International Editorial and Advisory Board

Ahmet Ecirli, PhD - Institute of Sociology, Bucharest, Romania
Felice Corona, PhD - University of Salerno, Italy
Sindorela Doli-Kryeziu - University of Gjakova "Fehmi Agani", Kosovo
Nicos Rodosthenous, PhD - Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece
Irene Salmaso, PhD - University of Florence, Italy
Sassi Boudemagh Souad, PhD - Université Constantine 3 Salah Boubnider, Algérie
M. Edward Kenneth Lebaka, PhD - University of South Africa (UNISA)
Javier Cachón Zagalaz, PhD - Universidad de Jaén, Spain
Warda Sada Gerges, PhD - Kaye College of Education, Israel
Enkhtuya Dandar - University of Science and Technology, Mongolia
Sri Nuryanti, PhD - Indonesian Institute of Sciences, Indonesia
Basira Azizaliyeva, PhD - National Academy of Sciences, Azerbaijan
Neriman Kara - Signature Executive Academy UK
Thanapauge Chamaratana, PhD - Khon Kaen University, Thailand
Irina Golitsyna, PhD - Kazan (Volga) Federal University, Russia
Michelle Nave Valadão, PhD - Federal University of Viçosa, Brazil
José Jesús Alvarado Cabral, PhD - Centro de Actualización del Magisterio, Durango, México
Jean d'Amour - Åbo Akademi University, Finland
Ornela Bilali, PhD - “Aleksander Xhuvani” University, Albania
Jesus Francisco Gutierrez Ocampo, PhD - Tecnologico Nacional de Mexico
Célia Taborda Silva, PhD - Universidade Lusófona do Porto, Portugal
Agnieszka Huterska, PhD - Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń
Rudite Koka, PhD - Rīgas Stradiņa universitāte, Latvia
Khaled Salah, PhD - Faculty of Education - Alexandria University, Egypt
Panduranga Charanbailu Bhatta, PhD - Samanvaya Academy for Excellence, India
Kristinka Ovesni, PhD - University of Belgrade, Serbia
Mihail Cocosila, PhD - Athabasca University, Canada
Amel Alić, PhD - University of Zenica, Bosnia and Herzegovina
Victoria Safonova, PhD - Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia
Nadia Jaber - Palestinian Ministry of Education & Higher Education
Miriam Aparicio, PhD - National Scientific and Technical Research Council - Argentina
Vania Ivanova, PhD - University of National and World Economy, Bulgaria
Kjell O. Lejon, PhD - University of Linköping, Sweden
Charalampos Kyriakidis - National Technical University of Athens, Greece
Wan Kamal Mujani, PhD - The National University of Malaysia
Maria Irma Botero Ospina, PhD - Universidad Militar Nueva Granada, Colombia
Mohd Aderi Che Noh, PhD - National University of Malaysia
Driss Harizi, PhD - Hassan University of Settat, Morocco
Suroso, PhD - FBS UNY Indonesia
Frederico Figueiredo, PhD - Centro Universitário Una, Belo Horizonte, Brazil
Ana Paula Marques, PhD - University of Minho, Portugal
Smaragda Papadopoulou, PhD - Universityof Ioannina - Greece
Iryna Didenko, PhD - Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine
Syed Zafar Abbas, PhD - Aliz Educational Institutions, Pakistan
Carlene Cornish, PhD - University of Essex, UK
Mohammed Mahdi Saleh, PhD - University of Jordan
Andrei Novac, MD - University of California Irvine, USA
Ngo Minh Hien, PhD - The University of Da Nang- University of Science and Education, Vietnam
Helena Neves Almeida, PhD - University of Coimbra, Portugal
Mihaela Voinea, PhD - Transilvania University of Brasov, Romania
Kawpong Polyorat, PhD - Khon Kaen University, Thailand
Vereno Brugiatelli, PhD - University of Verona, Italy
Ezzadin N. M. Amin Baban, PhD - University of Sulaimani, Sulaimaniya, Iraq
Dominika Pazder, PhD - Poznań University of Technology, Poland
Tonia De Giuseppe, PhD - University of Salerno, Italy

Copyright© 2014-2018 EUSER-European Center for Science Education and Research
info@euser.org
TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES SPORT IN THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL EQUALITY AND INTEGRATION ............7
   RUI LACERDA-MAGALHÃES
   HELENA NEVES ALMEIDA

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EGYPTIAN TECHNICAL SECONDARY EDUCATION CONSIDERING SOME CONTEMPORARY GLOBAL TRENDS: AN ANALYTICAL STUDY ...............................................................23
   KHALED SALAH HANAFY MAHMOUD

THE EMANCIPATED STUDENT: RETHINKING KNOWLEDGE, EQUALITY AND DEMOCRACY ....................32
   SIAVASH BAKHTIAR

INVESTIGATING GREEK EFL COORDINATORS’ INVOLVEMENT IN ONLINE ELTEACHERS COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE AS A MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ..............................................................41
   KATERINA KOURKOULI

POLARITIES OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF PARENTS AND KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS ......................................................................................................................56
   JANÁ MAJEŘÍKOVÁ
   HANA NAVRÁTILOVÁ

SUPPORT TEACHER AS KEY FACTOR OF INTEGRATION CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS IN MAINSTREAM SCHOOL ........................................................................................................62
   MIHAELA VOINEA
   IOANA ROXANA TOPALĂ

DRAMA IN EDUCATION REACHING BEYOND THE “ART FORM OR TEACHING TOOL” DICHTOMY ..........70
   IRINA LEŠNIK

ETHNIC AND LANGUAGE IDENTITIES AMONG FINLAND-SWEDISH YOUNG PEOPLE ................................77
   JEAN D’AMOUR BANYANGA
   LILLEMOR ÖSTMAN
   JACOB KURKIALA
   PIA NYMAN-KURKIALA

COMPLETE PLACES VISIONING - COLLABORATIVE AND PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN URBAN PLANNING: EXAMPLE OF THE FACULTY OF ARCHITECTURE POZNAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN POLAND ..........84
   BARTOSZ KAŻMIERCZAK, PhD
   DOMINIKA PAZDER, PhD

PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS AND IMPORTANCE OF THE SOCIAL ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY STUDENT IN EXPLAINING STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN STUDENT ORGANIZATION ........................................................................91
   MARIJANA MARKOVKIJ
   ELEONORA SERAFIMOVSKA

SIMILARITIES IN THE SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE OF THE GERMAN AND CROATIAN LANGUAGE ............105
   MANUELA SVOBODA

EDMODO AS AN ASSESSMENT TOOL IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS ..........................117
FLAVIA KABA
RESILIENCY AND COOPERATION OR REGARDING SOCIAL AND COLLECTIVE COMPETENCIES FOR UNIVERSITY ACHIEVEMENT. AN ANALYSIS FROM A SYSTEMIC PERSPECTIVE ......................................................... 123

