no unnecessary pauses or hesitations. The student was not asked to

understand the content of the text or immerse in it by reflecting on the matter. When reading was incorporated in mother tongue teaching, the textual content gained attention. Decoding was regarded as insufficient, and a more advanced reading process was required.

If the reading process is addressed, the first reading is normally one of decoding, but the second reading starts a reflection process while trying to move behind the text and search for possible hidden meanings. In every text there is a tension between the surface structure and a deeper one. The reader has to move behind the text and read between the lines. Michael Riffaterre, in his work *Semiotics of Poetry* is referring to the reading process as a staged process, where you go back after the first reading to explore the meaning of the text (Riffaterre 1978). Riffaterre's objects of examination are poems, but ordinary reading processes can profit by his reflections.[2] That is in fact what is happening in every reading; you try to decode the text in front of you, you move on to reflect on its meaning, and the last step is the one linking together the two previous ones. In this phase semiotic reading is undertaken.

Interaction or transaction?

One way to examine the reading process is related to the concepts of interaction and transaction. An early attempt in this field is represented by the American researcher in literature and education, Louise Rosenblatt, who introduced the reader-response theory in the book *Literature as Exploration* (1938). She points towards the interaction between the individual reader and the text:

> There is no such thing as a generic reader or a generic literary work; there are only the potential millions of individual readers of the potential millions of individual literary works. A novel or poem or play remains merely ink spots on paper until a reader transforms them into a set of meaningful symbols. (Rosenblatt 1995 [1938], 24).

Rosenblatt distances herself from New Criticism with its focus on the text, the autonomous text, the right or wrong reading of the text, and the ignorance of the reader. She insists on reading literature as an "event" that takes form in the readers, "a lived through experience". Her goal is professional reading and to develop professional readers of literature, but built on "living through", not "knowing about", i.e. "personal associations, feelings, and ideas being lived through during the reading." (ibid., 292). A text exists, and the reader has to be aware of the text's resources, and use her or his experience in interacting with it. Literature is about "what literature means to them and does for them." (ibid., 64). However, literary studies are a matter of helping the students to develop their aesthetic readings, and some readings are more meant to cover the message and form of a given text than others.

In educational texts one can approach the readers in the preface. In the basic textbook *Kontekst 8-10* (Context) (2006) for Norwegian mother tongue education from

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[2] Many reader-response oriented researchers operate with processes, among others the American researcher Judith Langer, with a model covering four phases: 1) Being out and stepping into an envisionment, 2) Being in and moving through an envisionment, 3) Stepping back and rethinking what one knows and 4) Stepping back and objectifying the experience (Langer 1995).

8th to10th grades (13-15 years old), the preface starts with a personal approach: "For those of you who are using this book!" (Our translation). The you-approach in singular is also used to explain what the students should learn, and it is also used to encourage the students to choose training courses in some of the book's topics in cooperation with the teacher. The reader position is revealed for the student (as a user of the book) in the preface, telling her or him that *Kontekst* is a book that wants to establish a dialogue with "you"; the student is free to read the book in ways of his or her own choosing. With inspiration from Rosenblatt, the preface as an educational text points towards reading as an individual activity. Also, the text encourages the student to choose training courses in cooperation with the teacher, and opens for a dialogue between the student, the text and the teacher as a triad. The preface says: "In cooperation with the teacher you choose the course that suits you and your learning needs. Tasks, tests, summaries and glossaries are meant as aids during the process" (Our translation).

However, the you-approach in the preface is also used in a one-way form of communication to inform the students what they "must" learn. The preface states: "Context 8-10 is intended to give you knowledge of the Norwegian language, and make it possible for you to improve your use of the language, both in writing and in speech" (Our translation). The use of one-way communication implies that the reader is dictated by the text to read it in a certain way. This can be interpreted from a sentence like "We have arranged the curriculum as courses." Furthermore, on the website the reader is dictated by the use of an impersonal approach. However, the reader can also choose between *rooms* (corresponding to the chapters in the basic textbook). If the students, for example, choose oral communication, they move into a room where they can view a video with reporters from the Norwegian Television (NRK). They can listen to sound tracks or they can view an animation connected to a poem. The website is a mixture of the reader as dictated and the reader as one who can be actively involved by choosing rooms. However, the students are not invited to communicate interactively, as the digital media do not open up for the possibility of making their own texts, illustrations and sounds in dialogue with the website (Schwebs and Otnes 2001).

This dilemma between the "reader as dictated" and the reading as an individual activity can be highlighted by the critic of Rosenblatt's use of interaction. Her concept of interaction has been criticized for dualism between the role of the text, the text as an object on one hand, and the role of the reader, the reader as an individual subject on the other hand. With the reader as dictated, the student must focus on the text. The text represents the authority, and the reader position is either reading the text correctly or misreading it. Rosenblatt has been criticized for keeping up an elitist perspective on reading literature by maintaining that there is misreading of literature (Tompkins, 1980). *Kontekst 8-10* tries to avoid the reader as dictated in its personal approach to activate the individual student, but struggles with the same problem as other educational texts that want to underscore the professional orientation – and not only the pedagogic or entertaining setting.

However, Rosenblatt has been an inspiration to studies of the ways students read literature, for example, whether the students read literature as fiction or non-fiction (Hetmar 1996, Sørensen 2001, Kaspersen 2004). In the Nordic countries several research projects of students' readings have been carried out. Instead of looking at misreading, the studies have opened for awareness of the resources in the students' readings, and how these resources or growth items can be supported and developed.

This is where the concept of transaction enters into the discussion as a way of overcoming the separation of the text and the reader. Actually, Rosenblatt has changed her concept of interaction to the concept of transaction. Transaction is, as she writes it, "an ongoing process in which the elements or factors are, one might say, aspects of a total situation, each conditioned by and conditioning the other." (Rosenblatt 1993 with reference to Dewey and Bentley 1949). Within the Rosenblatt-tradition, transaction can be understood as the dialogue between the text and the reader with a main focus on how the students read the text.[3] However, the focus on the reader is mostly related to Stanley Fish (see below).

The model reader and the model student

In the semiotic field the frequently quoted work by Umberto Eco, *The Role of the Reade. Explorations in the semiotics of texts* (1979) also offers interesting perspectives in analyzing the reading process and the concept of interaction (a term that he himself does not use). Eco started out studying fictional texts, but today his theoretical reflections have been adapted to a number of textual genres. It has for instance been rather common to use Eco's theoretical concepts when dealing with educational texts and texts categorized as non-fiction (Tønnesson 2004, Bjorvand and Tønnessen 2002, Aamotsbakken 2007).

Reading textbooks in an educational context differs from the reading performed in a context of leisure, nevertheless, the principle of moving through various reading phases may be of relevance. Needless to say, the reading of an existing crime novel rarely allows the reader to go back and ask for the hidden meaning of the text. In this context the association with Peter Brooks' title *Reading for the Plot* becomes evident (Brooks 1984). Brooks makes us understand how readers approach a text and move forward to get a sense of the plot as quickly as possible. This mainly refers to the reading of fiction, but the reading of educational texts is different. The Swedish researcher Staffan Selander says that it is hard to come across a person having read a textbook out of a pure desire for amusement (Selander 2003). In other words, the reading of educational texts is quite different from reading in a private context. Leisure reading is done with more ease and amusement than the reading which is done in learning contexts.

According to Eco the different reading attitudes are linked to his concept of the model reader. Eco claims that every text has one or several model readers embedded in its structure. The model reader is not an authentic reader, but a reading position in the text to be entered by a potential reader outside the text. The authentic reader approaches the text with his or her knowledge, expectations and frustrations. When meeting the text, this reader has the opportunity to become integrated and thus feel comforted when reading. On the other hand, this reader also has the potential to meet the text with frustrations and thus feel hindered by a number of obstacles on his or her way through the text. It turns out to be the textual qualities that are decisive in this respect.

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[3] The American research centre CELA is lead by three of the most used researchers on literary pedagogy - Arthur Applebee, Judith Langer and Martin Nystrand. All of them are inspired by Rosenblatt's works.

Eco has developed two categories to deal with the concept of the model reader; i.e. open and closed texts. He is the first to acknowledge that this division of the textual world in two main categories is an oversimplification. The two categories can, however, serve as means of reflection when dealing with texts in general. The first category, the open text, is characterized by a large number of textual codes like references, intertextual patterns and advanced idioms claiming a certain competence of the reader. The codes embedded in the text must, to a certain extent, be shared by the reader. If this is not the case, the text is in danger of breaking down; or the reader will leave the text and drop further reading. Texts belonging to the category of open texts are often scientific texts or advanced fictional texts. The opposite category, the closed text, belongs to the so-called popular culture, which seems to be a difficult category to define. However, these texts do not offer the reader complicated patterns or a variety of hidden meanings. They simply offer opportunities for amusement and relaxation. Eco mentioned several texts as exemplifications; as an open text he referred to Franz Kafka's novel *The Castle*. When this text was read as a crime novel he claimed it would simply break down. In contrast, Eco referred to novels by Ian Flemming with James Bond as the main character. These novels offer no unexpected or alternative interpretations on the part of the reader. In other words, they are closed for alternative interpretations, whereas the open text is open for interpretation all along the reading process.

Educational texts normally offer the reader a mixture of open and closed texts. Whereas some sequences may appear rather open and challenging, other parts may be closed in a way that offers just one solution to a potential problem. The latter example can often be found in textbooks in mathematics, in which the students are trained to trace the one correct solution to a task or a problem. Mathematical textbooks may also be furnished with an additional component consisting of the correct answers to the various exercises (an answer book). In the case of religion as a school subject, in Norway referred to as KRL (Christianity, Religion and Ethics), it is a common trend to divide the textbooks into sections marked with different colour codes. In a new KRL textbook called *Horisonter* (Horizons) this principle is contained with sections of yellow, blue and green, of which green is the most advanced one (Holth et al. 2006). In the green section the students are challenged by open texts demanding knowledge of cultural codes. It also requires willingness to search for information on the Internet or from other relevant sources outside the textbook. Several tasks in this section turn out to be too difficult for a substantial proportion of the students, and they will therefore probably turn to other sections of the textbook which contain closed texts.

By twisting and turning Eco's concept of the model reader, a similar figure may appear - the model student. It may be assumed that this figure corresponds to a "generic reader", a reader that hardly exists (see Rosenblatt). The model student in an educational text may be characterized in several ways. This student can correspond to the model reader envisaged for a relatively open text, and when this is the case, we are faced with an authentic, competent reader who is studying the text very carefully. In a closed text there are not, according to Eco, many possibilities for alternative reading strategies and interpretations. The text is closed in a way that excludes the readers' creativity, imagination and reflection, and it leads the reader to follow the paths in the text that are trodden by the author of the text. To refer to Eco's exemplification with novels written by Ian Flemming about James Bond, the texts would break down if the reader does not accept the plot and look for alternative textual solutions.

Eco's work on reception of texts is inspired by a number of theorists. One of the important influences can be traced to the work of Charles Sander Peirce. Peirce has indeed influenced many receptionist thinkers, one of them being the above mentioned Michel Riffaterre. Peirce launched a triangle, a model for reflecting upon and understanding of the relations between a sign and its context. The triangle consists of the sign itself, the object which is represented by the sign, and the interpreter. The interpreter is necessary because the connection between the sign and the object represented is not always evident. In Eco's textual concept the interpreter can be seen as parallel to the model reader; a position in the text claiming a receptory practice by the reader in order to make the text function. If the position of the model reader in the text is too ambitious and demands too much of the reader, the text will break down to be non-functional. According to Pierce, the text in this context is the object, but the text is nothing more than a composition containing various signs. The signs form sentences and paragraphs, or they can appear as non-interpretable. There seems to be a rather indistinct link between the text as an object of interpretation and the signs themselves functioning as objects. This dual role of the signs may lead to breaches of understanding in the reading process.

Different Model Readers

The Norwegian researcher and professor of non-fiction, Johan L. Tønnesson, has made an attempt to elaborate Eco's concept of the model reader. In his dissertation *Tekst som partitur eller Historievitenskap som kommunikasjon: Nærlesning av fire historikertekster skrevet for ulike lesergrupper* (Text as composition or the science of history as communication: Close readings of four historical texts written for various groups of readers) (2004) he argues that there are several model readers placed in different layers of the text. Tønnesson applies his analysis of history textbooks and reveals through a rather complex system how model readers may be identified in various sequences of the text. As argued above, his work has a special relevance for educational texts. Educational texts struggle with the readers in an ultimately complex and unpredictable way, and the texts consequently have to be polyphonic in the very true meaning of the word (Bakthin 1986). For texts with unspecified readers envisaged the model reader cannot be seen as a singular phenomenon, it has to imply plurality.

Wolfgang Iser, the German-American professor of literature, has postulated that there is an implied reader in any text (Iser 1974). The notion of implied reader indicates that there is more than one reader in the text; there is also a reader meeting the text. Furthermore, Iser has studied the reading process in *The Act of Reading: a Theory of Aesthetic Response* (1978). What Iser tried to do back in the 1970s was to break down the New Criticism with its focus on the text, and he did that by introducing the interaction between the text and the reader:

> The "consistent interpretation" or gestalt is a product of the interaction between text and reader, and so it cannot be exclusively traced back either to the written text or to the disposition of the reader. (Iser 1978, 119).

The Danish-Norwegian researcher Susanne V. Knudsen has elaborated on Iser's theory of the interaction between the text and the reader by studying his use of the concept of projection. In the projection the reader is transferring his or her experiences into the text.

There are limits, however, to how the reader can read the text, because the text offers frames for the reading. Some texts are open for several readings[4], i.e. the texts have gaps and open endings, whereas other texts are closed texts telling the readers what and how to read, making sure they receive the intended message; for example textbooks communicating in a way which excludes various interpretations. Inspired by Iser, Knudsen has introduced three forms of projection in literature for use in literary pedagogy (Knudsen 1994, 1996, 1999). The three types of projection all illustrate interplay between a text, a textual corpus and a reader or a group of readers.

The first projective form is reading as confirmation, a process in which the text and the reader interact by being aware of recognizable and identifiable persons, events, attitudes and social contexts. The second type of projection applies to reading as exploration, in which the reader is activated by, for example, the cuttings of the text, the wandering viewpoint, the shift from singular to plural and from personal to impersonal. The third type of projection relates to reading as confrontation, in which the reader gets confused, because the text several times and without arguing shifts narrators, points of view, symbols etc. A classical example of fictional text containing confrontations is James Joyce's novel *Ulysses*.

The three types of projection imply an imagined axis between the text and its potential reader. Projection can be traced on both sides of the axis; in the text itself various reader positions are offered to the reader in which the reader can be integrated as one of the three readers. The confirming reader belongs to the text, whereas the authentic reader is both the confirming reader when he or she is in the process of reading and the confirmed reader having read the text. The exploring reader is to be found both in the text and in the authentic reader meeting this text. The confronting reader belongs to the text, whereas the confronted reader is the authentic reader meeting this text. The axis of the text and its potential three readers can be illustrated by the following model:

Text/ _____ /Reader
Confirming   confirming and confirmed
Exploring   exploring
Confronting   confronted[5]

Into which of these positions the authentic reader will enter, depends on his or her potential as a reader, his or her knowledge, interests and literacy/ies.

Furthermore, Knudsen has elaborated on the three forms of projection in the study of educational texts by using them as readers presented in textbooks and on websites (the

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[4] There is an obvious resemblance between Umberto Eco's concept of open and closed texts and Wolfgang Iser's concept of texts with open endings and texts that are open for optional readings. As Eco insists on the text being constructed as a maze with various openings, he simultaneously stresses that the reading process itself is the peak of interest, not the way out of the maze. Iser on his side argues that some texts guide the reader to read in a specific way. As argued above, the latter point of view on a large scale applies to educational texts as they have a clear intentionality embedded in their structure.

[5] The figure on page 9 reveals a discrepancy in the verbal forms as the active form '-ing' and the passive '-ed' both are present at the same side of the axis. This discrepancy is related to the fact that the semantic notion of the verbs 'confirm', 'explore' and 'confront' turns out differently. As 'explore' indicates activity on part of the agents, this cannot be postulated to go for 'confirm' and 'confront' to the same extent. The verbs 'confirm' and 'confront' both contain the option of being transformed into a passive state, in which the agents are transformed to an object.

readers in the texts, illustrations, sounds etc.), i.e. there is in the textbooks and on the websites a potential interaction with authentic readers. The three reader positions have proved to be useful in the observation of the students' use of educational texts, and in interviews with students explaining their use of educational texts. The confirmed reader finds herself or himself in the educational texts with the confirming reader in some of the topics (the heroes in illustrations of pop stars, the chatting between a boy and a girl on the Internet, etc.) and the language (metaphors, humour etc.). This implies a reading based on experience, a reading which creates identification, and a reading relating to the text as a mirror. The reading can be confluent as happens when reading a good novel and the reader forgets time and place. It is a reading filled with joy and delight and it is done "con amore".

The exploring reader is supposed to gain knowledge, select knowledge and critically reflect upon the information and guidance of educational texts. The student can be urged to keep up searching more knowledge in various media and genres. For example, in *Kontext 8-10*, the text says that "[M]any texts are a mixture of genres, genres in the borderland between fiction and non-fiction, and between fiction and fact." In working with unstable genres the student is challenged to examine how the genres turn out differently, according to intention, situation, receiver, and in the media.

The confronted reader is used when the authentic reader is faced with shifting viewpoints in the text. The authentic reader may be confused by the confronting reader in the text in ways that can open for a variety of readings, even resistance against some readings and reflections upon alternative ways of reading. This confronting reader is not too often to be found in educational texts. However, *Kontext 8-10* contains traces of the confronting reader in a course in the content and form of debates. The textbook reads: "In a debate, the attendees discuss a case and try to convince each other they are right." (ibid., 22. Our translation). The rules of the debate are presented in a determined and closed form. However, when the students have to consider the different statements, they are met by the confronting reader: "Soap operas on television are stupid." and "Soap operas on television are entertaining." (ibid., 26. Our translation).

The three reader positions may overlap each other in a classroom with different authentic readers, because the students have different backgrounds and experiences. Consequently, they may meet the educational texts as the confirming readers in the process of reading and the confirmed readers after reading in one situation, and as exploring and confronted readers in other situations. Also, one student can meet a textbook as a confirming reader, whereas the same student will be the exploring reader when he or she is looking up on a website that the textbook directs to him or her. In a classroom some students can meet the same text as the confirmed readers, other students as the confronted readers. Furthermore, the students can meet each other's readings, and they may also shift reader positions.

Radical Readers

As the reader-response theories developed during the 1970s and 1980s, it was bound to move towards a breaking point where a radical new turn was to occur. The interplay between a textual corpus and potential readers seemed to be exhausted, and it consequently dried out. What was then to replace this lacuna or this theoretical gap? The concept of post-structuralism paved the way by encouraging different and optional

theories to exist side by side. Not one perspective was seen as the right solution. Instead it was considered interesting to vacillate between mutually incompatible concepts, and thereby finding potential solutions. Narrow-sighted views on any text were more or less abandoned, and a concentration on the reader as a central figure was strengthened. This was especially highlighted in the title by the American literary researcher Stanley Fish *"Is There a Text in This Class?"* (Fish 1980). Fish claims that a text is unsteady, and that there are as many meanings in a text as there are readers.

According to Fish no interpretation is better or worse than others. However, in a class, the students and the teacher can establish a common basis of agreement as guidelines for interpretation. Inspired by Fish, the concept of interpretative communities. An interpretative community can be developed through silent, individual readings to a round table discussion in which the students state keywords from their silent, individual readings. Then the students go on to state keywords from a reading aloud session – going from transforming a poem into a drama, to a round table discussion etc (Knudsen 1994). Participating in round tables and different ways of readings, the students move from the first, second and third readings towards each other's interpretations. The processes show that the text is unsteady and the readers' interpretations are subject to incessant change. The texts created through processes of a round table and other discussions have been referred to as a kind of extra-text, a concept which implies the interpretation and the development of a text, whether it be orally or written, constituted during a reading process (Aamotsbakken 2006). The extra-text bares resemblance to points made by Fish, who argues for the individual realization of a text when it is being read. In other words, the extra-text is the realization through an individual or a supported group-reading. In any case this text will diverge from the textual starting point.

According to the American literature researcher, Shoshana Felman, the reading processes (in the interpretative community, a concept she herself does not use) can move from a weak to a strong reading. In her readings of other readings, she re-reads the tradition of literary theories and literary research. In the article "Turning the Screw of Interpretation" she re-reads a traditional Freudian reading (Edmund Wilson's) of Henry James' story "The Turn of the Screw" (Felman 1982 [1977]. In the re-reading, she is inspired by post-structuralism, and she places her criticism of the text oriented reading within a transaction theory (not using this word herself):

> […] there is no such thing as an innocent reader of this text. In other words, the scandal is not simply *in* the text, it resides in *our relation to the text*, in the text's *effect on us*, its readers […] (ibid., 97).

Felman re-reads and deconstructs Wilson's reference to the naive and the intellectual, suspicious readers. The naive reader in Wilson's reading identifies herself or himself with the narrator, and confides in him or her. In Felman's turning of the interpretation, Wilson can also be interpreted as a naive reader who wants to save the reader from the uncanny in James' story by turning the ghost story into a story of madness which in turn can be cured by psychoanalysis. [6] The intellectual, the suspicious or the

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[6] We have a similar scepticism towards the use of the expression "naïve" here, but want to point out that the expression in this context is originally used by Wilson.

sophisticated reader perceives the text as an object - reads it with distance and tries to master the text by placing herself or himself above the text. Felman deconstructs Wilson's command of the story as blindness towards other points of view in the story than his own questions with built-in answers. In this deconstruction of Wilson, Freud and James, she presents a strong reading (more than one hundred pages). In an educational setting, the reading processes in an interpretative community can be regarded as a strong reading, comprising several phases in the reading of one and the same text, and collecting both the students' and the teacher's interpretations.

Seen from the professional subject-oriented point of view these reading processes (Fish) and re-readings (Felman) are more about "what does the text do" rather than "what does the text mean" (Felman) and about doings of the interpretive communities (Fish). Seen from a didactic point of view these reading processes or transactions are about sharing experiences of the doings of the text and the interpretive communities. In an educational setting such reading can be seen in what has been referred to as the exploring reader and even more in the confronting reader (confronted reader.

Cultural Oriented Practices

The Australian researcher of education, Bill Corcoran, has referred to the concepts of interaction and transaction as "The first wave of reader-response practice" (Corcoran 1994, 18). He argues for a response linked to culturally oriented practices. Corcoran and other researchers, among others, Kathleen McCormick and Gerald Graff, insist on seeing the readers and the texts as interwoven in political and ideological discourses of cultural practices (McCormick 1994, Graff 1994). The Swedish researcher and editor Anna-Lena Göranson has used the inspiration from McCormick's reading "within a collective, in a social and cultural space" to analyse how fire-fighters have met textbooks with distance, whereas practical action and informal discussions have been engaging (Göranson 2006, 254). She concludes that authors of textbooks for fire-fighters have "to reflect on their knowledge and also on the knowledge of others", i.e. the others in the educational texts such as textbooks with underlying curricular directives (ibid., 260).

Corcoran points towards a practice that implies a reflective critique of discourses. The codes in discourses belong to the traditions of theories, readings, classroom practices. Also, the codes in discourses imply the actual student's background related to gender, sex, race, class and family background. He argues for a resistant response and writes about "the resistant reader" as follows:

> […] a reflective or resistant response requires an understanding of how discourses dominate and construct individuals, defining them as subjects who act out appointed roles […]. What is at issue for the resistant reader is an attempt to recognize, challenge and change predetermined roles or subjectivities.

Corcoran's ideas of culturally oriented practice and resistant cultural response may be elaborated with regard to analysis of educational texts. The concepts of intertextuality and intersection may, for instance, prove to be useful. Corcoran reverses the potential question related to the existing patterns of earlier texts; a question often posed to students in order to make them aware of textual dependencies. Instead of tracing earlier patterns and textual references, Corcoran states that one should ask which "intertextual

patterns (and therefore beliefs and ideologies)" may provoke the students (ibid, 17). In this manner the concept of intertextuality may arouse a constructive debate between the students and bring on critical reflections on how texts interplay with already existing texts and how they are constructed; well-functioning or just provocative.

The concept of intersectionality has, for example, been useful in an analysis of the presentation of the Sámi in a Norwegian textbook (Knudsen 2006). According to Corcoran the culturally oriented practice may be regarded as "*Multiple reading positions*"*,* which is "the result of class, race and gender variables" (Corcoran, op.cit., 8). These reading positions are interwoven in the presentation of the Sámi as working class, as a race living in the Northern part of Norway, as an ethnic group with its own rules, living close to nature and their myths and as sustaining rather stereotype gender roles. The categories like class, ethnicity and gender are told through political and ideological filters with Norwegian students as the primary readers. The analysis shows how the categories are intersecting and thereby serve as an eye-opener for potential, resistant readers.

Conclusion

In this article the value of the reader-response theories in connection with educational texts. Theories developed parallel to discussions related to structuralism, semiotics and post-structuralism have proved useful, also in educational settings. Educational texts claim a different form of reading and other literacies than texts belonging to other cultural contexts. Fictional texts have often been subjects of the development of new theoretical viewpoints. If such theoretical reflections can broaden and create new insights in educational contexts, then future textbooks and educational media may gain from them. Furthermore, the shifting perspectives in these theories also reveal a development in educational texts that will include the authentic readers' responses as individuals in interpretive communities and in culturally oriented practices.

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Explorations in the Economy of Prestige: Textbook Competitions and the Judgement of Quality: the Australian Awards for Excellence in Educational Publishing

Mike Horsley

Introduction

Internationally there is a rapid proliferation of textbook competitions, prizes and awards. Mirroring developments in cinema and fiction, increasingly educational publishers, politicians, author groups and other social institutions wish to highlight the quality of textbooks and teaching and learning materials. Along with other sectors in the creative arts (film, art, acting, for example) publishing textbook awards and prizes seek to reward and publicize the leading and highest quality materials. Although most awards, prizes and competitions have a monetary component James English (2005) argues that the proliferation of such prizes, competitions and awards reflect an economy of prestige. This preliminary paper looks at the impact of the Australian Awards for Excellence in Educational Publishing and its impact on Australian educational publishing. It begins to contrast how textbook quality is judged in these awards compared to the judgement of quality in other prizes and awards.

History and Development

To develop a partnership between textbook researchers and education publishing stakeholders, in 1994 Teaching Resources and Textbook Research Unit (TREAT) at the University of Sydney, established a national educational publishing competition **The Australian Awards for Excellence in Educational Publishing** in a formal partnership with the Australian Publishers Association (APA). The Awards are sponsored by a national newspaper and the leading printer in Australia. They have grown to be the major event in educational publishing in Australia. The awards have set new benchmarks for the Australian educational publishing industry and have allowed TREAT's research to be disseminated and applied to improve Australian educational publishing. The awards promote best practice by encouraging publishers to utilise the best practices that have been established in the literature by research.

I have been the chief judge of the Awards judging panel since the inception of the textbook competition. TREAT manages the awards on behalf of the APA. Every year a catalogue of meritorious, short listed and award winning titles is prepared by the chief judge. This catalogue is published by the APA and circulated to all school and public libraries in Australia (12,000 libraries) and school systems in Australia. This gives the educational community advice on high quality teaching and learning resources.

The awards are structured around five categories of primary, secondary, technical and university education teaching and learning resources. Within each main category, sub-categories reflect the nature of the Australian educational publishing industry. Sub-categories include single titles, teacher reference, teaching and learning packages,

textbook series, websites and scholarly reference titles. Over time the categories and sub-categories have changed considerably, reflecting underlying changes in the direction of publishing output, changes in the market for educational materials and new structures in the educational system.

In this way the Awards have responded to changes in industry structure and publishers' operations and market movements.

Judging criteria

First established in 1994 the judging criteria have been remarkably stable since the inception of the awards. There are currently nine judging criteria:

1. importance of the market
2. clarity of writing
3. pedagogical underpinning and implications
4. nature and quality of the supporting illustrations
5. appropriateness of page layout and design
6. representation of the discipline
7. publishing contribution of the publication to the discipline
8. quality of the subject matter
9. innovation and flair.

The judging criteria 2 to 8 were developed through a meta-evaluation of characteristics of texts that afford learning during 1994. Criteria 1 was added in 1999 through discussion in the Australian educational publishing industry. Criteria 9 was developed to frame the original and initial reason for the development of the awards - to promote innovative and leading edge educational publishing.

Judging Process

The Australian Awards for Excellence in Educational Publishing are judged using a peer review process. Prior to 2003, the chief judge convened primary, secondary and university judging panels that comprised independent experts: retired and freelance publishers, teachers, students, researchers, and representatives of key stakeholders such as the sponsoring bodies. The demands of the judging process and a desire to incorporate publishers' knowledge more directly into the operation of the Awards led to a change in the judging process, based on peer review. Currently, judging the competition is a peer review process. The judges are nominated to the APA by the leading Australian publishers and selected by the chief judge. Judges serve for three years. Judge briefing and training is undertaken by the chief judge. The operation of the peer review process has two significant impacts on publishing in Australia. The initial impact is to spread the knowledge of the process of the Awards to Australian educational publishers. The second impact is to speed knowledge of innovative and new publishing features and ideas to spread amongst publishers rapidly.

Economics of Publishing in Australia

Major changes have taken place in the economics of Australian educational publishing, congruent with privatisation, deregulation and reduced industry assistance world wide in all industries. Australian education publishing specifically adjusted to:

- The general reduction in tariffs and assistance taking place in the international and domestic economy;
- Reduction in copyright protection through the approval of parallel imports and the introduction of the thirty day rule;
- Cessation of book subsidies and the introduction of a goods and services tax.

As in most nations, these changes and further deregulation produced a wave of publishing industry mergers, overseas takeovers and concentration of ownership by a few publishing global conglomerates. According to Davis (2004) six major companies - Bertelsmann, Time Warner, Viacom, News Limited and Vivendi and Disney - now control the majority of Western media holdings, with a second tier of companies such as Hachette Livre, Pearson and Von Holtzenbrinck owning most of the rest. These holdings include nine of the top ten Australian educational such as HarperCollins (NewsCorp), Penguin (Pearsons Group) Random House (Bertelsmann) and Pan Macmillan (Von Holtzensbrinck). These firms account for 40% of educational sales in Australia.

The research problem

This research sought to explore the myriad impacts of the Awards on Australian publishing. In particular the research aimed to explore the way the industry had conceptualised quality and how the Awards had helped form and improve educational publishing (if at all). In this way the research sought to establish the role that the Awards had played in the educational publishing industries development; and how and under what conditions it could play such a role in the future.

In addition, awards such the Australian Awards develop their own cultural and institutional momentum. In the words of John English (2005) this momentum establishes a hierarchy of cultural (and ultimately real) capital, driven by an economy of prestige. This prestige economy is driven by marketing that shapes the industry and the market, which in turn is shaped by it. A key process in the economy of prestige is the representation of quality, how it is conceptualised? How it is managed? How is it judged? What does it mean? The process of identifying and promoting quality is critical to the economy of prestige as it interacts with the thrust of marketing to have a real and immediate impact on the operation of the real physical goods and services market.

This ambitious research problem was beset with a number of difficult methodological problems. If the challenge is to help publishers shape the future and, produce higher quality materials to improve educational for children and material for teachers, the research has to deal with the issue of potentiality in research. As part of the sociocultual context of educational publishing and as an agent in the economy of

prestige the researcher is part of the personal encounters where the players (stakeholders) story their issues, their realities and aspirations.

Traditional qualitative research, even grounded and phenomenological methods, is still ultimately driven by an approach that does not require a personal relationship between the researcher and the participants in the research to obtain information and data. In the west ethics seeks to guide this relationship, but the assumptions underpinning such guidance is the difference between the objectivity base of the traditional research and the subjectivity of the participants - who the researcher is, who the respondents are. Their various roles and experiences and characteristics, however, will be a critical feature in such research.

New developments in epistemology and research from a South Pacific base (Tongan and Samoan) have led to a re-evaluation of research instruments and research methodology in the Pacific (Bishop in Denzin and Lincoln 2005; Helu-Thaman, 2003. In particular the bounded nature of much traditional qualitative research, its disempowering impact, and its neglect of the links between what is said and who says it have led to the development of *talanoa* (Helu-Thaman 2003) approaches to research methodologies. *Talanoa* does not reflect the traditional concepts of reliability and validity but the learning of researchers and participants that in trustworthiness contributes to their group and family culture and wellbeing through connectedness. In summary this approach to research:

- Avoids researchers retelling stories from their own sense making stances, and appropriating the narrative;
- Avoids ignoring loyalty, kin, spiritual and cultural order;
- Avoids ignoring the cultural order that affects the realities of everyday behaviour;
- Answers the question, Who is this research going to be useful for;
- Highlights potentiality;
- Promotes *Tala* - holistic intermingling of participants and researchers emotions, knowing and experiences;
- Promotes *Noa* – provision of space, time and conditions for co-construction of stories and hence meaning;
- *Talanoa* - researchers must deeply partake of the research experience rather than stand back and analyse;
- *Talanoa* – subjective, oral, collaborative, resistant to rigid institutional hegemonic control;
- Talking things over, being in possession of the oratory and verbal negotiation required in Pacific culture, limit to writing. *Toli* – deciding and selecting how to talk. *Tui* - who should say? *Iuva* – giving;
- The collective sociocultural base of experience is highlighted;
- Uses the language of the group.

Research methodology

The research methodology was developed around a *talanoa*-type conversation with the educational publishing industry in Australia. A variety of conversations both

planned and opportunistic were held with publishers and the judges of the Australian Awards during April to August in 2007. These conversations included:

- Informal discussions with publishers at judging briefings;
- Informal discussions with sponsors and publishers and sponsors meeting;
- Informal discussions with authors/publishers at meeting at the publishers association;
- Informal discussions with publishers and judges at Awards events;
- Formal discussions about the future of the Awards at meeting of the Australian Publishers Association;
- In depth interviews with judges (past and present) of the Awards;
- Focus groups of publishers.

As much as triangulation, the discussions were a conversation with the industry (that the industry was aware of). The research developed a process akin to crystallisation where voices, data and ideas from one discussion and its attendant data set informed conversations and data gathering from the others as they developed in sequence. This occurred over time in a relatively unbounded process of research that emerged and morphed as the awards judging season and the publishers meetings proceeded.

Some other research was conducted. The initial data set consisted of a review of the Award shortlists and winning titles to identify the authors and publishers and the comments of judges that were published in Awards catalogues from 1994 to 2007. This research adopted a content analytic approach by analysing the judges' comments, and the publishers of winning titles. This data was circulated to the Australian publishing industry to also frame the conversation. It was particularly used to reflect on the operation of the Awards and frame the current conversations and discussions. The main thrust of this research was to identify the key criterion used by the judges to make decisions about quality in textbooks and to frame the impact of the Awards on educational publishing.

The conversations written down were in depth interviews with current and previous judges of the Australian Awards and leading publishers who nominated them. Fifteen senior publishers with judging experience were involved in semi-structured interviews and open-ended discussions about the Awards and its impact on publishing and the educational publishing market.

The interview discussion starters are set out in the following panel. The document was designed not to simply provide questions but to frame a deeper discussion.

In addition a **series of focus group conversations** were conducted with the leading publishers in Australia, using the same topics/issues that were developed for the in-depth interviews**.**

The following discussion reports on the results from the in-depth interview discussions.

The Interviews

The interviews sought to explore the myriad impacts of the Awards on Australian publishing. In particular the interviews aimed to explore the way the industry had conceptualised quality and how the Awards had helped form and improve educational publishing (if at all). In this way the interviews sought to establish the role that the Awards had played in the educational publishing industries development, and how and under what conditions it could play such a role in the future.

Results

The following discussion reports on the results from the pilot in-depth interview discussions.

The pilot sample had the following characteristics:

Speciality	M/F	Years in Pub	Background	Current Role
Primary	F	25+	Teaching	Publisher
Primary	F	15	Law	Manager
Secondary	F	5	Teaching	Publisher
Tertiary	M	12	Marketing	Manager
Secondary/Tert	F	20+	Production	Acquisition

Changes in publishing

One view sees publishing as unchanged over a long period of time. This way of conceptualising publishing sees it as a cottage industry. This line of argument

suggests that although production and marketing and even marketing research to a significant extent are now technology-based and supported by new technology, tools and processes, the actual publishing task is in many ways unchanged.

Another way of expressing this view is that publishers were doing the same thing twelve years ago as we do today! The expression of this view is that "the product looks the same really, but how we got there is fundamentally different". Backroom and production procedures especially are different (using offshore printing, typesetting, production facilities). There is greater use of full colour printing because the cost has fallen as a result of the revolution in production services.

There was global consensus amongst respondents that there were some major changes in publishing during the period of the Awards 1994-2007. The major change identified by all and discussed by all was the intensity of competition. This intensity of competition was seen as provoking two major changes in publishing.

One major influence of this competition intensity was described as the race for quality. Respondents noted that there was a clear relationship between increased competition and increased quality. Accordingly, full investment and development of publishing projects was required in this competitive environment. Publishing projects needed to meet benchmarks; pedagogy and use required analysis and consideration; technology support and supplements needed to be thought through more carefully in conjunction with analysis of competitors' products.

For adaptations in the tertiary market this meant a revitalised approach to local content. For primary publishers this was expressed in the following way: "titles have to be smarter, more sophisticated and above all more focused and purposeful." "If we don't hit the mark and we aren't targeted to the curriculum, then competition will defeat our project". The race for quality focuses on and hones the search for purpose and meeting the needs of the teachers and learners.

Knowledge of Awards

Most of the respondents became aware of the Awards through submission of entries by their publishers. This established an initial awareness of the Awards that was strengthened by subsequent submissions, publishers' success in the Awards and by attendance at the Awards Luncheon. "… became aware of the Awards as soon as I started in publishing as we had an entry and then in 1998 I attended a luncheon and we had a winning title." All of the respondents saw the Awards as a legitimate aspect of publishing industry activity. "… normally we don't get to celebrate our success – and it's more important as I get more senior."

Impact of the Awards

There was universal agreement that the Awards:
- are very important and have a significant impact on the industry;
- provide a boost of morale for the publishers with a specific forum that recognises their successes;

- do not have a significant impact on sales like the Children's Book Council Awards;
- are important from a prestige point of view for individual publishers and publishing companies;
- are very positive for those involved at the local level as the whole publishing team is given recognition;
- are motivating as publishing is a long process and the recognition engenders pride.

The other significant impact identified was that "the Luncheon is probably the only other industry forum that develops a sense of community as publishers".

The strengths and weaknesses of current judging practice

Interviewees were asked a number of questions such as:
- Do the Awards act to set benchmarks or reward innovation?
- Should the Awards judging process move to a TQM process like the European Publishers Awards?

Do the Awards set a benchmark or reward the innovative?

For some respondents the Awards were seen as setting benchmarks in educational publishing that set standards for publishers to aspire to. This notion of standards was seen as a flag or emblem that represented the level to which publishers should aspire in developing new projects. There was a consensus that the Awards promoted educational values and highlighted pedagogical awareness. This was a critical aspect of the way that the Awards operated to influence how the industry viewed high quality publications. The Awards process was seen to speed new ways of thinking about pedagogy across the publishing as new pedagogical approaches were applied across different areas in the publishing enterprise.

This perception did not view the Awards as rewarding and promoting innovation. Increased competition required publications to meet benchmark requirements. In this view innovation is not necessarily the goal of publishers as many highly innovative publications do not initially sell, but provide ideas that can be applied across other publishing projects.

For some respondents the Awards play a dual role of rewarding innovation and setting benchmarks. In this view the Awards reward the innovative, which then provides a vision and mission for new publication projects. This view was seen to reflect the approach to new publications and arguments that took place in every new publishing project. Is our project innovative? How does it benchmark against the competition? What new features and characteristics will the new publication have? In this approach the Awards play this dual role by giving publishers a view about what they have to strive for.

The Awards were also seen to promote innovation in a number of areas, often reflecting the publications from year to year. There was a consensus that the Awards had promoted and set new standards in relation to aboriginal education and had encouraged innovation and benchmarks in educational publishing in the area of aboriginal education.

Should the Awards judging process move to a TQM process like the European Publishers Awards?

There was a consensus that the current process was effective and working. The following comments reflect the discussion:
- I would hate TQM we need to thrash things out;
- People change their minds after discussion and giving it our fullest attention;
- Only discussion allows us to take products and publications seriously;
- We do look at metrics – we use the criteria as a professional judgment and often turn them into metrics of a sort but need to discuss them".

Judgment

Current System

Strengths	Weaknesses
No. of people's perspectives in judging	Peer review does not allow for outside perspectives
Publishing experience of judges	
Specialised judges knowledge and skills	Politics of the composition of the panel can intrude on judging processes
Background of judges	Judging is a challenging process in terms of time and energy

How critical is knowledge of the use of the materials in the judgment of quality?

This question grew out of consideration of TQM processes. It was argued very strongly that understandings about the use of publications, and the context of their use, was critically important in the judging process. This understanding was also described as "influencing judgement greatly" Judges asked themselves questions such as:

- How would this be used?
- Would it make teachers' tasks easier?
- How could it contribute in the classroom or learning?
- What would be the students' reactions?
- Use has a huge impact – use has a major function in guiding quality.
- A product can look great but on closer inspection the use can be inferred.
- Would this work?

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WORKSHOP 1: The Balance of Textbooks and Educational Media

Postmodern Pedagogy and Henrik Ibsen: Word and image in Ivo de Figueiredo's Slipp meg (Let Me Go)

Elisabeth Oxfeldt

In 2006 Norwegians celebrated the centennial of Ibsen's death. Part of the celebration involved finding new ways of teaching Ibsen in school. The project was particularly interesting in light of *Kunnskapsløftet* (The Promise/Elevation of Knowledge) – the government's reform of elementary and secondary education implemented also in 2006. One of *Kunnskapsløftet*'s breaks with tradition lies in its dismantling of a national literary canon. Thus, teaching Ibsen is no longer a must and can, in principle, be avoided all together. At the same time a less reverent attitude towards the nation's most famous writer opens up for creative ways of reintroducing his authorship. A fascinating result is Ivo de Figueiredo's *Slipp meg. En bok om Henrik Ibsen* (Let Me Go. A Book about Henrik Ibsen, 2006). The book was granted to all the nation's 17-year-olds and 10th-graders. It also won several awards including best book of facts for children and youth (Ministry of Culture and Church Affairs). In this paper I will discuss its postmodern aesthetics and pedagogy. I will do so focusing particularly on its multimodal use of pictures.[1]

Postmodernism and Pedagogy

One of the most famous ways of characterizing the postmodern condition is to speak of the collapse of grand narratives (Lyotard 1979). We live in a world of smaller contradictory narratives, a world of complexity, ambiguity and diversity, yet also a world where things are interconnected in what must often be understood to be random ways. Linda Hutcheon has pointed to a preoccupation with history as a defining element of postmodernism (Hutcheon 1988). It is an ambiguous fascination that leads postmodernists to treat history in what many would consider an irreverent manner. Historical facts are touched upon ahistorically; they are playfully inserted into contemporary contexts, and end up reflecting parody and veneration simultaneously. According to Hutcheon, the goal of the practitioners of postmodernism is to critically confront the past with the present (Hutcheon 1988, 39), to question institutions (9) and conventions of discourse (xiii), and to reevaluate the individual's response to his society (41).

What, then, we may ask, are the implications of postmodernism on pedagogy? Since traditional pedagogy builds on a model of asymmetry with a teacher imparting "knowledge" – or grand narratives – on students, the result has been an anti-pedagogic attitude. Recent reforms call for teachers to facilitate learning by letting the students explore research topics they themselves choose, and textbooks seek to

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[1] The pictures include various archival photographs as well as pictures taken by Jo Michael de Figueiredo. The designer is Maya Lie. The book's author has worked closely with Jo Michael de Figueiredo and Maya Lie in the selection and placement of the photographs. An aesthetic forerunner to the book seems to be Roy Andersson's *Lyckad nedfrysning av herr Moro* (The Successful Freezing of Mr. Moro, 1997), yet *Slipp meg* is much more integrated. It is not an anthology of texts and images but an originally composed text linking all imagery to the same authorship.

stimulate open discussions rather than a mere drilling of "facts." If we return to the most recent educational reform in Norway, *Kunnskapsløftet*, we see that Norwegian teachers are to teach Norwegian literature in relation to international and contemporary issues, where they would previously have taught it in an historical context emphasizing an ideology of nation-building. In addition, postmodernism's anti-logocentric attitude is reflected in *Kunnskapsløftet*'s insistence on multimodal texts. Today's society is so visually oriented that it no longer makes sense to focus primarily on written texts, nor on images as a separate discipline, but rather on the constant interaction of words and images – and often also sound. As Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen have pointed out, contemporary semiotic practice is multimodal rather than monomodal (Kress & van Leeuwen 2001, 1). Still, most textbooks remain modern rather than postmodern. Anne Løvland has studied multimodal textbooks in a Norwegian context, and in a summarizing article from 2006 she concludes that textbooks used in schools tend to employ images as illustrations (Løvland 2006). Rarely do the pictures function in an expansive relationship to the text. As Løvland points out, the reader is given very little opportunity to act on his or her own vis-à-vis the texts (Løvland 2006, 124).

Paratextual clues

Given this background it is tempting to read the title and cover of Figueiredo's book metaphorically. A baby is held in a tight grip by an adult and begs the adult: "Let me go." The plea could be that of the student directed at the entire educational system. In addition, it could represent Ibsen, directing the same plea at the same institutions – both those of his own time and those dealing with his work today. The autobiographical reading is reinforced by the back cover showing a funeral, and we are left to think that the book about Ibsen will cover his life from birth to burial. Still, the burial is clearly not taking place in Norway, and on the inside cover we are informed that the front cover picture is from Baghdad while that on the back is from Russia. Both are recent: from 2004 and 1991. The next element appearing on the inside cover is a short text based on the existential notion, that we need to know ourselves and be free in order to become independent human beings. This declaration culminates in the question: "Are you free?"[2] Thus, the reading contract established through the front and back covers is one pointing to freedom, individuality, agency and a break with tradition. Ibsen will be presented in new and innovative ways, his life will be related to a global here-and-now, and the reader is invited to ponder the issues and themes presented in relation to his or her own life.

This postmodern reading contract is further reinforced in the book's introduction. The author positions himself as anti-authoritarian and anti-traditional. Do not read this book, he says, unless it starts moving you after a couple of pages. Yet, give it a chance. Pay attention to whether anything inside you moves at all – if only a millimeter (Figueiredo 2006, 9). Then the author seeks to empathize with the reader vis-à-vis the heavy-handedness of a traditional insistence that Ibsen is ever-relevant. "It is not difficult to understand," he writes, "that Ibsen may seem distant, boring and difficult" (ibid.). But the main thrust behind this book is that Ibsen really is relevant and worth reading, and Ibsen's existential themes of identity and freedom are stressed.

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[2] All English translations of quotes from Figueiredo's book are my own.