MIRIAM APARICIO
ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN OF BIG DATA AND ANALYTICS TEAMS ................................................................. 136

LENNART HAMMERSTRÖM
CITY BRANDING AND THE TOURIST GAZE: CITY BRANDING FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT .............................. 154

SONIA JOJIC
PIANO PERFORMANCE TECHNICAL ANALYSIS OF THE PEOPLE UNITED WILL NEVER BE DEFEATED BY RZEWSKİ ........................................................................................................... 164

LIANG DENG
MOTIVE FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE AND STUDENTS ACTIVISM AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL .............................................. 175

ELEONORA SERAFIMOVSKA
MARIJANA MARKOVJK
THE INS AND OUTS OF TEAMWORKING: WHEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS, IN-SERVICE SECONDARY TEACHERS AND PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS COLLABORATE TO TRANSFORM LEARNING .................................................. 188

DOLORS MASATS
PAULA GUERRERO
The Role of Universities Sport in the Promotion of Social Equality and Integration

Rui Lacerda-Magalhães
MSc. Master in Social Intervention, Innovation and Entrepreneurship
(Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences and Faculty of Economy), University of Coimbra

Helena Neves Almeida
PhD, Professor and Researcher,
Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences, University of Coimbra

Abstract
This paper understands Sports as a holistic phenomenon with a fundamental role in the promotion and maintenance of well-being as an historical and social practice, connected with the construction of the world and its significances. Universities Sports plays a fundamental role in the Higher Education Institution’s governance, as well as in the life of the students who attend them and the academic community. The role of Universities Sports is analysed according to the promotion of Social Equality and Integration, in the dimensions of Social Status perception, Respect, Mutual Consideration, Concern about the Similar One, as well as in the Notions of Community, Fraternity and Solidarity. Reflexions are established upon Gender Equality, Respect for Sexual Orientation, Ethnic Diversity, Violence and Access to Goods and Opportunities. Assuming a constructivist ontological understanding and an interpretative epistemological reasoning, this investigation presents a Transnational Multiple Case-Study, comparing Universities Sport organization in Portugal and in Italy, using Mixed Methods. The main outcome establishes a close relationship between Universities Sport and the Goals of the Southern European Social States, indicating a dialog between these and the production of a welfare society. The role of Sport as a catalyst for social change is also explored, as it diverts the focus from the individual to the community level, promoting the accountability and the training of the subject for a responsible and constructive social intervention in the public and private spheres.

Keywords: Universities Sport, Social Integration, Social Equality, Social Problems, Sports Management.

Introduction
Sport appears as an uninterested and spontaneous phenomenon. From the French deport, indicating “free time” or “after work” the ethimology indicates it very clearly. Despite this, the notion of sport as an event for the masses only appears in the literature after the XIX century due to its previous use as an aristocratic and exclusive activity. Sport for the masses come with the industrial revolution and the institutionalisation, in 1986, of the Modern Olympic Games (Pires, 2005). The rise of sport to the status of biggest human phenomenon during the XX century, commands the attention of the Governmental structures around the world when it comes to its sports policies and the way they shape and influence and reinforce the political action.

Modern games mirror an idealistic idea of society as it focuses on the alienating sporting feats to convey the charm of a fair an equal world, tackling the implicit supremacy of one country over the other (Guimar, 2003). Sport was described as phenomenon conveying the “essence of life”, “beauty”, “justice”, “audacity”, “honour”, “joy”, “progress” and “peace” by Pierre Coubertin under the pseudonym of Georges Hohrob and M. Eschbach (Sérgio, 1991; Esteves, 1999). Sport was used to promote the union of different people and countries, and generated social discussions that predicted world problems, such as Human Rights in 1933 with the Berlin Games, 1934 with the regime of Mussolini and the World Football Cup, 1968 with the Black Power movement in the City of Mexico Olympiads. As a tool for the social state, sport may constitute a fundamental piece for the assessment of conditions of living, democratisation and participation, given the correct instrumentalization (Heinemann, 2005). In Portugal, the geographical distribution of the 1st league football clubs in the
territory is a good predictor of the degree to which the local economy is developed. Also, the international players transfer market can reinforce the trust between two nations (Mezzadri, Moraes e Silva, Figueroa, & Starepravo, 2015).

These acceptances make the sporting phenomenon very much politically active. The idea of a sovereign state is based upon the Vestephalian idea of mutual acknowledgement of the state's autonomy, mutual respect for borders and the principal of autonomy (Olsen & March, 2001). Sport has been used to fulfil many goals. Does it have responsibility in what comes to the stability of the social fabric? Is sport a political tool?

Three Worlds of the Welfare State have been described by Esping-Andersen (1990) as either Liberal, Social-Democrat and Conservative. But the literature also suggests the existence of the Southern Welfare regimes, were a cluster made out of Portugal, Italy, Spain and Greece compose a typology that derives from the typical Conservative regime (i, 1992; Petmesidou, 1996, Ferrera, 1996) and is characterised by unstable salary levels, low degree of state penetration in social protection, familism as a primary form of care, clientelist ways of accessing the mechanisms of wealth distribution and a combination of public and private institutions on the protection of the population (Karamessini, 2008).

Six moral values are referenced for what Social States, regardless of the formulation, have been traditionally supporting: Poverty reduction, Promotion of Economic Efficiency, Social Equality, Social Integration, Social Stability and Autonomy (Goodin, Headey, Muffels & Dirven, 1999), thus being the areas of intervention that legitimate the State (Habermas, 1973).

Couldn’t Sport be a social actor in these areas? According to the Eurobarometer of the European Union in 2004, “Citizens of the European Union and Sport”, 73% of the population believes sport to be important for the integration of immigrants. Furthermore, 64% of the population thinks it is a way to promote social equality and reduce discrimination. These positions are reinforced and recognised in the White Book of Sport (2007) by the European Commission. In Portugal this is reflected in 25000 sporting entities representing 1.2% of the Gross Value Added in the country, and 1.4% of the Portuguese jobs according to the Satellite Account for Sports in the years 2010-2012 (CASES, 2010). Furthermore, it reflects 48,4% of the activity of 3rd Sector entities, as shown in the Satellite Account for Social Economy (2010). This reveals the intricacies of the relationship between sport and welfare (INE, 2016; Special Eurobarometer 213, 2004).

The European Union specifically recognises the value of the social function of Sport, having indicated its importance in education, health, voluntary work and active citizenship, having been infused with the capacity for the promotion of social inclusion, integration and equality (COM, 2007). According to the European Sports Charter (1992), the Council of Europe defines Sports as “every form of physical activity that, through occasional or organised participation, aims at expressing or improve the physical conditioning and the mental wellbeing, constituting social relations or granting results in competitions of every level”, containing therefore, social, economic and political responsibilities that opens itself to discriminate and deliberate use. It is an activity were individuals fight for supremacy, an advantage or an opportunity. Sport will be, throughout this article, understood from the perspective of the social structures, representing the struggle for power and status, the conflict of man against man in the complex stratification of individuals in all their difficulties and inequalities (Esteves, 1999).