The tone is down-to-earth and conversational. Sentences are short, the syntax is simple, and lots of questions are directed at the reader: "What did Ibsen want to attain through his authorship?", "What does it mean to be yourself?", "What is freedom?", "Am I free?", "Do I know who I am?" (10). The author explains that he will paraphrase five of Ibsen's plays to shed light on these questions.[3] In addition, his text will be placed next to something that looks like advertising pictures. The idea is to create Ibsenian enigmas. The readers are to guess at their meaning and if they need clues, they can turn to an appendix with questions and explanations in the back (11). Thus, the text is quite readerly while remaining authoritative and logocentric in two ways: the juxtaposition of word and image holds an intended meaning – the student is not free to interpret them anyway he wants; or at the very least he is to understand and trust that the author has had his own purpose in choosing the photographs. Also, the student is reminded that if he or she finds the presentation of Ibsen's work engaging, he or she ought to read the originals – this in the name of freedom. Rather than being told what Ibsen meant, the student ought to communicate directly with Ibsen, and seek out his or her own interpretation – not that of the institutional mediator.

In a characteristically postmodern way the book is ultimately authoritative and unauthoritative at once: The student is to feel free not to read it – but really has to give it a chance and register even the smallest impression it may make; the text presents a contemporary Ibsen, paraphrasing his messages so they may appeal to today's 17-year-old – yet insists that if the same 17-year-old finds Ibsen's message interesting he or she must turn to the original. The student is to engage in a game of assigning meaning to oddly juxtaposed texts and photographs – yet the enigmas contain predefined answers.[4] Finally, the student is not to think of him- or herself within the institutional hierarchy of the education system at all. The appendix insists that the book is aimed at youth, not students – it is not a "school book" (119). Yet the book is distributed at school, handed to the students by their teachers. Ultimately, traditional pedagogy is both broken with and continued.

Word and Image

Turning to the relationship between word and image, we find that it operates on various levels. On the most traditional and least challenging level we find the "sepia prints" of actor Morten Jostad dressed as Ibsen. Jostad/Ibsen walks around in Oslo, eats hotdogs, passes under McDonald's golden arches, rides escalators, lies down in a suntan booth, lifts weights and hangs out with young blonds. Sometimes he seems to fit in – despite his outdated look – at others he seems perplexed. The Norwegian tabloid VG's raunchy headlines apparently shock him, and he obviously does not possess the type of key that will let him enter into a modern car. While the pictures are postmodern in their ahistorical combinations of the past and the present and in their playful imitation of Ibsen, their meaning is anchored in the text. The main question from the introduction is whether Ibsen is still relevant – whether his works

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[3] The plays are: *Brand, Peer Gynt, Ghosts, A Doll's House* and *The Wild Duck*.
[4] The introduction and the appendix differ a bit on this point. In the appendix, the author claims that while he wishes to give the students further clues as to how to interpret the use of pictures, he will not provide an ultimate answer. Questions are as important as answers, and the reader is to base interpretations on his or her own associations. Such is the nature of art and literature.

possess eternal value – and the sepia prints establish a *leitmotif* reminding the reader of this question throughout the text.

A second set of pictures is made up of shocking pictures – the ones the author may refer to as of the advertising kind. They are bold and demand attention. They are historical as well as contemporary. Captured are patients in a mental asylum in Beirut, a black man being burned in Nebraska, a child faced by machine-gun carrying soldiers in Iraq, prisoners being maltreated by Americans in Baghdad, a French veteran with an injured face from World War One, a child soldier from Nicaragua and a Jewish graveyard vandalized by Neo-Nazis. The photos capture evil and misery. With Susan Sontag we may, in fact, speak of "Regarding the Pain of Others" – with others, in this case, being non-Norwegians (Sontag 2003).

Susan Sontag has written about the aesthetics of the journalistic photograph for more than three decades. Her most recent work, *Regarding the Pain of Others* (2003), is a response to the media coverage of 9/11. Going back in history, she traces the development of the war photograph with a constant eye to how photographs function in relation to text. The domain of the photograph is basically pathos while that of the text is logos. The photograph points in countless directions while the text establishes its meaning.

Sontag's understanding of the two aesthetic or semiotic systems is reminiscent of that laid out by Roland Barthes in 1964 (Barthes 1977). In "Rhetoric of the Image," Barthes describes the photograph as polysemic with the accompanying text anchoring its meaning. A logocentric hierarchy is established. A second possible interaction between image and text is "relay" – with the text and the photo carrying separate meanings. Yet in our postmodern context, one may rather speak of juxtaposition and resonance. Both Sontag and Barthes are relevant in the decoding of *Slipp meg*. The pathos established by the pictures is, as Sontag discusses, ethically problematic. The pictures may come across as too sensational – especially if their effect is to catch the reader's attention at the expense of the text, leaving the reader only in a state of shock. Barthes' notions of anchorage and relay are also relevant. The pictures are titled – their meaning is anchored in captions informing the reader what the picture is of, and when and where it is taken.

Yet, whereas Barthes and Sontag discuss rather simple texts - the genres of advertisement and reportage - Figueiredo's text is much more complex in its many layers. Text and photograph are not related in a 1:1 relationship, and Figueiredo's text is open and full of questions rather than strictly explanatory. It is, in some ways, as polysemic as the pictures.

If the book is read according to the author's multimodal intentions, then the text and photographs have equal power establishing each other's meaning. The photographs draw Ibsen's text out of the 1800s, reestablishing its meaning in a postmodern, global context, and the text, on the other hand, establishes a general philosophical context in which to regard the pictures. The historical specificity of each is suspended, and we understand that when Ibsen wrote about Brand sacrificing his own son for the sake of staunch idealism, he *could* have written about a Nicaraguan child soldier – had he lived in a different time and place.

Going back to the many levels at which meaning is established in this text, we find the meaning of the pictures anchored by a caption figuring in a small font – usually on the page preceding or succeeding the photo. On the page of the photograph, however, are verbal texts written in bold letters relating the meaning of the photo to Ibsen and his themes of identity and freedom. These texts often refer back to elements of the narrative text – Figueiredo's paraphrasing of Ibsen's plays. Thus, ultimately the reader is left trying to read the photographs in light of the captions, the bold texts, Figueiredo's text, and, possibly, in relation to adjacent photographs.

While this reading leaves the reader in a state of metaphorical suspense, he is furthermore confronted with a problematization of the distinction between text and image. As Sontag has pointed out, slogans and maxims allow text and image to function alike when it comes to creating a memorable impact on the reader (Sontag 2003, 22). Iconic writing, too, functions between word and image as when a heart is used for the word *love*, or text becomes pictorial when it visually performs its own verbal statement (cf. Figueiredo 2006, 107). An obvious ekphrastic example seeking to erase the borders between word and image is the text beginning with the statement "This is a picture", then going on to describe two women standing next to each other: one wearing a burkha allowing only her eyes to show, and the other wearing nothing but a pair of designer sunglasses.

While pictures of war, pain and misery are linked to Ibsen's general existential themes of identity and freedom, those of women tend to be linked to Ibsen's themes of gender roles and women's liberation. As in the ekphrasis above, these pictures tend to contrast East and West – Muslim and secular societies in particular. Western women are often naked or scantily clad, for example, a woman giving birth in Belgium, Princess Diana in a swimsuit, and a female hip-hop-entourage in the U.S. On the other hand we find veiled, Middle-Eastern women such as a Pakistani woman standing next to a shut – but unlocked – door and veiled Iranian women at a shooting range, training to become soldiers. An in-between figure is Aylar Lie – the Iranian-Norwegian model and porn star. Placed in the section summarizing *A Doll's House*, Aylar provokes questions of objectivity and subjectivity. Is she an Eastern woman who has gained access to the Western privilege of gender equality? Or has she rather succumbed to Western patriarchy and capitalism? In the appendix the author explains that Aylar has the same freedom as Nora to go in and out of doors. But what has she chosen to do with her freedom? Does she appear as a victim, a sex object, or as a strong human being using her sexuality as she wants to? The last question is: "Do you think she has fulfilled her obligations towards herself?" The question is posed in an open way, yet accompanied by the saying "Spit yourself in the eye" on the adjacent page; the question implies the author's skepticism towards this kind of liberation. This implication is further reinforced when one looks at the picture of Nate Dogg and "unknown women" carrying the superimposed text: "The lark is alive". Read in light of *A Doll's House* this comment carries an ironic message. Torvald's lark is *not* free as a bird – it is rather a nickname applied to a woman treated as a pet. If we turn to the appendix we can no longer doubt the author's ironic attitude towards this type of sexual liberation. Only one existential question is posed: "How many human beings do you see in this picture?"[5]

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[5] The pictures of women tend to build on – and reinforce – East-West stereotypes. It might have been a good idea to thematize this use of pictures in the appendix instead of letting it go unnoticed. A teacher

While the above pictures function in a provocative way, juxtaposing text and image, present and past, East and West, the last set of pictures I want to discuss are of a meta-cognitive nature. They are representations of plain objects that may stimulate a reflection on the reader's way of establishing connections through metaphors. The pictures are simple, non-spectacular, and their enigmatic status vis-à-vis the text is not hinted at in the appendix. In this category are a picture of a heart, a picture of a gun, a picture of a pair of scissors and a picture of a brick. The picture of the human heart shows up at the end of the section on *Peer Gynt*. The play's most famous metaphor has just been explained: that Peer Gynt comparing himself to an onion is about peeling away the layers of social roles he has ever played, ending up with nothing – no core identity. Turning the page we see the heart. The meaning of this heart is immediately anchored by a superimposed text appearing in bold, black letters: "Layer upon layer". Underneath is a smaller caption that reads: "Ibsen: You are an onion". The heart, then, is associated with notions of identity. If we peel away all physical layers from the human body we are left with the central organ of the heart. Does this bloody pump give us an individual identity? Are not the most basic elements of all human beings alike? Next to the heart and the questions of identity is a French World-War-One veteran who has lost part of his face. In the appendix the reader is encouraged to think about two things: How we read other people, and the extent to which we would feel like ourselves if we had lost part of our face. The pictures, then, pull questions of identity away from Ibsen and the 19th-century focus on social roles and identity towards the preoccupation of the 20th century with bodies and identity.[6] Yet, the constellation of texts and images also makes us ponder metaphors. Are people like onions? Are they like hearts? Obviously the heart, too, carries a symbolic value. When saying that someone has a good heart we are not usually talking about their literal organ, but about their personality. Once we start wondering about metaphors we may even look at the veteran who has lost face – literally speaking – while he has not lost face in the figurative sense of this expression. He is, after all, a hero, decorated with medals.

As we read this type of multimodal text we become increasingly aware of our own way of creating connections and of establishing wholeness through metaphor. A final example may be the picture of a brick. The brick appears at the opening of the section on *Ghosts*. We do not know the drama yet; all we see is the brick and a quote from *Ghosts*: "Give me the sun". In parenthesis we are given a further indication of how the meaning of this multimodal page may be established: "The price of freedom". What may be the relationship between a brick, the sun and freedom? One possibility is that bricks make walls, and walls inhibit movement of human beings as well as the

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could, however, discuss it with the students, asking them for examples of potential images of "in-between" women (other than Aylar Lie).

[6] This, too, is pointed out in an article on how *Slipp meg* functioned in a Norwegian class where the teacher set out to use it in the prescribed way. Gudmund Skjeldal writes about how most of his colleagues at *Berg Videregående* boycotted the gift, leaving it in stacks in the copy room instead of distributing it to the students. His own experience was that the students became extremely engaged in the book and its pictures – not in the picture of Aylar, but in the pictures of evil and of Middle Eastern women. Some students also found Figueiredo's text enlightening, but the main discussion in the classroom ended up a debate on a contemporary body fixation – not least when it comes to women and plastic surgery. The teacher sums up the experience: "Gåva skaper jammen engasjement" (The gift definitely prompts engagement). Gudmund Skjeldal, "Ibsen med andletslyfting," i *Norsklæreren* 4/06: 6-8.

penetration of sun rays. Walls, however, also provide protection. Perhaps the price of freedom is the loss of protection? A single brick may also connote violence. Bricks are thrown through windows when people want to break in or out. The price of freedom, then, may be an act of violence. Finally we may start wondering what is meant by the sun. That, too, seems to figure as a metaphor – for freedom and enlightenment. Yet, is the sun always a positive thing? Exposing oneself to the sun, one might get burnt – like the brick is burnt. Perhaps that is the price of freedom.

The loops and connections are endless and perhaps that is one of the deconstructionist, metalinguistic messages of the book. Meaning is never stable, especially not in open poetic texts. This, too, would explain how Ibsen's texts are ever up to date. Writing enigmatically, in a language laden with symbols and metaphors, Ibsen leaves his texts open to be reinterpreted in ever new contexts. As such, *Slipp meg* shows students how Ibsen's texts may be read and reread, changing meaning along the way. But the book also makes students aware of their own interpretative behavior. If they engage in the game of connecting the images to the text, they may gain new insight into their own metaphorical meaning-making processes.[7] The reader will thus enjoy the metaphorical process on three levels: 1) On an immediate aesthetic level: The reader is left hovering in suspension between two images. The sensation is physical – and the reader, hopefully, feels tickled (and not irritated) by the surprising juxtaposition.[8] 2) On an intellectual, cognitive level: The reader "gets it" and bridges the gap between two disparate elements through interpretation.[9] 3) On a metacognitive level: The reader gains insight into his own fantasy, and knows a bit more about who he is, how he relates to the world and tries to establish meaning in a late or postmodern world of doubt and uncertainty.

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[7] As Paul Thibault has put it: "Multimodality refers to the diverse ways in which a number of distinct semiotic resource systems are both co-deployed and co-contextualised in the making of a textspecific meaning […]. The guiding assumption is that the meaning of the text is the result of the various ways in which elements from different classes of phenomena – words, actions, objects, visual images, sounds, and so on – are related to each other as parts in some larger whole. Meaning-making is the process, the activity of making and construing such patterned relations among different classes of such elements" (qtd. in Baldry 2000, 312).

[8] In this discussion I am partly inspired by Paul Ricoeur's writings on the metaphorical process as cognition, imagination and feeling (Ricoeur 1997).

[9] This is what Ricoeur refers to as the passage from the literal divergence to the metaphorical convergence between two semantic fields (Ricoeur 1997, 281).

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How textbooks are made: Insights from an Austrian educational publisher

Barbara Pogelschek

Introduction

When looking at the variety of topics dealt with in textbook research, it is striking how few articles and reports include matters of publishing. It can be speculated that this topic might be less interesting or less important than other topics. Another reason is probably a lack of detailed knowledge about publishing processes among scientists. On the other hand, publishers seem to rarely take notice of textbook research. They appear to make books routinely and they possibly even have not heard about textbook research. As a consequence, scientists and publishers work at cross purposes.

This article tries to illustrate the problem using as an example a textbook for English as a foreign language (EFL) (*Focus on Modern Business*). Firstly, insights into textbook production, the basic stages, the people involved and laws and regulations which must be considered are provided. Secondly, some relevant research findings are summarised and possible reasons for the ignorance of these findings during textbook production are discussed. Thirdly, measures for improvement are suggested. The author gives a strong recommendation to ensure closer contacts between research and practice, whereby practice in this context firstly means the educational publishing industry, but furthermore also teachers, students and various institutions in the sector of education.

The production of textbooks

Making a textbook is a lengthy and diversified process as illustrated with the following example of *Focus on Modern Business*. This is an EFL course book series, sold in Austrian upper vocational schools with an emphasis on economics and office work. The series was developed for students aged 14-19 and consists of four volumes of student's book, teacher's book, audio-CD and interactive web-exercises plus an additional practice book. In the following, the author refers to student's book, volume 1.

In general, the basic stages of textbook production are: 1) decision to make a book and recruitment of the team; 2) development of the concept and of the manuscript; 3) ministry approval; and 4) actual production, whereby stages three and four could practically take place at the same time.

Stage 1: Decision to make a book and recruitment of the team

The decision to make a textbook is most often commercially and operationally oriented. The main reasons for the development of *Focus on Modern Business* were the economically promising situation together with a unique opportunity as well as the

availability of resources: First and foremost, the market size of Austrian upper secondary business schools is quite big. Secondly, the government-imposed limit on the price of a book for this market is relatively high. In addition, competition was weak and a new syllabus was to become effective exactly when volume one was to be published. Finally, market research made clear that teachers – they decide which book is used in school – were longing for a new textbook. As a consequence, expected sales figures and estimated profit were quite high.

As far as resources are concerned, the development of *Focus on Modern Business* was extremely demanding. Making an EFL textbook requires native speakers for authoring and editing, professional native speakers for audio-recordings and ideally also a native speaker illustrator. Average Austrian publishers are rather small companies and thus they usually cannot afford to recruit these people. The only reason why *Focus on Modern Business* could be produced was the cooperation between an Austrian and a much bigger German publisher with shared costs and risks. In detail, the division of tasks was as follows: the main author is a professional writer from the German partner, the co-author and all advisors (teachers from different schools) were recruited by the Austrian partner; a native speaker editor from the German partner was the project leader, supported by a native speaker freelancer and an Austrian editor; layout and recordings of the audio-CDs were made by British companies who cooperate with the German partner; the Austrian publisher was in charge of photo research. Last but not least, the German partner provided recently published textbooks which could be adapted to fit the specific needs of Austrian upper secondary business schools.

All in all, preparing and making a decision could actually be the longest process within the production of a new textbook. As for *Focus on Modern Business*, it took 16 months plus four additional months for the recruitment of the team.

Stage 2: Development of the concept and of the manuscript

Compared with stage 1, the design of a concept and the writing of the manuscript were more or less routine. Nevertheless, it takes a lot of organisational effort and hard work by all the people involved: The authors first developed a draft concept, then they suggested basic texts and finally they worked out draft units – all to be discussed in detail in meetings with advisors and editors. The authors' final version of the units then were thoroughly edited and submitted for approval. Surprisingly, the idea of adapting a German textbook had to be abandoned because the specific requirements for Austria turned out to differ from the German ones much more than was anticipated. Hence, a new concept had to be developed for *Focus on Modern Business* and a completely new manuscript was written. In spite of this, the time frame for stage 2 was only eleven months, due to the strict deadlines for submission to the ministry.

Stage 3: Ministry approval

Approval by the Austrian Ministry of Education is a pre-condition to sell textbooks to Austrian schools. In Austria, textbooks and other learning materials are state-funded except for a small contribution by parents (10% of the total costs). The entire so-

called textbook system is state-controlled, including for example a price limit, a maximum amount of money which can be spent per student/year and total control of the approval procedure. However, the process of approval can be problematic for several reasons: There are extremely early deadlines for submission and the whole approval process can take nine months or even longer. Besides, criteria for approval are quite open and thus can be interpreted differently. Also, approval committees consist of teachers who do not need to have any specific expertise in textbook evaluation. They simply are nominated by the Ministry of Education.

In order to sell *Focus on Modern Business* for the first time in the school year 2005/06, the manuscript had to be submitted at the latest by 1st November, 2003[1]. Then it took four months to get feedback from the ministry, and re-submission of the improved manuscript was necessary. The criteria for approval are laid down by ministry decree. In short, a textbook has to: correspond with the syllabus, match with the students' needs (level of difficulty, interest …), be accurate in terms of language and content, be up-to-date regarding content area knowledge, include an Austrian and a European dimension, contribute to civics and democratic education, be readable, be functional in design and concept and treat the sexes equally (Bundesministerium für Unterricht und Kunst 1974, Bundesministerium für Unterricht und kulturelle Angelegenheiten 1998). In total, it took nine months to have *Focus on Modern Business 1* unofficially approved; the final letter was received three months afterwards.

Stage 4: Actual production

Most often, actual production of textbooks starts as soon as a first report from the approval committee has been received. The production process is technologically advanced and therefore requires the cooperation of many experts as well as strict planning and close coordination. First, the authors had to incorporate any changes required by the ministry into the manuscript. Then, the editor checked the manuscript again. In addition to clear structure and correct language, he particularly looked at correct markings of different elements which provide the layouter with his/her instructions. Such elements are for example different types of headings, transcripts of listening texts, tasks and exercises, boxes with grammar rules, lists of photos and instructions for the illustrator. Several times, printouts are produced and edited again. Finally, the problems of overmatter and undermatter[2] are solved, mistakes are eliminated and photos and illustrations are added. After nine months of actual production, *Focus on Modern Business 1* was published.

Possible reasons for the ignorance of research findings in textbook production

It can be expected that successful educational publishers strive for ongoing improvement of their textbooks and thus try to implement research findings. Yet,

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[1] Meanwhile, the deadline is 15 October which is almost two years before the introduction of the textbooks in schools.
[2] Overmatter and undermatter are technical terms in publishing. The former means too much content to fit on page of a book, the latter too little content so a blank space appears on the page.

hardly any research was considered when producing *Focus on Modern Business*, although a variety of topics would have been relevant: the question of authority in texts and textbooks; different teaching styles; the attitudes of teachers towards textbooks; possible images and roles of textbooks; the design process of educational material; the readability of texts; the role of visual elements in teaching and learning material; field testing and evaluation etc. In this section, three topics are chosen to exemplify the considerable ignorance of research findings in the production of *Focus on Modern Business* and to outline possible reasons: producing readable texts and the recommendation for working in small teams in the production process; possible images and roles of textbooks and the importance of field testing and evaluation.

Producing good texts and working in small teams

Just as most editors and publishers may be ignorant about textbook research, many scientists appear to have little knowledge about actual textbook production and the everyday work of publishers. This could be the reason for very few publications where concrete measures of improvement for the publishing industry are included. One example is Peacock & Cleghorn who suggest that publishers should consider basic rules to produce good texts and that they should strive for "less fragmentation of the process by which texts are commissioned, written, illustrated, designed, printed and published" (Peacock & Cleghorn 2006, 43, 46).

Peacock & Cleghorn's first recommendation draws attention to several widely researched features which proved to facilitate the understanding of texts. They include text structure, language, layout, visuals etc. Of course, when developing *Focus on Modern Business* some of these rules were followed: the structure of the whole book and of individual texts and tasks was kept clear and simple; adequate language with growing complexity from volume one to volume four was used; the layout was designed to be helpful for students and teachers; and useful and readable visual elements were added. All this happened as best as the people developing *Focus on Modern Business* could do, but it could not be expected that any details from research, for instance possible effects of seductive details[3] or split attention effects[4] were considered.

The second suggestion of Peacock & Cleghorn can be paraphrased as keeping the development process simple and the working groups rather small. *Focus on Modern Business*, however, was produced by about 15 people - specialists from different fields who even did not all have contact with each other. The specific features of this production as outlined above required the cooperation of several companies and persons. Hence it was necessary to reach compromises. One example was the engagement of an English professional writer as the main author although he had hardly any knowledge about Austrian schools and the Austrian syllabus. He had to acquire basic knowledge and to rely on information and feedback from the advisors. The alternative would have been an Austrian teacher without any experience in the

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[3] Interesting but unimportant information added to in texts to make them more interesting to the readers; this could detract their attention from the main information of texts (Dewey, 1913, cited in Garner et al 1991, 644; Garner, 1992).

[4] Two resources, for example text and illustration, are presented concurrently and thus ask the reader to divide his or her attention at the same time (Mayer & Moreno, 1998; 2002).

development and writing of textbooks; he or she would not have managed to finish the task within the tight time frame. The decision in favour of the German author consequently meant working in a bigger team and holding regular feedback meetings. A second example was the development of the layout by a British company. On the one hand, this meant additional effort regarding coordination, on the other hand Austrian teachers highly appreciate the layout and appearance of textbooks designed by this company. Teachers reported that they associate these books with Great Britain and that gives them a feeling of authenticity. Above all, layouters who are used to work in English were more likely to make fewer mistakes and British illustrators would quite likely be able to draw more authentic illustrations than Austrian or German ones.

The images and roles of textbooks

Several research studies and articles focus on the use of textbooks in class, in particular on the role which a textbook could play. First, it may be a secret curriculum and guide both contents and pedagogical approach of teaching (Horsley & Lambert 2001, 16; Kalmus 2006, 229; Krammer 1985, 277f; Sitte 2007, 76). For example, teachers of geography in Greater London defined the role of their textbooks as building the basis for teaching, reducing the teachers' preparation time, being useful for homework, motivating the students and providing an explanation of concepts (Lambert 1996, 11). Second, the teacher's ideology may influence the use of teaching materials (Zahorik 1991, 195). How do teachers and students see their textbooks? A study on teachers' and learners' attitudes towards textbooks of English in Hong Kong suggests a variety of images: Teachers and students talk about guidance, support, resource, constraint and students in addition about boredom, authority, fear/anxiety and worthlessness.

How would Austrian teachers use *Focus on Modern Business*? Which role would *Focus on Modern Business* play in their classrooms? Are there any preferred or predominant teaching styles? Except for the assumption that a high percentage of teachers tend to stick closely to textbooks, the questions mentioned above were not considered when developing *Focus on Modern Business*. Instead, typical topics discussed with authors and advisors were the thematic areas, the length of texts, the types of exercises, the sequence of contents. For example, teachers were asked which contents they would prefer and how they should be presented – questions oriented at contents and structure. However, no considerations were made on reasons behind these points. There seemed to be a tacit agreement to produce *Focus on Modern Business* as all the textbooks before.

Possible reasons for this could be seen in the complexity of textbook production and in the permanent time pressure when making books. As a consequence, routines become very important whenever they can be applied. Since the composition of teams developing textbooks always varies, since every book is based on different concepts and requires an individual working plan, at least any possible steps and tasks which are routine are very welcome. These might be some of the reasons why for *Focus on Modern Business* such questions as the role and the image of the textbook were not considered. Even if the advisors had been asked, they probably would not have had an answer as they might not have yet reflected on these questions. In order to get

representative answers, the publisher might have had to guide them in their reflections, to observe several teachers in their classrooms and to make a survey with questionnaires and interviews. And even if there had been sufficient time, opportunities and budget for this inquiry, it would be very difficult to include these findings into a real textbook.

Field testing and evaluation

Field testing is definitely a very important part in the development of textbooks. As shown in various articles, it may serve different purposes. Crismore suggests that teachers should engage in field testing of textbooks. This would give them an opportunity not only to explore the quality of the books but also to have their needs, ideas and experience included (Crismore 1989, 150). Meisalo (2005) emphasises the importance of repeated evaluation during the development of learning materials – especially new media – and the need of continuous feedback on finished material. This would give the developers the necessary information for improvements towards high quality learning materials matching the needs in different learning situations. Finally, Mikk recommends "experimental evaluation" as the possibly best research method to inquire "the efficiency of using textbooks at schools" (Mikk 2002, 137).

Focus on Modern Business, however, was not field tested for several reasons: First and foremost, the lengthy process of development did not allow any further delay of the publication deadline. It had to go to market simultaneously with the release of the new syllabus. In other words, testing in schools would have delayed the publication for a whole year. Secondly, the publishers had field tested several other textbooks before *Focus on Modern Business* was planned. But these tests did not raise sales figures even if the books may have been of higher quality. For some reasons, most Austrian teachers were reluctant to choose new textbooks; instead, they tended to stick to the old materials they were used to. Thirdly, quite a lot of feedback was received through the regular meetings with the advisors. They strongly influenced contents, pedagogical approach and appearance of *Focus on Modern Business*. Further feedback from teachers who have introduced *Focus on Modern Business* in their classrooms has continually been collected. Within five to six years, a relaunch of the textbook series should be started, where all further ideas can be considered. Even though these efforts of the publisher should be acknowledged, the lack of a scientific approach to testing and evaluation is evident. Yet the publisher has not shown any deeper interest in research.

Suggestions for improvement

The example of *Focus on Modern Business* as illustrated above could be seen as representative of the situation in several publishing companies: Textbook research does not seem to be considered frequently. Therefore, there is ample room for improvement. The key certainly is the necessity to build closer contacts between practice and research. It is very important to understand each other's background, the way of thinking and acting. Put provocatively, it means that publishers mainly follow commercial goals and researchers chiefly ideological goals. For publishers, success means to sell the kind of materials which teachers like and to make a profit, in other

words to keep costs low and to satisfy the customers. Success for researchers, however, could mean for example to contribute to a pedagogically valuable textbook or to find out how students learn best. Thus, researchers and publishers appear to work at cross purposes. One possible suggestion for improvement is to introduce people working in the publishing industry into textbook research and its most important findings. This could be done efficiently by cooperating with international panels like the European Educational Publishers Group[5]. Also, the integration of textbook research into the professional development of editors and authors may be required. For this purpose, research findings and reports might be rewritten in the language of ordinary editors so as to communicate findings to them in a clear and comprehensible way. In addition, scientists could learn more about the making of teaching and learning materials so they could better understand the reasons for shortcomings of textbooks and might be able to find practicable solutions.

Another very important measure would be the introduction of textbook research to teachers (Horsley & Lambert, 2001). This could be done via central national institutions like ministries of education, via teachers' forums and institutions of teacher education. Moreover, further stakeholders like politicians and parents need to be convinced of the importance of high quality teaching materials and the role which research could play. A lot of lobbying seems to be necessary. Let us get started!

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The Problematic of Computerization in the Process of Education in Secondary Schools

Gintaras Šaparnis

Introduction

One of the main priorities outlined in *The Strategic Plan of the Development of Information Society in Lithuania* (2001) is to provide Lithuanian citizens with competencies that would enable them to make use of the advantages of ICT and to adapt more flexibly to new living and working conditions. The main role striving for this goal is played by schools. According to Bitinas (2000), when educational technologies based on modern information technologies are being developed, a need for changes in schools and education arises.

The relevance of the research is determined by the fact that research on systematic changes is a relatively new, and a developing issue in Lithuania and other Middle and Eastern European states. Researchers have shifted their focus from the issues of strategy formation, decision making and the analysis of the agents that affect them to other fields not studied yet: decision implementation, effects of internal and external agents on administrative adaptability. (Vilpišauskas et al. 2002).

Systematic changes related to ICT integration into education is a multi-dimensional process and includes many aspects and elements. Research on all these aspects and elements is an unrealistic task for individual researchers. Therefore this paper restricts the study to the analysis of the situation in Šiauliai city.

The research aim is to research factors that affect ICT application in the process of education in Šiauliai city secondary and basic schools.

Research theoretical basis

Three of the most general goals of the development of information society defined in *The Conception of the Development of Lithuanian Information Society* (2001) are directly linked with the planned reforms in the Lithuanian system of education in general and in schools in particular:

- To guarantee an opportunity for the population to gain knowledge and professional qualification via information technologies;
- To give equal opportunities for the population to use information technologies for social and public needs;
- To foster Lithuanian culture and protect the Lithuanian language in global information society.

These goals of the development of information-based society change the external implementation environment of schools as organisations and draw them into complicated processes implementing political decisions. D. Hopkins et al. (1994)

maintain that changes in education are complicated phenomena, they encompass an entire chain of actions: from the policy of education and its interpretation in the local context to classroom activities. The process of changes may be defined as the unity of procedures and practices, regulations and relations, social and psychological mechanisms that form and predetermine all changes, although not being dependent on changes they stimulate or restrain progress (Hargreaves, 1994). As changes are continual and encompassing processes they can not be completely controlled. Attempts may be made to influence them: to give a desirable speed, desirable direction or make them of a more acceptable character. In management terms planned changes are defined as systematic attempts to redesign the organisation helping it to adapt to environment external changes or to reach new goals (Stoner et al. 2001).

Until 2000 a majority of reforms carried out in the system of education were mainly directed towards changes in the content and volume of education. Orientation of the goals and tasks defined in *Strategies of Information Communication Technologies Integration into Lithuanian Education* (2000) *(to foster the culture of a learning organisation in schools, to integrate ICT into school management and self-governance, to integrate the development of information culture into the entire process of education in secondary schools, to stimulate the introduction of innovative forms and methods of teaching, to create conditions for all teachers to become competent in information and technologies, to change the role of school librarians)* require changes in school culture, technologies, teaching schemes and methods implying that schools while integrating ICT have become the agents of systematic reforms in education.

ICT integration changes school educational environments, teaching schemes, teachers and schoolchildren's roles. Thus the dimension of changes in the aspect of information technologies application in education is important for the analysis of this process. It is quite understandable that ICT integration affects school activities and its educational environment. It becomes evident that all aspects of planned changes cannot be researched in one work because changes in schools should rely on skills, aims and potential of most closely to school related persons: teachers, school administrators, state authority representatives and parents (Hopkins et al. 1994). Therefore, taking into consideration the caution that external pressure very often causes changes but does not necessarily mean that innovations will be successful if they are not going to be used for school goals, we have limited our research to the identification of the factors that affect ICT application in Šiauliai city secondary and basic schools and their link with school internal and external environment and the analysis of teachers' competences in ICT and their attitudes towards ICT.

Characteristics of the research sample and methodology

Three hundred questionnaires were developed for respondents, teachers from Šiauliai city secondary and basic schools (excluding teachers of information technologies and school head masters). 291 questionnaires were returned. A 97% questionnaire return quota is considered to be good for closed type survey instruments. In our opinion questionnaire return was guaranteed by our promise to provide school head masters with processed information on their schools to be used for internal audit.

Research families (schools) were selected so that they represented real distribution of teachers in Šiauliai city schools presented in *The Report on Education Activities in Šiauliai City for 2002-2003* (2003). Following the principle of voluntary participation we did not manage to survey gymnasium teachers. Because of that the number of secondary school families was enlarged. This change should not distort research results because gymnasiums and secondary schools keep to the same teaching plans, syllabi and standards of education. Primary schools were eliminated from the research families because having analysed *The List of City and District Municipalities and Subordinate Schools Supplied with Computer Equipment* (2003) we found that they are not centrally supplied with computer equipment under the program "Education for Information Society" and are not in equal conditions applying it in the process of education.

Variables of the diagnostic research

In order to diagnose the factors that affect the usage of information technologies in the lessons of traditional school subjects, it is important to identify the effect of external and internal conditions on this construct. To identify schools affecting external factors and to show their causal relationship with internal factors the method of historical data analysis was used (Kardelis, 2002). To diagnose factual computer usage in Šiauliai city schools and to identify attitudes that might affect ICT integration into schools an anonymous questionnaire '*How do you evaluate school computerisation*?' was developed.

The main research problem is that data in written sources are most often of qualitative character therefore many difficulties arise applying statistical methods. In researches of this type interpretation is one of the main data processing methods. Applying this method it is impossible to eliminate the researchers' personal experience, their competence and links with the researched completely. Therefore one of the means that guarantee research objectivity is verification of empirical data comparing them with other data obtained using other methods. An agreement among several methods (triangulation) verifying the same hypothesis is also important.

The review of research carried out since 2000 when school computerisation started and later formation of information-based society shows that:

- Criteria evaluating school computerisation were mainly quantitative, easily measured indicators (e.g. student-computer ratio, number of developed computerised teaching aids, number of teachers in computer literacy courses, etc.);
- The effect of computerisation on students' learning results was almost not evaluated (except the subject of informatics);
- Methods used to obtain empirical data in most research were: analysis of documents, focus groups, survey of experts, questionnaire type surveys of school head masters and ICT co-ordinators;
- Attitudes of subject teachers, direct participants in the reform, towards computerisation policy in practice were little studied.

In order to diagnose teachers' actual participation in computerisation policy and their attitudes towards it, a research instrument - a closed type questionnaire - was designed. The questionnaire included 124 questions. To measure demographic, socio-economic, socio-educational variables and the variables of application and evaluation of computerised resources separate blocks of questions of the research instrument "A Student and a Computer" developed by D. Šaparnienė (2002) were adapted and used. As statements constructing the block of attitude evaluation in the questionnaire conclusions from *Strategies of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the Lithuanian System of Education* (2000) presented in the analytical part on IT integration into schools from *The Program of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the System of Education* (2002) as well as forecasted effects and teachers' authentic statements on school computerisation presented in www.svarstome.lt discussion *The Analysis of IT Integration Policy into Lithuanian Education* (2003) were used.

Discussion of research results

Identification of external environment factors. In analysing the documents on school computerisation and formation of information-based society, it was noticed that more important documents were implemented later. These new policies were structurally different to the previous policies. Thus it may be stated that they do not form a set and are of non-hierarchical character.

The original *Strategies of Information Communication Technologies Integration into Lithuanian Education* (2000) did not clearly define general goals of information technologies integration into the system of education. It was limited to defining goals only in separate spheres of education. Depending on the attitudes held by policy makers (municipalities, schools) on school computerisation its implementation may be indirectly affected by other regulations. Implementation factors may be positive and foster school computerisation implementation policy or negative and give alternatives for some policy makers not to focus on the implementation of school computerisation goals.

These contradictions, fixed in the legal basis of school computerisation, and the potential of positive and negative factors allow us to conclude that successful implementation of school computerisation policy is possible only if effective management is guaranteed. Integration of information technologies into the system of education is related to responsibility sharing among institutions, document preparation and their quality, financial allocations and their distribution and attitudes in school communities. The influence of municipal leadership on schools is evident in financing policy. Municipalities are not obliged to become active agents in school computerisation policy because in implementation principles of *The Program of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the System of Education* (2002) they are given only an incidental role: to distribute computer hardware and software provided under the projects of the program *Education for Information Society*. Another task they play is to involve local communities in program implementation.

The Science and Education Minister approves in his orders the standard of education, syllabi, education plans that foresee schoolchildren's information education and has a direct effect on schools as management subjects. Schools, in their turn, following the main principles of decision-making hierarchy should co-ordinate their activity programs with the goals outlined in *The Program of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the System of Education* (2002), look for ways and goal implementation opportunities when financial resources are limited. Schools being (or striving to be) participants in the development of information-based society and implementing the set tasks should be provided with sufficient resources and staff with relevant qualification and skills in strategic management.

Results of the diagnostic research. In the questionnaire '*How do you evaluate school computerisation?*' eight blocks of questions were formed to diagnose the application of technical and educational computer programs aiming to identify the respondents' opinion on the importance of computer literacy elements and their potential applying information technology in the process of education and the respondents' attitudes towards school computerisation policy.

Factor analysis of the questionnaire *Importance of CT for the teaching subject* showed that the evaluation of the importance of computer technology was determined by teachers' knowledge in those technologies and their personal experience. The main evaluation result shows that technology used to prepare texts, search for information on the Internet and present it graphically, was of average importance.

Data analysis of the questionnaire *Opportunities to use computer technology* shows that teachers' opportunities to use computer technology are still limited. Multimedia, that makes the usage of computer technology possible, in fact is still beyond teachers' capacities and capabilities.

Rating results of the questionnaires *Importance of teaching and applied software* and *Opportunities to use teaching and applied software* presented in Figure 2 allow us to maintain that teachers give preference to and could use the following teaching and applied software in the process of education: text editors and Internet search tools. Central tendencies of their evaluation show that the use of e-mail, calculations and graphic editors is still marginal and occasional.

Central tendencies of teachers' evaluation (from 1.2 to 1.6) of the use of teaching and applied software show their preference for traditional educational methods. Evaluation means of the importance of teaching and applied software are lower than opportunities to use it. This illustrated a certain rejection of ICT in the process of education by some surveyed teachers that is characteristic for the teacher population. The identified tendency stated in the theoretical part of the research highlights conservatism of educational institutions towards change, and partly explains contradictions noticed in applied research on ICT usage in schools. Answer re-activity allows us to make a presumption that Šiauliai city school teachers, while declaring their approval of computerisation policy, oppose its implementation for reasons that are not fully understood or researched.

Evaluation of school computerisation policy. For successful ICT integration as a systematic reform, teachers' purposeful participation is an important factor.

According to Hargreaves (1994), changes in premises, textbooks, teaching material, technologies are of little importance unless these innovations are supplemented by a concern for teacher development.

The research indicated that 67% of the teachers (except the teachers of information technologies) express the opinion that their qualifications in information technologies are low. About 45% of the teachers think that in this phase of school computerisation *any 'game' played on a computer by teachers and schoolchildren* is often considered to be computerised teaching. Although the formation of computer and information literacy skills is foreshadowed as a key school task in *General Programs and Standards of Education for Forms 11-12* (Education Supply Centre, 2002) the idea is only episodically realised in many school subject curricula. According to 84% of the respondents, a decisive factor that limits application of computerised teaching methods is still access to computer technology. The teachers' competence in ICT is negatively affected by the fact that subject rooms are not equipped with computers. Although 51% of the respondents have attended the technological and 29% educational parts of computer literacy courses, 78% of them suggest that *allocations for teacher qualification development are insufficient.*

Eight-two percent of the teachers agree with the statement that allocations for computer technology should be foreseen in 'a schoolchild's basket' and 47% reject the idea of sufficient financing. Teachers agree with a decentralised implementation of school computerisation policy and suppose that schools as organisations have a better understanding of their needs and may plan ICT integration better than may be undertaken in a centralised way.

An agreement with the statement that *worst computerised schools should be equipped with computer technology in the first place* (65%) and a disagreement (47%) with the attitude concerning schoolchildren's from different schools equal rights to use information technology, coincide with the ideas of information dissemination reduction discussed in *Strategies of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the Lithuanian Education System* (2000), gives priority to centralised means of implementing the process of changes.

The respondents' equal distribution into the opponents and proponents of the statements *application of computer technology in schools is often self-directed* and *school computerisation is impossible without the parents' financial support* shows that expectations declared in *The Program of Information Communication Technologies Integration into the Lithuanian Education System* (2002) on school community active participation in the program are not implemented.

Approval of the opinion that information technology has a positive effect on school image, learning results and motivation and makes the teachers' activities more rational is not supported by factual results of the research on the application of information technologies. These attitudes correlate with the idea about teachers' conservatism towards changes discussed in the above chapter and may be considered even as re-active.

On the other hand, attitudes towards a positive effect of information technology on learning results and motivation, and disapproval by 66% of the respondents with the

statement that *a requirement to apply information technology does not improve education but makes it more stressful* in the future, when the goals of ICT application are specified and supported by necessary resources, may become an important positive factor which will promote the application of information technology as a teaching method.

A contradictory evaluation of the statement *information technology standards should be applied in teacher certification* shows that schools as organisations, according to Lewin (Stoner at al. 2001), are presently confronting strong forces determined to preserve the present situation.

More than a half of the teachers' attitudes towards favourable opportunities of getting competent help from information technology teachers, and help-sharing possibilities, confirm the ideas described above, that the method chosen to overcome the opposition of traditional forces may be effective. However, evaluating the existing low level of computer technology usage, it may be forecast that application of educational methods based on ICT will require considerably more time and financial resources.

Conclusions

Research results allow us to make conclusions that external environment for integrating ICT into education (except the subjects of informatics and information technology) is not favourable in Šiauliai city. This results from the fact that a political agreement among the participants was not reached. Therefore clearly set goals, tasks and implementation priorities integrating ICT into education were not formulated. Those conditions predetermine insufficiency of resources with implementing systematic change. When resources are limited they are concentrated for the implementation of centralised change. In this way, the principle of centralisation/decentralisation is violated; schools are eliminated from the list of active participants in change. The principle of decision-making and management hierarchy is violated. Legal-institutional bases do not oblige school founders (municipalities) to act as agents in ICT integration into educational policy; using financial resources conditions to direct schools towards other priorities are created.

It determines other factors related to the insufficiency of resources integrating ICT into other school subjects: 1) the teachers' opportunities to use computer technology are still limited, therefore a computer is mostly used for preparing text documents and handouts and is occasionally used for knowledge control and communication; 2) multimedia which creates possibilities for teachers to use computerised teaching aids in fact is still inaccessible for them; 3) teachers' competence in ICT is low.

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Students' Computer Literacy: Evaluation of Importance and Self-Concept

Diana Šaparnienė

Introduction

Creating the conditions for people of all ages and all social strata to use information technology and develop computer literacy is of prime importance for a modern and democratic society. For this reason education, an important factor of society development, plays an essential role addressing the issue of literacy and computer literacy in particular. Computer literacy, a basic form of literacy, preconditions job and social mobility of a professional as well as his/her career opportunities. Because of a rapid development of computer technology and a vast sphere of its application, new tasks have been set for higher education institutions: to provide high level computer literacy for future professionals. This paper presents the main results of studies repeatedly carried out in 2001 and 2007 into students' computer literacy, one of their aims being the demonstration of students' evaluation of the importance of different components of computer literacy, the role of self-concept for achievements in computer literacy and the situation in the content and textbooks on computer literacy in Lithuanian educational system.

Why repeated studies? Repeated studies help to evaluate changes. Rapid development of information communication technologies (ICT) and their wide application require evaluation of changes so that the efficiency level in ICT used not only in educational spheres but also in professional and daily activities was achieved. Therefore this repeated study has enabled the evaluation of changes in the value of computer literacy in the context of the development of educational means. Relying on our research we can say that some changes are especially significant and evident. For example, in 2001 only 45% of the respondents had personal computers at home, meanwhile in 2007 already 97% of the respondents admitted to having personal computers. A computer has become an indispensable tool in daily work and one of the most important tools in studies. Admittedly, computerization has influenced the amount of time spent on the computer. In 2001 only 36% of the respondents worked on the computer daily, in 2007 this percentage grew up to 78%. Another interesting point to be mentioned is that an attitude to computers has changed. The year of 2001 could be described as the year of "fans and enthusiasts" and now, according to research results, the biggest part (almost 80%) of the respondents are "functionalists" who are saying: "For me the computer is a common tool to do some work"; "I am indifferent enough to the computer", etc. The number of people with computer phobia stating "A computer and I are two opposites", "A computer causes continual stresses for me", etc has considerably decreased.

Theoretical background

Computer literacy:

During recent decades attempts have been made to define the concept of *computer literacy* by educational research; this concept has been widely used by the representatives of different sciences. Various definitions of *computer literacy* may be found in different literature sources, however, according to many authors, this means *the knowledge and ability to use computers, just like communicative literacy means the ability to read and write* (Henrich, Molenda, Russel, Smaldino, 1999). According to D. Saparniene (2002), *computer literacy is the wholeness of the knowledge, abilities and skills necessary for a non-professional mass user to work on the computer satisfying his/her personal, professional and socio-cultural needs.*

The concept of computer literacy has been researched in the works of many authors. A majority of researches focus on a specific context, specific groups of users. It is evident that many of them were carried out in education, the majority being research into schoolchildren's and students' computer literacy (Saparniene, Merkys, 2004; Cole, 2004; Jegede, Okebukola, 1992), a little fewer on computer use among adults, their attitudes towards a computer (Broos, 2005; Oderkirk, 1996; Lowe, McAuley, 2000). Researches into computer literacy are most often oriented towards the studies of the experience with computers, computer skills diagnostics, access to computers, attitudes towards them.

However, in spite of the above mentioned research into the positive aspects of computer literacy there has been little stress on the analyses of the quality and expression of computer literacy which is predetermined by a rapid development of information communication technologies. Researches into computer literacy are still lacking, especially those analysing *how attitudes towards the use of computers and computer programs have been changing with the flow of time, how a rapid development of technologies and their unavoidable application have been changing people's self-concept in terms of their literacy, etc.*

Taking into consideration the cultural specificity of social and educational phenomena it is possible to state that facts reflecting educational and cultural realia in terms of technology use in post-totalitarian states are still lacking. With regard to this, Lithuania is a typical state representing this block: what is characteristic for Lithuania may be also characteristic not only for the Baltic States but also for East European countries. Lithuania can be characterized by the following features:

- Information technology has come to the Lithuanian people's daily life much later than in the West;
- Partly limited resources predetermine its backwardness in ICT (shortage of computer hardware and software, difficult access to computers);
- However, ICT has been developing very rapidly in a short period of time (e.g., increased number of computers at home and in educational institutions).