The present work will dissect the social dimensions of sport from the theoretical framework of the functions of the social state, looking at the European Legislation and analysing how and with which prevalence sport is used to promote Social Equality and Integration in Portugal and Italy. Though mixed methods, a qualitative based research was prosecuted through the application of Semi-Structured Interviews and Focus Groups on two study cases: The Academic Association of Coimbra and the University Sports Centre in Reggio Calabria. Quantitative data was obtained through questionnaires on 106 Student-Athletes from over 30 cities in both countries, constituting a Trans-National study case (Bryman, 2015). A relation between University Sports and the promotion of Integration and Social Equality will be analysed, searching for a correspondence between this phenomenon and the social goals of the State as expressed by Esping-Andersen (1999).

1. Conceptual and Practical Delimitation of University Sports

There is a multiplicity of sporting expressions in existence. One can certainly argue that some are more influent that others in the social order, making it hard to focus on one limited slice of the phenomenon. Sport can be promoted through Associations, Clubs, Companies, Foundations and other organisations, but it has been imbedded in the Higher Education Institutions. It grew in between the XIII and XVIII centuries in the first universities in the world in Britain, Spain and Italy but only as spontaneous expressions of the concentration of people (Renson, 1999; Pires, 2005; Parente, 2011). With a more anthropocentric view of the world with the advent of Illuminism, Sport was institutionalised in the XIX century in Britain, during the period of the creation of the Modern Olympics, appearing in Portugal in the Academic Association of Coimbra.
(Andrade, 2008). The third period of the history in University Sports came with the first National Federations with the first ones appearing in 1905 in the USA, and 1907 in Hungary. The XX century marked the appearance of the Fédération Internaciona du Sport Université (FISU) created by Paul Schleimer in Luxemburg to unite the Eastern and Western European countries that were competing separately. In 1959 the University Sports Centre in Italy organises the 1st edition of the Summer Universties in Turin (FISU, 2018). An emphasis was put upon the union between the peoples of the earth and political neutrality. Similarly, the European Universities Sports Association (EUSA) is the continental structure that promotes Universities Sports in Europe, and it was created in 1999 and had the first European Championships done in 2001 in Serbia&Montenegro and Portugal. The first EUSA Games were first organised in Cordoba, Spain, in 2012, and under the new name of “European Universities Games” were last organised in Coimbra, Portugal, in 2018.

2. Sport, the Social State, Equality and Integration

Sport constitutes itself as a total social fact under the perspectives of the social structures (Mauss, 1966), and it is often associated with problems such as misogyny, classism, job creation, instrumentalization, racism, economicism and politics (Santos, 2000). It is imperative to demonstrate the umbilical relation between its functions and the functions of the Social State, taking it into consideration as a complex and multifactorial reality.

The concept of Social Exclusion was developed in 1974 by Renè Lenoir, a former French Secretary of State for Social Action in 1974 in its work, Les Exclus, as a complex concept founded in Socio-economic problems which expresses itself as a continuous process of contraction and rupture of social bonds (Castel, 1997; Costa, 1998; Paugam, 2009; Alvino-Borba & Mata-Lima, 2011). Based upon a comparative review of the definitions of Social Inclusion, the present investigation will understand it as a multidimensional process to promote cultural, social, political and economic participation, through the intervention in the various segments of vulnerable population by the identification of manifestations of dissatisfaction in the their discourses and social actions, applying administrative and practical measures to invest both financial and time resources in an active and efficient way, allowing for a cohesive and dignifying opportunity to access social well-being (Hunter, 2000; Lesbaupin, 2000; Sen, 2000; COM, 2003; Kowarick, 2003; Proença, 2005; Laclau, 2006; World Bank, 2013).

In another hand, Social Equality has been contrasting with the idea of egalitarianism, meaning it is not an equalization of some king of currency of justice, but the creation of a society that regards everyone as equal to themselves (Fourie, Schuppert and Wallimann-Helmer, 2015). Asymmetric social relations regarding oppression, exclusion and hierarchy are some of the barriers to the achievement of these goals (Sen, 2000).

These aspects do not exist independently of each other, but they are mutually reinforced. In a society with low levels of access to education there will probably be more social injustice (Wixey, Jones, Titheridge and Christodoulou, 2005). Also, social exclusion is reinforced by unemployment, precarious job contracts, poverty and lack of access to goods and services. Cultural factors such as violence, social injustice and educational gaps are some of precursors of exclusion and inequalities (Alvino-Borba & Mata-Lima, 2011). Tackling these problems depends on the capacity to articulate international, national and local structures. No Universally applied action will solve these problems, and this becomes evident when realities across the globe are analysed (United Nations Economic & Social Affairs, 2016).

3. The Paradox in Sport

The values adjacent to the creation of the modern Olympic movement correspond to the values of modern democracies in humanism, justice, equality, integration and laicism (Guimar, 2003), but Sport is also an event seeking the supremacy and optimization of the individual, feeding upon the overlaying of the weakest one by the strongest individual. In trying to level the playing field, is sport segregating or uniting everyone under the same rules? Where are boundaries drawn? Physical performance may be seen as an excuse to bring everyone together according to humanist principles, every individual regardless of the nation, creed, ethnicity and sexual orientation. Sport tries hard to treat equally what’s equal, and unequally the unequal ones, on the exact measure of their differences (Junior, 1999). How can we keep sport as a tool for world peace and prosperity being that humanity not always follows through with its goals (Gasparini & Talleu, 2010)?

4. Methodology

4.1. Research Question, Problem and Goals

The present study assumes sport as the interrelation space between different expressions of today’s societies in their different expressions, either in the top levels of organisation, government and legislation, and in the base level with the
athletes, coaches and technical teams. Sport is an historically and socially ingrained practice, deeply rooted in the construction of the perceived world and its significances, allowing Humankind to live and create representations of that life. Sport coins a vision and an articulation of the individual respecting the things that surround him (Merleau-Ponty, 1999).

Given the responsibility that sport has been assuming in the European Societies, in particular in the Portuguese and Italian ones, either in the characteristics of their Social States (Goodin, Headey, Muffels & Dirven, 1999), historic connections with military dictatorship (Esteves, 1999) and the formulation of the higher education institutions, we are in the presence of two example cases (Bryman, 2015), fit for analysis and juxtaposition. Therefore, the research question is as follows:

What's the role of Universities Sport in the promotion of Social Equality and Social Integration in Portugal and in Italy?