Backwardness in technologies fostered the Lithuanian Government to make some decisions due to which the population could buy computers and other applications;

nowadays computers are offered at discount prices. The decisions taken by the Government have obviously changed the situation – during the last two years domestic computerization has grown from 13% to 25%.

However, especially rapid processes of computerization, in some cases even a forced strive for standards, have been met with some resistance, indifference or even fear which is related to not always clearly perceived changes in a job or even personal life. This is proved by the fact that elderly people of a lower socio-educational status and living in rural areas are reluctant to use computer technologies and demonstrate negative attitudes towards them.

Self-concept:
Research showed that academic achievements, especially in technology application, significantly correlate with attitudes, motivation and adequate self-concept (Hagborg, 1992; Pajares, 1996; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2004). According to research results, self-concept is one of the main factors predetermining success in studies; self-concept may affect cognitive and memory processes. Self-concept is understood as an individual's evaluation of him/herself, his/her possibilities, skills, features and place among other people, often referred to as self-awareness by psychologists.

In scientific literature, which analyses the peculiarities of self-concept, causality between academic achievements and academic self-concept is discussed (Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990). It is maintained that in primary schooling self-concept in mathematics is a result of achievements, which insignificantly affect further achievements. Other researches (Marsh & Yeung, 1997) are of an opinion that academic achievements in higher education are evidently affected by the level of self-concept. It is also stated that primary academic achievements affect one's further self-concept in academic sphere (Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003).

Several researches carried out in the last decade focused on the identification of correlation between motivation and self-concept (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2005). Researches into computer literacy were also mainly directed towards the users' attitudes towards computers (Thomas, James, 1996; Igbaria, Chakrabarti, 1990). An attitude is an inner psychic state affecting our behaviour. Therefore one's. inner state may have effect on behaviour and words. For example, it may be presumed that a person who is expressly avoiding any contact with the computer has a negative attitude towards it. This attitude is not an instinct phenomenon but mainly depends on one's experience and its effect in a new situation. Thus attitudes are formed in the process of experiences, therefore changes in them are very likely and are caused by inner and outer factors. According to A. Maslow, the need for self-realisation is the need to develop, to realise one's potential, it is also constantly changing and not fully realised. One or another level of self-concept is formed while assessing the results of one's activities and understanding how others assess him/her. Adequate self-concept enables one to be critical towards oneself, to reconcile one's abilities, the level of task difficulties and requirements of other people. People with adequate self-conception have a higher personal and social status, wider spheres of interest, they are able to direct their energy to different spheres of activities.

Research methodology and characteristics of empirical basis

The empirical basis of these two studies is a series of diagnostic studies of students at Lithuanian universities, high schools and colleges. The main part of those surveyed was university students (in 2001 – about 85%, in 2007 – about 86%), others being high school and college students. The majority of those surveyed were students in Economics and Business Management study programs. Currently these study programs are among the most popular and pose high requirements in computer literacy. Moreover, the author of the paper is working with the students in this field and familiar with work specificity. These factors have determined greater attention to the above mentioned segment of the student population. The remaining respondents included students studying in other fields: education, philology, informatics, physics and mathematics, technical, agricultural and health sciences. The study was based on voluntary participation and anonymity. The main part of those surveyed was daytime students. The majority of those surveyed were female students. That corresponds to the tendencies in higher education in the country. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 44, average age being about 22 years old.

What was done? Two anonymous closed type questionnaires "Student and computer", "Student and studies" and a test on computer literacy were developed; five tests, aimed to evaluate verbal and non-verbal intelligence, attention and comprehension knowledge (terminological and curriculum) developed by other authors were used. A questionnaire "Student and computer" consisted of tests measuring students' emotional – motivational interaction with a computer, assessment of the importance of computer literacy components, self-concept on computer literacy, development of interest in computer literacy, gender stereotypes, the context, human-computer interaction environment and others.

The present paper deals with the respondents' answers to the questions of the questionnaire "Students and computer", namely, evaluation scale results on the importance of computer literacy components, self-concept on computer literacy, development of interest in computer literacy. Rating scales were used to evaluate the importance of knowing about different computer literacy components and how all these components are known, self-concept on computer literacy. The same scales were used to find out the respondents' development of interest in computer literacy asking "In which areas would you like to improve your knowledge and abilities?"

Applying literature analysis and expert survey, 11 components were identified in computer literacy. The current standpoint requires that the content of computer literacy should correspond to the standards defined in the *European Computer Driving License* (*ECDL*), which consists of seven modules. It is important to note that the components identified in 2001 correspond to the components in *ECDL* therefore these components can stand for computer literacy components.

Psychometric validity of the variables of the diagnostic study

Factor analysis was used to validate psychometric validity of the stimulus material. The method of Principal Components and VARIMAX rotation was used. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient, which is comparatively high in all scales, explains

that the matrix is applicable for factor analysis. Inner consistency, expressed by Cronbach alpha coefficient, remains above the limit of 0.5, therefore, the scales are homogeneous enough. It should be noted that rather high correlation between the evaluation of the statements and the extracted factors was obtained. This is evidenced by the limits of meanings variation of the correlation coefficient ($0.45 \leq r \leq 0.86$). Total explained variation is about 60%.

The results of the factorial analysis of the evaluation scale of the importance of computer literacy components presents rather meaningful, interpretable and statistically significant results. With the help of factorial analysis two factors evaluating the importance of computer literacy were identified, they explain 60.8% of all variations. All the variables were grouped into really meaningful factors. One factor was the most often used programmes (text editor, electronic mail, the Internet, spreadsheet), it was named *"A basic user's computer literacy components "*, and all specific programmes such as integration and conversion of computer programs, programming, operating systems, installation of computer programs and others formed another factor and was named *"A professional user's computer literacy components"*.

Research results

The importance of computer literacy components was rated on a 5-rate scale where 5 is "very important" and 1 – "not at all important". The identified tendency is shown in diagram (see Figure 1). In 2001 and 2007 studies the 2nd factor – *"A basic user's computer literacy components",* the components necessary for everyday life (the Internet, text editor, electronic mail) got the highest rating. Rarely applied specific computer literacy components (programme integration, programming, programme transformation), the elements of the factor *"A professional user's computer literacy components"* were rated the lowest.

The study on the evaluation of the preferences of the importance of computer literacy components revealed that in the both cases the respondents focused on those computer literacy components, which are most relevant in every day activities. The students clearly differentiated computer literacy components and skills necessary for different users, both professional and basic. The students gave preference to multipurpose components and skills important for the both types of users. Those components and skills, which require deeper professionalism and training, were evaluated with some reservation.

Figure 1. Evaluation of the importance of computer literacy components
(2001 year - N= 774, 2007 year - N= 423)

The biggest differences between the studies of 2001 and 2007 evaluation of the importance of computer literacy components can be seen evaluating presentations and computer graphics (CG) (their importance grew the most), the importance of program installation; however, the importance of the knowledge and skills in programming went down. Presentation skills are very important in terms of the free market, job place and the study process in particular.

The respondents were also asked to evaluate their own computer literacy (self-concept in computer literacy). The current knowledge and abilities were evaluated on a 3-point scale: good, average or bad. As the analysis of self-concept showed in the both cases the respondents paid attention to those components which are applied most often in daily life activities (computer literacy components of a basic user). In 2001 the respondents reported that they had most knowledge and skills in working with text editor. Almost half of the respondents (48.7%) evaluated their knowledge in working with text editor as good. The biggest part of the respondents evaluated their knowledge in the Internet and e-mail programs as average. The knowledge in programming, integration and conversion of computer programs, working with operational systems, were evaluated the lowest.

Meanwhile in 2007 the evaluation of communication was the highest (almost 80% evaluated their knowledge as good), followed by text editor and others. It is evident that electronic communication is taking its position in society very rapidly, playing an important role in professional, personal activities; society is getting net connected.

In percentage the evaluation as good grew up evaluating the knowledge and skills in the Internet and electronic mail, presentations and computer graphics were also evaluated as quite good and programming knowledge and skills were evaluated not only as less needed but also as not very good (see Figure 2).

2001		2007
Internet (35.6 %)	→	(79 %) Internet
Text Editor (48.7 %)		(57 %) Text Editor
Electronic Mail (38 %)	→	(73 %) Electronic Mail
Presentations and CG (9 %)	→	(29 %) Presentations and CG
Spreadsheet (27.1%)		(32 %) Spreadsheet
Programming (5.4 %)	←	(4 %) Programming
Database (8.2 %)		(13 %) Database

Figure 2. Self-concept on computer literacy
(2001 year – N = 774,   2007 year – N = 423)

Why were the knowledge and skills in programming evaluated as less needed? It is evident that nowadays schooling should be more directed towards educating the users of applied programs. Communication information technologies were introduced into Lithuanian comprehensive schools when in 1986 informatics was included into the curriculum. The syllabus of informatics underwent several changes, material resources were enriched, the methodology of teaching informatics was developed and new textbooks on informatics were published. It is evident that the experience gained from using the old textbooks motivated the introduction of some changes, they were updated taking into consideration the changes in the content. However, the school curriculum is still being updated and reformed in relation to what does not provide schoolchildren with the necessary competences in information-communication. Higher school students are still lacking elementary knowledge in computer use and competences necessary for the basic user. Computer competence development programs should correspond to the standards of information technologies set in other European states, reducing the hours for programming and algorithm in the compulsory curriculum and thus giving more time for the development of the above mentioned competences in extra curriculum time. Not all schoolchildren favour programming topics, only a small part of them being interested in them (who usually choose a profession related to the development and application of computer technologies).

Very important statistical results were obtained, having compared a link between the evaluation of self-concept in computer literacy and its dependence on the areas they would like to improve their knowledge and abilities in (developing interest in computer literacy). A hypothesis of dependence (χ^2 criteria), correlation between the evaluation and calculation of the coefficient and Spearman's correlation coefficient were checked. These coefficients show that a statistically significant (p<0,001) correlation between the evaluation of self-concept and professional interest in computer literacy exists. The research showed that a higher evaluation level in the corresponding sphere leads to a higher professional interest in that sphere.

Conclusions

The study into the evaluation of preferences of the importance of computer literacy components and self-concept in computer literacy revealed that in the both cases the

respondents focused on those computer literacy components which are most often applied in every day activities. The students clearly differentiated the components of and skills in computer literacy necessary for different users, professional and basic. The students gave preference to multipurpose components and skills important for the both types of users. Those components and skills which require deeper professionalism and training were evaluated with some reservation.
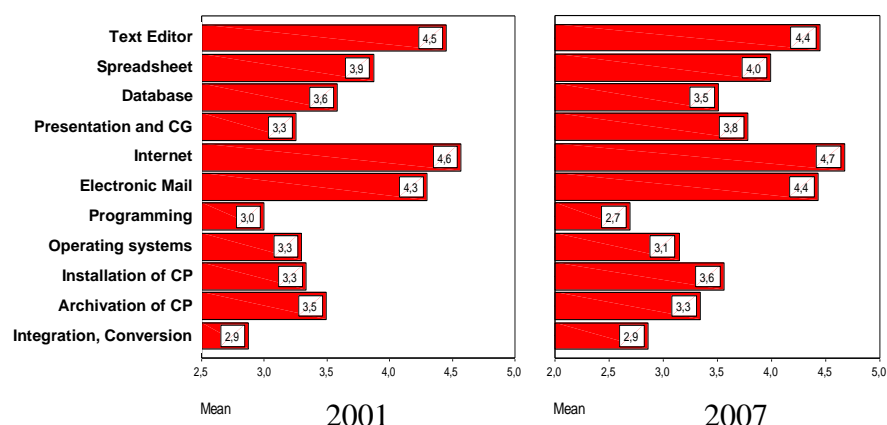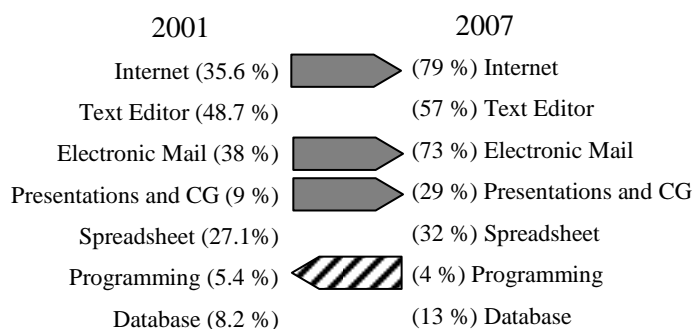
The biggest difference evaluating the importance of computer literacy components in 2001 and 2007 studies can be seen evaluating presentations and computer graphics (their importance grew the most). Nowadays presentation skills in the work place and particularly in the study process are of great importance. However, the importance of the knowledge and skills in programming went down. It is evident that contemporary schools should be more oriented towards the training in applied programs, decreasing the number of hours for programming and algorithms and increasing the number of hours for the development of the software users' competences in extra curriculum time. The situation preconditions the development of new textbooks, teaching materials and other educational media.

Relevance of the study in terms of its practicality and applicability is evident: the collected facts provide opportunities for the optimization of computer training practices, development of computer literacy level and efficiency in computer use paying attention to a need for changes in the content of educational media and textbooks.

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WORKSHOP 2: The Use of Textbooks and Educational Media

The Use of Text Books for Students with Special Educational Needs

Mª Montserrat Castro Rodríguez

Introduction

During the two past decades in the Spanish education system, the attention to diversity is becoming more important in educational planning and management. During this period, some innovations which allow a better adaptation to the specific needs of educational support required by students have been introduced. These developments require important changes in the teaching and learning materials used both in the ordinary classroom and in special education classrooms.

Changes in teaching and learning materials imply important changes in the teaching-learning process that take place inside and outside classrooms and special education facilities. Teachers who have special education students in their classes must work as a team. It is important to design pedagogical strategies in the classroom, and to develop selection criteria for the teaching and learning materials used with all the students, including those who do not have special needs.

This paper reflects the results of my professional experience for four years as a special education teacher in a rural school. My work with students with special needs is carried out inside a special education classroom and inside the ordinary classroom where these special education students attend. Among the functions I develop in my work, I pay special attention to the intervention design and development, and to the selection/construction of teaching materials. This document presents a summary of the reflections drawn from our professional experience.

Legislative context

In the last decades, consecutive reforms in the education system have been carried out. Nowadays, it is mandated that students with specific needs receive specialized attention. This is implemented by teachers, specialized in special education. Thus, the student can receive different methods of pedagogical intervention from teachers: the student receives support in his/her ordinary classroom from his/her tutor, or from his/her tutor and from specialized teachers. Frequently, support in the ordinary classroom is combined with the intervention of the teacher specialized in special education needs. When the learning difficulties are severe, students can remain in the special education classroom full time, either in ordinary centres, or in a specific centre for special education.

Apart from teachers' support, other aspects of schooling are adapted to these students. These include school curricular adaptation to student rhythm and characteristics. Most frequently the aims and content outcomes for students are restricted, greater time for learning is allocated and teaching and learning material are adapted and modified for student use. Sometimes, all these intervention strategies are employed at the same time.

Teachers need to use teaching and learning materials which help students to learn and progress. The integration of the students into the classrooms has implications for the general organization and planning of the education intervention in the classroom and in the centre, because it is necessary to adapt pedagogy to all the needs of the entire student cohort in the classroom.

School context

During the last four school years, nine teachers-tutors have been working with 20 students with special education needs in 14 ordinary classrooms.

Students with educational support specific needs who attend our classrooms show very different learning needs, some students are affected by Down's Syndrome, some by Asperger's Syndrome, and a range of other generalised learning difficulties. An important group of children come from unbalanced sociocultural family and income environments. Seven of these students, due to their needs, have a curricular adaptation in regard to different aims, content and lesson timing compared to other students in the class.

These children are integrated into the ordinary classrooms, but they receive the educational support from a special education teacher during several weekly sessions inside their own classrooms in collaboration with their teacher-tutor or in the classroom devoted to educational support. Usually, there is coordination among teachers to plan the interventions, the pedagogy and the teaching and learning materials used in both the ordinary and specific classroom.

Materials in the special education classroom

My work with students with special education needs in the support classroom is usually individual or in small groups with other partners with similar difficulties. In this situation, teaching and learning material selection is less difficult, taking into account that it is devoted to a more homogeneous group of students, compared with the normal classroom.

Variety, materials handling, creativity in their elaboration and usage are frequent in the support classroom. In many cases there is a great difference between the actual and the mental age of students, making it necessary to use materials which would not be possible to use in the context of an ordinary classroom. These children sometimes show, in their ordinary classroom, rejection for some materials which are suitable for them, because they are afraid of the fact that their partners may consider them as childish. However, they use them in the support classroom without any kind of prejudice.

Materials in the ordinary classroom: Text books usage

When special education teachers attend to the ordinary classroom, their function is different according to the students' needs and teachers' pedagogy. Sometimes teacher-tutors and the teacher of special education needs develop joint planning for the whole teaching-learning process addressed to all the students. With other teachers, specific support interventions are carried out during the development of their activities; sometimes, the intervention is addressed to the rest of the students in the classroom, with the aim of developing strategies for cross curricular content.

According to their function in the ordinary classroom, they usually play different roles in the material selection, too. They sometimes take part into the materials selection or elaboration; in other cases, they propose materials in order to work contents and reach some goals; it is also frequent that the specialized teacher merely uses the materials selected and elaborated by the ordinary teacher.

Observation and reflections have been made on the use of different types of teaching and learning materials combinations in special education and normal classes with special education students integrated into the class. These observations and reflections are set out in the following table.

TYPE OF MATERIAL	STUDENTS' REACTION
Text book as the teaching and learning materials	• The student with educational support specific needs can complete some activities. • He/she can sometimes become involved in some work in small groups. • Student motivation usually depends on the tasks set and the subject concepts and load.
Combination between the text book and other teaching and learning materials	• The introduction of different materials at different levels allows students to undertake and complete more tasks. • Individualization is possible because different types of resources at different levels are used. • The additional teaching and learning materials need to vary considerably form the textbooks to promote motivation.
Variety of elaborated materials, prepared and adapted by teachers. The text book is one more resource	• The variety of materials allows a better adaptation to the individual needs and the learning progress. • In these proposals, the

collaborative work with other partners becomes an opportunity for interaction, not only for the development of the educational proposal, but also to make the mutual interaction easy.

- The motivation is promoted because the student can take part into a wide project where more students also participate and all of them have a role to be developed with the same level of importance as the rest of the partners'.

How is the material selected?

The teacher selects the material according to the proposed aims, concepts and pedagogy, students' characteristics. Every professional integrates into his/her own pedagogical theory those variables that are considered as more interesting and suitable to develop in his/her classroom.

In general, the teachers we have worked with, state that when they have to select or elaborate some material, they take into account:

- **The level of difficulty of the materials and how to adapt them to the students.**
- **The teacher's role and activities in teaching.**
- **The didactic-pedagogical model which directs the education practice**: what is the role of every student? Is there inside the group individual, collective or combined work…?
- **How many students are there in the classroom? What characteristics do these students present? etc.**
- **Is there work in groups, coordination between teachers?**
- **Teachers' formation.**

Text books in the ordinary classroom: Affordances and Constraints

In Spain, there are important disagreements among those teachers who defend text book usage in the ordinary classroom where students with educational support specific needs attend. Some of them think that the text book must be one more resource to use, but it must not have special prominence. Others think that this resource can help in the integration of all the students. Between both groups, there are other intermediate groups that propose text book usage as a basic resource, but which will be complemented by other materials and other work techniques which make easy the integration of a student with specific needs into the ordinary classroom. Among

their defenders and detractors, the benefits and difficulties of these materials are discussed.

In this sample, we find teachers who support all the positions outlined above. The following list summarises some of the key aspects which distinguish teachers as regards using or not using text books in the classroom.

1. **The importance given to the need of adapting the education process to the individual characteristics of every child.**

   - Limitations of the text books. Some teachers think that they allow students to work at different learning rhythms because every one can do the activities in an independent way. Some others think that textbooks make progress more difficult because the text books do not correspond to special education student's needs.

2. **Materials function in the education process.**

   - Some teachers think that text books are completely adapted to the official curriculum and, therefore, the introduction of other materials can distort the expected goals.
   - Some teachers think that students with especial education needs can have their own materials and only on some occasions they can share them with their partners.
   - Others think that the materials do not play a determining role in the development of education practice. On the contrary, they minimize their importance, focusing explaining academic progress on other variables such as work methodology, student's specific characteristics, etc.

3. **Materials as instruments to achieve equality of opportunity.**

   - Some people think that the use of common materials contributes to equality of opportunity, because all the children use the same resources and they will be able to achieve the same results. The adaptation to the specific needs is focused on giving more time so that students can do the tasks proposed. Even if there is a considerable curricular difference among different groups of students, it is decided to use text books or materials corresponding to other education levels.
   - Other teachers consider this attitude as a process of homogeneity in education practice, which does not allow adaptation to the specific characteristics of every student. That's why they consider that the equality of opportunity is achieved by giving every student all the necessary resources to be able to reach full development, which will be different for every person, taking into account their potentiality and the proposed aims.

Conclusion

In our professional reality, text book use has special relevance. We are conscious of the fact that in our group of teachers there are different opinions about the use of the text book as a basic teaching source. However, my reflection is that there is a consensus that the characteristics that the materials used in the ordinary classroom must include:

- **This material has to combine different types of language** (iconic, written…) in order to allow multiple entry points.
- **The text book has to introduce activities flexibly enough** to facilitate the fact that all the students can do the same activity with different degrees of difficulty.
- **Textbooks have to provide variation in difficulty, both individualized and for groups among all the students.**
- **The material has to promote or suggest other materials** use which allows multiple paced individual development.
- **The materials must cause interest and motivation among students** to promote academic and personal progress.
- **It is convenient to eliminate the prejudices that exist about certain materials** which are considered as suitable only for students with learning difficulties. All the materials can be used with the whole students whenever they are accurately used according to the addressees' characteristics. Thus, it will be possible to introduce into the classroom different materials which will allow better attention to the variety of students who attend to the classroom.

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"Is there anything in the text that the author has omitted?" Students and their Teachers Discuss Expository Texts

Monica Reichenberg

Introduction

In grade 3 Swedish students are introduced to expository texts and from grade 4 there is an increasing emphasis on this text type. Many students have difficulties understanding these texts. Unfortunately the comprehension of expository texts has not been in focus for educational research in Sweden in recent years, although an increasing number of students seem to have difficulties dealing with the demands placed on them. There is a trend of poorer reading comprehension among Swedish students during the last decade (Rosén, Myrberg & Gustafsson, 2005). The alarming reports demonstrate the need for further research in order to see how the students process expository texts when reading, and whether their reading comprehension could be improved.

This paper is part of a three-year longitudinal study and presents how four poor comprehenders and their teachers discuss expository texts. In the beginning of the study the students were what Torgesen (1982) called passive readers because they lacked or failed to activate reading comprehension strategies to access information in textual material and, typically, did not monitor and evaluate their understanding of text. When the study ended the students interacted more actively with the text when reading.

Structured text talks

International research over twenty years has shown that instruction in comprehension has increased poor readers' comprehension (for a review see Gajria, Jitendra, Sood & Sacks, 2007). The instructional procedures have taken several forms. Rather than give a review of different approaches, each of which engage teachers and their students in a collaborative approach to text comprehension in the context of discussion, the investigator will focus on one of them: *Questioning the Author* (henceforth QtA). (Beck et.al. 1996).

QtA is especially interesting because the text is viewed as the product of a human author who is potentially fallible in communicating ideas. Thus, the text is open-ended and incomplete, and the reader has to make something of the text in order to complete it. QtA uses discussion to actively engage students in constructing meaning.

QtA takes place on-line, with students reading segments of the text and discussing the ideas and events encountered. The segmentations have been made by the teacher in advance where the students may be expected to have difficulties. The students stop reading in this place and perform collaborative construction of meaning by asking hypothetical author-oriented queries, such as "What is the author trying to say" and

"What do you think the author means by that?". The purpose of these queries is to assist students in their efforts to understand when they are reading a text the first time.

Stopping to discuss an expository text also allows readers to consider different alternatives. Questioning begins by eliciting what the author says and what that actually means and how it connects with other text ideas. Thus, QtA encourages collaborative discussions in which students are forced to deal with text ideas in order to construct meaning. Wrestling with the expository text during reading gives students the opportunity to learn from one another, to question, and consider alternative possibilities, and to test their own ideas in a safe environment (Beck et al., 1996, p.387).

This is very different from reading a whole expository text silently in the classroom and then discussing it. The latter way of reading assumes either that students have been able to make sense of the text on their own, or that they can articulate the difficulties they have encountered in the expository text when it is discussed in the classroom. In QtA teachers apply different strategies to make students "wrestle with text ideas", i.e. teachers can model confusion, identify problematic language and difficult ideas in the expository text, and ask queries that help focus the students' thinking. All these can serve as comprehension strategies that the students, after practising, will learn and use on their own.

The teacher has a central role in the structured text talk as a facilitator, guide, initiator and responder. The whole class, including the teacher, is constructing meaning of the expository text during a QtA lesson. The teacher is attentive and responsive to students' comments in order to guide the discussion in productive ways (Beck et al., 1996).

Aims

The overall aim of this three year longitudinal study was to evaluate a new approach to comprehension instruction, QtA, and to investigate to what extent and in what way – if any – QtA changes over time teachers' and students' interaction with expository texts. In this particular study the following more specific research questions - three base line issues and the critical issue of the intervention effect - were focused on:

(a) What types of questions do teachers regularly ask when reading expository texts in the classroom under typical or regular classroom conditions?
(b) How do students regularly respond to these questions?
(c) What strategies do the teachers typically and regularly use to get the students to interact actively with the text while reading?
(d) Can structured text talks change over time: teachers´ question types, students´ answers, teachers´ and students´ strategies and poor comprehenders´ participation in text talks?

Participants

A total of 36 students participated in structured text talks in small groups in this three year longitudinal study. In each group there were six students, four poor comprehenders and two good comprehenders. Good comprehenders were included to facilitate discussion and instill cognitive courage among the poor readers (Lundberg, 2005). The students attended grade 4 at the beginning of the study.

The students were selected on (a) the basis of tests of decoding and reading comprehension, together with (b) teacher ratings of the students' attitude to reading, their ability to reflect and infer, and their propensity to superficial reading. The tests and the teachers' estimations demonstrated that the poor comprehenders had difficulties understanding what they read and that they were not able to decode.

Four poor comprehenders (Mette, Anne, Peter and Carl) and their two teachers (Flod and Strom) deserve further investigation. The names of the students and the teachers are fictional.

Mette was a minority student, coming from Norway during the summer before she started in grade 4, i.e. just when this study started. Although Norwegian is very similar to Swedish, it is not easy for a Norwegian to read Swedish texts and she had low reading test scores. However, the teachers did not know whether this was due to limited proficiency in Swedish, or to literacy or cognitive processing difficulties. Since earlier studies have demonstrated that English-language learners have benefited from instruction that focused on metacognitive and cognitive strategies, the investigator wanted to see if Mette would benefit from instruction (Padrón, 1992).

Carl had difficulties in maintaining attention and focusing on texts when he was reading. He did not decode and was a passive reader. When the teacher asked questions about a text that he had read, he most often had an answer ready but he seldom bothered to check in the text if the answer had anything to do with the content of the text. Carl appreciated listening to his own voice, but he did not listen much to his peers. If possible, Carl avoided reading.

Like Carl, Anne did not decode and was a struggling, passive reader, and she often guessed when the teacher asked her questions about text content.

Peter was another struggling, passive reader. He was very talkative however, and liked to read. He and Carl were the two students with the best self-esteem of the four students.

The two teachers, Strom and Flod, were selected because they were interested, not because they were nominated as exemplary. The teachers shared the teaching in the class. They both had extensive experience in teaching from 17 to 33 years.

Material

In all there are 34 videotaped lessons in the three year study - for this particular study 12 of them were analysed since our four students participated in these text talks. The

data for the first year was collected in the spring of 2005. The data for the second year was collected in spring 2006 and the data for the third year was collected in the spring of 2007.

A total of six texts were used - four of the texts were taken directly from textbooks and two of them were taken directly from newspapers. For the first videotaped lesson, the regular lesson, the teachers chose the texts. For the QtA lessons the investigator chose the texts. The five QtA texts varied in range from 214 words to 252 words. In order to motivate the readers, texts about children's conditions were selected (Poskiparta, Niemi, Lepola, Ahtola & Laine, 2003). Two texts dealt with the conditions Swedish children lived under during the 20th century, and three texts with the conditions of children in other countries, i.e. "Save the children", child soldiers and a text about an eight year old Chinese girl who was forced to run a marathon each day. The texts may seem short, however all texts were characterised by being rather information-dense with several gaps in them. Furthermore they contained some infrequently used words and concepts. Consequently, poor comprehenders were expected to encounter difficulties in gaining a deeper understanding if they were to read the texts silently to themselves in the classroom. Each text was introduced to the teachers one week prior to videotaping. None of the students or the teachers had met the texts before at school.

Procedure

For the regular lessons and for the first, second and third QtA lessons, the teachers were instructed to talk with their students for twenty to thirty minutes about the text, but during the fourth and fifth QtA lesson for only twenty minutes. After the regular lessons, the teachers were invited to participate in seminars, led by the investigator, to put theory into practice. Without a theoretical understanding of reading comprehension and different models for enhancing reading comprehension they learn, teachers are unlikely to retain or to use models effectively or reliably (Dole, 2003).

In these seminars the lessons were analyzed regarding teachers' questions, students' answers, teacher strategies etc. Furthermore current reading research concerning reading comprehension, reading strategies, different question types, etc., was discussed. The teachers were also introduced to QtA. Between the seminars QtA was also practised in the classroom during three lessons before videotaping the second time. Then there were seminars again where the teachers' experiences were discussed before videotaping again.

Results

The data to be reported here is based on videotapes, transcribed versions of them and observation summaries. Firstly the distribution of the four students' talking time will be presented. Then the two teachers' questions and the four students' reflections and inferences will be presented. Furthermore representative excerpts from the text talks illustrating the teachers'/students' strategies will be given.

Distribution of talking time
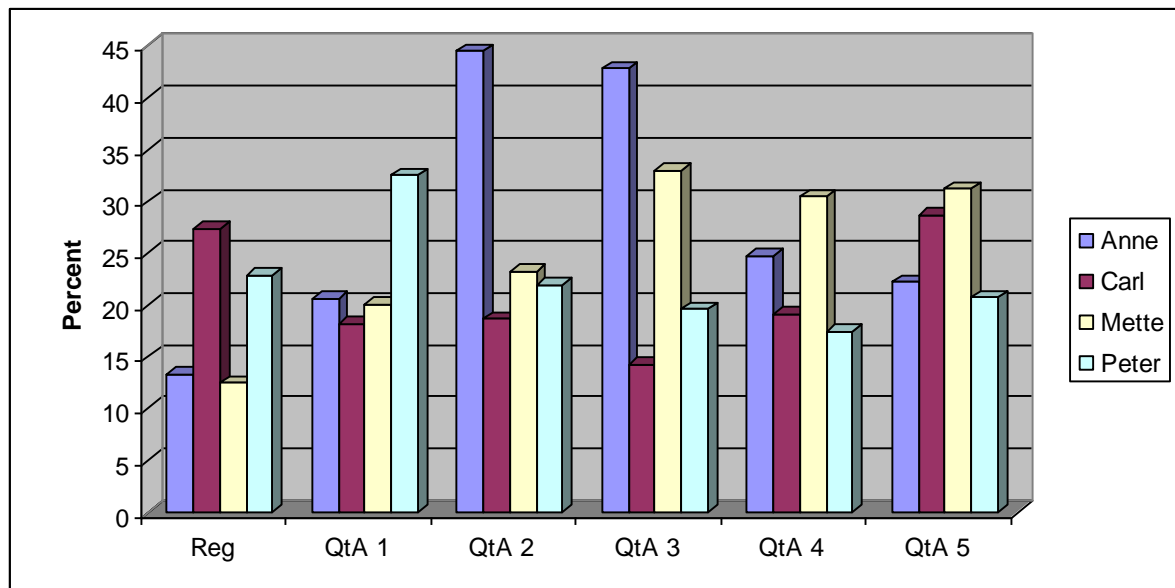
Figure 1. Distribution of talking time.

During the first videotaped lesson, the regular lesson, Peter and Carl dominated while Mette and Anne did not participate so frequently (Figure 1). There is an increase of their participation during the QtA lessons. Anne dominated during the second and third QtA lessons and Mette during the fourth and fifth QtA lessons.

Teacher questions

From earlier research and experience (Reichenberg, 2005) four main question categories and a few subcategories could be identified:

1. *Factual*, where the students have to retrieve information from the text to be able to answer the teacher's question. *Specific factual*, questions where the teachers encourage students to express themselves in their own words, e.g. "What was the segment about, that you just read aloud?"
2. *Check knowledge,* where the teacher wants to check if the students know, for instance, the meaning of a word or if they have the necessary prior knowledge, e.g. "How many years do you have to attend school?"
3. *Open-ended,* where there are several possible answers to the question and the answer is not to be found in the text. *Half-open questions,* are included here, e.g. "He was eleven years when the war started, when he was twelve he learnt how to kill. What comes to mind when you are reading this text?" ("Child soldiers").
4. *Inference questions,* where the students have to read between and beyond the lines to be able to answer the questions, e.g. "Why do you think the children had to finish school and start working?"

Table 1. Teacher questions. Flod (Strom). Frequencies.

Teacher questions	Regular	QtA 1	QtA2	QtA3	QtA 4	QtA 5
Factual questions	9 (10)	6 (4)	6 (6)	6 (2)	6 (1)	7 (2)
Check knowledge	- (2)	5 (6)	10 (9)	2 (5)	2 (2)	1 (2)
Open-ended questions	-	4 (1)	2 -	- (2)	2 (1)	4 (4)
Inference questions	1 -	4 (5)	5 (13)	4 (13)	2 (10)	7 (11)

Table 1 shows that the factual questions dominated during the regular lessons. The teachers also asked many questions which the students could answer without reading the text:

> Teacher Strom: Do snakes eat hedgehogs?
> Peter: No.
> Teacher Flod: You don't think so?
> Peter: Yes, maybe….

Only teacher Flod asked an inference question.

> Teacher Flod: Why are some animals awake at night when we are asleep?
> Carl: They can see then…
> Teacher Flod: What about you Mette?

Mette is silent and she is not able to answer the question. The teacher tries to encourage other students and suddenly Carl bursts out without checking the text content: "I think I know." Either he or his peers manage to answer the inference question.

As can be seen from table 1, there is a change over the three years of teacher Flod's and teacher Strom's questions. The number of purely factual questions has decreased during the QtA lessons. There is an increase in check-knowledge questions, open-ended questions and inference questions. Regarding the open-ended questions the teachers mostly ask the students to compare what they read in the text with their prior knowledge, i.e. half -open questions.

Table 2. Four students' reflections (total reflections in each group). Frequencies.

Students	Regular lesson	QtA 1	QtA 2	QtA 3	QtA 4	QtA 5
Mette	-	1 (3)	1 (4)	- (1)	2 (6)	1 (3)
Anne		1 (2)	1 (3)	1 (2)	2 (7)	(11)
Peter	1 (1)	1 (2)	1 (3)	- (2)	- (7)	2 (11)
Carl	-	2 (3)	- (4)	1 (1)	2 (6)	(3)

Tables 2 and 3 show that the four students made no inferences during the regular lesson and only one of them, Peter, made a reflection. However, there is a change over the three years of the students' answers. The number of inferences and reflections has increased.

The students also participated in the building of inferences and reflections together with their peers on several occasions.

Table 3. Four students' inferences (total inferences in each group). Frequencies.

Students	Regular lesson	QtA 1	QtA 2	QtA 3	QtA 4	QtA 5
Mette	-	-(1)	- (5)	1 (3)	(2)	(7)
Anne	-	-(7)	1 (8)	3 (4)	2 (6)	2 (8)
Peter	-	1 (7)	2 (8)	- (4)	- (6)	(8)
Carl	-	(1)	1 (5)	1 (3)	(2)	2 (7)

In the excerpts below Peter reflects upon the text about the Chinese girl (QtA 5):

Peter: She can't be tall… Maybe all training stops her from being fat… She should not train that much… She is so young. She needs time for just playing a little… It looks like she hasn't drunk much milk. Maybe she needs to do so.

In the excerpt below Carl and Mette summarize and make a conclusion from the text about child soldiers (QtA 4):

Teacher Flod: What was all this text about?
Carl: Slaves in the army.
Mette: He does not want any wars at all, and he does not want children to be involved in war…
Carl: …peace on earth…
Mette: To put an end to this, that children… That is, to put an end to having children involved in war. And get them to maybe start school, and have a good life.

Teachers' strategies and the four students' interactions with the texts

Teacher Flod and teacher Strom applied different strategies to make the students interact with the text. To make the students realize that there is an author behind each text the teachers apostrophized the author on several occasions (QtA 2).

Teacher Strom: Is there anything in the text that the author has omitted?
Alva: I think there should have been explained why there were so big windows in the new-built houses and why it was that important with big bathrooms…
Anne: I think so too because now we just got an incomplete sentence, like my name is and nothing else.

In the text excerpt below teacher Strom encourages Anne to turn back in the text when they discuss child soldiers´ situation (QtA 4).

Anne: I think many child soldiers participate in guerrilla wars to get money to their families...
Teacher Strom: But before you said you believed that their families had been killed and that's the reason why the child soldiers did not hesitate to kill other people.
Philip: Even child soldiers differ.
Alva: I agree. They differ. I can't imagine child soldiers having parents.
Philip: Nor can I. Their fathers are probably in the army too.

Alva:	Maybe their parents, their brothers and sisters and other relatives have been killed.
Teacher Strom:	What do you think get them to participate in guerrilla wars except earning 100 dollars a day?
Philip:	They get food.
Alva:	Maybe they want revenge.
Teacher Strom:	A moment, please! You have to wait for your turn.
Alva:	Maybe they want revenge because their parents have been killed in guerrilla wars.
Anne:	They want revenge.

In the text excerpt above Anne answers without checking whether her answer can be connected with what they have read earlier. Teacher Strom then applies the strategy of stating: "but before you said…" This is a way for the cognitive processes to start in the students; mind and the good comprehender Alva began to build a chain of inferences. The good comprehender Philip comments, and so does Anne. They are very engaged so the teacher has to remind them not to interrupt each other.

To make the students think in their own heads teacher Strom apostrophizes the author and uses the verb "think".

Teacher Strom:	What do you think the author wants to tell us in this text segment?
Anne:	That he, he knows what it is like to be a murderer and he has probably murdered several persons and now he feels guilty and wants to stop other children from murdering.
Teacher Strom:	Hm.
Anne:	Or he thought it was horrible and now he wants to prevent other children from being used as child soldiers.
Teacher Strom:	Hm.
Anne:	It is rather horrible what he has done, and he has probably murdered so many persons.

After Anne's answer, teacher Strom just says "Hm" thus encouraging Anne to think further.

The teachers' evaluation

After the intervention study the teachers were asked whether they thought structured text talks had affected the students' reading comprehension. They found that Mette had begun questioning an author's way of writing when she read other books. She had become much more active also during other lessons and she brought texts, showed them to the teacher and asked e.g. how it was possible to write in certain ways. Carl had also started to participate more actively during the lessons and his vocabulary had increased. He was able to keep focused for longer periods than earlier. Peter had begun questioning the authority of the texts when reading. Like Mette he brought texts to class on several occasions. Especially during the third year he showed texts to the teacher, asking how it was possible to write in certain ways. He used to burst out: "That author is mad since he does not inform us about facts. Does he expect me to know that much?" According to Teacher Strom, QtA made Peter realise that it was

not always his fault that he did not understand. The author also had a large part of the responsibility. Finally, Anne had begun to realise that she must not just guess when answering. She had learned to check in the text whether her answer was connected with the content of the text or not, and her vocabulary increased.

Discussions and conclusion

In this study, structured talks (QtA) on-line changed the way that the two teachers and their four students talked about expository texts.

During the regular lessons the two teachers mostly asked factual questions. The four students did not interact actively with the text. Most of the open thinking and the cognitive efforts were done by the teachers. Often the students just answered without checking the text content. Two of them, Mette and Anne did not participate frequently in the discussion.

Over the three years the communication patterns were changed. The number of purely factual questions decreased. Instead there was an increase in the number of check-knowledge questions, open-ended questions and inference questions. The results are for the most part in line with Beck et al. (1996).

The changing nature of the teachers' questions and strategies was probably a consequence of the teachers' reflections on their lessons through viewing tapes, reading transcripts, and discussing the effects of different question types and teacher strategies.

The changing nature of the teachers' questions and strategies produced a change in the four students' answers and strategies. They interacted more actively with the text when reading. They spontaneously utilized their prior knowledge, connecting it with the information in the text, and thus demonstrating that they had the potential to make inferences. Furthermore, all four showed signs of involvement. They contributed actively to the teachers' and their peers' comments in order to explore the ideas in the texts. Their answers demonstrated that they were able to discuss very complicated issues. They also questioned the author on several occasions. During the regular lessons, none of the students made comments about the text or questioned what was read.

Dealing with a complex expository text in this matter, in the course of reading may be particularly effective for poor comprehenders. It may scaffold the students' comprehension processes by providing opportunities for them to reflect upon events and ideas, to scrutinize connections as they are encountered in the expository text being read (see also Beck et al. 1996).

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Textbooks and beyond: Pupils' Access to Literacy in an Urban Public Primary School in Ghana

Kwasi Opoku-Amankwa

Introduction

This paper focuses on pupils' access to print resources for literacy development in a public primary school in Ghana. Particular attention is given to the textbook which is regarded as the core material for teaching and learning in schools in Ghana. What happens to the textbooks in the classroom, and how factors such as class size, seating arrangements and teachers' understanding and interpretation of the textbook policy influence accessibility and use by the pupils are discussed. The data presented here is based on a qualitative research study involving classroom observations, interviews and focus group discussions with teachers of two primary streams, and pupils in a public primary school in Kumasi, the second largest city in Ghana. The fieldwork spanned a period of three months, from May to August 2006.

Textbooks and school achievements

In the 2005/2006 academic year, the Ghana Education Service distributed textbooks to finally fulfil a long standing promise for a 1:1 pupil-textbook ratio for core subjects including English, Mathematics and Science on free loan to every pupil at the basic education level. The decision to provide textbooks in the core subjects was partly to implement the requirements of a new Textbooks Development and Distribution Policy for Basic Schools established in 2002, but largely to support the claim that the textbook is the single most important instructional material (Crossley & Murby, 1994; Heyneman & Jamison, 1980) and central to schooling, especially in a context of scarce learning resources and poorly trained teachers. Crossley and Murby (1994: 99) are of the view that: "In times of severe budgetary restraint (as is the case in the developing world) …the most cost effective way of improving educational quality is the increased provision of high quality textbooks … as they hold considerable potential for high school achievements".

This view has been supported by a number of studies over the last three decades. Heyneman et al (1981) studied factors of school achievement in sub-Sahara Africa and concluded that, compared to other commonly measured potential correlates of school achievements, such as teacher training and class size, the availability of books was consistently associated with higher achievement levels. Studies by Altbach & Kelly (1988), Farrell & Heyneman (1989), Fuller (1987), Fuller & Clarke (1993), and Fuller & Snyder (1991) also underline the potential of textbook projects as key vehicles for the cost-effective improvement of the quality of education in developing countries.

What happens to the textbooks in the classroom?

In September 2005 when the Ghana Education Service distributed textbooks to schools, it indicated that the books were for the pupils and asked school authorities to give them out immediately to the pupils. Indeed the textbooks policy requires that pupils are allowed to borrow the books and take them home for their private studies. Contrary to recommendations, classroom observation revealed that the pupils have limited access to the books. In almost all twelve classrooms observed, two to three pupils on a desk shared a book and the question of allowing pupils to take the books home for use was completely ruled out by eleven teachers interviewed. The main reasons for their inability to issue books as recommended were the teachers' misinterpretation of the policy regarding textbooks use, large class size and the seating arrangements in the classrooms. Only two out of eleven teachers interviewed claim they give out the books on a one-to-one basis during lessons and this is because their class sizes on most occasions are slightly below the number of textbooks available. The remaining teachers give out the books either one-to-two or one-to-three and even sometimes one-to-four. However, the teachers also raised the issue of care and maintenance of the books, to explain why they issue the books on a one-to-three and even sometimes one-to-four textbook to pupil ratio.

This issue of care and maintenance featured prominently in the responses of teachers when I asked the teachers whether they give the books out to the pupils to take home as recommended by the policy. The response of a primary 5 teacher best summarises the position of the majority of teachers in the case study school:

> When the books came we were asked to number and assign them, each to a pupil so that we can allow them to take home. But another directive from the metropolitan education office came that when we let them take the books home they'll not take good care of them and will destroy them.

The teachers further explained that they were informed that the life span of the books were three years for lower primary (Primary 1-3) and four years for upper primary (Primary 4-6) and the books could only be replaced after the period specified.

Class size, seating arrangement and pupils' access and use of textbooks

Class size and seating have a lot to do with the teaching and learning process. They affect both teacher and pupil behaviour (Rosenfield, Lambert, & Black, 1985; Turnuklu & Galton, 2001); classroom communication (McCroskey & McVetta, 1978); and the effective use of resources including books. Unfortunately this issue seems to have been sadly neglected in the numerous studies on textbooks especially in developing countries.

A number of studies (Blatchford, Bassett, Goldstein, & Martin, 2003; Pedder, 2006) have showed that in smaller classes children were more likely to interact with their teachers on a one-to-one basis; the child was more likely to be the focus of a teacher's attention, whether it was on a one-to-one basis, or in a group or the whole class. Blatchford et al (2003: 717-718) report from their longitudinal systematic observation

studies that: "In smaller classes there is more teacher task time with pupils, more teacher support for learning, and easier classroom management and control". Blatchford and Martin (1998) identify five plausible classroom processes likely to be affected by large class size as: within class grouping practices; the nature and quality of teaching; pupil attention in class; pupil adjustment to school; and teacher morale, stress and enthusiasm. In a study in secondary school classrooms on conditions of service of teachers and how it relates to teacher effectiveness, (Osei, 2006), the teachers cited large class sizes as posing pupil discipline problems and disruptive behaviour. This, according to the teachers, contributes to the lowering of education standards in schools in Ghana.

The total class size of Tomso primary 4A, the case study class for this study, as the school records show, is 74, made up of 33 girls and 41 boys, but the numbers attending on most days ranged between 54 and 68. However, with only twenty desks to share, instead of the recommended two to a desk the pupils are made to sit three to a desk with a writing surface of about 40 inches by 12 inches,. The textbook is 8.5 by 10.5 inches in size and, when open, two books take almost the entire surface of the desk. The class teacher has therefore opted for a 1:3 textbook pupil ratio. She expects the book to be centrally placed on the desk so as to ensure each student has access, but, 'fair use' rarely occurs on the tables.

The position of the book on the table and who gets to use it is largely determined not only by the political and social dynamics of the class but also on each desk (Bloome, Carter, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005; McCroskey & McVetta, 1978). If the 'power broker' on the desk sits in the middle, then the book is centrally placed for use by all the three students. But even when it is centrally placed, it is only the pupil seated in the middle who has full access to the book. The other two on each side have to bend over to view the opposite pages. Thus, a pupil seated to the left of the middle person would have to stretch to see the right hand page; likewise the pupil seated right stretches to read the left hand page. The book was, however, rarely placed in the middle of the desk, more often it was found in front of the pupil seated extreme right or the one seated extreme left. In such situations, only one pupil had access to the book; the other two could be observed sometimes dozing, chatting with friends and often showing no interest in the class activity.

Figure 1: The pupil at the extreme left shows no interest in the reading activity (second desk)

In most Ghanaian classrooms generally, it is customary for a pupil called upon to read to stand up and pick up the book. However, with only one book for three pupils to share, the others are denied access when this activity is in progress. In some cases the teacher may ask the pupil to remain seated while reading but even in such situations the reader positions the book directly in front of her, making access for the others difficult.

On a number of occasions during the fieldwork and in one particular class, a pupil seated close to the window and obviously the 'power broker', shuts the window because of the sun rays and then decides to place the book by the window and closer to him; his seat mate thus has to bend over and stretch out or strain to have access to the book. Indeed, it was evident from the classroom observation that the class size and the traditional seating arrangement impede pupils' access to the books and natural communication between pupils and between teacher and pupils in different parts of the classroom.

Figure 2: The book is positioned for the convenience of the pupil seated close to the window

Though the teachers showed concern about the class size none had considered the impact of the seating arrangements. However, for effective class interaction and to promote higher order cognitive goals, various writers have suggested other more effective arrangements such as the horseshoe (Moyles, 1992; Turnuklu & Galton, 2001; Weinstein & Mignano, 1993).

Concluding comments

Until recently the prevailing assumption was that books and other literacy-related resources supplied to schools were readily and equally accessible to all pupils for their use in school and even at home. Evidence from this case study, corroborated by evidence from other classroom observation studies in schools in developing countries tends to suggest that there is a wide difference between book availability, access and

use (Glewwe, Kremer, & Moulin, 1998; Haggarty & Pepin, 2002; Lubben & Campbell, 2003; Montagnes, 2001) and that availability does not necessarily result in use (Montagnes, 2001). The data shows that children's access to print resources for literacy development in the case study school faces many challenges, including large class sizes, the teachers' decisions about classroom organization and interpretation and/or misinterpretation of policy regarding book use on the part of teachers.

As Neuman and Celano (2001), rightly point out, the differences in access are likely to influence the degree of familiarity with book language and the benefits associated with reading. This, in part, helps to explain to a large extent the achievement gap between pupils from economically disadvantaged homes and those from middle income families. Further studies to explore how the teacher's mediatory role in learning and classroom talk about texts as well as the sociocultural background of learners and political contexts of the classroom further influence pupils' access to literacy would be beneficial to the book community.

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Addressing student readers and representation of gender - A comparative analysis of Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks in Arabic and Norwegian

Mu'men al-Badarin and Eva Maagerø

Introduction

This paper presents and discusses results from a comparative analysis of textbooks in the mother tongue subject (Arabic and Norwegian) in Palestine and Norway. The analysis will concentrate on two issues: the way student readers are addressed and on gender representation in the Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks. The analysis is part of a larger research project which involves the University of Bethlehem, Palestine, and Vestfold University College, Norway. Several textbooks have been analysed by pairs of researchers, one in Bethlehem and one in Vestfold. The research cooperation has gone on since November 2007 and will be concluded in June 2008.

The textbook situation in the two countries

Until recently, Palestinian schools have not had their own textbooks specially written for Palestinian students, and have traditionally used Jordanian textbooks. The collection of texts and examples has therefore been related to a Jordanian context. In 2006, Palestinian textbooks were published for the first time with texts specially related to the Palestinian people and culture. The new textbooks were initiated and published by the Ministry of Education, and the authors were also appointed by the ministry. The authors were organised in a National Syllabus Team for every subject. Each team was responsible for the textbooks for every grade in one subject, but the team was organised so that not all members wrote all books for the subject. The new textbooks are, together with the new National curriculum, an important tool for school development in Palestine and a symbol of independence for the Palestinian state. This also means that there is no choice of textbooks for schools and teachers in Palestine; there is only one existing textbook for every subject and grade. In addition, this means that the content of the textbook has been examined and approved by the government.

In Norway, however, the textbook situation is very different. As nearly every publishing house of a certain size produces textbooks, schools and teachers can choose between a number of textbooks in every subject. The publishers compete to "win" the textbook market. Until 2000 all textbooks had to be approved by a board appointed by the Norwegian government. Language and equality between boys and girls, and men and women, were important principles which had to be examined carefully before a book could be accepted. Today this governmental control has come to an end, and the publishers only have the National curriculum as a guideline for the production of textbooks. These differences in the textbook situation are important to bear in mind when reading this paper.

A brief presentation of the material

The analysis presented in this paper is based on textbooks for 5- and 8-grade; namely *Our beautiful language* for 5-grade and *Language's Science* and *Reading and Texts* for 8-grade (all from 2006) in Arabic, and *Zeppelin. Language book* and *Zeppelin. Reading book* for 5-grade and *From saga to cd A and B* for 8-grade (also from 2006) in Norwegian. The material therefore consists of seven recently published books, three Palestinian and four Norwegian ones, all produced in response to a new curriculum in both Palestine and Norway.

The Palestinian textbook for 5-grade is divided into two parts where each part consists of 13 lessons with five main topics: religion, nationality, social life, science and universal human themes. Every lesson has the same design: text, background, within linguistic benefits, syntax, spelling, composition and reading for enjoyment. In 8-grade the students have two textbooks, one with mainly fictional and non-fictional texts, and one with mainly linguistic topics. The first book has been analysed in detail while the second has served as a background reference. There are 42 lessons in the book *Reading and Texts*, designed in approximately the same way as the one for 5-grade: a fictional or non-fictional text followed by a discussion and an analysis of the content, drills, and linguistic benefits. The Norwegian *Zeppelin* for 5-grade consists of two books, one with topics mainly connected to language, text and genre (sending letters, learning to learn, from letters to words, spelling, non-fiction, oral presentations, nouns, verbs, writing a story, finding a story, the use of adjectives, punctuation, TV and films), and one with mainly fictional and non-fictional texts with instructions and exercises connected to the texts (in the library, a reading course, talking about books, humour and excitement, fairy tales, literature about nature, words become poetry, literature from the world). *From saga to cd* for 8-grade also consists of two books after the same principle as *Zeppelin.* In the A-book the chapters are about learning, conversation and oral presentations, cartoons, writing texts, and grammar, while the chapters in the B-book are about reading, language and literature in the time of the Vikings, urban legends, new Norwegian (one of the two official Norwegian written languages), newspapers and newspaper genres, and spelling.

A general result of the comparison of the textbooks is that the Palestinian and the Norwegian textbooks analysed here are quite different when it comes to design, illustrations and the use of colours. The design of the chapters seems to be more restrictive in the Palestinian than in the Norwegian books. Every chapter is organised in the same way, while the chapter design in the Norwegian books is varied. This can be explained by the teaching traditions in the two countries. In Palestine, every lesson in school has a clear aim which the chapter in the book follows closely. The chapter is organised as an outline for the lesson. The textbook is the most important resource for knowledge, and consequently there is a close relationship between the design of every chapter and the lesson in school. In Norway the textbook also plays an important role as a resource for teaching (Skjelbred et al 2004, Aamotsbakken et al 2004), but it is regarded as useful also to integrate other resources from the internet or other books. Some teachers even prefer to teach without a textbook. This might explain why the chapters in the Norwegian textbooks vary much more in structure and design than the Palestinian textbooks. The Norwegian books have more illustrations and photos and also more colours. One reason for this might be the above mentioned competition

between the publishing houses. They compete in making the books as attractive as possible in order to sell books to the schools.

Addressing student readers

Readers are a part of all texts (Bakhtin 1986, Eco 1979, Iser 1972), and all texts address the readers in one way or another. A declarative clause informs readers about something, for example: Jack met Jill at the gate. The reader is invited into this clause by accepting or not accepting the fact that Jack met Jill at the gate (Maagerø 2005, 139). Thus, the reader is addressed as in every declarative clause, but not in an explicit way. This implicit way of addressing readers is the case in most stories, novels, scientific articles, news articles etc. In other genres, however, like formal and informal letters, many kinds of instructions, e-mails, advertisements, notes etc, the reader is directly (or explicitly) addressed through the use of personal pronouns in second person singular or plural or the including *we,* first person plural (sometimes combined with corresponding possessive pronouns) or through the imperative mood of the clause (both in Arabic and in Norwegian). Questions (interrogatives) are also important when addressing readers. This can be made more or less explicitly, like "Can *you* tell us about the characters in the story" (through the use of a second person personal pronoun) or "How are the important characters in the story" (where the addressee is not explicitly mentioned) (al-Badarin 2008, Hamid 2000).

In the analysis of the Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks we found both similarities and differences in the way student readers were addressed. In stories and informative texts like articles, the readers are not addressed explicitly. They are invited into the texts as active participants, for example by filling gaps and concretizing the content of, for example, a story (Iser 1978), or accepting or not accepting the information in an article, but they are rarely addressed directly. In other genres like instructions and exercises, however, the books address the students explicitly through the use of personal pronouns, and here we find differences in the Palestinian and the Norwegian books. In the Palestinian textbook for 5-grade the student readers are addressed by the first person plural "we". In many cases the clauses open like this:

- we complete
- we go back
- we clarify
- we read
- we notice
- we conclude
- we train
- we write
- we insert
- we deduce, etc.

This is different in 8-grade. Here the author makes him- or herself more visible by using the first person singular: I go back to the verses, I determine the qualities of the beloved etc. There are also questions which are not addressed explicitly to the reader: "What did the poet wish Hind to do?" There is no explicit use of second person

pronouns at all in the Palestinian textbooks. That means that the text never speaks directly to the students without including the author's voice.

In the Norwegian textbook *Zeppelin* for 5-grade there is, however, a clear tendency to use exactly the second person singular *du* (you) in instructions and exercises, which means that the text speaks directly to the reader individually. This is the case both in the language book and in the reading book. Norwegian has different grammatical forms in singular (*du*) and the plural (*dere*) of the second person pronoun, and in most cases the singular form is used. We find an illustrating example in an instructive text about learning to write letters in the language book:

> Når du skal skrive brev, må du bestemme deg for
> - *hvem* du vil skrive til
> - *hva* du vil skrive om.
> På neste side kan du lese et brev som Than har skrevet til vennen sin.
> (*Zeppelin. Language book* 2006 5)
>
> (When you write a letter, you must decide whom you want to write to, what you want to write about. On the next page you can read a letter which Than wrote to his friend.)

In the reading book we find the same phenomenon also in more informative chapters, for example in a chapter which introduces the students to non-fiction writing. Here it says: "Du skal kunne stole på at faglitteraturen gir deg riktige opplysninger" (You should trust non-fiction literature to give you correct information) (*Zeppelin. Reading book* 2006, 12). The chapter continues with the use of *du* (you), second person singular, which also is the case every time an informative text occurs between the literary texts. In the exercises in the two books for 5-grade symbols are used to indicate if an exercise is meant to be done individually or as group work. Illustrations of one, two or three heads above the exercises tell the students how they are expected to work. Also when the exercises are marked with two or three heads the use of the second person personal pronoun singular is often used (*du* – you), especially in the reading book. In other words, the individual student is addressed even when there is talk about group work. In one of the first exercises marked with three heads we find the following questions (the numbers refer to the number of questions in the chapter):

> 14. Hvordan kan du se at disse tekstene er faglitteratur?
> 15. Hvilke opplysninger får du i teksten om godteri?
> 16. Hvilke opplysninger får du om vannkalven?
>
> (14. How can you see that these texts are non-fictional literature?
> 15. What kind of information do you get in the text about sweets?
> 16. What kind of information do you get about the water beetle?)

It is also typical for both *Zeppelin* books that imperatives are used to a large extent in the exercises. The students are asked to write, read, discuss, draw, paint, etc through the use of the imperative mood. As we have seen above this was not the case in the Palestinian textbooks. In the two Norwegian textbooks for 8-grade, *From saga to cd A and B,* we find exactly the same way of addressing the student readers even though the books are written by different authors. As mentioned above, the A-book contains

primarily chapters about language, texts and genres, while we find most of the fictional and non-fictional texts in the B-book. Both books contain a large amount of instructions and exercises. The second person singular *du* (you) is used in most cases in both kind of texts, and again the texts address the individual student. The following is an example from an instructive text in the A-book:

> Når du har lest en fortelling, en novelle eller en roman, kan det være nyttig å lage et kart som viser rekkefølgen av de viktigste hendelsene eller *sekvensene*. Det kan du gjøre med ord eller bilder eller begge deler. Noen ganger kan det også være nyttig å notere eller tegne hendelsene i bokser (*From saga to cd. A-book.* 2006:21).

> (When you have read a story, a short story or a novel, it can be useful to make a map which shows the order of the most important events or the *sequences*. You can do this by using words or illustrations or both. Sometimes it can also be useful to make notes or draw the events in boxes.)

The exercises in the two books for 8-grade are not marked with symbols that indicate whether the exercise is meant to be done individually, in pairs or in larger groups. In both books the student readers are also in these texts addressed individually by the use of the second personal singular pronoun *du* (you). Examples from the B-book are: "Hvilke bilder synes du er spesielt gode? Gi en begrunnelse for hvorfor du har valgt ut nettopp disse bildene" (*From saga to cd. B-book.* 2006, 195). (Which pictures did you find especially good? Give a reason for the choice of exactly these pictures.) When an exercise is meant for group work, the student reader is still often addressed individually by the use of the possessive pronoun in the second person singular *dine* (your): "Sammenlikn ordene dine med ordene til en annen elev" (B-book. 2006, 216). (Compare your words with the words of another student.) As was the case in the *Zeppelin* books, the imperative is also used extensively in the exercises, telling the student reader to read, make a title, give examples, compare, find out, etc. In exercises with questions to both literary texts and articles the students are often not addressed explicitly as the case was in the Palestinian books.

The analysis presented above builds only on a small number of books, and it is impossible to claim that we can find the same tendencies of addressing students in all Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks, not even in all textbooks in Arabic and Norwegian. Still we think that we have found some interesting differences in the way Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks address students. We have seen that the first person plural is extensively used when addressing the young students in the Palestinian books. It seems that the authors of the textbook are keen on making the student feel that authors and students are a team together. They are going to work together in the lessons, learn together, study together and develop knowledge together. The student is not alone in the study process. The authors will guide him or her, and through cooperation they will overcome difficulties. This might give the students self-confidence. Even if the students do the exercises alone in real life, they feel that they are part of a team, where the authors of the book and the student have a shared aim. In the Norwegian textbooks, however, we have seen that the student readers are most often addressed individually. The individual student is guided through the different topics and exercises to the texts. The idea seems to be that the student reader has to be able to manage this alone. The many group exercises tell the students that many tasks have to be done in groups, and that you cannot manage on your own in all learning

processes. Still we find that even in many exercises meant for groups the student is addressed individually by the use of the second person singular personal pronoun in second. From previous research we know that Norwegian students often read the textbooks alone, and the way of addressing them may also be a result of this practice (Skjelbred et al 2004, Aamotsbakken et al 2004).

These results might lead us to ask if Palestinian textbooks build up a collective shared society more than Norwegian textbooks do. If students and authors cooperate, a common knowledge will be built up which can serve as a basis for the common knowledge in society. Palestine is a young state with old traditions. The new Palestinian textbooks play an important role in the building of the nation. The selection of texts in a subject like the mother tongue Arabic is of course important for this project, and the title of the 5-grade book is of course also significant: *Our beautiful language.* However, the way of addressing students may also support this aim. Norway is also a young nation with old traditions, and the building of the nation was important during most of the last century. In this nation building project the textbooks played an important role, not least the mother tongue textbooks. Also today national values are of course important in Norway, but the situation is still different from that of Palestine. The need to emphasise Norwegian national values seems less important than it was a hundred years ago. This can be seen for example if we study the latest national curriculum from 2006, where multicultural and global values are emphasised at the expense of national values.

It is also interesting to speculate if the results presented above tell us something about values in Arabic and western European culture. It is sometimes claimed that the Arabic society represents a so-called we-culture. This means that family and relatives are more important than the individual. The social networks are dense and family and relatives often live close to each other and interact both in social matters and work (Milroy & Milroy 1997). The individual is strongly bound to the family, relatives and other groups. In this perspective the use of the including 'we' in the textbooks might be interpreted as a realisation of this culture. In the western European world, however, individuality is strong. The bond to the family and relatives is often weak, and the relation to friends and colleagues may often be stronger. In this case we can talk about open networks (Milroy & Milroy 1997). The individual has to make his or her own decisions, and cannot automatically rely on support from family and relatives. According to the German philosopher Thomas Ziehe, people in modern western European society are free to find their individual way through life, but they are also lonely in their choices and have to rely on themselves (Ziehe & Stubenrauch 1983). We could interpret the way of addressing the students in the Norwegian textbooks as a realisation of this individuality.

We have seen that the way of addressing students in the Palestinian textbooks changed from 5-grade to 8-grade. In 8-grade the first person singular, 'I', was used in many cases. This can be interpreted either as the author showing what to do to the students (I go back to...., I determine....). The author might be seen as one who knows, a leading person, and the student is an apprentice who is going to develop the same knowledge by doing the same thing as the author does. Another interpretation of the use of the first person singular is that 'I' represents the student, and the student is explicitly led to do certain actions like go back to, determine etc by identifying him- or herself with the 'I' in the text. In both interpretations this way of addressing student

readers is related to the author as the one who knows. This means that an asymmetric relationship between the author and the student is established, in the first interpretation by the author acting explicitly as a model, and in the second interpretation implicitly by letting the student into the text by telling him or her what to do. There will, of course, always be an asymmetric relationship between the author and the student, but the all-knowing author can be more or less visible. In the Palestinian classroom both the textbook and the teacher have a more dominant role and a clearer authority than the case is in Norway. Every lesson in school is, as mentioned above, built on defined steps in a lesson in the textbook. There are, therefore, certain activities that the student has to do in every lesson. This may be a reason for the use of 'I' in the texts for 8-grade. This way of addressing the students does not occur in the Norwegian textbooks at all.

The use of imperative is another interesting difference between the Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks. While the Norwegian textbooks frequently use the imperative in exercises, the imperative is clearly avoided in the Palestinian textbooks. This fact has to do with general conventions connected to the use of the imperative in the two languages. In both languages the imperative is the mood for commands, but is, however, in many situations regarded as being too direct und perhaps even impolite and rude. It is frequently used inside the family from parent to child, from husband to wife etc, and among good friends. Outside the family, the imperative has a more restricted use. Still, in Norwegian the author of the textbook can use the imperative when he or she is communicating with student readers in exercises. This is not possible in Arabic where imperatives might have an unfavourable influence on the readers.

Representation of gender

Arabic is a highly inflectional language, where nouns, pronouns and adjectives are inflected for number, gender and case (Khalil 1999, 36). Norwegian realises also gender and number differences in nouns, pronouns and adjectives, but only personal pronouns realise reminiscences of case. In Arabic there are gender differences in all persons and numbers of personal pronouns and also in other pronouns like demonstrative and possessive pronouns (Rajab 1998, Khalil 1999, 135), while in Norwegian there are only gender differences in the third person singular of the personal pronoun (*han, hun, det, den* corresponding to *he, she, it* in English, where *den* points back to an inanimate masculine or feminine noun while *det* points back to a neuter inanimate noun) (Moen & Pedersen 2003). There is therefore much richer gender morphology in Arabic than in Norwegian. Nouns like *girl, boy, mother, father, sister, brother, aunt, uncle* etc represent, however, males and females in both languages. In addition, names of persons, boys and girls, and men and women, as photos and illustrations may visually represent males and females in textbooks.

The representation of the masculine gender is predominant in the Palestinian textbooks. In the sections of the book for 5-grade especially analysed here, about two thirds of the pronouns which realise gender are masculine. In addition, 19 different animate adjectives are masculine and only three feminine. One of the feminine forms of the adjective is, however, used five times in the text, and gives a certain female representation. All names of persons are masculine. The sections also include two

main pictures and 14 small symbolic pictures. There are no representations of females on the pictures, only males. Together, this realises a massive dominance of masculine representation. This impression is strengthened by the fact that there are only three texts written by female authors in the collection of texts selected for this book. These texts are written by the Egyptian poet Sharifa Fathi and the Palestinian writer Samara Azzam. In addition, one text is related to a mother's love and could therefore be said to describe the world of females. The representation of gender in the textbook for 8-grade shows the same. In the analysed sections there is a majority of masculine representation both in pronouns, animate adjectives, nouns and names. In one of the units analysed there is a complete lack of female representation. This text is called "Our world before the challenges of the twenty first century", and it presents a number of scientists who have been important for the development in different fields of society. No reference to a female scientist is made, and no quote from an important female researcher is included. Pictures are nonexistent in this section, as is the case for all sections in the book for 8-grade. The main impression of the first section of the textbook 8-grade is that the female role has been overlooked both as a part of the content and in the choice of authors. Three exceptions can be found in the first part of the book. The readers meet a female person in two texts which can be classified as love poetry, and in one text there is a description of a small girl, the daughter of the poet. In addition, there are two texts written by Palestinian female writers; one is a narrative article and one is a poem. The representation of females is increased in the second part of the book. Five out of 22 texts are written by Arab female writers, and in three lessons females are important in the content of the texts.

The Norwegian textbooks differ from the Palestinian ones in gender representation. The analysis shows that all four books have a rather balanced representation of gender both grammatically and by the use of nouns and names for males and females and pictures. The same result is found in the selection of texts where both male and female authors are well represented. In the books which are published according to the new curriculum from 2006 we also see the textbook s authors' strong motivation to include girls and boys from minority groups in the content of the texts as well as through the use of names and pictures. An example from *Zeppelin* (2006) is that the students learn to write a good letter through the story of Than, a boy with Vietnamese parents, who writes to his relatives in Vietnam. This is a much more prominent feature in the new textbooks compared to the ones which were written according to the previous curriculum from 1997. Even if the overall impression of the Norwegian textbooks is that the gender representation is balanced, there is also here a slight balance towards males represented in the stories and other texts in the reading book for 5-grade. This is also the case for the choice of authors in the same reading book where as many as 34 male and only 18 female writers are represented. Another interesting observation can be made in the many stories about animals for 5-grade. Here, the author has the choice of letting an animal be male or female. It is interesting to observe that nearly all animals are made to be males through the use of the masculine personal pronoun in the 3rd person singular *han* (he). The same results are found in *From saga to cd* (2006). Again, the representation of gender is rather balanced with a slight balance towards male representations through pronouns, nouns, names, photos and other illustrations. Both genders are represented among the authors but, as the case was with *Zeppelin,* more male writers are found in both the A-book and the B-book (respectively nine male and six female authors in A, 27 male and 14 female authors in B).

Both in Palestine and in Norway all children are, of course, important in the education system, and the curriculum in both countries is directed towards both boys and girls. In Norway there has been a focus on gender equality in school for many years. In Palestine, many girls chose to study after compulsory school and female students are in majority for example at Bethlehem University. Many teachers both in Palestine and Norway are females. Still, we see that there are gender differences in the books which have been examined here, and that males are more strongly represented than females especially in the Palestinian books. In both countries textbooks have a high status. For different reasons, many young people do not read many other books than the textbooks that they have in school. It is therefore important that the texts in the textbooks not only in Arabic and Norwegian but in all subjects give the students possibilities for identification. Both girls and boys need to meet other girls and boys in the texts, and also see that both males and females are important and valuable contributors in society. The most important thing here is, of course, not only the *amount* of pronouns which realise the masculine and the feminine, male and female nouns and names which represent males and females It is also important to show that both genders have many possibilities in society through the activities that are described. One reason for the strong representation of males and the generally low representation of females on all levels in the Palestinian textbooks might be that few female authors were part of the National Syllabus Team (see above). In Norway, one reason for emphasising boys in mother tongue textbooks may be the fact that boys in the last few years have tended to pay less attention to reading and school work than girls do. Girls' results in school are better than those of the boys, and girls also read much better than boys do. In the mother tongue subject many boys seem to not feel at home. Therefore it might be important to make sure that males are well represented in the textbooks, and that boys can recognise a boys' world and not only the world of females in the texts. On the other hand, girls also need to be supported also through the texts they meet. Therefore, gender representation is a textbook feature which it is always interesting to discuss.

Summing up

In this paper we have presented results from an ongoing study of Palestinian and Norwegian textbooks in Arabic and Norwegian, which means the mother tongue subject in the two countries. In the presentation we have focused on the ways students are addressed and how gender is represented in three Palestinian textbooks (one for 5-grade and two for 8-grade) and four corresponding Norwegian textbooks (two for 5-grade and two for 8-grade). We have seen that there are similarities but also differences between the books. The differences might be due to general traditions in the two societies, but also to different textbook conventions. From visiting schools both in Palestine and Norway we also get the impression that the teaching style, the relationship between teacher and student and the role of the textbook in the lessons are important factors. While textbooks have a high status as prominent texts in both societies, it is, the way we see it, important how each book "speaks" to the student reader, and to which degree the student reader can identify with the content of the texts and thus feel included in the world of the book. It is our belief that text analysis with a *comparative* perspective is a good method for an increased consciousness about texts; in this case about textbooks. Through comparison, a convention might be lifted up and looked at in a new way, which can be powerful in order to understand

more of the 'text world' we live in. As we see it, this has been the case for us in our analysis, especially in relation to the issue addressing student readers. The way this is done is embedded in the textbook culture, and rarely reflected upon. The gender differences are more visible on the surface of the textbooks, as they can be seen by studying pictures, names, nouns, main characters and contents of both stories and non-fictional texts. Still, a grammatical analysis of, for example, personal pronouns is of importance because the picture of gender representation might then be drawn more clearly.

The results presented in this paper build on quite a large number of texts, but a limited number of textbooks. Only textbooks for 5- and 8-grade were part of the analysis. We would like to expand our text analysis to other grammatical features of the texts, and perhaps also to multimodality, and we would also like to increase the research material and include textbooks in Arabic and Norwegian for more grades. The results presented in this paper must therefore be seen as preliminary.

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Textbook-based activities in the classroom

Zuzana Sikorova

Introduction

The article reports on the analysis of written records of 276 lessons observed in primary, lower secondary and higher secondary schools in the Ostrava region in the Czech Republic. The records were made from 2001 to 2006 in seven different schools with more than 80 teachers teaching various subjects. Primarily, these recordings were meant to serve for teaching and learning purposes in teachers training but it was assigned beforehand to write down text-based activities including time data. Therefore, the sample of lessons was obtained on the basis of convenient sample and it is not representative. In spite of that, we believe the material is quite valuable owing to the relatively high number of observed lessons. The analysis focused on the frequency and the length of using the textbooks and other text materials in the classrooms and on the students' and teachers' text-based activities. The investigation serves as a pilot study to the projected large scale research on text-based activities in the Czech Republic.

Background

The majority of textbook studies have been focused on the textbook as a product and its content analyses. There is not much known about the way the teachers and students use textbooks in the classrooms. How do textbooks really work? If we do not know for what activities and purposes teachers and especially students use textbooks, it is impossible to determine practical demands and evaluative criteria for good textbooks.

Nevertheless, there are a few studies exploring the role of textbooks in teaching and learning. A considerable amount of them was based on questionnaires (Prucha 1998, Sikorova 2004, Svingby 1990 and Lorentzen 1984 in Johnsen 1993); teachers' diaries were used as well (Freeman & Porter 1988, Lindstone 1990). However, some investigations applied observation – direct or video-based – or a combination of observation and interviews and questionnaires (Sigurgeirsson 1992, Kon 1995, Horsley, Walker 2003, 2006). M. Horsley, K. Laws and R. Walker (Horsley & Laws 1992, Horsley & Walker 2003, 2006) suggested and verified the sophisticated methodology and developed an observational instrument TEXTOR to examine textbook use in teaching and learning in secondary schools. Conclusions drawn from investigations are sometimes ambiguous:

- Most of them confirm vast textbook usage, especially in planning the lessons but also in the classrooms.
- Some experts found that textbooks control significantly only the content, particularly the selection and sequencing of topics (Gustafsson in Johnsen 1993), others affirm that they control also the methodology of lessons (Sigurgeirsson 1992).

- Basic styles (models, ways) of textbook use by teachers were identified (Hinchman 1987, Freeman & Porter 1988, Lambert 1999) but various researchers suggested rather different taxonomies.
- Some studies tried to identify factors which affect style of textbook use: teacher's education (Ball & Feinman-Nemser 1988), school level, the length of teacher's work experience (Horsley & Walker 2006), teacher's educational philosophy (Horsley & Walker 2006).
- Studies focused on measuring the time of textbook use predominate; more complex studies are not frequent (with the exception of Sigurgeirsson 1992 or Horsley & Walker 2006).

Research questions and aims

Research questions were identified as follows:

1. How often and for how long are textbooks and other text materials used in the classrooms?
2. What specific text-based activities do the teachers and students carry out in the classrooms?
3. What cognitive operations do the students apply while using the textbooks?
4. Do the text-based activities differ according to the school grade and subject?

Therefore, the research aims were to identify the role of textbooks and other text materials in teaching and learning in the classrooms from the viewpoint of time factors and to specify the teachers' and students' activities with textbooks and other text materials.

Research sample and method

The non-participant observation technique was applied. Two experienced observers filled the prepared forms taking down the data of text-based activities: frequency, length, kind of interaction between teacher and student/students, lesson phase and structural elements of text materials that were used. Text-based activities of students and teachers were coded in prior, based on the joint observations of several pilot lessons. In the course of the records analysis the codes of some activities were added. At the same time the categories of structural elements and kinds of other text materials were specified.

The observations were carried out in four primary and lower secondary schools and three higher secondary schools in Ostrava. The investigation included 83 teachers and was carried out from 2001 to 2006[1]. The observers took part in 276 lessons of 18 different subjects. The subjects were then grouped into six groups according to related disciplines (Foreign Languages, Czech, Art and Music, Mathematics, Sciences and Social Sciences). The number of lessons taught by one teacher varied from 1 to 37 lessons.

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[1] The investigation was not considered as longitudinal, the time period was regarded as one unit.

Research results

Text materials were used in 75 percent of lessons observed. The students spent 25 percent of total time with text-based activities. The traditional textbook still seems to play the main role: textbooks were used in 54 percent of lessons (see Fig. 1). The average lengths of textbook-based activities did not differ in relation to three school grades – primary, lower secondary and higher secondary. Likewise, the frequencies of lessons in which textbooks were used in the three grades were very similar.

At the same time it is obvious that teachers definitely needed some other text materials. They used them almost in 40 percent of lessons. The kinds of other text materials varied depending on the school grade. In primary lessons workbooks and readers prevailed, in lower secondary lessons atlases and sets of exercises were predominant and in higher secondary lessons non-fiction, esp. encyclopedias, and photocopied materials were the most frequent. The primary students worked with more varied set of the texts.

Fig. 1 Percentage of lessons in which textbooks and other text materials were used
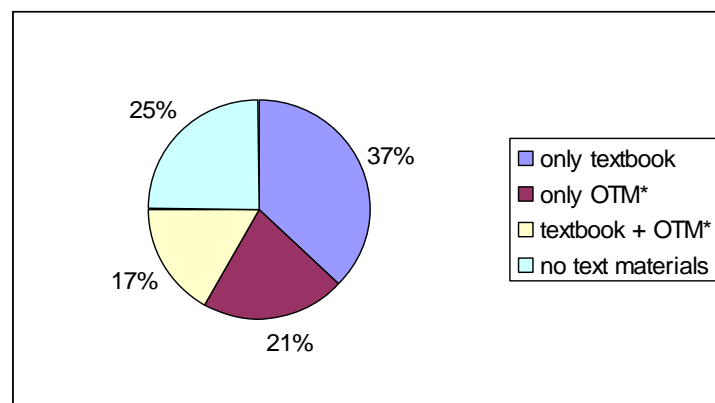
*OTM = other text materials

The textbooks were used mostly for two purposes. Firstly the teachers used them as a source of learning tasks for students working frontally or individually, especially for revising and consolidating the curricular material (45 percent of time). Secondly they served as a source of explanatory texts covering information for students (43 percent of time with textbooks). The textbooks were used rarely for student motivation and evaluation.

The textbooks were supposed to be used mostly in individual student activities. This assumption has not been proven: Seventy-two percent of textbook-based work occurred frontally as whole-class work; students worked individually only in 24 percent of time. The textbooks played almost no role in small group activities or pair work.

Text-based activities

All students' and teachers' activities with textbooks and other text materials were coded; as a result 20 activities were identified. Both in case of all text materials and textbooks four activities noticeably prevailed:

- No 17 (in 34 percent of lessons): the students carried out the tasks, made exercises, they answered questions as a whole class with the teacher; the teacher guided, asked supplementary questions, led the dialogue;

- No 19 (in 27 percent of lessons): the students carried out the tasks, made exercises, answered questions individually; the teacher watched them, walked around, possibly helped the individuals;

- No 1 (in 18 percent of lessons): the students looked up the data, information, examples in the text - individually or together - guided by the teacher;

- No 5 (in 16 percent of lessons): the students read the expository, explanatory or supplementary text aloud one after another; the teacher called up.

No significant differences were proven in the length and frequency of use in relation to three school grades (primary, lower secondary, higher secondary). The sequence correlation of 20 identified activities reached high values. To the contrary, the differences between most of the subject groups were apparent: there were text-based activities preferred in some subjects and different activities typical for the others. The exceptions represent Foreign Languages, Czech and Mathematics, in which the use length and frequency of activities were very similar.

An important question that had been posed previously was: what types of textbook-based activities were carried out from the point of view of cognitive operations needed for completing the activity. It was assumed that students in higher grades would do the activities based on more difficult operations. It was also probable that cognitive operations would relate to the school subject. Four basic types of activities were identified from this viewpoint:

- Knowledge: activities based on perception and memorizing the text or image, cognitive activity is receptive. The category included six activities, e.g.:
  - the students read the expository or supplementary text aloud one after another; the teacher called them up;
  - the students read the expository or supplementary text silently by themselves, the teacher was engaged with another activity or waited until they were finished;
  - the students looked over the pictures, watched photographs, schemes, tables, the teacher commented on them;

- Orientation: activities based on looking up in the text or image, cognitive activity is mostly reproducing. The category included five activities, e.g.:
  - the students looked up the data, information, examples in the text individually or together guided by the teacher;
  - the students made excerpts from the text individually;
  - the students looked up in a map, possibly made notes from a map.

- Comprehension: activities based on text or image processing which require comprehension. Cognitive operations represented interpretation, explanation, analysis, transformation, extraction etc. The category included five activities, e.g.:
  - the students made an outline of the text;
  - the students transformed the text (dramatized the text, changed the poem into prose, reproduced the text with their own words);
  - the students described a picture, scheme, photo; the teacher asked questions, the students deduced pieces of knowledge.

It is supposed that the complexity of cognitive operations increases gradually from the first to the third type of activities described above. The fourth type could be rather controversial – we regarded the activities included in it as less demanding than those in the third group.

- Application: activities based on knowledge application (performing the tasks, doing exercises etc.) requiring either solving the model algorithmic situation or problem-solving. Assessing and classification of these types of activities represented the biggest problem. It was not possible for observers to record and classify all learning tasks. Nevertheless, the task sample analysis showed that solving of model assignments prevailed. The most frequent cognitive operations were easy comparison, classification, categorization, generalization, specification etc. The category included four activities, e.g.:
  - the students did the exercises, carried out the tasks, answered the questions together in co-operation with the teacher who guided them, asked supplementary questions, led a heuristic dialogue;
  - one student carried out the task on the blackboard with the teacher's assistance and control, the others carried out the task by themselves in the exercise books.

Activities classified as "application" were the most frequent and the students spent with them much more time than with the others (see Fig. 2). We believe that more detailed analysis is needed in order to draw the conclusions about this category (see Discussion). On the other hand the findings regarding the other three types of activities seem to be very interesting and alarming. The work with texts and pictorial materials focused mainly on knowledge transition – in more than 40 percent of lessons using texts, some looking up was required, too (in 25 percent of lessons) but the comprehension was demanded only in 16 percent of lessons.

Fig. 2 Percentage of the types of text-based activities according to the length of use
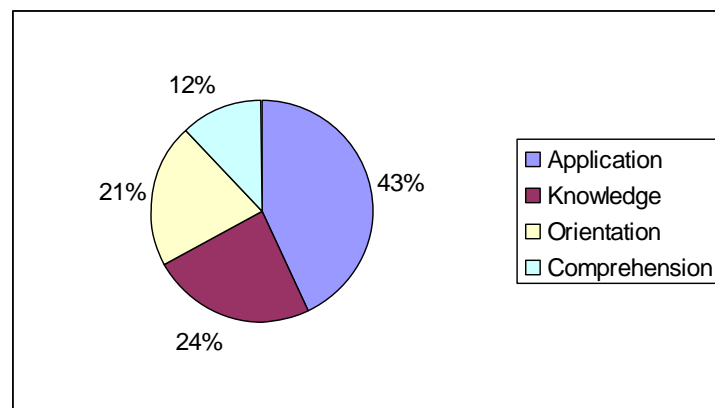
In contradiction to our assumption it was not proven that cognitive complexity of text-based activities increased depending on the school grade. This finding is rather surprising and manifests the unflagging interest in memorizing in Czech secondary schooling. On the contrary, the frequency and length of the defined types of activities varied significantly according to the school subject. The differences were apparent first of all between Mathematics lessons and Science and Social Science lessons: students in Science and Social Science lessons were engaged much more with receptive activities than in Maths while application was more typical for Maths than for Science and Social Science.

Discussion

The pilot study pointed to the strengths and weaknesses of the applied method. We tried to persuade the teachers to have the lessons videotaped but we failed. Direct observation in lessons was more acceptable for them. The analysis of data showed clearly that observational method was very contributing but not sufficient. It was not possible to recognize all activities based on texts because sometimes the teachers assigned the tasks or explained the subject matter according to the textbook without looking at it at the same time. Furthermore, if trying to identify cognitive operations underlying students' activities the observation may not be enough, either. Therefore it seems necessary to apply also dialogues with teachers and students and to analyze texts the students work with.

The results of the investigation indicate that students were still too often passive recipients of information provided in textbooks and other text materials, at least in some subjects, especially in Science and Social Science lessons. In Mathematics, Czech and Foreign Language the texts seemed to be mainly the source of tasks, exercises and questions. More thorough analysis is needed to evaluate the role of texts in application of knowledge.

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The Use of Textbooks and Educational Media: The Malagasy Experience

Micheline Ravelonanahary

Introduction

Textbooks and educational media have become increasingly popular in the field of teaching in EFL contexts in many countries such as Asia and Africa, and children are learning English at younger ages nowadays. There has been an explosion in the last few years of technologically advanced resources such as CD-ROM, DVDs and web-based educational aids.

Recent research (Doyle, 1983) as cited in Deforges (1985) has shown and professional observations (see HIM reports on primary schools) confirm that a large amount of school work is structured around textbooks and printed materials. Much of a teacher's demonstration and explanation consists of presenting materials contained in textbooks.

With all the efforts to promote the English language, I think the challenge is to make sure that the instruction the children receive is pedagogically appropriate as well as culturally responsive. In many developing countries including Madagascar, the use of published textbooks presents teachers with different challenges. Teachers are working in contexts in which they have no access to technology or even to published materials. Where textbooks are available, they do not conform to the curriculum and the needs of the learners. For example the *Go For English* series were originally designed for western African learners. *The New Cambridge English Course* series was designed for western learners, so the Malagasy learners feel frustrated using the materials presented.

The overall aim of the present study is to investigate the relation between textbooks and the potential readers and especially to see how teachers and students use textbooks in Madagascar. Textbooks and educational media are meant to facilitate learning. They aim to develop language competence skills in the learners. Textbooks are usually attractively designed and the writers think they have put in the best aspects of their product so as to better serve the readers. However the content and design do not always produce the expected outcomes because the readers come from different backgrounds, with different reading abilities and different purposes.

We understand that no textbook can possibly satisfy all learning situations. However I think that significant factors need to be considered so as to bring improvement if learning is to take place effectively.

Textbooks and reading

Roles of reading in the learning and use of language
Reading plays an important role in the learning of language and the reading roles depend on your previous language experiences. With the structural view of language, teachers are more concerned with the learners' abilities to master the structures. Methods and techniques for teaching reading still are never fully developed. The reading is often followed by a discussion of some of the features of the text: grammatical constructions, new vocabulary, simple questions that only require short answers retrieved from the text. These tasks encourage passive reading behaviour. Davies (1995) as cited in Correia (2006).

Reading is seen as a difficult skill for EFL learners. The students do not have the reading skills needed to do effective work in their class. Research has discovered that one of the most difficult tasks of a language instructor is to foster a positive attitude toward reading. Unfortunately due to time limits and other constraints such as lack of books and difficult texts, teachers are often unable to actively encourage students or learners to seek entertainment and information in reading materials. Lack of practice in reading and poor teaching create a negative attitude in students, therefore they find it difficult to interact with texts. This problem is more crucial in areas where students have limited access to print materials and the teachers are not experienced enough to appropriately exploit or use the materials if available, let alone adapt them to suit the particular conditions and the needs of the learners. Despite a wide variety of teaching methods and techniques for students learning to read, teachers still find it difficult to choose which one is more valid to improve their reading lessons. In addition, teachers find the texts difficult for themselves and the students.

According to de Debat (2006), an overview of instructional materials for ESL/EFL reveals that textbooks published before the 1970s do not include pre-reading activities. These are very important to prepare the readers for what the text is all about, then to reflect on it accordingly.

The nature of reading comprehension has been researched by cognitive and behavioural scientists for many decades. Two main approaches explain the nature of learning to read:

1. the bottom-up processing requires the learners to match sounds with the letters. Reading is a linear process by which readers decode a text word by word, linking the words into phrases and then sentences. In Kucer (1987) as cited in de Debat (2006).
2. the top-down processing focuses on the background knowledge a reader uses to comprehend a written text. Students develop cognitive reading skills through the application of bottom-up, top-down and interactive processing strategies such as using vocabulary and inferring meaning from context.

In the 1960s and 1970s there was an explosion of teaching methods and activities that strongly considered the experience and knowledge of the learner. Educators believed meaningful learning occurs when new information is presented in a relevant context and is related to what the learner already knows, thereby being "easily integrated into one's existing cognitive structure" (Omaggio, 1993, 58) in de Debat (2006).

Reflection on materials after the 1970s found that textbooks gradually began to include exercises to help students in developing academic reading skills in which the pre-reading activities are prevalent. Pre-reading exercises help students heighten the recognition of what are common themes, even across cultures.

Teachers and learners attitude towards textbooks

Teachers and students regard textbooks as motivating and appealing tools to learning. However their use presents teachers with several challenges. One such challenge is the development of effective skills required to manage the vast amount of information in the textbook. An additional challenge is the selection of materials most appropriate to the objectives of the syllabus. The third challenge is the use of materials that often require adaptation to relate to the traditional classroom setting. English as a foreign language is often taught under unfavourable conditions and as a result, school students are not always competent users of English. Teachers are not equipped with proper training to deliver appropriate information. Consequently weak EFL students have problems understanding texts and performing text-based tasks. This is mainly due to a lack of confidence resulting from poorly developed skills. This is the case for the Malagasy learning situation where the students and teachers find it difficult to use textbooks.

Textbooks are perceived by students and teachers as being unconnected with their real course. They are not user-friendly, they are difficult and confusing. The range of topics they offer tends to be highly limited and often irrelevant to the lives of the learners. The range of activity types they display is similarly restricted. Consequently the materials do not encourage language development.

Research has discovered that "dull and unvaried readings and exercises work against learning" (Langan and Jenkins, 1989). If teachers have to use commercial materials as an important source of tasks, they must be able to identify the confusing and redundant aspects of those materials and try to find some alternatives. Analysis of these commercial materials shows that they are unwittingly complex and confusing (Anderson, Armbruster and Kantor, 1980 in Desforge, 1985).

Readers' interaction with the text

Current research generally views reading as an interactive, socio-cognitive process (Bernardt 1991), involving a text, a reader, and a social context within which the activity of reading takes place. In recent times, the focus in the ELT classroom has moved more and more towards autonomy. The teacher is no longer the owner of all knowledge but has become a facilitator. The shift from rote learning to meaningful learning is meant to change the attitudes of the learners. The activity types in textbooks have changed accordingly. Since students have to respond to the text in the textbooks by doing the exercises, the introduction of the active reading tasks helps them to take part in the process of communicating through language. These enable students to interact with the text and each other. By means of interactive approaches and materials, the teacher can help students have their perception of themselves and

their surroundings. It has become more important to put reading comprehension on the agenda and start asking inference and half-open questions at an early age as much as possible. Inference questions are necessary if the teachers want learners to get a deeper understanding of the text. . This is still difficult for most Malagasy classrooms because the teacher has not the reading strategies to help the students develop their reading abilities. According to Varaprasad (1997) as cited in Latha (2005), reading should be treated as a creative and challenging activity where students' questioning and interpretative abilities are triggered. While educators agree that these reading abilities are important for students to learn, they are rarely taught. Less proficient teachers have problems using the materials though the students feel they need some help from the teachers to read the texts or to answer the questions. However it can be accomplished with appropriate training and good practice.

Recommendations to improve the reading competence of the learners

Textbooks can facilitate learning if appropriately used. That is, when choosing a task to do it is necessary to examine what you really want to do with the textbook.

Here are a few example questions to ask:

(1) How do you develop a suitable activity for your class? (from the materials presented)
(2) How does the textbook activity fit into the lesson?
(3) Will your students learn the content of the lesson better if you use the suggested activities or do you need to adapt them?

There should be a pedagogical rationale for using the textbook.

Teachers often tend to neglect that learners can make important links to the materials. For example, the use of stories and contexts the learners have experience with in their L1 would help them (especially young learners) learn better because they have limited knowledge and experience of the world.

Tomlinson (2003) has suggested ways in which teachers can help learners improve their ability to communicate in the target language. It is important to expose learners to language in use by creating a school library where students can read freely (what and when to read). Teachers can also get together to create stories and share the work of transcribing them. In this sense the school can quickly build up a library of engaging locally relevant reading books. Arnold and Tomlinson (2003) assert that setting achievable challenges helps motivate learners to make use of language in order to achieve something worthwhile and provide learning opportunities.