This comprehensive problem (Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 2000), seeks to understand reality from the perspective of those who actually live it, emphasizing the construction of significances in the world. From a constructivist ontological base, following an interpretativist epistemological base (Khun, 1970; Morgan, 2007) Mixed Method will be applied in order to establish a dialectic between the researched and the researcher (Coutinho, 2011; Bryman, 2015). The general goals of this research are:

Understanding how sports organisations and their university sports athletes approach Social Status, Respect, Mutual Consideration and Preoccupation, Ethnical Diversity and Sexual Orientation;

Identifying mechanisms for the promotion of the notions of community, fraternity and solidarity;

Evaluate the distribution of goods and materials, equality of access and distribution of opportunities;

Interpret the distribution and ethnic and gender composition.

As a way of assessing the ground operations of the organisations, we as specific goals:

Identify the content of the activities, frequency, sustainability of the target audience;

Research financing sources and procedures;

Contribute to the discussion of the role of Sports in the local and national entities;

Observe the interaction of Universities Sport with the national tutelage organisations;

Analyse the relationship between institutions and athletes.

4.2. Method, Approach, Tools and Data Analysis Model

A methodological approach contained within Mixed Methods was used, as both qualitative and quantitative tools were used, seeking data complementarity (Kosik, 1963; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The approach used a qualitative data methodological priority, followed by quantitative complementary data (Bryman, 2015), framing this investigation as a Transnational Multiple Study Case with a comparative design, aimed at maximising the differences between the cases, except for the phenomenon to be explained using the inductive method (Goggin, 1986; Yin, 2009; Coutinho 2011). The Sampling process was non-probabilistic based upon the 3 management levels of the Sports organisations: Managers, Coaches and Athletes. These three levels were analysed in both the Academic Association of Coimbra and the University Sports Center in Reggio Calabria using the Semi Structured Interview and a Focus Goup. Then the University Sports Athletes were inquired by a Nacional Questionnaire, and a Document Analysis was conducted to review Internacional, Nacional and Local Legis as per the Scheme 1. Model of Analysis.
Scheme 1. Model of Analysis

4.3. Sample

The questionnaires had 111 valid answers on the questionnaires were obtained from both countries. 51 Italians from 15 different cities and 8 different sports. 60 Portuguese from 21 cities and 15 sports. 73.4% of respondents were male, in Portugal. In Italy 51% against 49% female. Two types of interviews were conducted: 8 individual semi-structured interviews and 2 focus groups.

In Portugal two athletes were interviewed (A2) and A3_PT; Two managers, another University of Coimbra male named D3_PT and D4_PT, and a male trainer named T1_PT. In Italy the male gender coded as A1_ITA and two CUSI male leaders, D1_ITA and D2_ITA, were interviewed.

The focus group at AAC in Portugal was attended by an athlete, manager and a coach and was called FG2_PT. Already the focus group held in non-CUS Reggio was composed of two leaders, one athlete, one coach and will be referred to as FG1_ITA. The Manager, Athlete or Coach of each of the paired working groups (D / T / A) _FG (1/2) _ (ITA / PT) as the case may be. All subjects were granted an anonymous participation.

5. Discussion

5.1 National Organisation

The members of the Academic Federation of Universities Sport (FADU) are "the students associations of the Portuguese higher education institutions" (p.1 art.14 of the FADU Statutes), the associates of the Centro Universitario Sportivo di Italia (CUSI) are the Sports University Centers (CUS) (article 7 of the Statutes of the CUSI). This is an absolutely fundamental difference that varies the logic of project management sports. There will be 3 fundamental differences in the legal and organic framework in both cases.

As Local Sports Promoters

The associations of students of higher education institutions in Portugal represent only one institution, i.e. in a hypothetical Portuguese city where 5 higher education institutions (HEI) coexist, 5 different members of the FADU can coexist. In a similar city in Italy a CUS is created by each university city, thus representing all HEIs in a given region.
Composition of Members Bodies

The Portuguese student associations (SA) have, in their statutes (very similar to the AAC), the requirement of an active enrollment in the HEI they represent. However, with social bodies composed exclusively of students, FADU members have an average age in their social bodies that is much lower than the average age of the social bodies of the CUSI members. The CUS consists of two categories of partner: effective partner and former partner (page 3, article 15 of the CUSI Statutes). Both categories have the same ability to belong to the board of CUS, however, the overwhelming majority of managers are old partners, while athletes remain as effective partners during the sports career. In this way it is guaranteed that the sports leadership is made by those who had experience as an athlete, even though they exercise it later in the life of the individual. A clear contrast to the Portuguese reality, where dirigism is an alternative career, in many cases, that of athlete, which results in an organized, managed and thoughtful sport expression of students for students.

Composition of the National Deliberative Assemblies of FADU and CUSI

At FADU, the solution is to implement a system of delegates attending the General Assembly that follow a complex formula. In n.6, art. 36 of the FADU Statutes we have the following calculation formula: \( P = \frac{2E}{3S} + \frac{A}{3T} \) which means the following:

“(...) \( P \) is the weighting-base of each associate for the purpose of constitution of the General Assembly, \( E \) is the arithmetic mean of the number of students represented by the associate in the previous two academic years, \( A \) is the arithmetical average of the number of students-athletes enrolled in FADU in the previous two years by the associate, \( S \) is the arithmetic mean of the total number of students represented by all associates in the previous two academic years and \( T \) is the arithmetic mean of the total number of student-athletes enrolled in the FADU in the two seasons (Article 7 of Article 33 of the FADU Statutes).”

The representative method of Hondt is thus applied in order to obtain proportionality between the number of delegates present at the General Assembly (AG) and the number of students represented by each of the structures, in which each delegate exercises the right to one vote.

In the Federal Assembly of CUSI (body homologous to the FADU General Assembly), participation and the right to vote enjoy a representative consistency. Each CUS shall be represented by its president or its alternate. These hold a different number of votes according to the number of students represented and which obeys the following table, according to the provisions of paragraph 2 of art. 19 of the Statutes of CUSI:

- 1 vote up to 5000 students;
- 2 votes from 5001 to 10000 students;
- 3 votes from 10001 to 25000 students;
- 4 votes from 25001 to 40000 students;
- 5 votes from 40001 students.

These three factors (quality of associates, age group and participation method) directly influence the way in which university sport is organized, how structures are positioned, how they are distributed throughout the country, and even how they are inserted in society. sports leaders

The Academic Association of Coimbra and the Sport University Center of Reggio Calabria are two members of the FADU and CUSI, respectively. Their participation and local contribution are guided by their national structures and the ability to engage with their peers, participate in competitions or promote their own agenda reflects the political will and paths traced by the organization.