When developing a unit of materials for a particular target group, the following criteria are recommended to select a text from your library of potentially engaging text:
(a) Does the text still engage you cognitively or affectively?
(b) Is the text likely to engage most of the target learners cognitively or affectively?
(c) Are the target learners likely to be able to connect the text to their lives?

Experts also agree, it is important to encourage the students to read on their own in addition to the reading activities scheduled for the whole class, and to use print materials as the basis for realistic, purposeful tasks, rather than falling into the time worn procedure of simply quizzing your students with comprehension questions. Reading tasks connected to everyday purposes will be motivating to students at any level of the language curriculum. Finally, students should be given opportunities to read more extended texts, such as short stories, journal articles, textbooks; learners should be taught the language and the skills needed to give them access to texts.

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) proposes, for example, short narratives or academic essays in which a reading lesson is divided into pre-reading activities, the reading of the text itself and the post-reading activities. The LEA to reading is a very effective way to teach reading to students with limited language proficiency, according to Dixon and Nessel (1983) as cited in Peace Corps (1989).

The Malagasy experience

My personal experience of foreign language teaching and teacher training has been with secondary teachers and secondary school learners. The textbooks of instruction used in secondary schools are: *Go for English* for lower secondary schools and *The New Cambridge English Course* for high schools. As a Teachers Resource Centre manager in the regional office of the capital city of Antananarivo, I have had regular contact with teachers from different schools. From general observation for many years, the attitudes of our EFL teachers concerning the use of textbooks in class were varied. Some were happy to use the books available and made the most of them while others were not convinced of their benefits. They found them difficult to use and they preferred to work with their old notes from students and colleagues.

To find out more about this, I prepared two questionnaires for teachers and students. They were administered to 65 public school teachers and some students from eight school districts of my work area. To have a more reliable result I supplemented my survey with class observations, interviews and some focused conversations.

The questionnaire for teachers included the following open-ended questions to elicit their attitudes towards textbook use:
1. Do you use a textbook in class?
   If yes, which one?
   If no, say why and how do you teach?
2. How do you use it? Give examples.
3. Do your students use textbooks? Give their reaction.
4. Give your comments on the use of textbooks.

The questionnaire for students about how they find textbooks covered the following areas:
1. Say three things you like about using a textbook.
2. Say three things you don't like about a textbook.

Results

Results concerning the use of textbooks were mixed. All teachers and students realised the importance of the textbooks in use as one of the key factors to successful learning. In total, 60% of schools observed are equipped with *Go for English* and *The New Cambridge English Course* though in a very insufficient quantity and mostly without a teacher's handbook.

The survey brought out the following results:

1. 20% of teachers follow the textbooks content and methods thoroughly.
    Common answers from the first type of teachers could be summarized as follow: "We have no choice since this is the only book existing at school and we find it perfect. We follow the content and methods because we have no training in using it effectively. We follow the recommendation in the syllabus where to refer to a unit in the book. We find it difficult to select materials from the various activities, exercises or situations given in the textbook."
2. 65% of teachers adapt the textbook materials to meet the needs of the syllabus.
    The second type of teachers who are more experienced showed greater self confidence in their teaching. They are very few but more motivated to provide good work in the classroom. As expert teachers, they use the textbook as the basis for different activities. They try to adapt materials primarily to meet the requirements of the syllabus (a big demand), and secondly the needs of the learners.
3. 15% of teachers do not use textbooks but use their old notes, copy books of the students. One reason why some teachers do not use textbooks is simply because there are no textbooks at all in the schools. Others considered them inconvenient because they do not correspond with the syllabus, their teaching style and above all with the needs of learners. They prefer to use their old notes collected from students and colleagues.

Students' perception of textbooks

A summary of the open ended responses about the students' perception of materials and activities showed that 80% of the students agreed that textbooks were interesting and useful for their learning. Responses were grouped according to their similarities.

Students said that they could learn better despite difficulties in English, mainly the speaking and listening. They revealed great satisfaction though they had to share the books among them, one for three or four students. They could read the text in English, learn more vocabulary, see pictures and learn about different cultures. Textbooks helped them with understanding. In NCEC for example, it is difficult to talk about "holiday in the USA" without a text and pictures. The use of textbooks saves a lot of time. Students do not need to copy the text from the blackboard into their notebooks. A textbook was seen as a key element for the acquisition of English and they expressed the desire to have books for use at home for homework activities and reading.

However some students disagreed and said that the activities in the textbooks were difficult. The texts were often too long, difficult and did not relate to their social and cultural environment. The grammatical exercises did not prepare them to take the final examination. I noticed that some teachers spent too much time on grammar (mechanical and transformation exercises) whereas students wanted more speaking activities.

Reading comprehension and grammatical exercises are the most common activities teachers do in class. For a reading comprehension task, teachers look for a text corresponding to the topic in the syllabus. In a case where the text does not correspond to the learners' experience, for example in *Go For English* one text talks about life in Africa, the teacher needs to do some adaptation to make the lessons more relevant and interesting. What is published in the literature and reading is not always appropriate for the Malagasy case.

There were students who revealed some negative aspects about their teacher and the lessons. They commented that their teachers were not good and could not teach English properly. This remark is very important because a positive attitude towards the teacher may make students more at ease and relaxed, in which case they will "seek out intake by volunteering and may be more accepting of the teacher as a source of intake" (Krashen 1981).

Teaching observed

After conducting observations and interviews with some experienced teachers working in town and in some outlying schools, I could identify the following ways they modified textbook activities to make them more suitable for use in the classroom.

(1) Making the text more comprehensible by simplifying it (using simple vocabulary or pictures for illustration).
(2) Summarising or shortening the text before giving it to the students.
(3) Selecting activities to fit in with the syllabus requirements.
(4) Adapting the text to the Malagasy reality, making it more interesting.
(5) Relating materials to the needs of the students.
(6) Supplementing textbook activities whenever possible (games, songs, pronunciation).
(7) Introducing communicative activities around relevant topics (role play, information gap).
(8) Making activities more challenging and participative to involve students.
(9) Using Malagasy or French when necessary (for example, explaining difficult concept).

During the observation, the following more specific questions were focused on:
(a) What kind of questions do teachers regularly ask in reading comprehension?
(b) How do students respond to the questions?
(c) What strategies do teachers usually use to get pupils to interact with the text?

One tendency during the lesson was that the teacher asked many questions where the students just had to answer with one word or the answer could be found easily in the text. Lack of experience from teaching may have affected the teacher's way of questioning and strategies to involve the students. Explicit or factual questions still dominate because the teacher's poor qualification and experience do not allow them to deal with questions that require more thinking or implicit answers. "Multiple choice, Yes or No questions, True or False" were more commonly used. Teachers with more pedagogical knowledge tried to apply different strategies to make the students grapple with text ideas. They started with specific factual questions followed by one or two inference questions or a discussion. Students used one book for three or four students. In the majority of the cases, the texts were written on the blackboard and this takes much of their time.

It is important to note that the teachers were more concerned to train the students to the types of questions used in the examinations. The question types have changed since the introduction of the communicative approach. Although the teachers have some theoretical understanding of student-centred learning, I suspect that few have ever experienced such a classroom in their own teaching careers. They find it difficult to realise such classroom in their own practice though they are aware and excited about this notion.

The study has shown that lack of training and practice is the main explanation of the students' failure in learning. The majority of the students have inadequate reading strategies at all levels and they do not have the reading skills to interact with the text.

Teachers should be taught the basic structure that would go to any text, and then be provided with ways to proceed with specific texts. The students' motivation to learn depends on the teachers' methods and techniques and students with positive attitudes usually progress more rapidly in learning.

Common problems facing students in reading text

When students read a text, they often face problems. The first one is unfamiliar vocabulary. They also have difficulty with grammatical features which they have not mastered. But even if a particular reading selection does not present vocabulary or grammar difficulties, they still have trouble understanding it. This is because there are two further aspects of written discourse which may cause problems for the language learners: the content (what the reading selection is about) and the organisation (how the selection is put together).

- Students struggled to read the text, had difficulty in understanding the text or simply did not understand the text due to problems of vocabulary, grammar and lack of background information.
- Students had difficulty answering the questions due to the problem mentioned above and lack of training.
- Answers to factual questions were retrieved directly from a sentence in the text, often word for word.
- Students had difficulty in dealing with inference questions, open ended questions (lack of ideas and lack of practice).

- Teacher reformulated the questions to encourage the students to speak.

Experts in the teaching of reading emphasize that when you begin to read a text usually you already know something about the content. Background information will help you understand what you are about to read. However, if that background information is lacking in any way, the comprehension of the text becomes more difficult. One observation in the cultural aspect of the Malagasy people is that there is no reading culture. Students generally do not have the habit of reading any books as these are not available. This also applies to most teachers, who do not actually read to improve their language proficiency. Consequently the students find it hard to deal with more specific reading text. They can only work with simple narratives.

Recommendations

To improve this situation and to help teachers undertake the textbook activities in an effective manner, they should be trained to deal with ways in which learners develop and learn. As Desforges (1985) stated, detailed knowledge of the curriculum content is essential but not sufficient to ameliorate children's interpretation of classroom materials as they are used in the classroom. Another alternative is the creation of reading comprehension texts for teachers working outside the town whenever possible. This way, the texts would respond more to the needs of the syllabus and reflect the learners' interests. Teachers should then be trained to be creators rather than just consumers of pedagogical knowledge with particular reference to their own classroom.

Conclusion

Through this article, I intended to show how the Malagasy students and teachers used textbooks. Textbooks are useful tools for the teaching and learning of English. However their use presents teachers with different challenges. It is important to recognise that in many EFL situations, not all schools have the resources needed and where they are available, as is the case for Madagascar, they do not conform to the reality of the learners. There are cultural differences in life and educational procedures and expectations might also be different. It would be part of the teacher's job to make the materials as relevant as possible.

My suggestion is to provide teachers with training on the proper use of textbooks so that they can use the materials available to meet the learning needs of their students. Training teachers in the process can help them to recognize ways they can adapt different techniques to teach different things. In addition, I suppose that textbook writers should take the problems mentioned above into consideration, especially class size and level. Making the school atmosphere learner-friendly is still a challenge for education in developing countries. However to achieve the goal of successful learning, teachers should be equipped with the necessary tools to provide students with the reading skills needed to process textual information. As Tomlinson (2003) stated, a resourceful language teacher can teach the learners to be effective by providing them with tasks that facilitate positive interaction.

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The Study of Development as the Assumption of Building Strategy of an Educational Institution

Teodoras Tamosiunas

Introduction

Organizations effectively function only when workers objectively evaluate external and internal activities conditions, forecast futures, organize in a predestined direction its activities and control the present situation. The most important management function – planning helps to implement development.

For the Soviet planning system, centralized planning was typical. This reduced the organization's activities to the obligatory implementation of the government directives. Therefore planning was implemented formally. Since 1990 when Lithuania regained its independence and became oriented towards a market economy, many sudden and unexpected changes occurred. However, planning declined because of its ineffectiveness. It was then believed that the market naturally will regulate social and economic activities in the Republic of Lithuania.

Since 2002 the European Union started recommending for the Republic of Lithuania to initiate wide strategic planning and management. In 2002 the State's Sustained Development Strategy, the State's General Plan was formed. In 2003 the National Sustainable Development Conception was approved, the ministries, the main departments' districts, cities and counties strategic plans were formed. At that time education institutions were liable to prepare promptly their activities strategic plans.

Lithuanian institutions at this time were still in a transition stage in implementation of strategic management functions according to the western conception. Though the Strategic Planning Methodology was approved by the government in 2002, many institutions in the context of strategic planning use "common sense" more than any strategic planning principles. Institutions do not focus adequate attention on strategic management.

It is important that organizations constantly review what links external requirements to change and the internal need to develop. Organizations have internal dimensions. B. J. Quinn (1980) defines these as the model or plan linking to the whole the most important of the organization's aims, policies, and consequences of actions, which he defines as the organization's own resources created by the external environments threats, risks and opportunities.

The research problem - The organization's strategy formulation and implementation process is problematic. In the process of decision preparation and approval many stakeholders are involved, such as company directors, department heads, field specialists, external subjects (government institutions and other organizations having similar activities, clients, competitors and similar subjects). Strategic decision preparation, approval, implementation and subject interests impact on strategic decisions. The institution's strategic management function system involves not only

one, but the whole complex of strategic decision preparation and implementation. Therefore difficult problems of such decisions and coordination emerge, which are influenced by management and style of leadership, organization culture, political and cultural climate in the organization.

The education institutions' strategic management education system in Lithuania has not yet been developed. Separate strategic management modules are taught at high schools; frequently strategic management seminars take place. However there is a lack of systemic and practical effectiveness during this training. The unitary teaching database for training of this type has not been developed.

Management scientists currently devote their attention to business companies' strategy questions. In the education sphere strategy terms are often linked to strategic planning, i.e. strategy is identified with strategic plan, its preparation and realization. But strategy and strategic plan are not adequate conceptions of education decision making.

Though strategic management as the research field is 50 years old, there is no universally accepted research methodology. Theoretical models dominate current publishing. There is little practical strategic education management research.

The research problem focuses on these problematic questions:

1. *How to organize university Management Masters Studies Education Specialization students' strategic management module studies, in order to prepare education institutions heads who are able to plan effectively and implement strategic decisions?*
2. *Which didactic material is critical, what is the shape of teaching databases which will be accumulated during these studies?*

The research object – Siauliai University Management Masters Studies Education Specialization students' strategic management studies didactic material, masters' thesis.

The research aim – to investigate education institution's didactic material available for strategic education institution's planning teachings and its research possibilities.

The research methodology - in the research the theoretical sources, education and studies documents and students' works analysis has been carried out. The experts' method was applied analyzing relevance of didactic material. Quantitative and qualitative research methods were used for data gathering, processing and generalization.

Theoretical strategy preparation essentials

The electronic database of theoretical summaries and presentations of the Business Management Masters Studies' module "Prognostication and Strategic Management" has been placed on the Internet. This is used by students for management studies and masters' theses. This teaching material is available on the Internet for all students who

enroll to study this module. All students have the opportunity to copy the most important documents of the database.

In the formation of education institution's activities strategy it is recommended as the pilot research to carry out this institution's expansion feasibility study. This study will help the institution to form and base its activities strategy.

Theories, materials and resources used in courses

The most frequently analyzed concept is strategy. More frequently, students provide some conceptions of them, e.g. the student Nijolė:

> C. Levicki (2003) calls strategy the collection of ideas which form the plan for organization's future. He emphasizes that each organization must have it own unique strategy which must be oriented to distinct organization's history, environment and abilities.

> Jeffrey S. Harrison (2003) defines strategy as: 1) the model which is prepared during time from the series of decisions; 2) the organization's activities plan which will help organization to achieve as much as possible during the shortest time.

The second theoretical essentials chapter is devoted to general strategic management theory. Here are provided some strategic management conceptions, students analyze which conception is more suitable for formation of their education institution's strategy and its implementation, e.g. the student Tatjana presented the strategic planning schools in this way:

> Mintzberg H. (1998) pointed out ten different strategy schools. They described each school, their history, appearance factors, the main conceptions, application, advantages and disadvantages, also situations when the application of the chosen decision while planning company's strategy could be suitable. These authors defined the so-called "fife strategies' P", which define five different strategic planning characteristics interpretation ways.

The student Lina goes deep into different strategic planning conceptions, specific for her education:

> H. I. Ansoff strategic planning conception. H. I. Ansoff – one of the first strategic planning methodologists who formulated strategic planning principles. In his conception the preconditioned by post-industrial epoch new management paradigm is reflected – organization is open social-economic system, whose activities effectiveness is mostly influenced by processes taking place in its environment. The main idea of H. I. Ansoff (1979) conception is that organization which seeks to function successfully needs to be oriented to internal organizational management mechanisms and market processes' interaction and their adequacy.

K. Andrews, R. Christensen (1965) strategic planning conception. K. Andrews, R. Christensen (1965) strategic formulation encompasses not only traditional strategy elements- goals and ways to achieve them, but also philosophy and politics. The strategy emphasizes as the whole, the certain model. The goals, problems, policy and organization interdependency is emphasized as to the process indistinguishable from structure, behavior, culture.

C. W. Hofer and D. Schendel strategy formation conception. In C. W. Hofer and D. Schendel (1978) conception logic of strategic planning is based on thorough analysis and reaction to changes in the environment. The authors distinguish seven strategy formation process aspects.

Strategic management is closely linked to changes in the organization, therefore in the students' works general change management theory is frequently analyzed. Thus, student Tatjana handles the changes plainly:

J. Quinn (1980) calls changes the alterations which are implemented to develop even essentially change some or other organization lifestyle elements. These changes as the rule are conditioned by changes in the organization's external environment or alternations' processes taking place inside the organization.

The third theoretical essentials chapter is devoted to institution strategic planning. The student Nijolė accentuates that in the education system change is extremely difficult:

The education processes' difficulty is emphasized by M. Wallace and K. Pocklington (2002): because of multiple complex changes' nature it is difficult to describe them and thoroughly analyze them and disclose many interdependent details.

For educational institution's strategic planning, students provide B. Davies and L. Ellison (2002) school planning model. The student Irmida presents the successful education institution change implementation process in the following way:

P. Senge (2002) states, that successful education institution changes' process is available only after implementation of the following three steps: 1) to present the anticipatory organizational changes for all three levels: the class, the school and the school's community, because all these levels are wholly related; 2) to concentrate on one or two priorities; 3) to involve into changes' process the whole school's community.

Didactic material and its requirements for education institutions' activities strategy preparation

Strategic planning methodology approved by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania in 2002 requires that institution's strategic plans must have a unitary four-part structure.

In the first part it is essential that the institution's activities external (PEST – political, economic, social and technological) factors must be analyzed.

The student Irmida presents the political factors in this way:

Having compared the global education tendencies and the Lithuanian politics trends, it is possible to envisage the clear aim of the Lithuanian schools to respond to global characteristics. Since 1999 in Lithuania the general education school's network reconstruction takes place. The aim of reconstruction – to create school's network adequate to effectiveness, accessibility and quality requirements with the endeavors of state and society. In 2003 the Optimal School Model and General Education School's Network Directions Project were prepared which were presented for school's communities. According to Siauliai City Municipality General Education School's Network Reconstruction Plan for 2005-2012, Siauliai university gymnasium reconstruction period will end on September 1, 2008. Then the Gymnasium will implement the main education part II and the accredited secondary education programmes.

Admittedly, each factors' group in the students' works is analyzed deeply.

The economic factors' analysis is continued by Irmida in the following:

The funds allocated for education as compared with the state's GDP rate used to evaluate the state's attention for education. During 2004 – 2006 the part of GDP for education stabilized – 6 per cent. According to GDP part, allocated for education Lithuania exceeds the EU average (the EU-5 – 5 per cent of GDP).

The student's basket methodology improvement is continued. Since 2001 the state's budget expenses for education increased and the municipalities' budget expenses for education decreased in the national education budget. In 2004 the Siauliai city municipality allocated for education needs 89 503, thousand Lt. It made 58, 44% of the cities' budget. At Siauliai city municipality in 2004 on the average the student's basket funds for one student education made 1,728 Lt.

The analysis of economic factors is dominated by sponsorship of education, buildings' renovation programme, the schools' material development.

The huge impact is made on the Lithuanian education system by many social factors: decreasing birthrate, residents' emigration, increase of disharmonious families, criminality. The student Irmida distinguishes the following social factors which influence Siauliai university gymnasium:

The Lithuanian residents' number is decreasing little by little, the population is getting old. The residents' migration and negative natural increase of population makes influence. It makes impact on pedagogues' employment in the lowest education system levels and after several years

the re-qualification of and employment of primary and main education levels' pedagogues losing their jobs will become a huge social problem.

The changes of residents socioeconomic status means that society's re-stratification takes place, the level of the new elite and the level of the needy is formed. The needy and the rich Lithuanian fifth part income is different about five times and this differentiation is one of the largest in Europe and still increases. While the living standard, life experience an mentality is differentiating, the education system encounters partial pressure of society to create special conditions for the talented, motivated and rich.

About 23 per cent of Lithuanian students are born out of wedlock and have only one breadwinner and educator – mother. The number of children growing in asocial families is increasing. Every third student is given free nourishment at general education schools.

The huge problem – the non-attendance of school up age of 16. While UNESCO undertakes initiatives to provide education services already from year 3 and safeguard basic education for all residents' groups.

While analyzing the technological factors, the heads of education institutions accentuate the rapid computerization of the Lithuanian schools and application of information technologies in the education process.

The second part of the strategic plan needs to analyze the external factors which influence the institution's activity, which according to the Strategic Planning Methodology are sorted into eight groups.

The legal education institution's basis needs to be described because the education institutions' activities are regulated by more than 200 laws and other normative documents. Therefore students in the feasibility study narrow themselves to analysis of several main documents and the whole legal basis is formed by the separate database on the website of education institution.

The organizational education institution's structure can be described by four variants: self-government, administration, teaching and non-class activities, and structure. Here for each structure the schemes are drawn, qualitative analysis is carried out as part of the planning process.

Further in the feasibility studies mostly important internal factors such as human resources are analyzed. They are sorted in the education institutions' into three education community groups: students, teachers and staff, parents of students. In the students' group the students' achievements level, attendance, wellness, interests, activities are analyzed. Most attention is focused on teachers' qualification improvement, development of competencies. The families' social status and content, education of parents, profession, and participation in the education process are analyzed.

Financial and material resources also have huge impact on forming the education institution's strategy. Admittedly, without additional financial resources (programme state subsidy, the EU support, additional investments of municipality) it is impossible to realize the strategic aim (e.g. to set the modern sports hall), because as it is shown by statistics collected by the student Irmida, 86 per cent of expenses at Siauliai university gymnasium is made of salaries, and the remaining 14 per cent – use of goods and services. While analyzing the financial resources of education institution students describe the institution's budget. In the analysis of material resources the buildings, facilities and their level of depreciation, the library provision with textbooks and other publications, computerization level are prominent.

The fifth internal education resources group the planning system. Many plans are prepared in the education institutions: the plans of classes, extracurricular activities, commissions, committees, the collectives' activities; the council activity plan, the annual school activity plan, the triennial school's strategic plan which is renewed and prolonged for one year to remain always the triennial plan. Some problems exist in the planning system, not least interaction and interdependence of plans.

Less detailed in the Strategy Planning Methodology is the internal resources group – *records*. The representatives of education institutions in the students' feasibility studies indicate the records of teaching achievements and financial records and the documents regulating it. Frequently the records are implemented using computer programmes; many schools have centralized accountancy.

The description of network systems in the feasibility study reflect horizontal (power, society) and vertical (activities' partners, competitors, cooperation on the basis of agreements, friendship with other institutions and companies, sponsors) relations.

The internal factors analysis is completed with the education institution's internal audit system analysis. Performance audits and financial audits recently in the Lithuanian education system became obligatory. Due to the lack of experience in education institutions, they are still not refined and pose many problems. Because the audit results encompass the whole education institution's activities system, in the feasibility studies the audit's results are not repeated, only the internal audit system is described. The auditing procedure is carried out annually.

In the third part of the strategic plan it is obligatory to carry out the education institution's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis. Practitioners usually limit themselves to the mentioned factors' table preparation, but it is required from students to link with the already carried out external and internal factors analysis, to analyze how the institution can effectively adapt its strengths, use facilities, to reduce the impact of weaknesses and avoid threats. The student Irmida analyzed how some factors are related to others, calculated their interrelationship correlation coefficients, developed appropriate some factors' use strategy, e.g. S_4O_9, i.e. how the fourth strength can help implement the ninth ability:

> S_4O_9 – *The growing richer material basis and better sponsorship of gymnasium determines wider abilities to use information technologies.*
> S_7T_1 – *The close cooperation with Siauliai University could reduce the possible threat – the decrease of children in gymnasium because of*

increasing competition between schools. Siauliai university gymnasium could become the attractive for students and their parents because it is the only gymnasium in the region of Siauliai.

The teacher Daiva estimated strong relations: *between teachers' wish to improve professional qualification and the adequate teachers' subject competence; between teachers and students relations based on cooperation and the cherished ethno-cultural, historical past traditions.*

While carrying out external and internal factors and SWOT analysis students carry out researches, collect, analyze and generalize data, design the tree diagram of problems, form the possible problems' solutions, frequently working in the appropriate institution themselves initiate, actively participate and influence decisions' acceptance process, e.g. the student Nijolė estimated the children adaptation level in her education institution: from left: difficult, moderate, easy (see Figure 1).
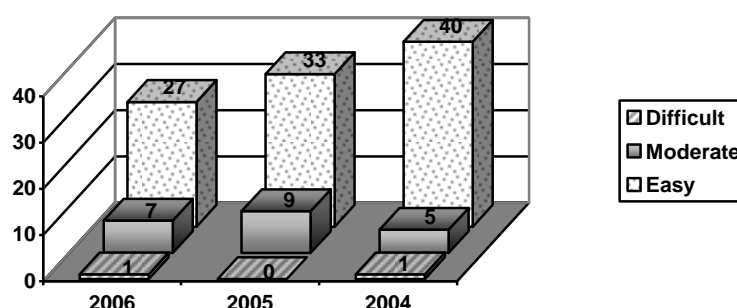
Figure 1. Children adaptation in 2004 – 2006

Having carried out the external and internal factors and SWOT analysis, the situation of the education institution emerges. It enables leaders to form the organization's activities strategy, to justify the institutions vision and the main strategic aims. Having implemented the situation analysis deeply and decisively it is possible to move to the fourth feasibility studies part – strategic pyramid (vision, strategic aims, and programmes) preparation.

Several programmes are prepared for implementation of each goal. Each programme has its goals, tasks and means. The Strategic Planning Methodology strongly highlights the results' evaluation criteria determination. Each programme may have its own budget. The whole strategy realization budget is obligatory. While forming the educational institution's strategic activities plan for 2008-2010, it's obligatory to show already approved institution's budget for 2007, using income forecasts to plan budget for 2008, to provide projections of the budget for 2009 and 2010. Usually the education institutions strategic activities plan is adjusted and extended at the end of the artificial year, at this time it is obligatory to provide the next year education institution's budget project. Therefore the planned next year budget is usually adequately accurate.

The feasibility study carried out by students is completed with conclusions and recommendations. References and study appendices are also provided. The student's master studies graduation paper – the master's thesis, is the final product of the investigation.

There are many examples at Siauliai University when the adequately prepared organization's feasibility study helped the organization to form a valid activities strategy, prepare real strategic activities plan and for the students working for this organization – studies' organizers even make career in their work.

Conclusions

In Lithuania strategic education institutions' activities planning still does not have deep western traditions; it still takes place only every five years and is distinguished by variety and disorganization. Though the government approved Strategic Planning Methodology in 2002 not many education institutions implement it. Many directors of these organizations look at the strategic management of the organization only as the obligatory strategic activities' plan preparation, and in practice do not follow the plan.

In this situation the need for teaching education institutions' strategic planning emerges. To some extent these skills are developed in the Business Management Education Masters Studies Specialization studies while studying the module "Prognostication and strategic management" and preparing the master thesis in the form of education institution expansion feasibility study.

Good conditions exist at Siauliai University to prepare education institution feasibility studies. The electronic database of theoretical sources and their summaries of the master studies' module "Prognostication and strategic management" is available for students who study this module. The library of students' graduation work devoted to education institution's expansion feasibility study preparation has been accumulated. Experience has been established. All this contributes to a successful repository of resources.

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WORKSHOP 3: Approval, Selection and Language Policy in Textbooks and Educational Media

Curricular materials and older people: approaches to the concept of old age in school textbooks

María Helena Zapico Barbeito

"In the capitalist democracies, the ageing of the population has raised new difficulties. It is the "Mount Everest" of the present day social problems. [...] Not only are there many more aged people than there were, but they no longer spontaneously integrate with the community..."
(Simone de Beauvoir, Coming of Age, 1983)

A brief contextualisation

Europe is gradually aging. Its demographic structure has changed from "barrel-shaped, swollen in the middle and narrowing at the top and bottom, to an inverted pyramid" (Sáez Carreras 1997, 33). This has meant a marked increase in the population aged over 65 years throughout Europe, including our region of Galicia (in NW Spain), due basically to increased life expectancy and the continuously declining birth rate that characterises post-industrial societies. In fact, according to United Nations data, "almost 10% of the world's over-60 population is now aged 80 years or more, and this proportion is set to increase to 25% by 2050" (United Nations General Assembly 1998, cited by Belando Montoro 2001, 11).

This is just some of the demographic data that may explain the increasing interest in and relevance of this group of people, older people, in our current society, the so-called "learning society" (Requejo 1998, 147). This data in addition lies at the root of the increasing concern for the future of old people, for their quality of life, for their rights to participation and social integration as citizens, and to ongoing education. This latter right can be considered a priority, and one that needs to be perfectly integrated with the social, cultural and health aspects relevant to this collective.

The rapid demographic expansion of the mis-denominated "Third Age" has meant, firstly, that this has been considered a "sociological problem" without precedent in the demographic history of mankind, and secondly, that people have looked to find a "scientific solution", necessarily supposing acceptance of the challenge to our societies posed by the phenomenon of aging at the institutional level, as at the political, economic, social, health, and of course educational levels. Our increased life expectancy and the consequent progressive aging of the population is certainly a great achievement, but likewise an immense challenge for the society of the 21st century.

At the moment, we are witnessing intense debate about the reality of aging, a result of the increasing interest that this age group is attracting socially at diverse levels and from diverse perspectives and angles of analysis. This debate is seen in the continual references to older people, in scientific debates, congresses, research and studies of all types focusing on this collective, and likewise in the attention dedicated by the media to this subject of such evident social interest. It is a subject that has been approached in demographic, economic, political and health-related terms: in addition, though, a

significant number of studies have analysed the reality of aging from the social and educational points of view.

It is precisely from this educational perspective that we have centered our own research over recent years at the University of Santiago de Compostela. This research continues in full growth, exploring a specific field of study – the relationship between older people and teaching resources – that has received very little attention to date in the gerontological and educational literatures.

In this connection, our research formulates and argues for a necessary linkage between the educational system and older people, in which we consider that there should be two basic directions:

- On the one hand, that of defense of the direct participation of older people in school dynamics and in the education of the younger generation, as social agents forming an essential part of the context in which schools are embedded and in which pupils live; thus older people should be able to become involved in school activity, just like any other member of the community, with full rights and obligations, and with contributions to society that should be accorded full due and value;

- On the other hand, we have analysed and continue to analyse the relationship between the school curriculum and aging, from the perspective of what we consider to be the necessary conversion of the reality of aging into a question for reflection, dialogue and study within the classroom, and of integration and coverage – as a social collective of increasing profile and importance in society – in the materials that are used as vehicle for much of the knowledge in schools, that are frequently presented as fundamental pillars in the teaching-learning process and as authentic tools for curriculum development: the curricular materials. We start then from the conviction that, as pointed out by Romans, Petrus and Trilla (2000:120), the process of aging must necessarily "become a subject considered in schools, since informing children about the changes occurring throughout life may help to improve intergenerational relations and facilitate understanding of what older people are like".

We thus agree with Romans, Petrus and Trilla (2000:112) when they note that "the concept of old person is a problem of childhood, of youth, of education and of curriculum". It is in this project of awareness-building aimed at the youngest age groups, through educational media and educational scenarios (both formal and informal), that the essence of young people's conceptualization of old age is rooted; and thus on this work depends young people's expectations about older people and about their own aging process. From this springs the fundamental importance of using all means available to us – including curricular materials, of course – to try to transmit from schools an appropriate, positive and realist vision of longevity, highlighting its problems as a social reality, as a group that is relatively isolated and often the victim of a certain social degradation and margination, in view of the rather precarious and negatively stereotyped conceptualization that a large part of society holds of older people (this despite the considerable achievments of recent years in efforts to improve from different platforms the social situation of older people, their conditions of life and their prospects for integrated personal self-realization).

Some research objectives: our aspirations

Throughout the process of exploration, we have aimed principally to achieve the following objectives, though these are certainly increasing in complexity and ambition as the study progresses:

- To determine and analyse the images of old people presented in the printed curricular materials used in our schools, uncovering the possible conceptions, models and representations of old age that are being transmitted to younger people, perhaps modulating and influencing schoolchildren's concept of old age, and even the type of relationships that they maintain with their elders in the present, and will maintain in the future.
- To design and validate a model and instrument of analysis of curricular materials aimed at describing and interpreting the perception of old age transmitted through school teaching materials: a model that, within interpretative and critical viewpoints, combines descriptive and inferential study, in line with contents analysis methodologies.

We are thus moved by the ambitious goal – attainable eventually only through future approaches to this question, along a course that looks set to be long – of enquiring into the types of image of old age presented in Galician curricular materials, and of determining to what extent they meet the assumptions of Romans, Petrus and Trilla (2000:113), who state that "if on any occasion [...] old age appears in the textbooks of our schools, its image frequently reflects certain clichés (passivity, eccentricity, inoperativity, dissociation, nostalgia...)"; and this also acquires a fundamental relevance as regards negative repercussions for older people, since "as a consequence of all this, old people themselves tend to mould their lives to the condition and valuation of old age prevailing in the society in which they live".

The study's antecedents and development: ground already covered

This study has been underway over recent years within the Department of Didactics and School Organization of the University of Santiago de Compostela, in which I fulfil my professional role as researcher. In the course of my Doctoral Thesis and within the line of research outlined, I have presented various substantial studies which – under the excellent direction of Professor Xesús Rodríguez Rodríguez – have become the principal basis of my research trajectory, including my Term Thesis (Zapico Barbeito 2006a) and my Directed Research Study (Zapico Barbeito 2006b), constituting consecutive steps in an integrated line of research that now continues naturally in the present Doctoral Thesis.

As these studies have developed, and advancing and exploring the relevant literature, a veritable maelstrom of diverse questions has arisen, to some of which we hope to be able to give some sort of answer through the present thesis: what theoretical model of aging is being transmitted to the upcoming generations through the content of the curricular materials used in our classrooms? Is the figure of the older person genuinely represented in these resources and, if so, what sort of image of old age is presented? What role is granted to older people themselves in the school context, as educational agents of high value, with a rich cultural and lifetime experience that may be of great value in pedagogic

processes, through intergenerational projects? Likewise, how do education professionals perceive the treatment of older people in teaching materials, and how do they conceive the involvement of older people in school taking as nexus the teaching materials used therein? These and many other relevant questions have been and continue to be priority study goals in this Doctoral Thesis.

The methodological focus of the research: lighting the way forward

In the empirical part of this research we have used the methodological strategy of contents analysis, a highly accredited approach that has been applied frequently in educational research, especially within the context of analysis of textbooks, and which provides us with rock-solid antecedents on which to base the present study.

On the basis of this perspective we have designed a complex, rigurous and detailed evaluation instrument, although we are of course always open to ongoing, flexible and dynamic improvements. This is our "Guide for the Analysis of Images of Older People in Curricular Materials", made up of a total of 75 items and 10 basic study blocks, whose fundamental thematic structure can be briefly summarized as follows:

Table 1. Principal areas of study of the evaluation instrument: thematic blocks of our "Guide for the Analysis of Images of Older People in Curricular Materials" (Zapico Barbeito 2006b, 184).

A) DATE AND IDENTIFICATION OF THE MATERIAL TO BE ANALYSED

B) ANALYSIS OF THE WRITTEN TEXT
   B.1. Presence and extent of coverage of older people in the written text
   B.2. Characterisation of older people in the written text

C) TERMINOLOGY OF REFERENCE TO OLDER PEOPLE

D) ANALYSIS OF ILLUSTRATIONS
   D.1. Presence and extent of coverage of older people in the graphic content
   D.2. Characterisation of older people in the graphic content

E) CONCEPTUAL APPROACH TO OLD AGE IN THE MATERIAL
   E.1. Perception of the process of aging
   E.2. Perception of the concept of aging
   E.3. Perception of the concept of "oldness"
   E.4. Perception of the concept of the "fourth age"

F) POSSIBLE MYTHS OR STEREOTYPES ABOUT OLD AGE

G) THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO AGING
   G.1. Explicit reference to theories of aging
   G.2. Implicit reference to theories of aging

H) DEGREE OF AGREEMENT OR CONTRAST WITH SOCIETAL PERCEPTIONS OF AGING
   H.1. Contrasts between perceptions of aging in the media and images of older people in the material

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H.2. Contrasts between general societal perceptions of aging and images of older people in the material

H.3. Contrasts between perceptions of aging by children and young people and images of older people in the material

I) OLDER PEOPLE AND SCHOOLS: THE MATERIAL'S POSITION

J) OVERALL EVALUATION OF THE MATERIAL ANALYSED

As regards the sample of materials analysed, we have selected 21 textbooks, in Galician language, from the sixth year of Primary Education, used in classrooms throughout Galicia, corresponding to the principal curriculum areas (Galician Language and Literature; Spanish Language; English Language; Understanding Our Environment; Mathematics; Musical Education; and Catholic Religion), and produced by three different publishers. We have tried to select a sample comprising diverse and heterogeneous materials, thus guaranteeing the significance of the results, by meeting a whole series of criteria for research rigour allowing consolidation of the study's credibility.

Results of the research: first steps along the way

After analysis of the above-mentioned 21 sampling units, we have identified in the materials a dual and certainly heterogeneous image of aging.

On the one hand, in these curricular materials we often find images of old people who are active, dynamic, committed and well integrated socially, in the family and at work.

However, we also find that these materials show weak points and clear limitations, the result of a presentation of old age that could clearly be improved, and that may be negatively influencing young people's concept of old age:

- older people appear rather infrequently in textbooks, so that aging is very much a secondary (or indeed accidental) topic in the school curriculum, with this age group generally rather forgotten and frequently associated with negative preconceptions;
- there is a general under-representation of older women, together with a prejudiced and pejorative characterization of this group, typically associated exclusively with secondary family roles, and generally in private or enclosed spaces;
- often textbooks transmit traditional stereotyped ideas about aging (although most of these resources do not transmit a openly stereotyped image of aging, a considerable proportion – about 35% – show implicit presence of certain stereotypes of about aging and older people: that the changes occurring with aging are mainly negative; that all old people are alike and form a homogeneous collective; that after 65 years of age there is a rapid decline in health; that older people are incapable of continuing to learn, of having intellectual concerns or desire to improve; that older people neither are or feel attractive; that people's defects become more marked with age, etc.);
- there is a lack of activities and approaches that favour intergenerational contact, or that encourage children to reflect on the realities of aging in its diverse

dimensions (biological, psychological, social, historical, familial, linguistic, and ethnographic).

A brief final reflection: the starting point of a long future journey

Despite the existence of a veritable universe of dramatic differences, of light and shade, between the different materials analysed, we can conclude that, in general terms, the printed curricular materials analysed scarcely reflect the social reality of old age, and fail completely to deal rigorously with the process of aging as just another stage in our lives, open to study and understanding by schoolchildren. Furthermore, various of the attitudes transmitted by these materials regarding the image and role of older people could clearly be improved. Indeed, we consider that this is an unavoidable duty if our aim is to transmit to children, to our young people, a concept of the reality of aging that is realist, "demythicised", just and correct, thus favouring the establishment of more harmonious and supportive intergenerational relations in our society.

We thus coincide fully with Romans, Petrus and Trilla (2000:119) when they state that "if education [and curricular materials] are to enable us to live with others, to communicate, to comprehend and understand what society is, and to help the people that live in it, then they must take into consideration the reality of older people".

In any case, it must be stressed that this research should continue to grow and evolve upon its existing foundations, aiming to achieve ever-greater rigour, within the context of the Doctoral Thesis in which I am currently immersed. This is a difficult but extremely stimulating research project, always open to enrichment in response to new reflections and suggestions, or from new angles of analysis, that will help to optimize and drive its growth along the long and complex path that stretches out before us. Certainly, we accept this challenge with conviction and enthusiasm.

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Printed Curricular Materials for Math in Schools in San Juan, Puerto Rico

Jesús Rodríguez Rodríguez[1]

Introduction

This paper presents some of the most relevant results from a study carried out in the University of Puerto Rico. The purpose was to analyse the perception of school teachers regarding the printed curricular materials of mathematics developed to help in their teaching activities in the context of the Educational Reform. With this in mind we carried out a study in the capital of San Juan de Puerto Rico. An opinion survey was applied with a sample of teachers from Advanced Schools of San Juan.

The dimensions studied were the following: level of awareness regarding normative documents, sufficiency of the new printed curricular materials: characteristics and use of the printed curricular materials; teacher education regarding these curricular materials and activities carried out in schools regarding curricular materials.

Context

Before we describe the results of our study, we would like to present some background to put our work in context.

In recent years the Department of Education of Puerto Rico has proposed different strategies to guarantee the effective implementation of its Education Reform. Among the most important are the following:

- Improving teacher training through workshops, training courses, etc;
- Providing schools with more resources, computers, books, etc;
- Developing the LABMAT[2] program.

The overall objectives of this program include extending knowledge of mathematics and math teaching strategies for the elementary level, fostering active education and promoting collaboration among teachers. In addition, the Department of Education has produced text books, complementary activities, manipulatives [3] and reference books which complement the set of materials.

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[2] A project carried out under the auspices of the Centre for Science and Engineering Resources of the University of Port Rico and the Mathematics Program of the Department of Education. Funding was provided by Title II of the Dwight D. Eisenhower Mathematics & Science Education Act. The goal of this project is to improve mathematics education at the elementary level through activities for the professional development of teachers.
3 It involves materials aimed at discovering and understanding certain aspects of knowledge through their use and sensory experience. In addition to a pedagogic component, these materials have a playful side, which fosters teaching/ learning processes that are attractive to students.

Recent changes in education have introduced different transformations, advances and modifications at the curricular level that affect the treatment of printed curricular materials. Teachers' functions in general, and in particular those related to printed curricular materials, have been modified and increased considerably. Such things as the elaboration of documents, and study programmes as well as the development of an open curricular approach similar to that proposed in documents on the Education Reform in Puerto Rico entail an intense process of elaboration, compilation and distribution of curricular materials. Another of the aspects that has significantly affected the characteristics of printed curricular materials is the incorporation of new types of content (procedural and attitudinal)

Study Objective

Overall Objective:
The present study aims to address teachers' "perceptions" of the new curricular materials printed for math that have been elaborated by the Department of Education of Puerto Rico and which supposedly have been distributed to the island's schools.

Specific Objective:
In particular we have aimed to develop an instrument for determining teachers' perception of the "new curricular materials printed" for math and to determine the real role of the Department of Education of Puerto Rico in the development of printed curricular materials.

Research Justification

Our bibliographic review revealed only a limited amount of research on printed curricular materials in Puerto Rico. Nevertheless, we should mention some studies related to the elaboration of evaluation guidelines (mainly in the area of language), and a series of proposals for helping teachers and students develop critical values in line with current needs (VVAA, 1983). With respect to the specific area of mathematics, in Puerto Rico we observed a significant number of recent studies on the use of manipulatives and new technologies. (see for example Bermúdez, 1995; González Martínez, B., 1995; Guzmán Reyes, 1995; Otero Claudio, 1995, Wilson, 1993).

Study Characteristics

Determining teachers' perceptions of the totality of materials would be an overwhelming task and inappropriate for a study of this nature.

This is one of the main reasons why we have focussed our research on a selection of printed curricular materials for teachers that have played or are playing a relevant role in the process of Educational Reform.

We start from the assumption that it is precisely in the arena of practice that a given material can take on an innovative nature and that teachers are able to deal with materials on their own territory. Inspired by this idea we decided to get to know teachers' opinions

regarding their work with materials. We used a specifically elaborated questionnaire consisting of the following:

1)   'Regulatory' documents

Degree of knowledge and utilization of the principal "new printed materials" and the level of help that they provided in the comprehension of the Reform.

2)   Materials addressed to teachers

- Sufficiency of the new printed curricular materials.

- Characteristics of the principal new printed curricular materials (textbook, didactic guide, editorial projects and didactic units).

- Selection and use of the new printed curricular materials.

- Teacher training in aspects related to new printed curricular materials.

- Curricular materials and schools.

- Other issues.

Within the first group (Regulatory documents) we included: the Curricular Framework, the Standards, the Official Correspondence published by the regional government of Puerto Rico). Within the second group (materials addressed to teachers) we included textbooks, complementary activities and Reference Books.

To understand the result we will explain briefly the meaning of the materials.

Printed Curricular Materials elaborated by the Department of Education for the understanding and implementation of the Reform (Regulatory Documents):

Among these we would like to point out the following:

a.   *Curricular Framework*

This document provides a systematic view to serve as a reference framework for school districts, schools and teachers when planning and evaluating their curricula.

b.   *Standards*

The standards are a model to serve as a guide for achieving total quality education. Their relevance in the Education Reform, specifically with respect to the curriculum, is that they foster the integration of various academic and technological disciplines as well as serve to direct the strategic changes of the curriculum.

c. *Official Correspondence*

This document was distributed by the Department of Education to all schools in Puerto Rico. Its function was to introduce teachers to the basic principles of the Education Reform. It is used by teachers as a reference when developing their projects.

Printed curricular materials employed by teachers for instruction (Materials addressed to teachers):

a. *Text books*

Text books are the pre-eminent curricular material and, as a result of their availability as well as their characteristics, exert an enormous influence on teachers.

b. *Complementary activities*

Complementary activities are a set of activities carried out at a particular time to achieve the didactic goals.

c. *Reference Books*

In Puerto Rico, the term "reference books" refers to those materials that are used for the elaboration, support and development of activities.

The main reasons which led us to select these materials for the study were the degree of availability as well as the use and knowledge that teaching staff have of them.

Research Context

In order to carry out the investigation we considered five 'advanced' Intermediate level schools in San Juan.

The following are some of the reasons for selecting this type of school for our sample:
- Easy access for data collection. 'Advanced' schools have a degree of autonomy in their organization and management, while in other public schools a series of bureaucratic formalities would have been required that would have delayed the work.
- Selecting all the 'advanced' schools in San Juan of Puerto Rico provided a representative sample of the island (approximately 25% of the 'advanced' schools on the island).
- We were under the assumption, based on the opinion of experts, that the teaching staff at 'advanced' schools would have greater knowledge than others on the island of issues regarding printed curricular materials, since these schools have bigger budgets, more "professional" teachers, and better conditions for educational innovation.

In most cases, the questionnaire was applied by means of the interview format. Before its application, the questionnaire was reviewed by experts at the Faculty of Education of

Puerto Rico in the Area of Mathematics and by six maths teachers at one of the University schools.

Main Results

We will show some of the main results.

Normative Documents

Most teachers present adequate **knowledge** of official documents (Curricular Frame, Standards and Official Correspondence). If we consider each one of documents, the following results were obtained. 79% of the teachers know the curricular framework and 86% respond that they know the mathematics standards. Likewise, 86% of teachers claim to know the Official Correspondence.

With regard to the **understanding** of the documents, the results reflect that teachers know the official documents sufficiently well (71% in the case of the Official Correspondence, 64 % for the Standards and 64% for the curricular framework).