5.2. The AAC and the CUS Reggio di Calabria

The Academic Association of Coimbra

The AAC is a superstructure with 4 fundamental pillars: The Cultural Associative Sections (16), Sport Associative Sections (26), Student Groups (26) and Autonomous Organizations (6), totaling 74 organizations, each with social bodies and
activities. Its General Directorate oversees and presides over its medium councils: The Cultural Council, Inter-nucleus
Council and Sports Council and it is incumbent upon each of these councils to convene its Assembly of Sections or Nuclei.
The autonomous bodies have full statutory and fiscal independence, and are linked to the AAC for historical and practical
reasons, some of them headquartered in the same building as the parent structure, and others have reached a broader
financial and media dimension, as is the case of the Autonomous Football Organization.
The reality of AAC is profoundly complex and sports development is no exception. Although the Sports Sections are more
than two dozen, its activity is directed to the respective sports federations. The University Sports is entirely bequeathed
to its General Direction (GD), being responsible for the organization, selection of coaches and athletes, management of sports
spaces and competitive calendars. The sport in the AAC stems from a bi-facet logic of operation: Federated Sports and
Sports Sections, University Sports and GD / AAC

The University Sports Center of Reggio Calabria

The CUS Reggio Calabria is, like all other Sports University Centers, one of the peripheral components of CUSI, with
specific competences in Sport, promoted by the Italian National Olympic Committee (CONI) and by the Decree of the
President of the Republic n. 770, 04/30/1968. It dynamizes around 1400 students from all HEIs in the city, particularly the
Mediterranean University of Reggio Calabria. The sports bet is the organization aimed at the students of the city, supporting
most of its activity in boosting student participation and engagement.

The CUS Reggio, however, has a vastly larger non-competitive dimension, and organizes a much larger number of non-
competition sports activities, adopting a sports strategy based on the Social Responsibility of Sport in the academic
community. Of course, the multiplicity of other CUS development strategies is as large as the number of existing centers.

5.3. Structures and Organisation

The research question relates University Sports to social issues of equality and integration. The aim of the entire data
collection process was to draw up a framework to identify the objectives of the two structures that supervise sport in Portugal
and Italy, FADU and CUSI respectively, through the study of two local structures: Academic Association of Coimbra and
the University Sports Center of Reggio Calabria. The modus operandis are totally different, but they pursue the same
objective. Although CUSI is a structure that precedes FADU in decades, it operates under an amateur model supporting
former athletes and longtime leaders, where the rotation of the social cadres is quite low and the directives quite stable.

Nacional and Local Structure

One of the leaders in the Focus Group held at CUS Reggio indicates that there was a President of the CUS Messina for
40 years, a reality absolutely unprecedented in Portugal. Created in 1990 by student associations, FADU members' boards
have a maximum of 2 years mandate. The FADU Directorate itself has the same term in office, which provokes great
dynamism in the structures, in addition to the fact that it is a statutory obligation an active enrollment in an HEI to hold a
political position. If, on the one hand, the experience members and stability of the Italian model leads to the perpetuation
of good results, it also drags the bad habits. The reports of leaders on one or another case that "there's always the same
problems" (FG1_ITA). In Portugal, US provides training of hundreds of young people in management positions, while in
Italy CUSI has a much stronger and more entrenched presence and credibility. Both cases are successful. FADU is the
most awarded structure by the (European University Sports Federation) EUSA, and CUSI is the body that organized more
FISU events throughout history. Both compensate the amateurism of the leaders with a professional technostructure. One
of the largest FADU partners is the Portuguese Institute for Employment and Professional Education, for example, and
CUSI's officials have stated that the US rae increasingly a less precarious career opportunity. The Athletes were unanimous
in considering US as a possible future employment, or at least a curriculum enrichment tool. The problem of unemployment
could be, from the point of view of the respondents, combated by sport in universities. The AAC affirmed the need to
establish a professional structure to stabilize the organization of the US Cabinet, and to allow a professionalization of an
increasingly sought-after service. In Italy, the CUSI leaders defend the institutionalization of the US in universities that, for
decades, have been relegated to partner institutions such as theCUS. In Portugal, Coimbra, the partner of the University
of Coimbra is the AAC. The establishment of the UC's Sports Office was a response to the problem, which came from a
felt need in the face of AAC's inability to respond to the EUG2018 organization. Two different countries, two different
difficulties, the same solution pointed out.
**Sports Offer**

Both in Portugal and in Italy the athletes agree that the sports offer in their cities is sufficient (as seen in Graph. 1, although the CUS Reggio the AAC has a fundamentally diverse strategy. While the CUS Reggio is committed to activities involving the academic community and the "Informal Sport", the AAC is based on two sporting pillars of *quasi* Kafkaesque organization. In Reggio the activities intend to exacerbate the advantages of the dynamization of sport as a way of connecting the University to the city. They organize races, rounds, inter-college tournaments, etc. Agonistic activity, or competition, is relegated to an ancillary plane. In the AAC, the 26 sports sections function as clubs in the city, while the dynamism of the academic community assumes a residual role, with only one activity worthy of registration, the Inter-Residences Tournament. The Sports Office of the UC, with a different vision, has already bet on "Open days of Sports" and sports projects in university residences where mostly scholarship holders live.

![Graph 1](image1.png)

**Graph 1 The Sports Offer in HEI**

**Financing**

The financing of FADU and CUSI is almost entirely public, as is the CUS Reggio (Fascículo d'attività, 2006). In Coimbra, AAC has a self-financing capacity of almost 50% of a budget of 1M €. However, the amount they spend in DU is very equivalent. The State, as the main patron of the DU, also has a constant presence in major sporting events. In the EUG18 the summit figures of the Government of Portugal and the Presidency of the Portuguese Republic were present. In Italy the Ministry of Education feeds the US in such a way that the CUSI's growth project passes, in the words of D1_ITA and D2_ITA, by two vectors: Increase in appropriations of public funds and recognition as a National Federation of US, with a legal regime much more advantageous from this point of view. The DU is also seen as a growth factor of universities. Officials agree that this may appeal to more students who, growing in numbers, also increase the funding parcel for the University. In Italy this concern is serious. With a strong social cleavage between northern and southern territories, the US referred to as a way to promote underdeveloped areas, and CUSI, according to D2_ITA, adopted logics of financing differentiated by poor areas.

**Social Mobility**

US also reveals a very clientelist character, in what regards the rise of its members to public office. However, two interpretations can be advanced: either there is in fact a personal favour being done to the leaders, or US really does, and as verified by the testimonies of the subjects of this investigation, create citizens more committed, responsible, trained and prepared for real world problems. In Italy the connection is not so obvious, even though this fact is used as a way of demonstrating the advantages of US participation.