As we can see, the teachers at the "advanced" schools in San Juan, Puerto Rico are familiar with the official documents of the Department of Education, mainly the Standards and the Official Correspondence (probably due to the wide distribution of these materials). Nevertheless, it seems that the level understanding is not very high, which could be due to factors such as the language used in the documents, and the limited number of support materials available to facilitate their understanding.

Material directed to the teachers

With respect to the question of whether the printed curricular materials provided by the Department of Education are **sufficient** (text books, complementary activities and reference books), the results obtained show that in general they are not, since 79% of teachers responded that there are not sufficient text books, 64 % think that there is also a lack of complementary activities and 71 % consider that there is a lack of reference books[4].

The second aspect we analysed refers to the **characteristics of the new printed curricular materials**. With respect to this, one of the first topics addressed refers to *teachers' perceptions as to whether the "new text books" presented important changes compared with previous ones*. As the following table shows, most of the teachers said that only formal aspects of the new textbooks (colour, size, illustrations...) were changed. However, they did not perceive important changes with respect to the language used, activities proposed, and the relevance to the immediate context. These results agree with

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[4]It should be remembered that we are referring to materials produced by the Department of Education and not to printed curricular materials from publishers or other institutions. It is worth noting that publishers in Puerto Rico are currently showing great concern about the distribution of material and about the adaptation of other printed curricular materials to the island's context, even more so as a result of the protests over the large-scale arrival of materials from other countries without any type of adaptation.

the findings in other studies which also show that textbooks basically were changed in formal aspects only.
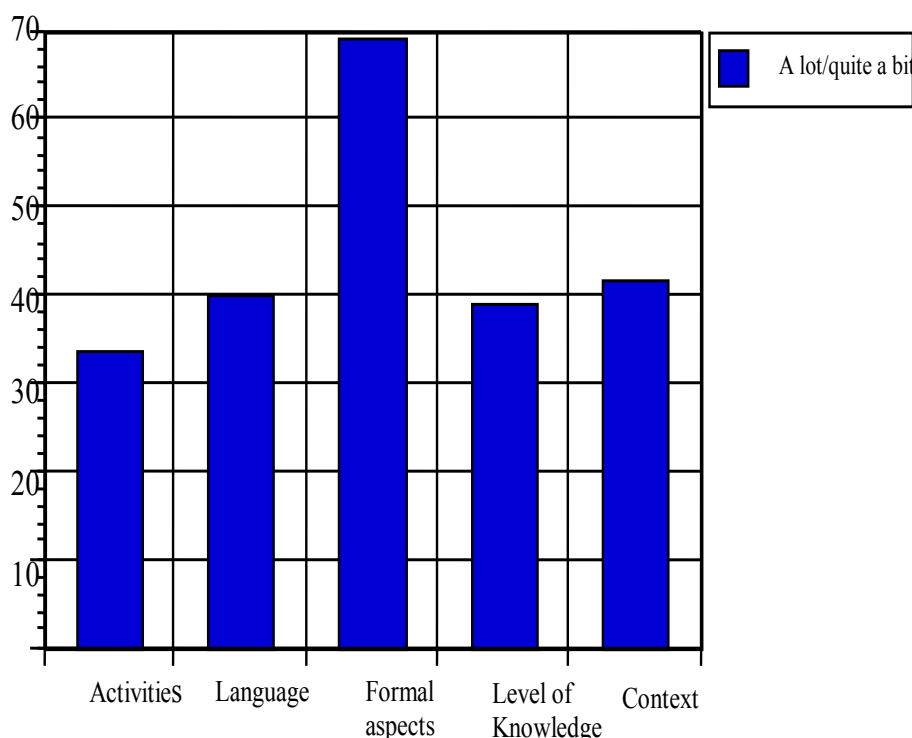
Regarding the question of whether the new printed curricular materials present a flexible and open format, we would like to point out the following:
- Teachers consider that the format of complementary activities and reference books is more open than text books.
- 29% of teachers respond that text books do not have a very flexible and open format, while 49% respond that they only sometimes have a flexible and open format.
- With regard to whether the new printed curricular materials reflect students' level, potential and interests, the most favourable responses were for complementary activities (50%) and reference books (45%).

When referring to the *language* of the materials used by teachers, the following can be stated:

- Most of "new text books" used by teachers in their classrooms are in Spanish. This is mainly due to the fact that books imported by publishers in Puerto Rico are mostly in Spanish and imported from Spain.
- On the other hand, most reference books are in English (87%). Unlike text books that come from Spain, most of the reference books available to teachers come from the United States.

In so far as complementary activities are concerned, 67% of those used are in Spanish and 33% are in English.

Regarding the question of whether the new printed curricular materials are *adapted* to Puerto Rico, it is clear that 75% of teachers think that the text books are not well adapted to Puerto Rico.

In relation to this issue, it is noteworthy that the majority of teachers see the need for proposals involving materials contextualized to Puerto Rico, especially textbooks (70%).

It should be pointed out that the majority of teachers scarcely give relevance to the role of parents when it comes to making decisions on new printed curricular materials.

With respect to the question of whether curricular materials favour *teacher research*, 57% of teachers think that the text books coming from the Department of Education do not foster research in the classroom.

With respect to *whether the materials are adapted to the evolutionary development of the student*, teachers generally say that the work proposals outlined in the new printed curricular materials are not adapted to students' development.

In a similar way, teachers indicated that, in general, the *new printed curricular materials do not encourage significant learning.*

Regarding the **use** of the "new printed curricular materials", the reference books are more widely used than text books or complementary activities.

We should reiterate that we are referring to "advanced" schools, where the attitude of the teaching staff and the working style favour the use of reference books. It should also be remembered that the number of complementary activities available in the market is rather limited in comparison to other countries.

In relation to the utilization of the materials, another of the aspects we focused on was the *degree of knowledge and use of the didactic units that appear in educational journals.*

In so far as the *use of education journals* for carrying out activities was concerned, 57% of the teachers responded that they employed these resources only sometimes or never. Only 29% use them very frequently and 14% frequently. In general terms the results clearly show that teachers are not aware of this kind of journals.

Another of the questions asked was if *evaluation guides were used to select new printed curricular materials*. Most of respondents reported not using evaluation guides. The use of evaluation guidelines is also limited. 43% of teacher use this resource only occasionally, and 36% never use them.

The fourth dimension was the **degree of training that teachers claim to have in new printed curricular materials**. In general terms, the teachers claimed to have a normal training. The professors who answered the item referring to *training received* on the "new printed curricular materials" responded that training was mainly received through "other courses", especially the PR-SSI courses. Training courses and work done independently are also worthy of being mentioned.

It is important to emphasize the fact that teachers have received scant training on matters related to printed curricular materials at university or at their own schools. This observation should lead us to reflect on the role of the university in teacher education and to a review of the curricula (this is one of the concerns that is currently arising at universities in Puerto Rico).

Concerning the issue of *whether they belong or have belonged to any group or association involved in research, application or design of "new printed curricular materials",* 79% of teachers responded that they did not.

With respect to *participation in research projects* on printed curricular materials, it is important to indicate that almost the entire group of teachers responded negatively.

Finally, the last dimension explored in our study refers to **the activities and tasks that teachers carry out on curricular materials at the school level**.

In this respect, we analyzed whether curricular materials were among the topics of discussion in schools and if the new printed curricular materials offer strategies for extending the development of teamwork within schools.

With respect to this, we must indicate that the majority of the teachers (71.3%), report that curricular materials are among the topics of discussion in schools.

With respect to whether the new printed curricular materials presented *strategies which favour the development of teamwork within schools*, 53% responded that they did so only in some cases.

Conclusions

According to the data collected, it is possible to infer that most teachers have knowledge of the postulates underlying the new printed curricular materials that have been developed since the "Education Reform" in Puerto Rico. However, the degree of "understanding" is different according to the type of material in question. Nevertheless, the majority of the teachers interviewed consider that the materials provided by the Department of Education with regard to activities, text books and reference book are too limited.

A large number of the teachers make very little use of educational journals for designing activities. Likewise, specialists in mathematics scarcely use "evaluation sheets" to select printed curricular materials.

According to teachers' perceptions, the difference between the "old" and "new" printed curricular materials is substantial in terms of the type of activities and formal characteristics. On the other hand, teachers think that the new printed curricular materials do not adapt well to the level of students, since most of the text books and complementary activities used are in Spanish, while reference books are in English.

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English Language Textbooks in Norway and Palestine

Ragnhild Lund & Khader Zoughby

Our work is part of a larger project, *Best Practice*, which is sponsored by The Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Higher Education (SiU). The primary focus of the collaboration between Bethlehem University and Vestfold University College is on the training of teachers in Norway and Palestine, and a key issue is the development of the practicum component of the students' education. The idea is to bring about new awareness of one's own ways of doing things by comparing them with those of another culture, in a mutually beneficial process.

Textbook research constitutes one aspect of this project, and the idea is to cast light on the content that the textbooks provide and the approaches that they endorse in the classroom. The textbooks under scrutiny are for different subjects and levels in compulsory schools in the two countries, and this is where our investigation of textbooks for the teaching of English comes in. With a contrastive perspective, we have tried to cast light on the choices that have been made as well as on the choices that could have been made in the two countries. The intention has been to increase our awareness of possible alternative approaches and classroom practices in the teaching of English for the lower secondary level in Palestine and Norway.

The textbooks

The textbook situation in the two countries differs a great deal. While Norway has had a number of plans and curricula for compulsory school since the country's independence in 1814, Palestinian authorities issued *The First Palestinian Curriculum Plan* in 1998. In its wake, new Palestinian textbooks were produced, consecutively, for all grades, starting from grade 1. The series that teaches English is called *English for Palestine* and is now used in all public schools in Palestine (the West Bank and the Gaza Strip).

Before 1998, Palestinian schools used textbooks that were based on the Jordanian and Egyptian curricula. Norway, on the other hand, has a long tradition of using textbooks which have been written specifically for Norwegian students. Several publishing houses produce textbooks, so schools have a variety of series to choose from. Among the new textbook series that were produced according to the latest Norwegian national curriculum (from 2006), *New Flight* has come to be the market leader.[1] Therefore, this is the Norwegian series we decided to investigate.

Since textbooks contain more texts and exercise material the older the learners are, we decided to look at the latest book, i.e. for the highest grade level, that had been published in the *English for Palestine* series at the time when we started our investigation. This book is for grade seven.

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[1] Information from the publishers.

With the 2006 curriculum, Norwegian compulsory schooling was organized in three stages, i.e. years 1-4, 5-7 and 8-10.[2] The first books to be produced were for the first year(s) in each stage, namely 1st and 2nd grade, 5th grade and 8th grade. Since no textbook had yet been published for year seven according to the new curriculum, we looked at the one for eighth grade.

The focus of the investigation

Our main concern has been to compare the textbooks' objectives for the teaching of English and how these objectives are followed up in the approaches and the contents that the books provide. In order to do the former, we have considered the curricular texts upon which the books are based and also the introductions and the authors' statements in the books that have to do with the objectives for the course. When it comes to the books' contents, we have looked at the volume of the material, the topics that students are expected to work with, and the exercises. Finally, we have looked at the opportunities for choice that the textbooks provide.

Objectives for the teaching of English

The national curricula in the two countries both explain the need for students to learn English by referring to its role as a global language. Learning English, it is said, will 'facilitate cross-cultural understanding and international cooperation' (e.g., *First Palestinian Curriculum Plan*, 25). Both curricula also mention the need for English when searching for information.

While the Palestinian curriculum stops here, the Norwegian national curriculum also describes English as a means to increase the students' awareness of language and language use in general. Moreover, the subject is expected to provide students with knowledge about the English-speaking world, thus giving them 'insight into the way we live and how others live, and their views on life, values and cultures' (*Knowledge Promotion / English*, 2). This, in turn, is expected to 'promote greater interaction, understanding and respect between people with different cultural backgrounds' (*Knowledge Promotion / English*, 1).

The Norwegian curriculum emphasizes the fact that English encompasses not only language instruction; the subject aims also at providing students with knowledge, insight and, not least, with personal experiences of literary texts and other art forms. Here, examples such as Shakespeare's sonnets and English nursery rhymes, films and music are mentioned.

When it comes to the contents of the instruction, the Palestinian curriculum has a completely different perspective. Here, it is stated that all education is supposed to reflect 'the intellectual, cultural and geographical characteristics of the Palestinian people' and thus help strengthen the learners' sense of their Palestinian identity. Central elements are the Arab-Islamic affiliation, Palestinian history and cultural heritage, and 'norms drawn from: religion, culture, history, tradition and aspirations'. At the same time, students are

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[2] The 2006 Norwegian national curriculum is referred to as the *Knowledge Promotion*.

expected to learn about and be able to 'act constructively with other nations'. The development of a creative thinking ability is seen as central in order for Palestinians to be able to preserve and develop their own culture in an increasingly internationalized world (*First Palestinian Curriculum Plan*, 13-14).

In the textbooks, the reasons why students are expected to learn English are expressed both explicitly and implicitly. The very first chapter in *English for Palestine*, which is called 'World Languages', addresses the question very directly. The text focuses first on Arabic, and the students are informed about the number of speakers (approximately 225 million people), where Arabic is spoken, and some of the varieties of the language. They are told that the number of Arabic speakers increases every year, and that it is one of the six languages used at the United Nations. However, in the third paragraph we are told that even more people speak English, and 'Palestinian leaders, businessmen and businesswomen, artists and scientists speak English when they meet people from India, China or Russia. That is why you need to study both English and Arabic in school' (*English for Palestine 7*, 6).

In *New Flight 8,* no explicit reference is made as to why students should learn English. One explanation for this could be that the students have already worked with English for seven years, and that the reasons for doing so are apparent for all members of Norwegian society. In the preface to the textbook the authors simply express their hopes that the material presented will help the students 'understand, speak and read English better – and have fun at the same time!' (*New Flight 8,* 5).

Both series indicate that a communicative approach should be used. They also stress the need to focus on the development of all the four skills and on the 'structures' of the language (e.g., *English for Palestine 7 Teacher's Book*, 4; *New Flight 8 Workbook,* 6). In this way, they can be said to make an implicit reference to the obvious need for all people in today's world to be able to communicate in English.

The volume of the material

Both textbooks consist of a Student's book, a Workbook, a Teacher's guide and some recorded texts for listening. A quite striking difference between the two series has to do with the volume of the material. The student's book in the *New Flight* series contains 206 pages, while the corresponding Palestinian student's book contains only 104. The same difference can be seen in the workbooks. Here, the Norwegian workbook provides 215 pages of extra material, whereas the *English for Palestine* workbook has only 111. In addition, the Norwegian teacher's guide contains many extra reading texts as well as exercises that can provide for students who may need easier, more advanced or just additional tasks. The Palestinian teacher's guide has no such extra material.

There is also a significant difference between the texts for reading that Norwegian and Palestinian students are offered. In both books, these texts are the main linguistic input that the students get, as the recorded material for listening comprehension is rather limited in both series.

English for Palestine 7 is organized in 24 units, and there is a brief text for reading at the beginning of each unit. This text presents the language that the students are expected to

work with and use in most of the exercises. *New Flight 8*, on the other hand, is organized in eight chapters, and each chapter has four quite long texts. While the 24 texts in *English for Palestine* contain an average of 15 lines, most of the 32 texts in *New Flight* are 50 lines or more. We have already mentioned that there are additional texts for reading in this series' teacher's guide, and the workbook also contains extra reading material.

Although *New Flight* is for eighth grade while *English for Palestine* is for grade seven, this does not explain the rather significant difference. It is obvious that the Norwegian book places much more emphasis on providing students with a large quantity of input than the Palestinian one does. Since plenty of input is crucial for the development of foreign language skills (Krashen 1981), one could be tempted to conclude that the input that Palestinian students get is too meagre. At the same time, from a Palestinian point of view, the material that *New Flight 8* offers seems quite difficult and rather overwhelming.

It is important to remember that the reading of English must be much more difficult for a Palestinian than for a Norwegian student. One factor could be all the written material that Norwegian students are exposed to in their everyday lives, not least through popular culture. Even more important is probably the fact that Norwegian students use the same alphabet and write from the left to the right in their own language, while Palestinian students must learn a whole new way of writing.

Another factor has to do with the different approaches to foreign language teaching in the two countries. In the last decades, Norwegian foreign language curricula have suggested - and textbooks have included - more, longer and more varied texts. Students are not expected to understand and remember all parts of these texts, but rather to 'experience', 'get an impression of', 'investigate' and 'discover meaning' in them.[3] The idea is that they, when being exposed to lots of language, will pick it up gradually as they meet the words and phrases again and again in new texts and contexts.

In *English for Palestine,* on the other hand, both the setup of each chapter and the many exercises indicate that the students are expected to work closely with all parts of the texts and master the words and structures that they present before moving on to the next lesson. This, of course, makes it necessary to reduce the number of lines that the students have to work with.

Yet another difference lies in the fact that all the material in *New Flight* is not obligatory for all students. Rather, students (in agreement with their teachers) are expected to choose texts and exercises according to their level of proficiency and learning needs. *English for Palestine,* on the other hand, is designed in order for the whole class to follow the same progression and cover all parts of the material. We will discuss this in more detail below.

The topics in *New Flight*

The two textbook series also differ in terms of the topics that they cover. *New Flight 8* falls into the long tradition of focusing on countries in the English-speaking world, with a main emphasis on the United Kingdom and the United States.[4] One whole chapter has to

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[3] These are terms from the 1997 National curriculum.
[4] This tradition is described, for example, in Cortazzi and Jin (1999).

do with London and New York, while another chapter is devoted to New Zealand and Australia. The other chapters also include texts that present historical as well as contemporary issues related to countries in the English-speaking world, and there are many excerpts from fictional texts by British and American authors as well.

One rather striking feature of *New Flight 8* is that many texts have, obviously, been chosen in order to motivate and even entertain the students rather than to provide them with any substantial information. Instead of central events in British history, for example, students are informed about an English family's ride with the first train in 1825 and 'Mary Quant – the queen of mini-skirts'. Despite the curricular requirement that students are to be provided with 'knowledge' and 'insight', parts of the textbook materials must be said to offer only rather incidental glimpses of the English-speaking world.

Many other topics in *New Flight 8* also signal that a main aim has been to appeal to the age group and, thus, motivate them to work with the language. Thus, we read about pets and animals ('Our four-legged friends', chapter 2), popular foods ('I'll have a hamburger', chapter 4) and concerns before 'First Day' at school (Chapter 1). There are many short, humorous poems and there are also some short texts that provide rather conspicuous pieces of information ('Fun to Know'). In selecting literary texts, efforts have been made to find ones that take up typical teenage concerns and have youngsters as protagonists.

Quite a few texts have unclear cultural reference, i.e. few clues are given as to where the story is set. Since the people involved have English names and since there are references to place names such as 'High Street' and 'Middletown School', an 'unspecified English' context seems to be implied. Yet, it is obvious that the students themselves are expected to identify with the situations and the issues that are described. 'Desperate Sis' and 'Ken', for example, write to 'Sam's' agony column and complain about their parents and their siblings much the way a Norwegian teenager would have done.

In these texts, then, the impression is given that there is no significant difference between a generally 'English' universe and the students' own. This is problematic for several reasons. First of all, these texts could be said to provide little motivation for the students to get into contact with people from other parts of the world. Since the whole point with foreign language learning is to be able to meet, to experience, to see and to learn new things, it seems rather odd that a foreign language textbook chooses to obscure the differences between people rather than try to spur the students' interest and curiosity.

Secondly, texts such as these are problematic in the way that they present Western values and understandings as the 'normal' and, in fact, the only possible ones. Such an approach can certainly not be said to help students recognize and learn about other cultures. It is also highly problematic when considering the cultural diversity that characterizes many of the Norwegian classrooms where the texts are used (Lund 2007).

The topics in *English for Palestine*

In *English for Palestine 7*, students read only about Palestine and the Arab world. Three Palestinian characters are central in the book, namely Majed, Huda and Jamal. They live in the United States, but come to visit their relatives in Palestine. Jamal also makes a trip along the river Nile. Many of the texts consist of reports from their travels and their

experiences with everyday life in Palestine. Other texts present birds and animals in Palestine and Palestinian traditions such as arts and crafts.

The heavy emphasis on things Palestinian must be explained, first and foremost, with the objective of strengthening the students' Palestinian identity. This is confirmed in the preface to the student's book, where the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) states already in the first paragraph that the overall objective for all education in Palestine is to 'foster Palestinian values and traditions' (*English for Palestine 7*, 3).

At the same time, the readers learn vocabulary and structures that can help them speak about their own everyday experience and their own background. Many of the exercises follow up these aspects of the texts, as they have to do with everyday situations in the home, at school and when picking olives, for example. In this way, the approach can be seen as a fruitful one both in terms of the overall objectives of Palestinian education and in terms of the students' language learning. Being able to speak and write about one's own background and one's own everyday life is, of course, highly relevant for any user of a foreign language (Pulverness 2000; Alptekin 2002). Still, *English for Palestine* could be criticized on the same grounds as *New Flight*. It could certainly be argued that a foreign language textbook ought to present people and phenomena from other cultures and also try to motivate the students to use the language for cross-cultural contact.

It may also seem strange that everything we read and learn about Palestine, Palestinian culture and the Arab world in *English for Palestine 7* is positive. Majed, Huda and Jamal enjoy all aspects of their visit, and everyday life in Palestine is described as uncomplicated and pleasant. The texts focus on factual, non-controversial information and we learn, among many other things, about the species of fish in the river Jordan and about wildlife near the Dead Sea.

In this way, *English for Palestine 7* must be said to fall into the pattern described by other investigators of Palestinian textbooks. Brown (2001), for example, points out that some of the first Palestinian textbooks to be published after the Oslo accords were highly unrealistic in the way that no political problems were described:

> …there were no settlements or checkpoints, and refugee camps were simply described along with cities and villages as normal places Palestinians might live – the origin of the camps or the existence of a refugee problem were not mentioned (Brown 2001, 13).

Brown explains the omissions and gaps with reference to the nation building ambition and, thus, the need to focus on issues where Palestinians agree. Others, however, have pointed to the need for an effective curriculum to address problems and controversial issues, since it is only in addressing such issues that solutions can be found (e.g. Nordbruch 2001; UNESCO 2006).

The exercises

Both books have an abundance of practice activities that focus on language structure, vocabulary and sounds, and it is obvious that they aim to provide the students with basic language skills that can be used in a variety of settings and situations. *English for Palestine 7* has a particularly systematic approach to the teaching of grammar, and there

are many drill exercises that focus on word classes, the different tenses of the verb, etc. There are also many other 'closed' activities, such as fill-in exercises, dictionary quizzes and activities that have to do with definitions of vocabulary.

Both books contain exercises that encourage the students to use the language in situations that may be highly relevant for them, such as asking for and giving directions, ordering food in a restaurant and making a phone call. There are also exercises that ask students to talk about themselves, their family, their school and their home. Not least because of its greater scope, the Norwegian book offers many more such activities than the Palestinian one does. While *New Flight 8* includes many exercises that encourage language use rather than just language practice, most such exercises are only suggested in the teacher's guide in the Palestinian series. The overall impression is therefore given that *English for Palestine* favors accuracy, while *New Flight* puts greater emphasis on fluency and communication skills.

This situation is, according to some, not a very desirable one, considering the great need for young Palestinians to learn how to use the language and be able to communicate with people from other parts of the world. The Head Teacher of the *Project Hope English* describes the problem in this way:

> The aim of teaching English in Palestine is to enable students to communicate with a speaker of English using oral and written skills. However, these students fail to express themselves properly in speaking and writing, despite the fact that they have enough knowledge of the grammatical rules as well as a good output of vocabulary. In fact, language teaching in Palestine has until recently been concerned with grammatical rules rather than communicative competence. Although there have been major changes in the methodology over the years, the underlying principle remains the same (*Project Hope*, 1).

Both books also stress written skills. Again, *English for Palestine 7* goes about this in quite a systematic way, with a main emphasis on developing the students' ability to produce coherent and well-formed paragraphs. In comparison, the exercises that train writing skills in *New Flight* seem to have a less coherent focus.

Possibilities for choice

We have already mentioned how *English for Palestine* is designed in a linear way, intended for all students to follow the same pace and cover the same materials. The teacher's guide informs us that each one of the textbook's 24 units is intended for a week's work - one page per lesson for four lessons. The workbook is organized in the same way, with a main emphasis on written practice intended to consolidate the material that the students have learned from the textbook. Needless to say, the possibilities for choice are minimal.

With its abundance of materials, *New Flight* represents quite a different approach. Although the book may, of course, be worked with, chapter by chapter, the users are constantly reminded that choices need to be made. First of all, the texts for reading are labeled A, B, C and D, the A and B texts being the easiest ones and intended as core materials for all students. The authors state in the preface that some of the texts can be read simply for pleasure or information. In the workbook, exercises are equipped with colored dots, green, blue and yellow. The easiest exercises have a green dot, the most

difficult exercises a yellow one. Students are encouraged to assess their own competence and their needs, but they are also asked to not always choose the same level of difficulty. Some exercises have all three colors, and these are exercises that all students are expected to do.

The opportunities for choice and individually adapted teaching can also be seen in the great variety of genres that *New Flight* offers. The texts for reading are, most often, information-focused texts, dialogues or excerpts from fictional texts. In addition, there are brief texts that provide 'fun' facts, poems, jokes, riddles and brain twisters. The idea is, clearly, that students should browse this multitude of texts and be sure to find something that appeals to them. The texts in *English for Palestine,* on the other hand, are much more limited in scope and most of the texts for reading are information-focused.

These differences seem to indicate divergent views of classroom practices, of teacher and student roles and of the diversity of the student body. While the Palestinian book seems to favor the teacher who leads the whole class through an authorized curriculum, the Norwegian book seems to be made for a classroom where language learning can happen in many different ways, in accordance with each individual student's needs and preferences.

Conclusion

Although *New Flight* and *English for Palestine* both set out to teach students basic English skills, with a main emphasis on their ability to communicate, we see that they go about this in very different ways. One reason for this can, obviously, be found in the educational traditions in the two countries. In this article, we have only started to investigate the relationship between these traditions and the organization, the contents and the approaches in the different textbook series. However, even such a preliminary comparison has certainly given us new, valuable insight, not least into our own traditions when it comes to the teaching of English as a foreign language.

The two textbook series also show interesting differences when it comes to the topics that can be selected in a foreign language course. While *New Flight* contains many topics that seem to have been chosen rather arbitrarily, the content of *English for Palestine* has, clearly, been selected because of its educational value. Most of the texts signal an obvious ambition to increase the students' knowledge about Palestine and the Arab world, to foster their positive sentiments towards the area and to make the students able to speak about their own background and everyday lives. In addition, students are given factual information about pollution and recycling (three chapters are devoted to this). In *New Flight* on the other hand, many texts and topics seem to have been selected primarily for their motivation and entertainment value.

Whatever one's sentiments might be when it comes to the non-linguistic content of foreign language textbooks, *New Flight* and *English for Palestine* represent two entirely different approaches. As such, they illustrate important issues that perhaps ought to be given more consideration in the development of future textbooks in both countries.

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Learning-Centered Quality Assessment

László Kojanitz

Introduction

Designing a textbook that can contribute to turning learning into an interesting, sensible, and successful activity is very difficult. What makes it hard is the fact that learning is an extremely complex activity, a process that is hard to pin down in terms of general rules.

Continuously, there are new sets of criteria being set up for the analysis of textbooks and their evaluation for practical purposes. When comparing them, we can see that it is not between the requirements of quality that essential differences appear, but between the basic principles structuring these requirements as well as between the internal structures of these sets of criteria. The differences between the conceptions of the sets of criteria are related to the evolution of views about the conditions of effective teaching and learning. Therefore, it is worth examining the conceptual changes which have taken place in the domain of textbook assessment through a few representative examples.

Assessment based on the structural elements of textbooks

In the 1980s, researchers devoted a lot of attention to the issue of textbook components. This line of research was in harmony with the widespread idea which defined textbooks as a special type of text with a specific function. Therefore, they assigned a unique importance to the presence of certain elements characteristic of textbooks (e.g., basic text, explanatory text; advance organizer, didactical apparatus). One of those lists was the widely used survey prepared by Dmitrij Sujev about the structural components of the "modern textbook" in 1986 (Bamberger 1998). His categorization was based on the distinction of texts and components outside of texts.

Structural Components of Textbooks					
Text			**Components outside of Text**		
Basic text	Supplement text	Explanatory text	Instruction devices	Illustration	Information devices
Parallel with teacher's lecture.	Reading, Source, Summary	Exposition, Explanation, Comment, Note, Footnote etc.	Question, Task	Picture, Diagram Graph, Map, etc.	Table of content, Glossary, Index, Visual devices

Chart 1. The structural components of textbooks (D. Sujev)

When the assessment is based on the examination of structural elements, textbook experts first of all check if the textbook has all the components that a textbook is generally expected to have. Then they carefully check to see if the design of each element corresponds to its function in the textbook. They may verify if the various textbook elements contribute sufficiently to the accomplishment of the teaching-learning objectives. Last, but not least, they evaluate each and every element of the book from the perspective of the age specificities of students. The main feature of these inquiries is that

the quality criteria for the textbook are strongly related to the components of the textbook. The criteria are also arranged around the following keywords: texts, illustrations, questions and exercises, informing apparatus, etc. When relying on such a set of criteria, experts focus mostly on the textbook itself. A more dynamic view is reflected when the quality requirements of the assessment are deduced from the functions expected of a textbook and not from its structural elements.

The functional approach of textbook quality

In the case of the functional approach of quality, researchers first have to define the functions that can be required of a textbook. Next they have to select those components and quality features of a textbook that may play a role in the accomplishment of the individual functions. The quality criteria concerning the structural elements receive a new meaning with respect to textbook functions. For instance, in the function-based sets of criteria, the requirement of text comprehensibility appears as a condition of transferring knowledge, while the requirement of interesting tasks is a prerequisite to motivation (Mikk, 2000).

The sets of assessment criteria based on textbook functions can be constantly developed in two directions. On the one hand, the list of textbook functions can be updated and specified, following the changes of thinking about knowledge, teaching, learning, and the learning environment. On the other, with the help of research based on pedagogical measuring and assessment, it can be stated more precisely under what conditions the textbook components can best fulfill their role. It can be tested, for example, by classroom experiments what kinds of visual elements most improve the performance of students from the perspective of understanding pieces of knowledge.

Function	Characteristic
Motivation	Illustrated
	Interesting
	Containing problems
Information	Easily readable
	Life-related
	Scientific correctness
Systematisation	Structured
Co-ordination	Related to other textbooks
Differentiation	Graded material
Guiding learning	Instruction for learning
Learning strategies	Fostering thinking
Self-assessment	Question and test
Value education	Personification

Chart 2. Sets of assessment criteria based on textbook functions (J. Mikk)

When assessing a textbook from the perspective of the fulfillment of textbook functions, we are mostly interested in its effect on the teaching-learning process. This is an important step forward compared to the sets of criteria based on structural elements, examining the textbook itself. At the same time we have to note that the list of functions regarded processes principally from the point of view of the activities of teachers and not

from that of students. Nowadays, we want to know how efficient or inefficient are the learners' activities taking place in a class. The professional level of a teacher's work is also judged on the basis of this principle. This change of mentality has also transformed the notion of textbook quality. Taking into consideration the needs of learning-centered instruction has become an important task of pedagogical textbook modernization.

Textbook assessment giving priority to systematicity

Putting learners and learning in the centre and interpreting learning as a constructive learner activity raised new questions about textbooks. How does a textbook affect the way students think about the world and what they understand from it? How does it affect the students' ways of thinking and learning? How can the role of textbooks be emphasized in the domain of the development of thinking and the acquisition of learning strategies and methods? The responses to these questions brought about a paradigm shift in the system of textbook assessment as well.

The title of the book of M. Chambliss and R. C. Calfee, "Textbooks for Learning – Nurturing Children's Minds" expresses well the intention of the authors. In their opinion, textbooks should shape the ways students think and help them learn as efficiently as possible. Thus, they regard textbooks "as a device for conveying intellectual ideas" (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998).

Educating students' minds is often hindered by the idea still very much part of common wisdom, that by acquiring a sufficient amount of knowledge, somehow and some day, students will be able to understand and apply the global principles, models, and theories of a given area of education or science. In other words, at one point, quantity will turn into quality. However, this pedagogical belief is supported neither by theory nor by practice. According to M. Chambliss and R. C. Calfee, textbooks can have a key role in encouraging teachers to follow a different strategy and concentrate on establishing the essential links from the beginning, so that by going over these connections again and again they could develop their students' minds and thinking more efficiently than before. The authors believe that a textbook may become such an instrument only if some well-chosen design principles are consistently observed in it regarding the choice of content, the wording of lessons, and the illustrations. Designers must be consistent also in the sense that the whole of a series of textbooks, the individual textbooks of the series, the topics of the textbooks, and their lessons should all be carried out according to the same design principles. Therefore, it is a prerequisite to effectiveness that the makers of the textbook series know exactly what they would like to make an impact on and by what means and that they also keep all of that in mind while putting together the textbooks.

Chambliss and Calfee recommend three design principles to textbook designers: comprehensibility, exemplary curriculum, and student-centred instruction.

	THEMES	ELEMENTS	LINKAGES
COMPREHENSIBILITY	Familiar Content Interesting Content Coherent Content	Words Sentences Paragraphs Texts	Functional device Rhetorical patterns
CURRICULUM	Expert lens Models Principles	Knowledge Skills Attitudes	Sequence Description
INSTRUCTION	Student Centered Community of inquiry Constructivism Zoom lens	Connection Organization Reflection Extension	Flexibility

Chart 3. Design features (Chambliss and Calfee)

The most important message of the model for textbook design and assessment created by Chambliss and Calfee is that textbook designers must comply with the new approach of knowledge according to which knowledge is a system composed of certain elements (knowledge, abilities, attitudes), the quality of which is determined not so much by the amount of the elements but by how well the system is organized. Therefore, the knowledge of students must also be developed as a system in the course of learning. Textbooks can contribute effectively to that only if they, too, become more than the sum of their components. Textbooks must also represent a system of knowledge and instruments structured on the basis of certain principles, and in order for that to happen they must put the criteria favouring systematicity in the foreground in the course of development and assessment.

Textbook assessment from the perspective of key ideas: how easily can they be acquired?

In 1985 a large-scale reform initiative was launched in the United States with the objective of improving the scientific knowledge of young people. In 1993 the developers of the program that became known as Project 2061 reformulated the material that American high school graduates should know. Scientists and pedagogical experts equally supported the new set of criteria that defined the objective of understanding key ideas as essential for comprehending the phenomena of the natural environment. Before selecting the items of knowledge, they determined which key ideas and principles were worth knowing and which were essential to know and how many of these could actually be acquired by the students within the given time frame (Project 2061).

There were no new textbooks born out of Project 2061, but certain recommendations, studies, and survey were made for natural science textbook designers and users. In 1999 the comprehensive textbook assessment that had been carried out under the direction of the developers of Project 2061 created a nation-wide stir. They examined to what extent high-school textbooks of mathematics, geography, biology, and physics used in the United States corresponded to the new objectives of content and didactical principles. The results were far from flattering. "This study confirms our worst fears about the

materials used to educate our children in the critical middle grades", said Dr. George Nelson, director of Project 2061. The experts revealed that the majority of the textbooks covered too many topics, none of which was properly structured. They found too much knowledge and too many student tasks that proved to be irrelevant from the perspective of the acquisition of scientific key ideas and principles included among the criteria which were not properly linked to each other.

Content Analysis	Instructional Analysis
Alignment	Providing a Sense of Purpose
Building a Case	Taking Account of Student Ideas
Coherence	Engaging Students with Relevant Phenomena
Beyond Literacy	Developing and Using Scientific Ideas
Accuracy	Promoting Students' Thinking about Phenomena, Experiences, and Knowledge
	Assessing Progress
	Enhancing the Science Learning Environment

Chart 4. The set of assessment criteria of Project 2061

Textbook assessment focusing on the components of learning

Putting into practice new teaching and learning methods based on the results of pedagogical research is an important condition for the modernization of textbooks. Sets of criteria used for the assessment of textbooks may contribute significantly to accelerating this process if they are able to translate the new pedagogical principles and proposals into the language of textbooks. The new development-oriented sets of criteria should capture the problem of the quality and the user-friendliness of textbooks from the perspective of learning and learners. Therefore, as opposed to former sets of criteria, they should not be organized around textbook components (texts, illustrations, didactical apparatus, information tools) or teaching functions (knowledge transfer, motivation, organization, coordination, differentiation, learning orientation), but around the components of learning:

- Understanding and acquiring knowledge;
- Learning the operations allowing for the application of knowledge;
- Learning to analyze problems, problematic situations and how to solve them;
- Learning to learn;
- Learning ways of thinking;
- Learning social relations and attitudes.

Sets of criteria for textbooks should be constructed and elaborated in such a way that they clearly reveal the array of tools that a textbook uses to facilitate the comprehension and application of knowledge, the development of problem-solving abilities, the learning of learning, the evolution of the ability to think and the shaping of positive attitudes. With the help of a set of criteria having this kind of structure, the whole content, the structure, and the components of a textbook could be evaluated simultaneously from various points

of view. Then, on the basis of the evaluation, it could be stated whether the textbook provides the appropriate conditions for each essential component of learning. Does it take every opportunity that a textbook may have to help students in sensible learning?

When elaborating these criteria and indicators, knowledge about learning theory and learning methodology must be linked to the empirical experiences in the area of textbook design. As a matter of fact, that is how designing should work in the case of each and every textbook.

Aspects of textbook evaluation		*Criteria of aspects*
1	understanding and learning of factual knowledge	Structuring of Content Structuring of Components Content of Factual Knowledge Quantity of Factual Knowledge Explanation of Factual Knowledge Presentation of Notions General Quality of Wording Adjustment of Texts to Age Group Characteristics Didactic Tools Serving Understanding Illustrations and Pictures Helping to Understand Information Helpful Tools for Adjusting to Learners' Preliminary Knowledge
2	learning to apply knowledge	Tools for Developing Skills and Competencies Tools for Integrated Development of Knowledge and Competencies Conditions of Applying Notions Conditions for Developing Knowledge Elements to a Knowledge System Tools for Helping the Application of Acquired Knowledge in Everyday Life
3	analysing and learning to solve problems	Tools for Helping to Learn Problem Solving
4	learning to learn	Taking Age Group Characteristics into Consideration in Learning Planning Tools for Helping to Plan and Evaluate Learning Solutions for Developing Learning Motives Tools for Developing Learning Abilities Tools for the Encouragement of Giving Personal Comments
5	learning procedures of thinking	Tools for Developing Thinking Abilities Tools for Learning Procedures of Thinking

6	learning social attitudes and behaviour patterns	Transmitting values Tools for Developing Social Skills Tools for Developing Self-image

Chart 6. Aspects and Criteria for the assessment of new Textbooks in Hungary

Let us take the example of "Learning to learn". Such quality requirements for textbooks are quite a new phenomenon, but the importance of this area of development is indisputable. In this case, it is quintessential that the sets of assessment criteria be able to orientate the work of textbook designers effectively. In Hungary, a new set of criteria was recently elaborated for the professional assessment of new textbooks. This set of criteria was already prepared according to the components of learning. It designates the following criteria and indicators in the section entitled "Learning to learn":

Criteria	*Indicators*
Taking Age Group Characteristics into Consideration in Learning Planning	• The textbook takes into consideration the level of learners' physiological and developmental psychological states. • The textbook takes into consideration learners' efficiency and their ability to be charged by hard work, deriving from their age group characteristics. • The textbook applies learning methods adequate to learners' age group.
Tools for Helping to Plan and Evaluate Learning	• At the beginning of chapters the textbook draws learners' attention to the most important elements of the syllabus. • At the beginning of chapters the textbook presents learning objectives and tasks. • The inner structure of the textbook and the method of digesting information in it transmit efficient learning strategies and methods to teachers and learners. • The textbook enables them to acquire and practise different kinds of learning methods. • The textbook supports individual, autonomous learning. • The textbook allows learners to control and evaluate themselves, how far they have got with meeting learning objectives (by setting up concrete learning objectives, by repeating and summarising questions, and by the subsequent review of the most important elements of acquired information).
Solutions for Developing Learning Motives	• The textbook encourages learners to internalise the demand for a continuous exploration of the world and for learning itself. • The textbook arouses learners' interest and

	curiosity for certain themes and exercises.
	• The textbook helps learners to compare their actual knowledge with that before learning or with their knowledge, ideas and performance typical of a previous period of their learning, so that they can perceive the progress of their knowledge, the development of their aptitudes and the improvement of their performance.
	• By raising problems and introducing open-ended questions, the author encourages learners to continue study and orientation.
	• The textbook encourages learners in their autonomous study by recommending printed and digital information sources connected to acquired knowledge and by providing exercises the use of which is necessary.
Tools for Developing Learning Abilities	• Problem-raising, questions and exercises in the textbook create conditions for learners to take an active role while acquiring new information.
	• Varied activity types (experiments, problem-solving, text analyses, map analyses, illustrated exercises) help learners to internalise the syllabus.
	• Pictures connected to varied activity types promote the acquired syllabus.
	• The textbook develops appropriate learning strategies and habits with the help of models and explanations.
	• The textbook gives easily understandable algorithms to develop aptitudes of exercise solving and analysing.
	• Its exercises take the steps of the learning process into consideration. The textbook also makes students practise them one by one.
	• The textbook provides models and exercises to acquire and practise collective problem solving and collective learning.
	• The textbook is supplied with information apparatus appropriate to learning objectives and learners' developmental level (list of authors, subject index, list of terms, bibliography, etc.).
Tools for the Encouragement of Giving Personal Comments	• The textbook encourages learners to elaborate their thoughts on acquired information as frequently as possible.
	• The textbook encourages learners to formulate original questions.

	• The textbook contains questions that invite learners to think of and reflect on new information. • By the means of questions and raising problems, the textbook encourages learners to seek connections and points of linkage in their knowledge acquired by learning different subjects.

Chart 7. Criteria and indicators for the assessment item of "Learning to learn" in the Hungarian textbook evaluation

The set of assessment criteria based on the components of learning may have several advantages. First of all, it conveys a modern, complex approach to learning, for it holds it self-evident that the role of the textbook should in no case be narrowed down to the mere presentation of knowledge. Consequently, in the assessment of the quality of textbooks, it puts a greater emphasis on the application of knowledge, on practising problem-solving, on learning the methods of learning, and on providing the necessary conditions for the development of thinking and personality.

Another advantage of the set of criteria based on the components of learning is that it may accelerate the adaptation of research findings and global developmental ideas about learning. By organizing the old and new criteria of quality regarding textbooks around certain components of learning, it creates ideal conditions for allowing new principles and methods aimed at promoting effective learning to encourage textbook designers to search for new solutions. Studies about the conditions of learning usually answer questions regarding the components of learning: how does the problem-solving ability of students develop? What role does metacognitive knowledge play in learning? How do pictures affect the attitude of students? If we formulate in a clear and understandable way how and in what conditions the texts, tasks, and illustrations of a textbook can contribute best to learning how to apply knowledge, then textbook designers will be more open and ready to take into consideration all new research data that is discovered about knowledge transfer. The same logic may gain ground in the case of learning, the ways of thinking or the learning of learning. The set of assessment criteria based on the components of learning may, in fact, spark a fruitful debate among learning theory researchers and field experts working in textbook design. As a result of that, such a set of criteria may be useful not only for the subsequent assessment of textbooks already produced, but also for designing new ones.

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Criteria for Evaluation and Selection of Textbooks in Serbia

Arsen Djurovic

Introduction

The review discusses a century's worth of experience in the development of textbooks for elementary and secondary education in Serbia. In this period Serbian society encountered several federal structures (the Kingdom of Serbia, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Socialistic Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Serbia and Montenegro) and ideologies, which had an impact on education policy in this field. The roots of interdisciplinary access concerning textbook production are found in the educational policy of the Kingdom of Serbia established in the 1880s. This was, in the real sense of the word, the beginning of modernization of education, the main emphasis of which was related to textbooks and handbooks (workbooks, reading books and others). This provided the basis for the development of this field up to today. For this reason the research project makes a special reference to an historiographical analysis of preserved sources, especially emphasizing the state policy in this field, the role of the Main School Board, the teachers' association (Professors' and Teachers' associations) and teachers themselves who are present as authors and as users of textbooks. Special attention is paid to legislative regulation analysis (during the 20th and by the beginning of the 21st century), which was being modified in accordance with changes being made "in more prosperous nations". The intention of keeping pace with them by taking into account the accomplishment of other countries in this field was also present, clearly with varied success. The contemporary praxis of textbook development in Serbia is thoroughly discussed in the final part of this review. In particular, reforms initiated in 2001 seem to have long-term implications for Serbian society.

The Kingdom of Serbia

The ideas for establishing a modern system of education (from pre-school to university education) were initiated by Stojan Novakovic in the 1880s and then fully realized with the founding of the University of Belgrade in 1905.

One of the features of modern society which made it different from traditional society was subject-specific textbooks.[1] Numerous handbooks had their place in the teaching process together with the textbooks, and those were readers for Serbian language, history, geography atlases and natural history atlases, as well as other teaching material. What marks the period covered by this work were numerous textbook manuscripts sent by

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[1] In historiography and pedagogical literature there are very few publications which deal with textbooks. Through the humble effort of V. Stanisavljevic, which represents more of an outline of the published textbooks (not all of them) than their analysis, we would like to single out the already mentioned work by S. Ćunković, in which the author gave an incomplete outline of textbooks in 19th century. V. Stanisavljević. 1992. *Two centuries of Serbian textbooks*, Institute for Textbooks and Teaching Tools, Belgrade. S. Cunkovic. 1971 *Education and schooling in Serbia in 19th century*, Belgrade, 142-143.

diligent Serbian teachers[2] to the Principal Educational Council to be appraised, all in the hope that their copy might be included in the list of manuscripts determined acceptable by the Minister of Education. It was not until the 1880s[3] that special attention was paid to the process of writing the textbooks, which was when the first rules defining this matter more closely were introduced. Those rules were introduced based on a consideration of the German primary and secondary educational system. Certain efforts to modernize even these rules were made in the decades to come, thus new *Rules on writing and printing secondary and primary school textbooks* were introduced on 28th March 1895. However, although the above mentioned rules were more modern in a legal and pedagogical sense, the abolition of public receivership and the introduction of the practice whereby the Principal Educational Council assigned individuals to do the job, represented a step backward. Cognizant of this mistake, the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the Principal Educational Council, started working on the new *Rules on printing the textbooks for public and secondary schools*. They were adopted on 14th August 1903, that is, just before the beginning of the school year. From a legal and a pedagogical point of view, progress had been made in the sense that receivership for the process of writing new textbooks was reintroduced. The reintroduction of receivership had a double effect. That effect could be seen in the application of the procedure present even in other European countries, as well as in the stimulation of as many teachers (professors) as possible to test themselves when it comes to this competence. Of course, special attention was paid not only to the methodological and didactical value of the submitted textbook manuscripts, but even more to the encouragement of the teachers while working on those textbooks. It was important to encourage the teachers to undertake this difficult task. And it was a success. It represented a considerable gain not only for the primary educational system, but for the educational system as a whole.