**Volunteers**

US volunteers are treated in two different ways. While, on the one hand, it is recognized as interesting for the personal valuation of the participants, and as a pedagogical tool for education for citizenship (D4_PT) it is seen, on the other hand, as fundamental for the fulfillment of the social function of the US. Both in Portugal and in Italy it is stated that the price of these services is significantly lower and competitive due to the prevalence of volunteers in the structures. Coach T1_PT states that the professionalization of US destroys its social purpose as well as creates inequalities within its structures.
5.4. Promotion of Equality

US is seen by all agents interviewed as a tool for social transformation. Athletes indicate that it can be used to identify problems in their colleagues' homes (assuming a role here in the informal networks of social protection), it acts as a lever for socialization, confronting different realities, highlighting the merit of individuals, ability to work as a team and creation of lifelong emotional bonds. In the words of the manager in the AAC focus group, "US gives you something you would never have if you stayed at home." The great merit identified is the fact that there can be a close contact with the athletes with difficulties, fostering tolerance, respect, fair play and perseverance.

Graph. 2 Values in University Sports

Despite the differences, this position is corroborated by the Student Athletes surveyed by this research, with more than 90% agreeing to share the same fundamental values with colleagues and opponents (Graph. 2). No member of the sample denied the relationship of the DU with the values of Equality, even claiming that it brings with it "a lot of humanity" (A1_ITA). The trainer participant in the Focus Group held in the AAC states that "the values of Olympism live much more of the DU than in federated sport".

Graph. 3 Social Class Perception

In spite of these statements, 41.44% of the sample in the two countries reported observing different social classes in the US (Graph. 3), a situation explained by the respondents as being the result of sports a little more expensive than others.
The groups in both countries demonstrate an ability to bridge financial differences with strategies that include sharing of expenses and use of University services. Needs were also pointed out in order to reinforce the Sports Merit Awards. It was argued that, in spite of everything, US selects a small share of society that can access the Higher Education Institutions. Athletes and leaders agree that they are mutually respectful, and that they feel part of an extended family with great reciprocity in their concern for their fellow man.

![Graph 4: Athletes with Social Scholarship](image)

Graph. 4 Athletes with Social Scholarship

The US athletes are not, however, mainly scholarship recipients, nor do they suffer from financial shortages (Graph. 4 & Graph. 5) even though the testimonies refer that financial problems happen "more than they were anticipating." The suggestion of the manager D3_PT is that the student’s grantees do not participate in the US, not because they have no money, but due to the high competitive level.

![Graph 5: Troubles with bill payment](image)

Graph. 5 Troubles with bill payment

Thus, the difference between the average age and the average years of practice of this sample (displayed in Graph. 6 and in Graph. 7) suggests that a competitive level athlete practiced its sport from the age of 10 years old, well before university age, revealing that even though economic impairements may be a problem to the access to HEI, it is not the main concern when it comes to the access to nacional competition in Universities Sport. A student that doesn’t demonstrate a high level of sporting performance, will probably not see him or herself in the university sports team.
The common rhetoric established in the US, in relation to social integration, is that this happens naturally. This line of thought has already been identified in the literature (Ekholm, 2016). However, the ability to establish contact with informal networks of social protection, governing bodies, social mobility, competitions, exposure to new environments and strategies of coping within training, seems to have little to no casualty, especially when the largest share of funding are public institutions, and sports facilities are carried out through the same ministries. Research subjects maintain that Sport is "the best in training people". As for healthy personal relations building, we seem to find an integrative and fruitful environment. D4_PT affirms that sports practice influences "the places we go to and with whom we live", allowing the induction of new behaviors.

The "team spirit" is the most mentioned. Friendship relationships on and off the field are shared across the three levels of management (managers, coaches and athletes), affirming the ability of all-new groups to create close-knit, lifelong memories. Accountability was also mentioned. The athletes learn from the coaches the value of the commitments. Our research has shown that more than 95% of the questioned athletes in both countries state that the "Environment is fraternal and solidary. "They are the best friends I can have" says the athlete in the Focus Group held in the AAC. In Reggio Calabria the group was formed by "three different generations, of three different courses" that would otherwise "never be together" (FG1_ITA).
Gender and the policies that promote it continue to be constraints on development. All respondents say they find more men than women in US, and that this may be because US is a "volunteer world" where it is "easier to find men with more time than women". This is justified, not because women practice less, but because the "drop out earlier" and late have "less time than men due to family care" (D1_ITA). This problem is addressed by CUSI through events aimed at the female audience. They do not deny the need for this gender to be more prevalent, and affirmed that "this (lack of women) is one of the biggest problems that we have to solve" (D2_ITA). Both federations organize 100% of their sports activities for both genders, even though in the female participation is less prevalent. Regarding the sexual orientation of the team mates, on the Graph. 8 we can observe that 83% of Student-Athletes in Portugal and Italy state they are indifferent to the sexual orientation of their fellow players. The lack of discrimination in relation to gender and sexual orientation is described as follows: "University students have a different set of values. The students are prepared for this "(D1_ITA).

Graph. 8 Perception of Team Mate's Sexual Orientation

There is no ethnic diversity in Reggio Calabria or Coimbra, although the University of Coimbra is one of the most international universities in Portugal, and Reggio has a University for foreigners. However, USs are recognized as a fundamental mean to welcome those who are displaced, allowing those who arrive to have a "family away from home" (D1_ITA). Regarding violence in US, the case referred is Football 11. This modality encountered serious problems in the year 2018 provoking in the head of the AAC (D3_PT) the "impression that violence in US is increasing". However, both focus groups (FG1_ITA; FG2_EN) report that this is not the case in "most modalities".

5.6. Strategies Adopted

The three levels of management referenced herein demonstrate relatively sterile relationships with reduced internal communication. In AAC (FG2_PT) the trainer says that what is lacking are "discussion spaces" in order to increase the capacity to generate solutions to perceived problems. The AAC plans to reinforce the professional technostructure, to create a long-term US organization in order to plan US and reduce the volatility of GD’s that can change annually. In CUSI the solutions are funding by quotas of underdeveloped territories, increasing Networking, and the recognisement as national federation for advantages in political positioning and legal protection. At the University of Coimbra (D4_PT), the feeling is clear and sums up the reasoning of both nations: the concern for inclusion and social equality is a "fundamental issue in the UC sports project, without which the project does not make sense, or we must see Sport as a way to contribute to the development of people and human development. " He adds: "sport is a tool for everyone to be better and to minimize differences at birth".