The result of such an approach was shown in a new generation of (domestic) textbooks and a reduction in the number of textbooks translated from other languages. Of course, this did not mean that, when it came to the textbooks, cooperation with other countries ceased. On the contrary, since the beginning of 1905 that cooperation was intensified and was reflected in the exchange of textbooks [4] and other handbooks (atlases and other pedagogical magazines) with many European countries of the time. Hence, the task of the authors of these new textbooks[5] was more complex and, at the same time, more demanding. There was something of great importance for the printing of new textbooks, it was the fact that Serbian teachers (professors) were, by the means of their own "window into the world" (for example, through magazines "The teacher" and "The professor"), as well as with the help of personal links, quite certainly informed of the development of this kind of teaching method in Europe.

Quite exacting reviewers, who were inclined to return the manuscripts to the authors to be "repaired" even more than once, contributed to the quality of the textbooks. It is best shown by the analysis of the preserved reviews. Those were scientific studies in the true

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[2] Archives of Serbia, Ministry of Education, 1906, f.8, 78, 1908, f.59, 75, 1909, f.57, 123. Many authors signed themselves with the pseudonym Keritas Maxina, etc.
[3] That book was *The Rules or the base for printing textbooks* dated from 5 February 1882.
[4] The Ministry of Education received textbooks on a regular basis from Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria and other states. See: Archives of Serbia, Ministry of Education, 1908, f.45, 115, f.45, 140.
[5] The authors of the textbooks for elementary schools were the teachers from elmentary and secondary schools as well as professors of Belgrade University. The most prominent among them were the teachers Mihailo Stanojevic, Uros Blagojevic as well as the professors of Teaching College, S. Okanovic, PhD, and Lj. Protic.

sense of the word. In this respect, reviews by Dr Stevan Okanović and Stanoje Stanojević were especially valued. In their very thorough reviews they pointed out not only methodological and didactic faults, but style faults as well, which affected the enrichment of the text itself, making it attractive to both the students and the teachers. Also, special attention was placed on the composition structure of the textbooks, which was not the case previously. Alongside this, the texts themselves came to be supplemented by numerous appendices (illustrations, maps, photographs, statistical data), which made the textbook[6] easier and clearer to read. The appearance of the new edition of textbooks suppressed dictating even more from schools, which made the work of students easier and enabled them to actively participate in the education process. Thus the time necessary for acquiring the new curriculum at home was reduced, leaving more space for play and relaxation.

The Ministry of Education together with The Principal Educational Council carefully analyzed the many editions of the textbooks in order not to lag behind with their latest scientific findings. Those textbooks which did not meet the requirements of the modern teaching process where the quality was concerned were withdrawn from the education processes, regardless of the author. Such an approach clearly indicated the priorities of the supreme educational body with regard to the modernization of such an important segment of education. Efforts to develop new (modern) textbooks were the priority of the Ministry of Education in the years to come. It is interesting to look at the position in the period from 1905 to 1914 in that sense, which can be seen from the Table: [7]

Table 1 *:* The number of the textbooks used in the period from 1905 to 1914

Name of the subject	Number of textbooks printed in the period 1885-1905	Number of textbooks printed in the period 1905-1914
the Serbian language with Slovenian reading	3	17
Christian science	3	5
calculation with geometrical shapes	6	8
natural history with agricultural lessons	3	5
history	6	3
geography	5	5
handicraft	2	-
drawing and calligraphy	1	-
singing	4	-
gymnastics	3	-
didactical-methodological literature	4	8

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[6] Archives of Serbia, Ministry of Education, 1912, f.25, 179. The price of a textbook was 0.50-1 dinar. In order to show that it was reasonable, we can compare it to the price of a loaf of bread which cost 0.20 dinar or to a litre of domestic wine at a price of 0.50–0.80 dinar.

[7] Archives of Serbia, Ministry of Education, 1906, f.8, 78, f.15, 48, 1908, f.51, 79, 1909, f.21, 9, 1912, f.25, 179, f.30, 139, *Teacher*, 1910, 482–483; 1914, 471, 626. V. Stanisavljevic, *ibid*, 241-244, S. Cunkovic, *ibid*, 142-145. In his work *Two centuries of Serbian textbooks* which has a lot of methodological flaws, in the chapter dedicated to primary education at the beginning of 20th century, V. Stanisavljevic did not state the textbook by M. Vukicevic and D. Sokolovic, The History of the Serbian People for 4th class of primary school, which had two editions, 1907 and 1912. He also left out two handbooks by M. Stanojevic *Methodology of Geography* and *Methodology of History* in the chapter dedicated to didactic – methodological literature, which he called "didactic – methodological literature".

The Table shows that, with the exception of history, handicraft, gymnastics, drawing and calligraphy, a large number of new textbooks, i.e. didactical-methodological handbooks has been published for other subjects. That data implies the improvement achieved in relation to the former period. It was one of the main pillars for the modernization of education and at the same time an indicator of the effect of the modernization process in general. However, that does not mean that there were no faults. They are visible in the Table. Drawing and calligraphy handbooks were missing, [8] while other handbooks covered only the part of the study of singing and gymnastics. The fact that the textbooks from 19th century were still in use, should not be taken as evidence of faults and omissions in the education process in the primary education, but rather as testament to the quality of these textbooks (in history, Serbian, calculation) which had many editions. Those were *Spelling book with the small reader* (1901) by Mihailo Jovic, then *Moral lessons from the Serbian Language* (1902) by Zivojin Simic and *History of the Serbian people for 4th grade of the primary school* (1903) by Mihailo Stanojevic. As other educational segments modernized in time, thus the textbooks and handbooks were included in that process. After 1905 those changes were clearly visible. They were seen in authors' modern methodological approach when the composition structure was concerned, i.e. skillfully chosen contents and appendices which were in concordance with the curriculum. A good example of this was the Serbian Reader for 4th grade of the primary school, edited by the Director of the Women's Teaching School in Belgrade, Ljubomir Protic, and Professor Vladimir Stojanovic, in 1907. When this Reader was published, it aroused the interest of many teachers right away, even more so because it replaced the irreplaceable and "quite difficult" Serbian Reader by Pero Djordjevic and Uros Blagojevic. After only a year it achieved success among the teaching staff, so it was called "the literary material" by some. Doubtless, it was certainly the "material", because its content was comprised of 43 authors' poems (by Lj. Nenadovic, J. Jovanovic-Zmaj, A. Santic, S.V. Kacanski, Dj. Jaksic, Njegos, Prince Nikola, V. Ilic and others), and 28 national poems, the majority of which were dedicated to the Battle of Kosovo.[9] This chapter accounted for one third of the Reader, which was understandable, bearing in mind that one of the main goals which had to be achieved in the educational process was to develop patriotic awareness.

The Serbian teachers, as the pioneers of this basically modern idea, wanted to introduce the Serbian state into the group of the other advanced states which organized publishing of their books according to the basic principles "that a book must be free." The dawn of the forthcoming Great War hindered the realization of that idea, but its very existence says enough about the free-mindedness of the Serbian teachers of that period who clearly saw the future of their homeland in the time perspective of 20th century. And they were not wrong. Serbia and the Serbian spiritual culture were greatly founded on their work.

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[8] There was only one textbook by Stanko Adamovic dedicated to the subject of drawing and calligraphy, *Theory and Drawing book of all women's works for children* starting from 1st class of primary school until the end of 6th class of the Women's College, Belgrade, 1983. In addition, a textbook form Austro-Hungary was used, by P. Muzak. 1893. *The School of basic drawing for public schools*, Pancevo.
[9] These poems were included in the 1st chapter entitled "From the Serbian history".

The former Yugoslavia and Republic of Serbia

Such organization of composed tasks concerning preparation and publication of textbooks was kept in the country which was established after World War I had ended – the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, and to some extent even during the first decades of the country established during World War II – the Socialistic Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (1945-1967). A considerable change in foreign policy concerning the field of education was represented by passing the Law on the Educational Council of the Republic of Serbia from October 12th 1967. Although it was a country with communist ideology (Serbia was one of six republics of the Social Federal Republic of Yugoslavia), it is interesting that the government from that period founded the Educational Council following the principle of the practice from the period of the Kingdom of Serbia as the body for execution of certain proficient, administrative tasks concerning the field of education,[10] bearing in mind the realised achievements, first of all concerning publication of textbooks.

One of the most important tasks of the Educational Council was the elaboration of new regulations, so that better functioning of educational institutions could be enabled, i.e. all segments of education be legally defined as fields of special social importance at the end of the sixth decade of the 20th century. One of those regulations was also a regulation on the formation of educational plans and programs, and the establishment standards and approval of textbooks.[11] Procedures for the approval of textbooks for elementary and secondary schools were established by this regulation as well. [12] In order that a textbook be published at all, it had to pass a certain procedure, namely to satisfy the criteria proposed by the Educational Council.

In that manner the manuscript of the textbook had to contain, apart from the exact title, the author's and consulting editors' name and surname, their profession, then the school, grade and subject for which it was planned, as well as the amount and general characteristics of the manuscript and the reasons which "justify the approval of the manuscript for education at schools". Even these first rules clearly indicate the serious consideration shown towards this sensitive question, i.e. textbooks printing. And such matter was even confirmed with the condition that "the textbook shall be accepted in the event that there are at least three positive reviews of prominent experts for the educational field for which the textbook was prepared'' (Item 2 of the fourth Section of the Rule book). When we emphasize this, we also bear in mind the precise criteria being established for evaluation of submitted textbook manuscripts. Each evaluation had to contain the following elements: a short manuscript illustration, judgment of whether it was written according to educational plan and programme, discussion of whether the matter was scientifically interpreted, whether it was suited to mental level and knowledge of students, and whether the number and content of certain topics was synchronized with the number of lessons foreseen by the educational plan. Finally, the evaluation was to include a recommendation whether the submitted manuscript be approved for use in

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[10] Article 1 of the Law on Educational Council of the Social Republic of Serbia from 13th October 1967. Apart from the Educational Council, an important role in the field of education was the role of the Educational – Cultural Council of the Assembly of the Social Republic of Serbia and the Republic Secretariat for Education and Culture which was on the level of the former ministry. The Educational Council was composed by 25 members, of which 13 were from the educational and cultural field.

[11] During the period 1964-1967, 1423 textbooks were published, of which a considerable number were published in Albanian, Turkish and Bulgarian language.

[12] This field was legally formed in the Fourth section with the title: "Textbooks approval".

schools. Such a composed procedure was followed by many technical standards as well, i.e. the textbook manuscript had to be multiplied and submitted to each member of the Council. Once satisfied that the above criteria had been addressed, Council would then forward a proposed textbook to a special board for approval of textbooks for use at elementary and secondary schools, the task of which was to prepare a report for assembly of the Council so that this body could pass a positive or negative decision.[13] Usually a long and polemic discussion was led about each submitted report of the board, after which the Council could approve the publication of the manuscript, send it back for revision or refuse it.

In the event that the decision was positive, the manuscript would be sent to be printed in the only state institution for this activity at the time: the Institute for Textbooks Publishing.[14] When all the relevant elements of the stated criteria are analysed, it is clearly seen that such an access in methodological sense was well planned and founded on a scientifically established principle. However, one disadvantage is seen: the presence of certain ideological contents in history and geography textbooks, but in textbooks from mother tongue as well. However, these disadvantages were exceeded to some extent by the mere work of the teachers, who managed to interpret the characteristic examples of the so-called Marxist ideology very well and indicate to certain delusions and incorrectness in interpretation of events from the near past.

These criteria for the selection of textbooks were constantly analysed by the Educational Council, because there was a strong desire for improvement of this sensitive field, most of all important for the further development of education. For this reason a new law on elementary and secondary education, more modern than the previous one in many areas, was passed on 25th December 1973. This law created a possibility for a greater number of textbook publishers, apart from the already existing federal publishing house. Although this was only a possibility, it has to be perceived that it was certainly a good indication of change in federal policy concerning education. A very important development was the elaboration of more precise criteria regarding the publishing of textbooks. Among the most important of these were:

- Establishing plans necessary for each type of school, and
- Establishing a new concept of textbooks which contains: ideologically-educational, educationally-proficient, didactic, pedagogical-andragogical, psychological, methodological, lingual, artistic and graphical bases and standards.

In each of these one can emphasise the key role played by the Educational Council which had to prepare them to become publishers, and they could then announce the competition for elaboration of new textbooks. In that sense all procedures, i.e. criteria were precisely ratified. They include:

- Provision of manuscripts by announcing competition from the side of the publisher;
- Establishment of proficient, pedagogically-andragogical, ideologically-educational value of the manuscript;

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[13] The commission consisted of three members. During this session the president was Radomir Kujovic. Apart from this, the Council had 31 commissioners as well, who discussed many professional questions from the educational field.

[14] This institution was founded in 1957. Its first manager was Dojcilo Mitrovic. He accomplished this duty in the period from 1957 to 1973.

- Proposal to the Educational Council that the manuscript be approved for printing; and
- The proposal contains the review of the manuscript of the most competent scientific institution.

Apart from the stated criteria it is important to mention those related to special cases as well:

- New editions of already approved textbooks are liable to be approved by the Educational Council again in the event that certain changes were made;
- The parallel textbook can be approved in the event that the same are claimed for proficient and skilled, pedagogically-andragogical and ideologically-educational reasons;
- The textbooks of other republics can be used (Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Montenegro), in the event that they are in concordance with the educational plan and programme; and,
- In certain situations a translated textbook from another country can be used by submitting proficient-pedagogic rationale.

It can be seen that in these criteria ideologically-educational reasons are emphasised. These are, first of all, ideological reasons and not reasons connected with ideas, because they would mean concordance with the ideology of that time. That was a serious weakness and lack of the stated law, and had consequences concerning modernisation of education in general.

On 26th November 1976 [15] with reform of elementary and secondary education (schooling was divided into two periods: common grounds and job-oriented education) the question of textbooks became popular. It was the moment when the Educational Council could become active and establish special conditions and criteria for printing of textbooks. [16] It was a big project which did not bring about positive, but negative consequences concerning education of numerous generations of pupils in the following decade, the same as the conducted reform (with the exception of elementary education). By neglecting such practice, at the beginning of 1980s, the mistakes made with the abovementioned reform were only partially corrected. The reduction of previous reforms was expressed by passing the law on textbooks and educational means from 1993 by which the Minister of Education received authorisation to approve one textbook for each subject.

The main weaknesses were the non-defined standards, and subsequently the textbooks were printed according to previously established criteria. The problem then became more complex because in the meantime new publishers appeared and published the textbooks without taking into account this new law. However, by passing the new law on the bases of education and upbringing in 2004, this matter was legally arranged in a far better way. It foresees the passing of a special law on Textbooks, which was prepared in the meantime and is in the assembly procedure for adoption. On the other hand, with foundation of National Educational Council in 2004, this body undertook authorisations in the same manner as the Educational Council did in the past, concerning procedures for

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[15] This reform was preceded by passing the new law on Educational Council, the integrations of which remain the same in the field of textbooks publishing. In the same year, 1976, the new Common Plan and Programme of educational-upbringing work in elementary school was passed as well.
[16] The Council passed 14 special plans for all educational levels.

elaboration of textbooks that would later be appointed by the Minister of Education with a proficiently defined proposal.[17]

The National Educational Council had the obligation to establish special standards as well, which has not been provided yet, because this body has only recently been constituted.[18]Despite this, the basic standards of textbooks quality created by the experts from the Institute for Psychology are of great help.[19] It is reasonable to predict that this will enable easier work on the part of National Council, but also on the part of the Institute for textbooks and educational means and other publishers, as well as potential authors of new textbooks. For these reasons we may have some optimism with regard to how this important matter will develop in Serbia in the years ahead.

Conclusion

During the last one hundred years in Serbia, the political and educational elite made intensive attempts to work on modernisation of education. One of the most important segments in that field to which great attention was paid then and now is the elaboration of modern textbooks, so that one could remain in competition with challenges of the modern times and new technologies. The beginning of that long process can be found in Serbia in the second half of the 19th century when the Main Educational Council was established within the beginning of modernization of education in 1880, and then the first Rules or bases for printing of schoolbooks were passed, at the beginning of 1882. This was a solid basis for foundation of all future attempts which would reach legal and pedagogic norm for elaboration of modern textbooks by establishing scientific criteria. Even that process had its difficulties and problems, the reasons were numerous: from weak material basis, exaggerated country influence and frequent reforms. However, the start of the 21st century, with considerably changed social circumstances, has created a new perspective in education and at the same time in the preparation and publishing of a new generation of textbooks.

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[17] A considerable help concerning that question is provided to the National Educational Council by the Institute for Improvement of Education and Upbringing.

[18] To establish a standard for Klaić means to define, "the norm, model, criterion, rule". See Klaić B. (1989), Dictionary of foreign words, Zagreb. Publishing House, Dr A. Pesikan, Dr I. Ivic. 2005. Basic Standards of textbooks quality, in: *Teaching and History 4*, Novi Sad, 82.

[19] These standards were made in 2003 within the project of the Ministry of Education and Sports, with the expert team taking part in it with Professor I. Civic at the head and Dr. A. Pesikan. See Dr A.Pesikan, Dr I. Ivic, stated work, 82-94.

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WORKSHOP 4: Learning from Texts and Images in Textbooks and Educational Media

Pupils' Criteria for Textbook Evaluation: A Pupil's Perspective on Verbal Representation of Geographical Concepts in Geography Textbooks

Petr Knecht

Introduction

The current textbook market in the Czech Republic is undoubtedly widely varied. For every compulsory school subject there are a number of different textbooks offered by publishing houses aimed at the same class and school type, e.g. in 2004 there was a competition of 63 publishing houses in the Czech market in elementary and lower secondary school textbooks (Greger 2004, 265). As a consequence of this confusing situation in the market, teachers ask themselves many questions in the process of lesson preparation and in teaching itself: Which of the textbooks best corresponds with real cognitive predispositions of pupils? Which of the textbooks has optimal composition of subject matter in terms of content and quantity? Which of the textbooks is preferred by pupils? Teachers thus face a problem of how to choose the most suitable textbook, which factors and criteria to consider primarily, especially with respect to their pupils. The question is whether textbook publishers take those questions into consideration. The same question is raised in educational research. Criticism centres on the point that the main focus in textbook research is on textbooks themselves and their content, not on examination of their functioning e.g. in school practice (e.g., Marsden 2001, 11; Horsley 2002, 12).

Theoretical background and research method

Until approximately the mid-1970s the general opinion was that the main recipient of textbooks should be the teacher (cf. Schallenberger 1976, 3). The current view on the issue could be characterized by the prevailing belief that prominent users of textbooks should be first of all pupils (cf. Herlihy 1992, 10; Mikk 2000, 37). Production and evaluation of textbooks should be based on their needs. Although pupils compose the largest group of textbook users, the research topic of the interaction between a textbook and a pupil seems to be rather neglected in educational research. Apparently the most frequent method in this context is the method of asking open questions in a questionnaire (Vassilchenko 1995), group interview (Nitzschke 1977) or individual interview (Wright 1990, Borries 1995, 2005, Knecht 2006). The above mentioned studies indicate that pupils evaluate textbooks rather critically, especially as concerns comprehensibility, appeal, number of visual components, clear structure and link between the presented educational content and everyday life. Authors´ work is not easy: "A textbook author appears in a difficult situation as his/her task is to balance the "regard to the possibilities of pupils' understanding" with the "regard to the accuracy of didactic representation of a particular content towards the field." (Janík 2006, 41).

In the seventies, Vester (1975, 81) pointed out that an incorrectly didactically elaborated textbook can lead to the confusion of the pupils and suppression of their enthusiasm to learn. There are also notions to be found that if the authors are using rigorous academic

definitions because of their lack of knowledge of the pupils' concept-making process, the text is becoming difficult to absorb not only for the pupils but for their parents as well (Ottich & Kowalczyk 1992, 345).

Based on the above mentioned theoretical starting points we set the general aim of this research: To find out the main criteria for quality evaluation of verbal didactic representation of human geographic concepts in geography textbooks from the point of view of pupils.

Verbal didactic representation of a concept is in this context defined as a passage in the explanation of a textbook which deals with didactic intermediation of a particular concept (through simplifying and reducing scientific knowledge and its appropriate intermediation to the pupils). In our research we used a questionnaire. Pupils were to choose the best and worst examples of verbal didactic representation of each of the examined 25 concepts from human geography and then give reasons for their choice in open questions. The examples were used in explanation in 12 contemporary Czech human geography textbooks. All the examples of verbal didactic representation of 25 concepts were included in the questionnaire. The sample was composed of 52 pupils aged 14-15 from two parallel classes of a school in the city of Brno.

To achieve the highest possible objectivity of the research all verbal didactic representations were typed in the same font size and edited in the same line spacing. Only the paragraph format was maintained. If the examined concept was presented in the example, we highlighted it in bold writing to make the text clearer for pupils. As completing the questionnaire was rather time-consuming we divided 25 concepts into five parts. Each of the parts included examples of verbal didactic representations of five examined concepts presented in the investigated textbooks. Pupils completed each part of a questionnaire in geography class always at the beginning of a lesson. Every pupil could spend any time they needed, most of the pupils needed for each part approximately twenty minutes. The examples were arranged in varying order, e.g. an example from a textbook by one publisher appeared in the questionnaire first when examining one concept and last when dealing with another concept.

The examples were arranged at random. Each of the examples was marked at the end in lower case (font size 4) to make identification of the source textbook easier and not to distract pupils´ attention. However, pupils used in their evaluation of individual examples chronological numbering of individual examples. Thus, pupils expressed their opinions on example 1 while the researcher identified the particular textbook the example was from. In the questionnaire pupils had a choice of four to nine examples of various verbal didactic representations of concepts depending on the number of textbooks in which the particular concept was verbally didactically represented.

Having studied individual examples of verbal didactic representations, pupils could express their opinions on selected examples in their own words. We used the following questions:

- From the above explanations I find the most satisfactory the example number:
- Please give reasons for your choice (we will be grateful if you write all your associations).
- From the above explanations I find the worst the example number:

- Please give reasons for your choice (we will be grateful if you write all your associations).

The answers were analyzed using open coding based on a category system that we created in an inductive way following qualitative content analysis of pupils´ answers. When analyzing individual answers all criteria given by pupils were included. Some of them gave six criteria, others only two. The category system emerged from the research data that was divided into groups according to semantic similarity and consequently fused into final categories. The process of the design of the category system was completed only when each of the pupils´ criteria could be matched with one of the categories. By means of this category system (tab. 1) the pupils´ answers were subsequently analyzed.

Category	Pupils' answers
concise	*concise, short*
comprehensible	*comprehensible, readable, intelligible, clear, well explained, easy-to-remember, meaningful, easy-to-learn*
well-arranged	*well arranged*
includes examples	*examples, includes examples*
apt	*apt*
interesting	*interesting*
long (positive meaning)	*long*
long (negative meaning)	*too long, too extensive, too detailed, a lot of useless text*
difficult	*difficult, incomprehensible, unintelligible, not-easy-to-remember, complicated, wrongly explained, poorly explained, too professional, meaningless*
short	*short, too short, unsatisfactorily explained, too little information*
easy	*too easy*
Not well arranged	*not-well-arranged, garish*
missing examples	*missing examples*
uninteresting	*uninteresting, boring*
confusing	*confusing*
missing explanation	*missing explanation, not explained at all*

Table 1. Category system for the questionnaire analysis

When processing the research data regarding the criteria of evaluation of verbal didactic representation of concepts from the point of view of pupils, we analyzed all positive and negative criteria mentioned by pupils in the process of evaluation of individual examples.

Results

The final criteria of verbal didactic representation are a result of a reconstructive research process whose core was the content analysis of answers to open questions in the questionnaire. The final positive criteria (why yes) and negative criteria (why not) in the

evaluation of verbal didactic representations from the point of view of pupils are presented in tabs. 2 and 3.

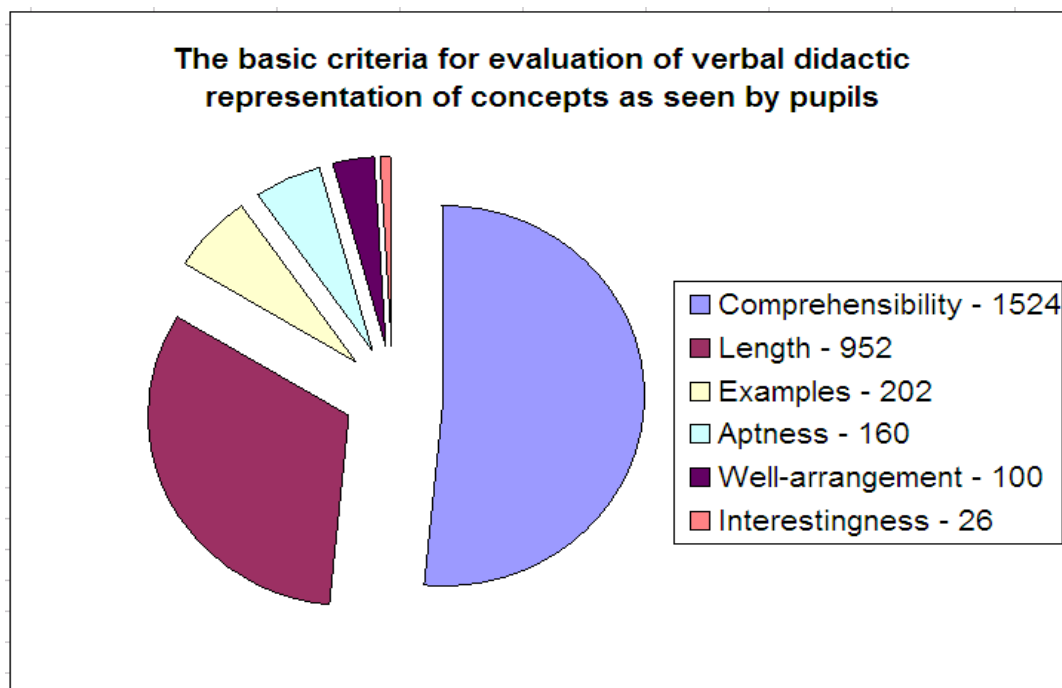| Category	The number each category was mentioned
Comprehensible	1068
Concise	366
Includes examples	192
Apt	160
Well-arranged	88
Interesting	18
Long	4

Table 2. The positive criteria (why yes) in the evaluation of verbal didactic representations of the concepts as seen by the pupils
(n = 52 pupils, 25 analyzed concepts)

The most frequently mentioned criterion when choosing subjectively best verbal didactic representation was, for most pupils, comprehensibility of a text. In other words, the major demand from pupils on a textbook is its comprehensibility. Another important feature of a text as seen by pupils is its conciseness. Pupils positively evaluated mainly examples which were comprehensible and concise, i.e. they enabled the pupils to understand the essence of the examined concept on the smallest volume of text by which understanding could be achieved. The investigated pupils, however, in several cases evaluated positively longer examples as they presented one of the studied concepts with the help of examples. An important criterion for the pupils was also clear structure of a text. Appropriate structuring of a text enhances pupils´ ability to skim a text.

Category	The number each category was mentioned
Long	582
Difficult	456
Short	36
Not well arranged	22
Missing examples	10
Uninteresting	8
Easy	2
Confusing	2
Missing explanation	396

Table 3. The negative criteria (why not) in the evaluation of verbal didactic representations of the concepts as seen by the pupils
(n = 52 pupils, 25 analyzed concepts)

When choosing subjectively the worst example of verbal didactic representation of a concept, pupils focused mainly on the length of a particular example. If the example was too long, especially compared to the other examples, pupils evaluated it mostly negatively. Another important negative criterion for pupils was excessive difficulty of the text. Pupils often mentioned as a negative criterion that a certain concept was presented in an example but was not explained. That indicates among other things that pupils approached the research with responsibility and considered positive and negative aspects of individual examples.

The basic criteria for evaluation of verbal didactic representation of concepts as seen by pupils

- Comprehensibility - 1524
- Length - 952
- Examples - 202
- Aptness - 160
- Well-arrangement - 100
- Interestingness - 26

Graph 1. The basic criteria for evaluation of verbal didactic representation of concepts as seen by pupils (based on a number of mentioned criteria in the questionnaire; n = 52 pupils, 25 analyzed concepts)

Based on the sum of positive and negative criteria for verbal didactic representations mentioned by the pupils we established the basic criteria for evaluation of verbal didactic representation of concepts (graph 1). Among these criteria stands out the demand for comprehensibility (appropriate difficulty) of a text, followed by the length of a text. It can be stated that the investigated pupils evaluate positively in a textbook text examples of theoretical and practical application of particular subject matter, in our case concepts. As the examples of application were not very frequent in examined texts and pupils were to evaluate primarily the given texts, we assume that examples can have a prominent position among subjective criteria for evaluation of verbal didactic representation. In the given research, however, we dealt only with didactic representations of concepts presented in the examined textbooks. The final criteria are thus valid only for verbal didactic representations of 25 examined concepts in 12 textbooks and 52 pupils involved in the study.

Discussion

The established pupils´ criteria for evaluation of the quality of verbal didactic representation of concepts confirm the results of researches with a similar topic. The pupils in verbal didactic representation of concepts in textbooks evaluated above all their comprehensibility (cf. Vester 1997), the length of a text, presence of examples (mainly practical application of subject matter), conciseness, clear structure and appeal of the text (cp. Wright 1990; Vassilchenko 1995 etc.). Graves and Slater (1986) proved that the best textbooks can enhance pupils' understanding and memorizing. Both authors at first explored pupils´ opinions of a text in history textbooks. The word 'boring' was most frequent in pupils´ evaluation of a text. The pupils also demanded comprehensibility and

conciseness in a text. This was among others confirmed in our research as presented in this study.

Conclusion

The research showed that pupils are able to reflect problems associated with didactic representation of the content in textbooks with regard to learning. Pupils demanded that the text should be concise but at the same time such that it makes the educational content understood. In most cases evaluated examples written in difficult language were incomprehensible to the pupils. It can be stated about the investigated pupils that their major criticism of the text in a textbook concerned excessive length and also excessive difficulty of a text. Both of these can discourage pupils from using a textbook as a source of information in their free time. Nevertheless, it is essential to emphasize that in several cases pupils also negatively evaluated too concise texts as the examined concepts were not explained sufficiently. Pupils evaluated positively also examples of theoretical and practical application of subject matter.

In the conducted research we were able to analyze the issue of textbook texts and pupils´ evaluation of them in detail. The research indicated that a pupil (though often neglected in textbook research) can represent an important source of information as he/she reflects the problem of appropriate elaboration of educational contents in textbooks. If the identified demands of pupils are considered in textbooks it will be possible to make subject matter appropriate from the point of view of pupils. This could contribute to improve components of pupils' functional literacy, especially the reading literacy as well (Najvarová 2007).

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Metaphors about Norway as a Multicultural Society in Textbooks of the Social Sciences – How are they presented to learners, and what do they mean?

Norunn Askeland

Introduction

Norwegian society has never been monocultural, but in the last 40 years people have come to stay in Norway from all over the world. Through their way of living they have contributed in new ways to the cultural variety that already existed in Norway. Cultural variety is nothing new, but most countries in Europe have treated their minorities badly, as has Norway. Until the 1950s the Norwegian state conducted a strict policy of assimilation towards the Sami people and other minorities. The state wanted these groups to forget their own culture in order to fit into the Norwegian majority culture. They were supposed to live their lives like most Norwegians did. Today we think that this way of forcing people to think, talk and act in another way is in conflict with human rights.

Oslo is the most multicultural city in Norway. Over 20 percent of the population come from more than 190 different countries. Every third pupil in Oslo is an immigrant in the sense that either the pupil or his/her parents were born in another country. In my view it is important to remember that these pupils are readers of textbooks. And what do they read about themselves in these books? What metaphors do they meet? Do they understand them? And what do the metaphors mean?

Theoretical background and research method

When I first started investigating metaphors about Norway as a multicultural society in textbooks of the social sciences, I was more interested in how metaphors were presented than in what they meant. I drew on works by Andrew Goatly (1997), Graham Low and Lynne Cameron (1999 and 2003) on how metaphors were presented in discourse and how learners could profit more from explicitly marked metaphors than from unmarked metaphors, both in written and spoken discourse. Also Anne Golden (2004) points to the fact that minority pupils in Norway have problems understanding metaphorical expressions in textbooks in the social sciences. She recommends teaching metaphors to minority pupils in order to make them aware of them both in Norwegian and in their own mother tongue. These views on the importance of metaphors in learning are supported by research conducted by Aamotsbakken et al. (2005) where metaphors turn out to be a problem for both minority and majority pupils. Aamotsbakken et al. also recommends teaching metaphors to pupils by explaining metaphorical expressions in textbooks.

Goatly stresses that it is the social or situational context or the co-text that rules out a literal interpretation of metaphor. This means that you have to be a skilled and trained reader to spot and to understand a metaphor. Goatly lists a lot of contextual markers that could be a sign of metaphor, signs that could be useful for untrained readers, like readers of textbooks. The signals also make the metaphors more transparent in the sense that

when you understand that the expressions are metaphors, you are given an opportunity to protest against them or maybe invent new ones in order to see the case differently.

This brings me to the second question in my title. It is not only important to know how metaphors are signalled, but also to know what they mean in the context they are used. To look closer into these two questions I have looked for metaphors about Norway as a multicultural society in three different social science textbooks for the 8th grade from 2007.

In this paper I will not spend time going into different ways of defining what a metaphor is. I will only say that I draw on the tradition of Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 1999), of Black and Richards and Goatly, Low and Cameron mentioned above, where metaphors in discourse are looked upon as stretches of language that has the potential to be interpreted metaphorically.

To identify metaphors in the textbooks I looked for only some of the markers defined by Goatly. There is reason to question his way of identifying metaphors, especially if you use the markers mechanically without taking the context into consideration. Here I have concentrated on the markers that either rule out or intensify the metaphors, markers that are available for textbook writers to signal the use of metaphor in order to make the text easier to understand and also easier to identify and protest against. I have also tried to consider the context for each metaphor. Nevertheless, Goatly's markers have been quite useful in becoming aware of the many possibilities of signalling a metaphor in discourse. It is worth noticing that Goatly includes examples of metaphors that cannot all be said to be metaphors in a strict sense of the word. A common definition of metaphor is "to speak of something in terms of something else" (Burke 1945), a definition that is often used by researchers with a discourse perspective on metaphor (Cameron 2003).

Cameron does not look upon dead metaphors as language with a potential to be interpreted metaphorically. Goatly, however, includes dead metaphors, and so do I in the case where they are presented with ortography or semantic meta-language, mainly because these are interesting in a pedagogical perspective, in the sense that dead metaphors often are taken for granted in different subjects and often need explanations to be understood by the pupils.

These are the metaphor signals or markers I have been looking for:

Explicit markers: Metaphorically speaking
Copular Similes: like, as
Clausal Similes: as if, as though
Ortography)   ("" !, white space, bold, italics)
As if it was
Conditionals: if....could, would, might, imagine, suppose
Intensifiers: literally, really, absolutely, quite
Hedges or downtowners: in a way, practically, almost
Semantic meta-language: (in more than one sense, in both senses, mean (-ing))
Superordinate terms: kind of, sort of, curious, strange, odd, peculiar)
Perceptual processes: seemed, sounded, looked like, felt , tasted + like/as though/as if

Cognitive processes: believe, think, regard, unbelievable, incredible
Verbal processes: say, call, refer to, swear
So to speak
Modals + Verbal Process: could say, might say

I will return to this list with examples later on. For my purpose now it is important to show how many possibilities there are of signalling metaphors and that some possibilities might be stronger and easier to understand than others. I guess the reader will agree with me that the strongest signal is to state plainly that you are using a metaphor, like in the first example above, and that the weakest signal would be not to mark it at all. But what is strong and weak will depend on the social and situational context. A weak signal in a textbook can be a strong signal in a poem and vice versa. And it all depends on the reader, of course. Nevertheless, research carried out by Cameron showed that fifth graders had problems figuring out what this sentence meant: "The atmosphere is the blanket of gases that surround the earth." (Cameron 2003:168). The metaphor was unmarked and not explained, and the pupils spent quite a lot of time discussing what might be the function of the blanket. The metaphor was taken for granted by the textbook writers. There is reason to believe that if the writers had been aware of the metaphor they would have marked it in one way or another, and then they also might have explained it in more details.

As I mentioned earlier I will not only look into how the metaphors are presented or signalled. I will also try to figure out what they mean. In approaching the last question I have divided my metaphors into three groups: metaphors about Norwegians and Western Europeans, metaphors about immigrants and metaphors about Norway as a multicultural society. This is done in order to see if there are different metaphors used about "us" and "them", and if the metaphors show a tendency to treat western countries like parents and other countries like children. Family metaphors are very common in political discourse, as shown by Lakoff (2003) and Musolff (2004). Furthermore, van Dijk (1993) has convinced us about the tendency in elite discourse to look upon "the others" as underdeveloped or less developed in relation to "us". The anthropologist Gullestad (2002) discusses the relation between egalitarianism, nationalism and racism and concludes that even if most political parties in Norwegians society have egalitarianism as a goal, reality is different when it comes to how we speak and write about immigrants. Another anthropologist, Unni Wikan, points to the fact that culture is becoming the new concept of race (Wikan 1999). There is little reason to believe that the language and metaphors of textbooks is independent of other kinds of discourses in this matter.

Results and discussion

The table below shows how the chosen metaphor signals are used in the textbooks. The letters in parenthesis refer to the title of the textbook, and the expressions in brackets refer to how the metaphors can be interpreted. When cultures are said to collide the possible underlying meaning is that culture is a vehicle or an engine, something that cannot be stopped but has energy of its own. It is not always possible to dig out an underlying meaning from every example below, but the reader is invited to take a look at the different metaphorical expressions below and make up his or her preliminary opinion

on the difference between marked metaphors about Norwegians, about immigrants and refugees and metaphors about Norway as a multicultural society.

Signal	About Norwegians	About immigrants and refugees	About Norway as a multicultural society
Explicit markers: Metaphorically speaking			
Copular Similes: like, as			
Clausal Similes: as if, as though			
Ortography) (" " !, white space)	Unfortunately we are the source of the international word for traitor, "quisling". (U) Most Norwegians who immigrated to America in the 19th century gathered in "Norwegian colonies". In that way they could help each other to adjust to the new society and maintain old habits and traditions from "the old country" [...]. For obvious reasons Brooklyn in New York has been called "the colony of mysost". The Norwegian Fridtjof Nansen was looked upon as "the world's conscience". (U) The nation has fought wars and there are many historical events that gather a nation. It is important to take	It did not matter what they did and how they behaved. They were "underdogs" and were haunted. (U) When people are forced to move because of war and suppression we call it *refuge,* and those who are forced to move, are called *refugees*.(U) In the 1960s in Germany the Turks were called "guest workers" [...]. When economical growth decreased some of the Turks got social security support. Some Germans now felt that the Turks had become a burden to society. The Turks were now called "alien cultural".	This is what we call *a collision of cultures* (M1). Such collisions can have both positive and negative sides. [Culture is a vehicle or an engine] (here the hijab is one of the examples of collisions) If you are 15, mad about football, Christian and have divorced parents, you will belong to a bigger group than a 15 year old Muslim girl who likes to read novels and who lives with both of her parents and her grandparents. But you are both young and therefore you have a lot in common through the present youth culture in Norway. You will also experience that you mix cultures. Sometimes this is easy, but other times you will find that your surroundings don't

	care of these as a *common treasure of culture*. (M1) [National culture is a treasure]		understand you. For those Norwegians who have parents coming from countries other than Norway, this situation might occur quite often. (M1)
As if it was			
So to speak			
Conditionals: if....could, would, might, imagine, suppose	Imagine that you are 18 years old, you live in a poor African country and there are few or no possibilities of getting an education or a job. But at the same time you are an ambitious boy or girl who burns to get a chance in life. And you can't get that chance in your native country. What do you do then? (U). Who is *you* in this context?	Imagine that you are 18 years old, you live in a poor African country and there are few or no possibilities of getting an education or a job. But at the same time you are an ambitious boy or girl who burns to get a chance in life. And you can't get that chance in your native country. What do you do then? (U).	
Intensifiers: literally, really, absolutely, quite			
Hedges or downtowners:in a way, practically, almost			
Semantic meta-language: (in more than one sense, in both senses, mean (-ing))	The word "asylum" really means "a free place for the haunted" (U) In Norway it is a goal that immigrants shall be *integrated*. That means that they shall learn the language and understand the culture, but not necessarily become Norwegians in the		Today we talk about *integration* instead of assimilation. Integration means that different cultures get to know each other.

	same manner as "a Norwegian Norwegian from Norway".[irony] (U)		
Superordinate terms: kind of, sort of, curious, strange, odd, peculiar)			
Perceptual processes: seemed, sounded, looked like, felt, tasted + like/as though/as if			
Cognitive processes: believe, think, regard, unbelievable, incredible			
Verbal processes: say, call, refer to, swear			We carry with us everything we learn and experience through life. It is all this that is called *culture*.(M&M)
Modals + Verbal Process: could say, might say			
Unmarked	In the 1960s the growing industry in Western Europe attracted workers from poor countries in South-and East Europe. [Industry is a magnet] Is there room for everyone in Europe? (M1) [Europe is a house]	People move first and foremost to obtain a higher standard of living (U) [More is up] A refugee is a person who [...] is unable to, or because of fear unwilling to, ask for protection from his country. (U) [A nation is a person] Often there are hard-bitten criminals behind the smuggling.	The majority and the minorities shall both learn from each other and make room so that every one can hold on to important parts of their culture. (M1) [The nation is a house. Parts of cultures are furniture.] Is there room for everyone in the nation? (M1) [A nation is a house] But even if we have different

		(U) [A sensitive and conscientious person has thin skin] (Why is this a topic in this subject and not in the chapter about crime and punishment?) This is trade with human beings. Gabriella was a piece of merchandise that Valeriu, Dragutan and Busioc made much money on.	backgrounds there are lots of things that tie us together. We might have common interests, hopes and dreams (M&M) [Dreams are ties] A ragrug – astonishing and unlike any other rugs. Hundreds of colours randomly arranged. No colours are the same, but they all contribute to a pattern – chaotic - but beautiful.(M&M)[A multicultural society is a ragrug]

Later in this paper I will argue that there is a difference in the way Norwegians and immigrants are presented. But first I will turn to the question of how metaphors are signalled. The first thing worth noticing is that a lot of possible metaphor signals are not used by the textbook writers. It is not controversial to conclude that the textbook writers could have benefited more from the opportunities to signal and explain metaphors to achieve better learning. The three strongest ways of signalling are not used at all. Among the other signals the one that is used the most is ortography, and here mainly not to focus on the metaphor but on what concepts are important to learn. Semantic meta-language, for example, could have been used a lot more, to wake up sleeping metaphors or raise them from death, as it is suggested by Golden (2004) and Aamotsbakken et al. (2005). This is a good way of explaining central concepts in any subject, since these concepts are taken for granted in most subjects, but this strategy for explaining is not chosen by the textbook writers.

Secondly, some of the more important metaphors are unmarked, especially metaphors about the multicultural society. These metaphors suggest a more politically correct mindset and language, like when people in the US no longer use the metaphor *a melting pot* about society, but prefer the metaphor *a mixed salad*, where the ingredients "live" side by side, without having to change identity. Here one of the textbooks uses the metaphor of *a ragrug:*

"A ragrug – astonishing and unlike any other rugs. Hundreds of colours randomly arranged. No colours are the same, but they all contribute to a pattern – chaotic - but beautiful. So many things to discover! The circles, the lines, the heights, the waves, the shapes. One of the rags is me! I contribute to making the rug colourful and beautiful! I am nobody else. Therefore I am important and special. I make a difference and contribute to the whole. The rug is big, solid, strong and very (extremely?) useful! We can protect

each other, we can hide in the rug when things are getting harder, and we can proudly show who we are with all our colours and patterns. Are you freezing? Come on, there is plenty of room! We can keep you warm...”
(from Inger Aguilar and Marco Elsafdi (eds.): *Listen! Texts about friendship, belonging, loss and love*).

It is worth noticing that this metaphor is borrowed from a book written by people who are not Norwegian Norwegians from Norway. We also notice that the writers use self irony on behalf of Norwegian Norwegians from Norway

If we look closer at the other metaphors we notice how the word *culture* is used. Culture is a metaphor in itself; the word comes from agriculture and is used about cultivating land. In the context of talking about Norwegian culture, culture is looked upon as *a treasure*. But as soon as we start talking about other cultures, the metaphor no longer has to do with treasure, but with *collision*. Here culture is a vehicle, even one that is complicated to drive or manoeuvre. Suddenly culture is a problem, not a treasure. One of the examples of the problems of culture is the hijab. More than two pages out of five has to do with the hijab and all the problems it creates, but there are also two sentences about the use for women who wear them. We also notice that hard-bitten criminals are part of the metaphors used about immigrants, but not about Norwegians.

Considering the question of *us and them* there seems to be a certain level of consciousness and a wish to avoid this distinction in the textbooks, but this is not an easy task, as can be shown in this metaphorical example, signalled by the conditional *if*:

If you are 15, mad about football, Christian and have divorced parents, you will belong to a bigger group than a 15 year old Muslim girl who likes to read novels and who lives with both of her parents and her grandparents. But you are both young and therefore you have a lot in common through the present youth culture in Norway.

You will also experience that you mix cultures. Sometimes this is easy, but other times you will find that your surroundings don’t understand you. For those Norwegians who have parents coming from countries other than Norway, this situation might occur quite often. (M1)

In the first sentence, the “you” is probably a Norwegian Christian boy, in contrast to a Muslim girl. Then it is a matter of discussion whether the last “you” is a “you” for both of them or only for the 15 year old boy. What is obvious is that Norwegians with parents coming from countries other than Norway are not included in the “you”. But they are at least called Norwegians, even if they are not Norwegian Norwegians from Norway. It is also a question whether “you” in this metaphorical example, signalled by the conditional *imagine*, where the author is trying to describe the life of a potential immigrant, is a real “you”:

Imagine that you are 18 years old, that you live in a poor African country and that there are few or no possibilities to get an education or a job. But at the same time you are a work-willing boy or girl who burns to get a chance in life. And you can’t get that chance in your native country. What do you do then? (U)

In my opinion the "you" is the well fed and not poor Norwegian Norwegian from Norway, it is not the poor Norwegian and it is not the poor African. What if the reader is the poor African who does not have to imagine that he is what he is? I am not saying this to criticize the hard working textbook author who is doing his or her best to avoid the distinctions between us and them. I am trying to show how difficult it is to write about these matters without taking for granted that the reader is the Norwegian Norwegian from Norway. But the example above is also an attempt to let the "you" refer to both parts, and if we look at it this way, the oppositions between us and them is partly dissolved.

It seems like the textbook writers are working hard to avoid racism in language, and it also seems that they do not need the advice from the Norwegian Minister for Employment and Inclusion who in autumn 2007 released a guide to politically correct language use, pointing out words and phrases that should be avoided because of their lack of preciseness and politeness. People are advised to avoid words like "negro" or "pakkis" (unless it is an internal joke). Other words that create distance and therefore should be avoided are:

from a foreign culture
from a distant culture
second generation immigrant
not western (when you mean dark-skinned or Muslim)
Muslim (when you mean foreigner)
foreigner (when you mean Norwegian with a minority background)

These examples cannot all be said to be metaphors, some of them have more to do with categories that sometimes overlap with metaphors. None of the textbooks use these categories, which I think shows that there is a lot of language awareness among textbook writers in Norway. This language awareness is also directly presented to the pupils in discussions about how the newspapers use the word 'Norwegian'. When the news is positive, as in the case of winning a football game, the players are called Norwegian even if they are dark-skinned and even if they were born in another country. But if the report is about criminal acts, the doers are called foreigners even if they might be Norwegian citizens. Including such examples shows that the textbook writers are aware of racism in language.

Conclusion

The analysis of how textbooks talk in metaphors about Norwegians, immigrants and Norway as a multicultural society shows that textbook writers do not use the possibilities they have to signal metaphors to pupils to create understanding and awareness of language. This could mean that textbooks writers are not fully aware of how important the signalling of metaphors is for understanding and language awareness.

On the other hand there is striving among textbook writers to be politically correct and to avoid racism in language by including metaphors that portray a multicultural society as something positive, colourful and warm like a ragrug, or to discuss racism in language in the media. This general language awareness can be developed and directed towards metaphors of different sorts, how they can be signalled to promote better learning and how they can be used to describe a multicultural society. To achieve this I think

Norwegian publishers should include Norwegians with parents from other countries, not only as consultants, but also as writers of textbooks. They will be able to see what metaphors are needed to be signalled and explained to pupils who have not been Norwegians for generations, and these explanations might also benefit pupils with a majority background.

Pupils and writers with background from other countries and cultures will contribute with other perspectives and experiences and thus help to avoid the tendency to portray immigrants as criminals or to look upon culture as a problem by, for example, focusing on the hijab as a negative example of culture. They will also be able to look through and change some of the more elaborated metaphors and examples that show a tendency to use the pronoun "you" in a way that exclude immigrants, for example, by letting their own voice be heard in the textbook.

As has been pointed out by the anthropologists Gullestad and Wikan: Culture functions in a reductionist manner to make "them" lesser human beings than "us". We can reflect, but they are caught in the web of culture. It is high time to include "them" in "us" in the reflections about Norway as a multicultural society in textbooks in the social sciences in secondary schools in Norway.

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Textbooks, Teaching and Learning Materials and Teacher Education

Mike Horsley

Abstract

"Beginning teachers must learn to think about the appropriate resource base for teaching and learning, pedagogy and curriculum decisions." In their synthesis of textbooks and teacher education Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser (2005) suggest that resourcing lessons is a fundamental aspect of teaching and that student teachers must be aware of the breadth and depth of teaching and learning resources. This paper presents the findings of research on textbooks and teacher education. Using the theoretical frame of Textbook Pedagogy the paper presents research on how student teachers come to mediate the use of textbooks, worksheets and learning resource artefacts. The research used a case study approach to profile the role that teacher education plays in how teaching and learning resources are used by teachers and the way they enculturate students into their use in the classroom.

Introduction

There is a surprising lack of attention paid by teacher educators and trainers to how novice teachers are inducted into the use of textbooks, and their wider role in interpreting the curriculum and shaping pedagogy (Loewenberg-Ball & Cohen 1996). This induction also includes an enculturation component as textbooks also serve to enculturate teachers and students into disciplinary ways of thinking. These ways of thinking reflect the shared understandings that form the community of disciplinary practice for a subject of study.

The triangular relationship between pupil-teacher-text (Peacock & Cleghorn 2004) is not really featured during teacher training. It is consequently not surprising that (arguably) the full potential of textbooks is not realised by teachers. There is little research on how teaching and learning materials like textbooks might relate to a theory (or the practice) of teacher development: how, for example, may teachers and pupils use textbooks more 'effectively' with students? Whereas most professions include the tools that are used in practice as a significant component of training and education, teacher education is unique in almost ignoring the commercially and non-commercially developed textbooks and teaching and learning materials developed to support quality teaching and learning that are used everyday in classrooms. In fact, teacher education students are often warned not to use the materials available in schools for learning, but to develop their own.

Previous research had shown (Horsley and Laws 1993, Horsley 2001, Loewenburg-Ball and Cohen 1996) that textbooks were influential in the preparation of new (pre-service) teachers. Despite the apparent universal condemnation by curriculum developers, teacher associations and teacher educators alike, textbooks prepared by commercial publishers are used significantly by teachers and teachers in training as the main source of subject content to be taught.

In 2007 a research project was developed by TREAT (Teaching Resources and Textbook Research Unit) from the University of Western Sydney that explored the role of teaching and learning materials and textbooks in teacher education.

Research Methodology

To explain the role and use of teaching and learning materials and textbooks in teacher education a mixed methodology study was developed. A variety of qualitative methodologies were used to triangulate data across research sites and data sets. The research developed a process akin to crystallisation where data from one methodology set informed data gathering from the others as they developed in sequence.

Following the Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser study (2005) **the initial data set** adopted a content analytic approach by analysing the curriculum and course outlines of two secondary NSW Teacher Education Programs in two NSW universities. The curriculum and course outlines were collected as a part of the process of the NSW Teacher Education Review 1998-2000. In 2005/2006 these course outlines were revisited to identify changes from 2000 to 2005.

The second data set developed was a content analysis of reviews of teacher education in Australia. Education reform in Australia has focused on changes in the governance, organisation and accountability of teacher education. Australia has a Federal system of government and state responsibilities for education. Beginning in 2000, most states and the Federal Australian government established a series of Teacher Education reviews. The following table identifies the teacher education reviews selected and analysed in this study:

2000	Critical Times: Critical Choices (NSW)
2004	Review of Mathematics and Science (Australia)
2005	Step Up, Step In, Step Out (Victoria)

These reviews of teacher education and their recommendations were analysed using a content analytic approach to identify the role of teaching and learning materials in the teacher education reform movement.

Thirdly, a survey instrument on textbook use in teacher education and the practicum initially used in 1993 was redeveloped and administered to twenty secondary practicum students in 2005. These student teachers were training to teach English, Mathematics, Science, Business Studies, Art and Computer Studies at a NSW university.

In the final data set a case study of ten student teachers was developed through a series of interviews. The case study participants were undertaking teacher education courses during 2005, 2006 and 2007.

The following section discusses data analysis and report data sets 2 and 4 described above.

Data Analysis

Data Set Two: Results from Reviews of Teacher Education
The recent inquiry into Teacher Education (Step Up, Step In, Step Out: Report on the Inquiry into Suitability of Pre-Service Teacher Training in Victoria 2005, Parliament of Victoria: Melbourne) is typical of the current world wide phenomenon of inquiries and reviews of teacher education. It made findings in seven key areas:

1. Context
2. Accreditation and Accountability
3. Flexible Design and Delivery of Teacher Education
4. Content of Pre-Service Teacher Education Teaching Practicum
5. ICT in Teacher Education
6. Selection of Students into Teacher Education courses
7. Teacher Induction and Mentoring

Typically, approximately 40% of the report was taken up with ICT and teacher education. The inquiry made the following findings:

- ICT linkages between teacher education faculties and school systems are under-developed;
- ICT resources and applications within teacher education has not kept pace with developments in the schools sector;
- Linkages between education faculties and developers of ICT products are not strong enough; and
- Experiences of pre-service teachers in ICT instruction during pre-service teacher education vary considerably in breadth and quality.

In the content of pre-service education section the committee found that "principals and experienced teachers also reported that new teachers are graduating without sufficient specific strategies to improve literacy and numeracy standards or the ability to integrate the use of ICT across the school curriculum" (page xxii). Not surprisingly in a 500-page review of teacher education there was no single mention of either teaching and learning materials or textbooks. Hiebert, Morris, Bank & Jansen (2006) in responding to the question, "How should teacher preparation programs be designed to ensure that graduates become expert teachers?" have argued that teacher education should be based on programs that prepare prospective teachers to learn from teaching. They proceeded to develop a framework for analysing teaching through identifying a range of key skills and competencies on which to base teacher education programs. Textbooks and teaching learning materials feature strongly in this approach and Hiebert (2003, 2006) in particular has written extensively on the role of teaching and learning materials in education. All the three teacher education reviews analysed did not mention teaching and learning materials, textbooks and their role in quality teaching.

Data Set Four Case Study Teacher Education Student Interviews
Teacher education students and completing graduates were asked about the message that they received about the use of textbooks and teaching and learning material, the use of textbook and teaching and learning materials in their teacher education courses and any specific experiences that they could recall. The teacher education student interviews were

based around a semi-structured interview schedule based on six questions. The responses of the teacher education students are reported below under each question.

Question 1: How has your teacher education incorporated published teaching and learning materials school textbooks?

The message passed to some teacher education students was that '*it was up to teachers to evaluate teaching and learning resources*' but that this set of skills was not explicitly addressed in teacher education. For one student the message was that "*schools are bombarded by resources, but it is very difficult for teachers to evaluate them.*" Some students expressed the view that the message that they received from teacher education was "*use the resources that you need, but use of textbooks is up to you*".

The majority of student teachers in this study suggested that they received either no message about the use of textbooks and teaching and learning materials or messages that were highly negative. Many student teachers reported that their teacher education courses incorporated no commercially published textbooks or teaching and learning materials. Comments like "*nothing*" or our "*course concentrated on how to be a good teacher and use a quality teaching framework*" were common. One student teacher noted that in her courses "*all teaching and learning resources were seen as tools, not crutches and that their teacher education course did not support use of commercial textbooks*".

Question 2: Describe your use of school textbooks and teaching and learning materials in your teacher education program?

There was unanimous response by student teachers that whereas school textbooks and teacher education materials were not used during teacher education courses at University they were a major factor and used consistently during practicum experiences.

Most student teachers reported that they did not use school textbooks in their teacher education courses. Comments included "*didn't use any school texts in my University teacher education courses*"; "*didn't use them much at uni*"; "*we used one school textbook in our curriculum (method course) to plan programs on but did not use any other school teaching and learning materials in our courses*".

During practicum however, student teachers reported considerable use of school textbooks and teaching materials. One science student teacher reported using textbooks during practicum as a result of the way the school planned to teach certain topics based around the availability of a new text. An Art student teacher noted that she was surprised to see the resources at the school, '*all the textbooks were in a cupboard in the staff room. However in my art teaching class at uni we had only used one excerpt from one text. As a result I went through all the textbooks in the school, inspected them all and spent a day a week developing programs around them for my teaching. When practicum was complete, I purchased a set of the textbooks myself*'.

Question 3: How did you use textbooks and teaching and learning materials in your teacher education program?

Most student teachers reported that school textbooks were only referred to in method and curriculum classes (Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser 2005). All students reported that

they received no training or instruction in the use of teaching and learning materials and textbooks. This contrasted strongly with practicum experiences. In Australia most discussion about teaching and learning materials takes place in courses about literacy and numeracy and what was once explored in using textbooks has been subsumed into discussions about teaching literacy. One student reported that her course had a component on literacy and significant experiences on embedding technology into teaching and also practical work in science, there were experiences planned around the use of teaching and learning resources. Another comment expressed this view "*80% of our time studying to be teachers at University concerned only 10% of our teaching time, what about the other 90% of what happens in schools.*"

Question 4: Did you use school textbooks to learn content?

All respondents used school textbooks to learn content subject matter that they taught in schools. Comments included:

- *Especially on prac to make sure that you were on top the material to be taught.*
- *Helped me understand the questions that student could ask and the steps in explaining concepts.*
- *Used the examples and ideas in texts about how to relate the concepts to the students' experience.*
- *Used texts in my own learning and to gauge the level of subject matter to be covered in lessons.*
- *I used school textbooks to brush up on my accounting as I could not remember some rules.*
- *I used the textbooks to situate the artist and see how their work could be incorporated into the curriculum. The text gave examples and case studies and gave me a frame on which to set an assessment task.*

Question 5: Explain how you resource lessons?

This question was designed to elicit the knowledge sources used to develop lesson plans and teaching programs. Most students framed their lesson plans around the schools program for teaching their topic at school. They then used school textbooks and published teaching and learning materials to develop their teaching and learning activities and tasks and lesson structures. The use of the internet plays two roles for the student teachers in this case study:

a. to provide subject matter knowledge that is unable to be located in school texts;
b. to source contemporary source of information as the basis of inquiry style lessons built of on a constructivist approach with multiple knowledge pathways.

Student teachers reported that they used school texts far more than other resources in developing their lessons.

Question 6: Your skills and knowledge of how to use textbooks effectively?

Student responses included a range of negative opinions about the curriculum of teacher education. These included:

- *Learnt few skills about using texts more effectively.*
- *None.*
- *No.*
- *Nothing, none of the teacher education courses taught us anything about how to evaluate and use textbooks better.*

Question 7: Compare your use of IT and ICT education courses with those of textbooks and teaching and learning materials?

The majority of student teachers reported that they completed compulsory courses about both ICT and how to embed ICT into teaching and learning activities. This contrasted strongly with experiences in textbooks and teaching and learning materials. Furthermore, any reported that the ICT instruction and learning experiences in the technology rich environment in university teacher education contrasted significantly to the lack on ICT infrastructure in many schools.

Discussion

There are no references in teacher education reviews and inquiries to issues of teaching and learning materials (apart from ICT). Teaching and learning materials identification, location, procurement, production, printing, publication and access, evaluation, selection and use remain a core teaching activity. Yet there is little note of this critical pedagogic activity in teacher education reviews and their subsequent reforms.

There are few references or competencies developed for teaching and learning materials and textbooks selection and use in the myriad of teaching standards developed in the world wide teaching standards movement for both teacher education students and competent / professional teachers. Usually such references or competencies are incorporated under the general domain of planning, as the following teaching standards from Australia and the UK illustrate.

New South Wales Teacher Standards
3.1.4

Demonstrate knowledge of a range of appropriate and engaging resources and materials to support student learning.

Newly Qualified Teacher Status (UK)

C29 Teach challenging, well organised lessons and sequences of lessons across the agreed ability range they teach in which they:
(a)   use an appropriate range of teaching strategies and resources, including e-learning, which meets learners' needs and take practical account of diversity and promote equality and inclusion.

As well, like ICT and technology, there are few resources that have been developed to assist teachers and trainee teachers to utilise teaching and learning materials and textbooks more effectively (Choppin 2005).

Conclusion

Very few studies have examined the way that teacher education courses conceptualise, develop and provide an orientation to the use of teaching and learning materials (Loewenberg-Ball and Feiman-Nemser 2005; Peacock and Cleghorn 2005). What this study reveals is a series of findings that can be expressed a series of key propositions that define the relationships between teacher education and textbooks. These propositions are set out below.

Key Proposition 1: Teacher Education Discourages the Use of Textbooks

Teacher education programs promote the idea that good teachers do not use published textbooks and teaching and learning resources but have the responsibility to prepare their own.

The Loewenberg-Ball and Feiman-Nemser 2005 study (p.192) highlighted the fact that teacher education program actively discourage the use of textbooks and commercially published teaching and learning resources. Most teacher education programs promote an ideology that views textbooks in the following ways:

- As deficient in matching learners needs and teachers priorities
- As inappropriate as resources in a technological age
- Using textbooks in teaching and learning activities and planning is unprofessional
- Using texts is not a characteristic of 'quality' teaching
- As inferior to student teachers own knowledge of subject matter and teaching and learning activity
- As boring and inappropriate for diverse learners
- 'Good Teachers Don't Follow Textbooks' (Loewenberg-Ball and Feiman-Nemser 2005)

This ideology permeates the operation of teacher education courses, and supports a range of practices that devalue the role of teaching and learning materials. An initial effect of is that teacher education students do not interact with the range of published materials used in schools. Rather than have the opportunity to overview the entire corpus of resources that are produced by the systems that develop textbooks and teaching and learning materials, teacher education students are only introduced haphazardly to a small range, usually promoted by certain staff. As a result there is little opportunity to develop skills in evaluating and selecting textbooks for different audiences and diverse student groups. Also this haphazard approach makes it difficult to provide systematic introduction to adapting and modifying textbooks for groups with divers learning abilities and cultural backgrounds. The result of these processes means new teachers lacking skills in matching their students to appropriate textbooks and teaching and learning materials.

Key Proposition 2: Lack of School Textbooks in Teacher Education Courses Contributes to Perceptions About Teacher Education being Disconnected From Schooling

Student teachers do not use published texts much in their teacher preparation courses, do not learn how to use texts and teaching and learning materials and only confront textbooks in practicum experiences. This situation contributes to the perception that teacher education is disconnected from the real business of schooling and education. This disconnection is a serious problem since teaching is time pressured and new teachers are unable to create their own teaching and learning program and resource their own lesson plans. School texts are a feature of schools because they assist lesson planning. This difference between school practice and teacher education practice is confusing for student teachers and leads to their questioning some aspects of their teacher education courses.

Horsley and Laws (1993) showed that negative attitudes to textbooks in teacher education resulted in student teachers having limited access to published school texts in their teacher education courses and programs. Student teachers are strongly encouraged to prepare original lessons and scheme of work based on the development of new resources. Their interaction with published materials took place outside teacher education classes in the library and did not include a systematic introduction to the resources produced to support learning.

Key Proposition 3: Teacher Education Students Use Textbooks in Schools significantly during Practicum Experiences

In practicum student teachers are confronted by the fact that they lack knowledge, skills and experiences in pedagogy and teaching and learning. This creates significant dilemmas in textbook use in practicum.

Loewenberg-Ball and Feiman–Nemser (2005), Horsley and Laws (1993) and Walker and Horsley (2006) have all noted that between 75% and 85% of student teachers use textbooks to develop units of work and plan lessons. One of Loewenberg-Ball's students expressed the view that "even though I was trained to be critical of textbooks I had no alternative" (p.192). Another remarked that 'teaching and planning all day long … is an overwhelming task' (p.193).

In particular, textbooks and commercially and professionally published teaching and learning material provide 'pedagogical content knowledge (the topics, activities and approaches that experienced teachers have found useful in promoting teaching and learning with students.). As a result student teachers use textbooks and teaching and learning materials to plan lessons, design activities, for reference and find textbooks useful, because they contain not only knowledge but pedagogical content knowledge, approaches that have been used with students before with success. In Australia (and in other countries) it is often not recognised by teacher educators that textbooks are written by practicing teachers, who in many cases have prepared texts based on developing knowledge sources, activities, tasks and case studies for their own students, evaluating these sources and activities with students and classroom practice and developed them further in a textbook. In this way textbooks represent a distilled pedagogic content knowledge of teaching and learning strategies that have been successfully used with some students. Textbooks differ in difficulty in some areas because the teachers who have written them have different student audiences.

Key Proposition 4: Teacher Education Students Use School Textbooks to Learn Requisite Knowledge

Student teachers use textbooks to learn the content they need to teach and its depth and breadth, they use the internet to further research lessons and knowledge that their reading of school texts and teaching and learning materials have scaffolded.

Horsley and Laws (1993) identified that 70% of student teachers and school text to learn subject matter they would be teaching.

Students who were unfamiliar with the curriculum content reported (Horsley and Laws 1993) that they found that textbooks were useful in providing outlines of topics which should be covered. The availability of textbooks in the school helped them overcome problems of lack of access to the appropriate information. A number of students considered that the texts helped them understand the level their pupils would be at. Textbooks provide new teachers and beginning teachers with a guide to the depth and breadth of knowledge required, the concepts involved, the key points that students need to learn and the level at which the lesson needs to be developed to cover the appropriate knowledge. Because textbooks are an interpretation of the curriculum, they act to provide an orientation to the sort of teaching and learning activities that relate to and are congruent with the necessary knowledge. This scaffolding provided by textbooks is important for teacher education students. An overview of all the textbooks developed for a course of study in schools can provide student teachers with valuable scaffolding for alternative ways of interpreting and resourcing a curriculum.

Although subject matter is freely available on the internet, which as revolutionised knowledge access textbooks scaffold, guide and mediate internet use for student teachers.

Key Proposition 5: Resourcing Lessons is a Fundamental Aspect of Teaching

"Beginning teachers must learn to think about the appropriate resource base for teaching and learning, pedagogy and curriculum decisions." In their synthesis of textbooks and teacher education Loewenberg–Ball and Feiman-Nemser (2005) suggest that resourcing lessons is a fundamental aspect of teaching and that student teachers must be aware of the breadth and depth of teaching and learning resources to:

- justify decisions in teaching;
- use textbooks as sources of subject matter and pedagogical knowledge;
- implement curriculum; and
- learn to learn from curriculum materials.

Every professional must understand deeply the resources that support their work. Access to resources also affects the use of resources in classrooms, and the features of resources also affect the use and effectiveness of resources that are used to support teaching and learning. A major part of teaching activity is developing the lesson plans and the teaching program. A significant component of any lesson and program planning is the development of teaching and learning strategies, tasks and activities. All classroom tasks, activities and teaching and learning strategies are based on resources and materials, and are not independent of them. In this way teaching and learning resource selection,

procuring and accessing is a fundamental aspect of teaching that is not reflected in the design of teacher education.

Key Proposition 6: Teacher Education Neglects Textbook Pedagogy

Teacher education neglects the idea of textbook pedagogy. This contributes to perceptions that some teacher education is not based on school realities. The term *textbook pedagogy* was initially used by Lambert (2000) in his discussion of research on the classroom use of textbooks and teaching and learning materials. The term refers (Lambert 2000; Horsley & Walker, 2006) to the ways that teachers use texts in the classroom, how they access and adapt texts, and how they create a context for their use. As such the term refers to the teacher mediated use of textbook, worksheet and learning resource artefacts. The terms have also been used to refer to text features and characteristics that may improve or constrain learning through their impact on teacher use of the text in the classroom.

Teachers mediate the use of textbooks and teaching learning materials they use in their classrooms. This has been investigated in studies by Sikarova (2003) and Sartor (2004); Sikarova (2003) and Sartor (2004) who explored the way that teachers customise, modify and change published textbooks and other associated learning materials to make them more suitable for use in specific learning situations. In Sikarova's study (2003) of the transformation of curriculum materials by teachers of mathematics and the Czech language, it was found that the most popular reason for modifying maths learning materials was to fit in with curriculum requirements, whereas the most popular reason for modifying Czech language learning materials was to make the texts more interesting. After conducting interviews with teachers of maths and the Czech language in primary and lower secondary schools, Sikorova identified the following ways the teachers modified textbook subject matter:

- making the subject matter more comprehensible for students (eg. more examples, other ways of presenting, illustrations)
- making the subject matter better organised, more transparent (eg. networking, mapping)
- making the subject matter more interesting (attractive to students)
- selecting the core subject matter
- simplifying the subject matter, making it easier
- reducing the subject matter
- leaving out complicated matters and tasks
- producing teacher prepared text

The investigation of teachers' modification of texts revealed that pedagogical content knowledge and textbook pedagogy practices were complementary in that teachers used their pedagogical content knowledge to adapt, change, select and procure and then use texts based on the perceived needs of the students in their classrooms. Sartor (2004), in an unpublished study on secondary science teachers resourcing of their teaching, also found that teachers used their pedagogical content knowledge and textbook pedagogy to select, procure and then use teaching and learning resources that matched their approach to teaching, curriculum, assessment and reporting requirements and met the learning needs of their students.

Teacher education does not usually incorporate the professional tools that the commercial and professional market makes available to support teaching and learning. As a result teacher education students do not develop systematic skills in mediating the use of textbooks and in learning to modify them for the students in their classes, so that the learning resources can be made more effective.

Key Proposition 7: Textbooks and Teaching and Learning Materials are Changing

Textbooks have continued to evolve and change and have become more complex. Students in particular find them difficult to use, new teachers even more so. In particular they are now more pedagogical explorations of content. Many teachers long for the days of old knowledge and information based materials. Textbooks are vastly different in development, structure and pedagogy than they were in student teachers schooling. As a result new teaching and resources require significant exploration.

If you really know how to select and use teaching and learning resources do you need textbooks – this is the issue that student teachers are grappling with. As a result they are not learning how to use existing materials properly and have very limited skills in creating zones of proximal development without over planning and preparing all their own teaching and learning materials.

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The Pedagogic Discourse of the Greek School Science Textbooks of Primary and Lower Secondary Level

Vasilis Koulaidis and Kostas Dimopoulos

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to map the pedagogic discourse in Greek school science textbooks of the primary and lower secondary level. School science textbooks are considered to be a means of regulating the pedagogic discourse of each of the educational levels. This approach stems from the view that science education (and education in general) is a socialization process into the practices and conventions (i.e. the discourses) of sub-communities in our case of the scientific community (Lemke, 1990). Within the framework of this view, science textbooks have a central role to play in this socialising process as a resource for shared meaning-making (Lemke, 1990; Bazerman, 1998).

The issue of textbooks in science education literature

The issue of school science textbooks has been a major research topic within the science education research tradition. During the seventies textbooks readability studies were quite popular but interest in them gradually faded. The interest, however, for science textbooks as a research topic has been sustained since a literature search in the ERIC database for studies on the school science textbooks in the period 1985-2005 revealed 258 relevant studies. These studies can be grouped, according to their particular focus, into the following categories: (a) studies which focus on elements of textbooks, such as the content, vocabulary and illustrations used; and (b) those considering the principles that organize the content and the form of presentation by conceiving of textbooks as texts playing a crucial role in the determination of practices and social positions within the pedagogic discourse (Koulaidis and Tsatsaroni, 1996).

This study belongs in the second of the two aforementioned categories, since it aims at addressing both the issue of the relationship between scientific knowledge and school knowledge and the issue of the nature of the pedagogic relationship as well.

Theoretical framework

Our basic hypothesis is that the pedagogic discourse is constructed by the interplay of three basic dimensions, namely *classification* (Bernstein, 1996), *formality* (Halliday and Martin, 1996) and *framing* (Bernstein, 1996).

In particular, 'classification' determines the epistemological relationship between knowledge systems (Bernstein, 1996). In our case, the knowledge systems examined are specialised 'scientific knowledge' and every other form of knowledge lying closer to the 'everyday common-sense' realm like mythology, religion, popular culture, practical knowledge, etc. By definition, strong classification formulates well-defined borderlines, while weak classification results in blurred borderlines between these two types of knowledge (Bernstein, 1996).

'Formality' corresponds to the degree of abstraction, elaboration and specialisation of the expressive codes (i.e. linguistic and visual) employed. Low formality corresponds to codes resembling very much the vernacular or realistic ways of expression that ordinary people use. On the other hand, high formality corresponds to the specialised expressive codes following the conventions that scientific experts use when communicating through them (Halliday and Martin, 1996; Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996).

Classification and formality combined, determine the degree of 'scientificness' of a particular pedagogic discourse. Specifically, the combination of the two values that can be ascribed to classification with the two values that can be ascribed to formality (strong and weak) produces four different potential modalities of the science education pedagogic discourse, namely the *esoteric*, the *metaphorical*, the *public* and the *mythical* (Dowling, 1994 for Mathematics and Koulaidis & Tsatsaroni for natural sciences) (see Fig.1). The degree of 'scientificness' of the pedagogic discourse increases if one moves from the public (non specialized content and codes, e.g. newspapers' science) to the metaphorical (specialized content and non-specialized codes e.g. popular scientific magazines) and from there to the esoteric modality (specialized content and codes e.g. specialized journals). The mythical (specialized codes but non-specialized content e.g. science fiction books) is a theoretically potential modality but it very rarely describes real pedagogical practices. For this reason it will be excluded from further consideration within this paper.

	Strong Classification	Weak Classification
High formality	Esoteric (academic textbooks)	Mythical (science fiction)
Low formality	Metaphorical (primary textbooks)	Public (media texts)

Figure 1. The pedagogic modalities projected in science textbooks and emerging from the combination of the levels of classification and formality.

Finally, in every pedagogic discourse a social interaction between the addresser of subject-matter (teacher or textbook's voice) and students is established. 'Framing' determines which side, the addresser or the students, has the apparent control over the pedagogic interaction (Bernstein, 1996). Strong framing means that the pedagogic control belongs clearly to the addresser while weak framing means that there is some space left to the students to exert their own control over the learning process.

Combining further the dichotomized values of classification, formality and framing, one can produce six modalities in order to describe the corresponding pedagogic practice (the mythical domain has been excluded from further analysis). These six modalities can be seen in a diagrammatic form in Figure 2. For instance the *liberal esoteric* pedagogy corresponds to highly specialized content and codes but weak pedagogic control and it could be projected for example in textbooks used in post-graduate academic studies where the students can be treated as knowledgeable young peers with significant degrees of freedom. The *authoritarian public* pedagogy corresponds to non-specialized content and codes as well as strong pedagogic control, and could be projected in text materials used in a health education program for the general public, where the main objective would be the provision in the form of strict guidelines and using non-technical codes of scientific knowledge that can be easily applied in the context of every day life.

'Scientificness' (classification & formality)		Framing	
		Weak	**Strong**
	High	Esoteric liberal	Esoteric authoritarian
	Moderate	Metaphorical liberal	Metaphorical authoritarian
	Low	Public liberal	Public authoritarian

Figure 2. The pedagogic modalities projected in science textbooks and emerging from the combination of the levels of classification, formality and framing.

In this paper, the two dimensional mapping of the pedagogic modalities shown in Figure 2 will be used to describe the discursive transition of science subjects from primary to lower secondary education, at least as far as this transition is reflected by the use of the linguistic and visual codes employed in the corresponding textbooks of each level.

Methodology

The texts analysed are taken from six science textbooks written in Greek and used in 9,823 Greek primary and secondary schools during 1997-2004. Specifically, these textbooks consist of: a) two General Science textbooks for the two upper grades of primary school (11-12 year olds), b) two Chemistry texts and c) two Physics texts for the three grades of the lower secondary school respectively (13-15 year olds).

In order to implement our analytic plan, the textbooks were divided into units of analysis for both the linguistic and the visual mode. Specifically, in order to analyse the pedagogic modality projected by the linguistic mode, different genres within the textbooks were distinguished. These genres constitute the units of analysis. The genres appearing in the Greek science textbooks are *reports*, *experimental accounts* and *historical accounts*. In this way a total of 1,153 units of analysis of the textbooks' linguistic mode were identified. Of these units 876 (76%) are reports, 205 (17.8%) are experiments and 72 (6.2%) are historical accounts.

On the other hand all the visual images contained in the six science textbooks were analysed. Any visual image in a distinct frame within the textbooks was considered as a single unit of analysis. Following this procedure, a sample of 2,819 visual images was collected.

All the units of analysis for both the linguistic and the visual mode were analysed along the three theoretical dimensions of classification, formality and framing. The analysis was based on the use of two distinct grids of analysis, one for the linguistic and one for the visual mode, that consist of variables that become operational applying specific socio-linguistic and socio-semiotic approaches. Specifically, the basic underlying idea of the two grids is that certain lexico-grammatical and semiotic elements of the linguistic and visual mode respectively, modulate accordingly the levels of classification, formality and framing. For example while formality in the case of the linguistic mode was evaluated in terms of the density of: a) scientific notation (terms, symbols and equations), b) nominal groups, c) verbs in passive voice and d) sentences in hypotactic syntax, the same notion in the case of the visual mode is evaluated on the basis of the degree an image is characterized by: a) elements like geometrical shapes and alphanumeric strings, b) colour differentiation, c) colour modulation and d) background differentiation. The two grids have been extensively

presented in other publications of the authors (Koulaidis, Dimopoulos and Sklaveniti, 2003; Dimopoulos, Koulaidis and Sklaveniti, 2005).

Results

The results of the textbooks analysis in terms of the pedagogic modalities promoted by their linguistic and visual expressive modes respectively are presented below.

The linguistic mode
The analysis of the school science textbooks of both levels showed that the vast majority of their linguistic units belong to the metaphoric modality (strong classification and low formality). Specifically, as shown in Table 1, the discursive transition that seems to occur through the linguistic mode of the textbooks is that of a very gradual introduction of students to the specialized content and codes of scientific knowledge as the latter proceed from primary to lower secondary school. This transition, however, does not seem to be completed at the lower secondary level as the textbooks still employ a linguistic mode that mainly projects a metaphoric modality.

Pedagogic modality	Primary textbooks		Lower secondary level	
	N	%	N	%
Esoteric	14	7.7	173	17.8
Metaphoric	141	77.9	699	71.9
Public	26	14.4	100	10.3
Total	181	100	972	100

Table 1. The pedagogic modality (in terms of classification and formality) promoted by the linguistic mode of the school science textbooks of primary and lower secondary level.

As far as the level of framing projected by the linguistic mode is concerned, it was found that the primary textbooks are characterized by much stronger framing than the textbooks of the lower secondary level (see Table 2). Thus, the science textbooks of primary level construct a social identity of students, according to which the latter are put in a subordinate social position and are highly directed towards the acquisition of the relevant subject-matter. On the contrary, the science textbooks of lower secondary level construct a social identity of students according to which these are highly autonomous learners who can access the relevant subject matter in their own ways.

Level of framing	Primary textbooks		Lower secondary level	
	N	%	N	%
Strong	87	48.1	26	2.7
Weak	94	51.9	946	97.3
Total	181	100	972	100

Table 2. The level of framing promoted by the linguistic mode of the school science textbooks of primary and lower secondary level.

The pedagogical message emerging from the data shown in Tables 1 and 2 is that, as students become gradually more experienced in science (by being introduced to texts characterized by stronger classification and formality), they are increasingly allowed to experience more autonomous ways of negotiating the terms of their participation in the learning process (weaker framing).

The visual mode

The analysis of the visual images showed that the majority of them in the primary textbooks correspond to the public modality while those in the textbooks of the lower secondary school correspond to the metaphoric modality (see Table 3).

Pedagogic modality	Primary textbooks		Lower secondary level	
	N	%	N	%
Esoteric	49	3.3	92	6.9
Metaphoric	516	34.6	742	55.7
Public	922	62.0	498	37.4
Total	1487	100	1332	100

Table 3. The pedagogic modality (in terms of classification and formality) promoted by the visual mode of the school science textbooks of primary and lower secondary level.

The results imply that the visual mode tends to play a similar role with the linguistic mode since both seem to function so as to gradually introduce students, as they move from primary to secondary school, into the more specialized discourses of scientific knowledge.

It is characteristic that, especially in the primary school, the visual mode is employed not so much to promote the conceptual understanding of the scientific content as to attribute a pre-eminent value to real world elements, the salience of which seems to be exploited as an (experiential) anchor to the introduction of students to the reified and highly abstract world of science (Dimopoulos, Koulaidis and Sklaveniti, 2003). With regard to the level of framing promoted by the visual mode, it was found that the school science textbooks of both primary and lower secondary level promote a kind of social-pedagogic relationship characterized by weak framing (Table 4), thus tending

to empower their readers so as to maintain their own control in the communication-pedagogic process.

Level of framing	Primary textbooks		Lower secondary level	
	N	%	N	%
Strong	303	21.8	174	15.6
Weak	1085	78.2	943	84.4
Total[*]	1388	100	1117	100
* These totals correspond to realistic representations only				

Table 4. The level of framing promoted by the visual mode of the school science textbooks of primary and lower secondary level.

Discussion

The results from the analysis of both the linguistic and the visual modes employed in the science textbooks of both levels, show that the discursive transition that emerges is from the metaphoric-authoritarian towards the metaphoric-esoteric or metaphoric-liberal modality. In other words the main pedagogic transitions that occur as the educational level rises are primarily the weakening of the pedagogic control and, secondarily an increase in the formality of the linguistic code employed (gradual move towards the esoteric modality). The latter is still moderate and remains uncompleted even in the textbooks of the last class of the lower secondary school (age level 15-16 years old).

The pedagogic message projected is that, as science students progress through the specialised knowledge domain, they become more capable of processing the textbooks' message in more individualistic and autonomous ways. In other words, the lower secondary textbooks treat students as independent learners that have control over how they learn and so they do not feel intimidated by the pace and the ways the textbooks deliver the relevant subject matter.

The trend imposed by the science textbooks of a gradual move towards more specialised forms of scientific knowledge (both content and codes specialised) with a parallel increase in the students' autonomy in determining how to access the relevant text material is in distinct opposition to the widely held pedagogic position, very often translated into teaching practice, which favours more guidance and fewer opportunities for initiative on the part of the learners, as the school subjects become more academic and content-specialised (Cazden, 1988; Rodrigues and Bell, 1995). This conflict could potentially explain the effects of disorientation and lack of ability to focus on the important pieces of information, experienced by many students at this level (and especially the less competent), while trying to make meaning out of the relevant textbooks (Yore, Craig and Maguire, 1998).

Furthermore, the comparison between the pedagogic modalities displayed by the linguistic and the visual mode of the science textbooks respectively, reveals that the visual mode tends to lower both the classification and the formality of the relevant texts. In this way, however, by not being exposed to the conventions of the techno-scientific images, students may be excluded from 'seeing' and 'processing' reality in a similar way to the experts (Lynch, 1985; Trumbo, 1999). On the other hand the visual mode tends to relate more to the public modality and hence it becomes the main vehicle for relating the every-day experiences of students to the scientific knowledge.

In closing this paper, it should be pointed out that the framework presented here allows the development of a common theoretical language to describe the pedagogic modalities projected by school science textbooks as well as by many other learning materials employed in science education. This theoretical language could enable both the authors of science textbooks and the teachers that use them to become much more responsive to their pedagogic implications.

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Comparing Layout and Content in Paper and Electronic Versions of a Geography Textbook

Nadine Lucas

Introduction

In textbooks, text and images are used to convey meaning. In what way does editing a paper textbook differ from editing an e-book? Reading on a screen is different from reading a folio, and authors and editors alike reflect on changes brought by new technologies (Horsley *et al.* 2005, Bruillard 2007).

In geography textbooks, maps are of primary importance (Davey *et al.* 1995, Edsall & Wentz 2007). Readability depends on careful editorial layout of pages and on authorial clear hints on whether to refer to text or to maps. An example of an educational geography book on the Caribbean space, available both in paper print and electronic version will be discussed (Bégot *et al.* 2002, AREC). The two versions are not structured in the same way. To explain how and why information disposition is modified in the e-book as compared to the paper version, we propose there is an altogether different strategy in the organization of the reading space, reflecting spatial and temporal characteristics of the learning setting.

Research background and theoretical frame

The present study follows a two-fold linguistic research on geography texts and on textbooks. The first part of the study was collective and I worked with geographers, computational scientists and linguists. The objective was to assess the role of illustration in discourse, specifically to distinguish the importance of visual constructs in comprehension of content (Mayer & Gallini 1990). Since maps are not ordinary illustration, I proceeded with geographers at a later stage to understand what they mean by "map discourse". The geography corpus includes books, atlases, academic articles, booklets for the general public and textbooks. During this survey, many authors and editors stressed the importance of layout as related to map readability and understanding of the overall discourse. One of them expressed concern on medium,

being in the process of "translating" a paper textbook *Emergences Caraïbes* into an e-book *Atlas Caraïbe*. This was the starting point of the present paper.

To summarize my findings on geography texts at large, maps are the dominant illustration but they are more than that. Maps are used as a graphical meta-language to convey meaning: they should be read, understood, decoded. The main difference between research setting and didactical setting lies in strict convergence between maps discourse and text discourse in didactical material.

Textbooks, on the other hand, have been studied as didactical texts in different languages (Lucas 2006). They are considered as establishing relationships following Jakobson's theory (Jakobson 1971 1988). In any written text, the text itself is the link between writer and reader. However, this relation has many facets to it. In a simplified overview, the utterance realm is related to content in the information world (be it fiction or science). The enunciation realm is related to the writer-reader world. Similar concerns have been echoed in pedagogy.

In textbooks, however, content is of major importance and the relations sketched above are more complex because the teacher plays an important role as mediator. The relation between content and learner is stressed. The relationship between the textbook's author and reader is weakened. Linguistic hints, such as imperative that suggest interpersonal relations, are sometimes found in exercises, but exercises are related to the knowledge world more clearly than to the textbook's author. Relationships between text and illustration, on the other hand, do not only relate informational content, they also appeal to the reader's world. Accordingly this double relationship is a main didactical concern (Peacock & Cleghorn 2004).

In geography textbooks, maps are supporting most lessons. Ability to comment a map and to draw a map with an appropriate legend is part of the objective of learning. This is stressed in the French educational guidelines (Joly & Reineri 1999). Accordingly, maps are foreground information, expressed in the Jakobsonian theoretical frame of foreground and background information. To simplify, this means that a map is to be read before the text next to it. Usually the text is simply commenting maps, with definite anaphorical expressions referring to visual information, e.g. *the shoreline*, *the Eastern part, the most populated regions,* etc. Text provides background information; moreover it is referentially subordinated to map reading.

However, not all maps are of equal importance, and explanations found in the text should be used to assess their role in discourse. One linguistic hint on status is the use of injunctive (e.g. *see map*) or other reference shifters (*as shown on the map*, in French with active voice *the map shows*) in the text. Shifters are associated with secondary information, either details in a map or subordinated maps detailing some aspects of a main map. Zigzag between text and didactical illustration is a basic principle described by teachers and psychologists. A program to foster reading has been built on this principle (Reiwein & St-Jacques 2006).

Text structure is thus marked by absence of reference shifters, by default allowing a reader to rely primarily on map(s), presence of reference shifters allowing to rely primarily on text or alternatively on map and text to grasp the overall discourse.

Observations on the paper book

In the French geography educational guidelines, maps are considered as very important. College students are expected to summarize the information in a map by a graphical output, a sketch of the main contrasts, relations and groupings, with a detailed legend (Thémines 2006).

The paper textbook *Emergences Caraïbes* is directed towards elder college students (5th grade in secondary education). It is sold separately from pedagogical material *La Caraïbe* providing supplementary text (with photographs and drawings) as well as exercises and pedagogical examples.

The textbook is carefully designed, with maps in beautiful colors. Its unusual Italian format favors left to right reading for each lesson, with the map stretching on double page space.

Figure 1. Central map in paper book with text left and right (in chapter)

The book structure is that of an expository text, with an introduction markedly different from the following four chapters. Background color is used in the first chapter for maps and text alike. Maps are on top of double page space. The introduction explains main facts first, and then develops the way they can be expressed through diagrams or sketches.

In the following chapters, page color is white and maps are inserted in the middle of double page space. Each chapter is introduced by a focus on a character, to catch the reader's attention. Real people having had influence in naval history, politics and economics illustrate the first chapters. Photographs show these great men of the past. A fiction female character illustrates the future of the region, with a drawing.

Each chapter provides an overall view (with sketches) as header; the chapter body is evenly divided into sections dealing with a topic fitting on a double-page. Since the map is foreground information in sections, there is no reference to it in the text. Progression in time and comments by the teacher are taken for granted. The book therefore follows a kind of dramatic progression familiar with the French (or Roman) rhetoric. Non-controversial information is presented as historical evidence, or plain facts such as population figures backed by authority organisations. Such hard facts constitute the thesis of the textbook discourse. They precede the controversial topics, such as money laundering, tax paradises and illegal activities at large. The dark side of the picture is introduced as the antithesis, on a short span of text in chapter 3, according to familiar literary schemes, such as climax in a play. The last chapter opens new perspectives on the future of the region, leaning on the bright side.

Progression in curriculum is accompanied by increasing difficulty in map reading, with more information, more complex symbols, and more important legends as the book progresses. Likewise, static information in chapters precedes dynamic information (e.g. migration flows) and this pattern is reproduced inside chapters.

Observations on the electronic book

The e-book *Atlas Caraïbe* includes pedagogical material from *La Caraïbe.* As an e-book offers opportunity for updating and expansion, it provides additional topics, such as environment, as compared to the paper version. English and Spanish translations are also on the way.

The site provides a topological map accessed from the home page. Looking at the table of contents, accessed from the home page, the e-book is organized in chapters and later in sections, each corresponding to a page and a lesson. Each lesson has more autonomy than in the paper version. The literary disposition of the paper book is abandoned, and so are the illustrious characters "boxes". This e-book does not provide interactive maps, unlike other e-learning material on geography, allowing for example to hide names on maps for rehearsing, or to pile information from a map upon the next, alternatively unpile information in a map to see an aspect more clearly, or allowing zooms.

Figure 2. Summary map in e-book

Another characteristic of this e-book is its closed structure. There are relatively few links and none to external sites. Navigation is carefully designed so as to indicate which

pages the reader has visited and which topics are related with the current lesson. Pages are organized along the top to bottom axis, in accordance with common practice in screen reading. The most common layout of pages shows the map first, while text is accessed through scrolling. Text is longer than in the paper version, with different viewpoints to foster critical thinking. A summary map (or summary text) with a sketch is placed at the end of the lesson. The typical organization of a lesson (page) is then:

Map followed by text subdivided in Facts, Interpretations (pros & cons) and followed by Summary map / text.

Some lessons are organized with a central map, to signal change of scale and focus, for example when zooming on a particular island to illustrate tourism impact.

Comments

Editors stressed differences in content because of the change of setting. The reason was that students could access the e-book on their own, out of class, without guidance from the teacher. This is why they tried to keep this e-book in a tight frame, not allowing web surfing. Another concern was the e-book could be used by younger pupils.

Editors also considered that the temporal dimension was lost in the electronic version, because the physical medium is lost, and progression in curriculum is no longer guaranteed. That is why the "climax" section showing illegal activities in the paper version was entirely re-designed with new maps and new text. It was justified on the ground guidance from the teacher is important on sensible topics such as drug trade and other illicit economic activities. Content change in the page dealing with illegal traffic results in simplification as compared to the paper version. Less information on facts is given, the map is simpler (and so is the legend) but more information on how and why illegal trading occurs is provided. The hope to foster critical thinking by the students relies on verbal explanation.

Discussion

Editors favoured textbooks with a clear layout and without compact tracts of text. However, this was hampered in the electronic version, for the sake of giving sufficient autonomy to each page. The trade-off between readability and self-contained

explanation results in lengthier text, separated in blocks by coloured lines. The e-book version stresses topical lexical content through keywords. It has much less cultural flavour than the paper version.

This study exemplifies tension between the traditional editing process and the new opportunities offered by web communication. Technical constraints explain some choices in the e-book edition but the influence of a latent model of web-based text as being dependent on indexation by words is also pervasive. Text appears to override maps in the electronic version of the book, whereas careful balance of text and maps in the paper edition seemed to better achieve the pedagogical goal of fostering pleasure and interest in map reading.

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Ninth International Conference on Textbooks and Educational Media

Peace, Democratization and Reconciliation in Textbooks and Educational Media

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Textbooks and educational media play a critical role in supporting learning and promoting high quality teaching. This conference volume from the ninth IARTEM international conference provides a wide overview of current research questions, methodologies and results. IARTEM's biennial international conferences offer a significant opportunity to exchange points of view from different perspectives and different countries, keeping in mind that education reflects many cultural and contextual features. We hope this volume, taking into account the diversity and the quality of the different contributions, constitutes a major source book for research on textbook and educational media.