6. Conclusion

Social Mobility

There were no significant differences in student-athlete responses between Portugal and Italy. According to the data obtained, both populations share a very close social and cultural capital, even in relation to dividing issues. This conclusion validates the views of Esping-Andersen (1999), which establishes common traits between State formulations for Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece, namely regarding the familiarity and clientelism of public management. In fact, both realities share a close relationship with the country's governing bodies. In Portugal, the DU has the capacity to allocate in very short term
its directors in positions of management and public representation. The data corroborate this interpretation. The two hypothesis advanced are that University Sports are a space where qualified individuals coexist academically and culturally. The acquired characteristics are a catalyzing factor of upward social mobility, making Student Athletes, Leaders and Coaches that accumulate interest in civic intervention and proactivity, allowing them to be more likely to explore their transforming potential. Another interpretation may be that Sports Leaders are already a privileged slice of society, who use sports as a way to leverage political influence and broaden their power in their local and national environments. Probably the two of them coexist, which may serve future investigations.

**Financing and Volunteering**

The data has shown that volunteering is not only an experience valued as a pedagogical tool, but a structuring factor in both university sports realities. Volunteerism is seen as a way of connecting and disseminating US to local communities, but also as a key to maintaining service costs down, in low-income structures, increasing competitiveness and universalizing access. Volunteerism is practiced by most managers, coaches and athletes. The US and the federated sport management model is fundamentally different in this respect. This research demonstrates that, while federated sport is income-oriented, US is almost entirely dependent on subsidies, making use of the public budgets through the respective Ministries of Education or Instruction (Portugal and Italy, respectively). This investment by governments reveals that both understand the outcomes of US as being responsible for much of the hidden curriculum in the users’ *curriculum*, especially in Portugal, where it is organized by young students, an item discussed by Babiak & Wolfe (1991) regarding social responsibility of Sport. The development and growth strategy of Universities Sport in both countries have a complementary character. While the AAC seeks greater stability in the professional technostructure, CUSI and CUS look to the future as a national federation.

**University Sport Institutionalisation and Development**

In Portugal, the institutionalization of US is viewed with reserve by student associations seeking autonomy and political power, but the advantages demonstrated by recent examples and the Italian reality leads one to believe that this is the way to a stable developing model, especially in a time of great visibility of this sporting expression. The US can be used as a way to promote universities, guaranteeing them greater budgetary slices in public budgets. However, the data points to restructuration in the national sports plan. It was verified that the athletes of university competition began the practice on average 10 years before entering higher education as shown in the Graph. 6 Years of Sport Practice and in Graph. 7 Average Age of US Athletes. For this reason, it is necessary to articulate University Sports with School Sports. Networking and internal communication are the main problems pointed out in the management of both realities. Frequent dialogue points should correct the "atomizing" of functions, and this will only be possible with positive government policies.

**Social Equality and Integration**

According to the data gathered, in the DU reigns a healthy environment non-violent, responsible and rich in diverse experiences. However, the two aspects of sport in the universities should be distinguished: the promotion of sports practice with moments of internal competition and actions of connection to the city (strategy adopted by CUS Reggio); and, secondly, the orientation to attract athletes that can promote the University in national and international competitions, duly protected by regulations, statutes and incentive schemes (strategy planned by the UC / AAC). Both these realities are crucial and complementary, and a truly working US system can only be achieved by the healthy articulation of practice and competition.

Atkinson, Cantillon, Marlier & Nolan (2002) indicate that the concept of social integration is, although multidimensional, closely related to an individual's ability to participate in society. The present study establishes US as an environment that is eminently healthy, enabling and stimulant. According to the data, US represents, both in Portugal and in Italy, an opportunity to establish contact with diverse realities, promoting a sense of unity and tolerance. Similar narratives have been observed in both countries regarding the aggregating team dynamics, generalized feeling of union and belonging, and individual accountability based on collective goals. More than 90% of the interviewed athletes consider the US as a fraternal and solitary environment LGKL.

**Women and Foreigners in University Sports**

The data indicates that female participation in US, as well as that of citizens of other nationalities, should be further encouraged in order to ensure the pluralism of agents. The distribution of Student-Athletes regarding gender is not similar.
Although a practical and political will has been established to accommodate more female teams, all sports agents have emphasized that US is still eminently masculine. This research does not identify the likely causes of asymmetry, but "lack of interest" (A2_PT) and "lack of time" D1_ITA were mentioned as likely to cause the female audience to withdraw. Stigma is often associated with cases of exclusion (Barry, 1998), and perhaps the bet on School Sport is a way of slowly reducing the gender-segregating edge of the level of sports participation. Regarding the position of the athletes in relation to the sexual orientation of their colleagues, Graph. 8 shows that the sexual discrimination is close to a value of zero. The case is similar for the inclusion of diverse ethnicities. While US is seen as a way of acculturating a strange individual in the middle, there was a low prevalence of foreign athletes in the University teams. No cases of violence were reported in the US, except for rare exceptions in the case of Football.

**University Sports and the Validation of the Social State.**

This study indicates that the core values of University Sports are complementary to the goals of the South-European Social States. Goodin, Headey, Muffels & Dirven (1999) establish the six criteria by which these have traditionally been governed as being the reduction of poverty, promotion of economic efficiency, social equality, social integration, social stability and autonomy. A correspondence between the US and the State was established regarding the dimensions of the Promotion of Equality and Social Integration that Habermas (1973) establishes as the legitimating tools of the governments of this typology. Further investigation should shed light on the other dimensions, further establishing Sport as an important tool for social progress and stability.

**7. Future Research**

The other four dimensions of the Social State remain to be investigated. Studies on the economic dimension of University Sports are scarce, due to the difficulty in defining the concept. Contrasting the Portuguese and Italian reality with other models of organization would be interesting to establish bridges between models, pointing the Europana Universities Sport Association in the direction of a model of European University Sport that is not yet identified. Can Voluntarism be a common feature of the European interpretation of this phenomenon, similar to Portugal and Italy? The argument of the pedagogical advantages of the DU indicates another line of research on the success of sportsmen and women in the professional world; will these be better than colleagues not involved in sports? A longitudinal study on this issue is required. Also, the way social integration through sport is processed is not yet identified. The argument of the "naturalness" verified by this investigation has already been pointed out, leaving the origins of this phenomenon completely unknown. This way the tolerant and benign reality of University Sports could, perhaps, be multiplied by more and good examples (Ekholm, 2016).

**References**


The Development of the Egyptian Technical Secondary Education Considering Some Contemporary Global Trends: An Analytical Study

Khaled Salah Hanafy Mahmoud
Assistant Professor of Foundations of Education
Faculty of Education – Alexandria University

Abstract

Technical education is the base for all development efforts in society. It plays an important role in pushing up the development wheel and in achieving its maximum rates. Whatever the development plans quality, they couldn't achieve their goals and targeted rates without the availability of scientifically and technically qualified human cadre in all work and production fields. Studies clarified that Egyptian technical secondary education suffers from many problems as the weak of its programs leading to negative effects on the proficiency of their students and their outcomes, their inconvenience to the labor market and making gap between the educational outcomes and technical education institutions and leading to the inferiority of the social status of this sort of education considering its relationship with hand work. Thus, reinforcement of the positive social sight towards vocational and technical education in Egypt represents a challenge. This study attempted through using the analytical method, through analyzing the educational literature to identify the contemporary global trends in developing technical education, how to apply every trend in the other world countries and to identify the positive and negative sides of applying every trend. Thus, the development of Egyptian technical secondary education could be identified and its requirements and means.

Keywords: Technical education- Secondary schools- Global trends- Education development

Introduction

The Technical education is the base for all development efforts in any society. It plays an important role in pushing up the development wheel and in achieving its maximum rates. Whatever the development plans quality is, they couldn't achieve their goals and their targeted rates without the availability of scientifically and technically qualified human cadres in all production fields.

The increasing numbers of pupils completing primary education in developing countries will increase the demand for secondary education, including secondary vocational education. (Marope, Chakroun and Holmes, 2015: 41).

In developed countries, the aging workforce is likely to increase the need for vocational education to upgrade the skills of existing workers. And, priorities in low and middle-income countries are shifting to go beyond basic education to equip the population with the skills needed for participation in the ‘global knowledge economy’. In all economies, vocational education will have an important role in equipping workers to develop new skills and adapt to changing needs.

The secondary school education system in Egypt offers two main tracks: one that is academic and the other that is technical. The former typically leads to university via general secondary school, and the vocational route usually via technical secondary school level. Around 63% of those leaving basic education enter the latter system, the dead-end label for those who are pushed away from general academic education because of their lower test scores.

The Egyptian economy has not been able to create enough jobs for more than 2.5 million students currently attending university or the more than 285,375 graduates of the Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system in 2013. The unemployment problem in Egypt is hitting new heights, with a current estimate of 850,000 new entrants to the labor market per year, from a total labor force of 27.7 million in 2011. According to official figures, which are regarded by experts as substantially lower than reality, unemployment increased from 9.4% in 2009 to 13% in 2012. This unemployment is in...
large part a result of a wide skill mismatch between what is demanded by the labor market and what is provided by the education and training systems. 

(World Bank, 2012), (Kazem, 2010, p.3)

There is an urgent need to develop the technical education in Egypt and to deal with all its accumulated problems in light of the high social demand on all Egyptian educational stages and to achieve the required development plans.

**Problem of the study**

Studies clarified that Egyptian technical secondary education suffers from many problems and deficits as:

2. The weak of its programs leading to negative effects on the proficiency of their students and their outcomes.
3. Their inconvenience the educational outcomes of the technical education institutions to leading to gaps with the labor market needs.
4. The inferiority of the social status of this sort of education in comparison with the other types of education. This inferior social status is resulting from its relationship with hand work. Thus, reinforcement of the positive social sight towards vocational and technical education in Egypt represents a challenge.

Thus, the present study attempted to answer the following question:

How to develop the Egyptian technical education in light of the global contemporary trends of developing technical education?

The present study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the present situation of the Egyptian secondary technical education?
2. What are the global contemporary trends in developing technical education all over the world?
3. What is the suggested vision to develop the Egyptian secondary technical education in light of the global contemporary trends?

**Study objectives:**

This study aimed to reach the following objectives:

- Diagnosis the disadvantages of the present secondary technical education in Egypt.
- Identifying the the other world countries in developing technical education and how to use them in developing the Egyptian technical education.
- Providing a vision for developing secondary technical education scools.

**Study importance:**

The present study importance is due to its problem representing in developing of the secondary technical education in Egypt. Many attempts were made by the Egyptian government, but they did not achieve the required success. Thus, there is a practical need to put solutions for Egyptian secondary technical education and to make a whole vision providing paths of the developing process using the learned lessons of the global trends and the experiences of the other countries.

**Study method and its procedures:**

This study used the analytical method through analyzing the educational literature to identify the contemporary global trends of developing technical education, how every trend was applied in the other world countries and what are the positive and negative sides of applying every trend and its requirement.
Theoretical Frame

First- The present situation of the technical secondary education:

Developing secondary technical education in Egypt has become an urgent need, because the high rate of unemployment is a problem, approximately 40 per cent of the population being under the age of 25, Egypt must create every year close to 700,000 new jobs because up to 700,000 new people enter the labor market every year. Egypt need be able to beat global competition through developing its industry. The only way to do that is through developing vocational education and training, as it reflects on the country’s industrial capacity, the Egyptian Government is giving special emphasis at present to the upgrading of the quality of vocational education because the current situation show that ratio is 37.7% for students in general secondary education, compared with 62.7% for students in technical secondary. (UNESCO, 2018, p.1)

Many studies indicated the present situation of technical secondary education in Egypt including the poor outcomes of the system, particularly reflected in the relatively high unemployment rate of TVET graduates, the low social rank of this sort of education, the bad quality of its curricula, the decrease number of the qualified teachers working in technical schools, the using of the traditional method depending on memorizing as a basic method of teaching in its schools, the decrease of the facilities, laboratories, libraries and classes and the absence of a clear stable vision for developing it. (Moustafa, 2016, p.57), (UNESCO,2018)

Second- Global trends of developing technical secondary Education:

There are many modern trends in the field of developing education system and linking technical education with the society needs and problems and using it in developing the social and economic sides. The competitiveness increases in technical education to build the progress and to achieve power. (Abo Kam,2012, p.105)

The global trends include:

Building curricula and courses according to competencies approach required for the labor market:

The modern approaches of technical education aiming to develop the human capital and linking it with the society development process, employment process and the increasing of the individual productivity through focusing on modern competencies linked with the labor market. (Moustafa, 2016)

Thus, a global trend emerges toward re-building and designing technical education curricula focusing on high academic and professional skills according to the measures of the labor market and through using programs for discovering the students' professions awareness and using students guiding programs. (Robertson Alastair ,2006):

Technical education in U.S.A is variant from one state to another but at all it is focusing on raising the self-awareness of the personal abilities of the student and it is focusing on developing positive attitudes towards technical work, raising the positive understanding of the social status of the technical work in the daily life, the role of the technicians in all work positions. From school to work law focuses on linking academic with technical classes related with crafts. (Clark, Dayton, David, Tidyman and Alan Weisber, 2007, 6)

German technical education depends on the professions classification frame guide that decided the competencies for every profession. The training and educational programs were decided according the required competencies of those profession by the experts and university staff.

(Lekes, Natasha, Debra D. Bragg, Jane W. Loeb, Catherine A. Oleksiw, Jacob Marszalek, Margaret Brooks-LaRaviere, Rongchun Zhu, Chloe C. Keramidas, and Charles McLaughlin, 2007, p.2)

U.K. technical education depends of the national standards of the professional qualifications for the technical and vocational education specializations. Those standards are called the competency standards. Those standards were prepared according to the requirement of the work in the working places. Those standards are indicators for directing training and education in technical education in all its levels and in preparing its curricula.(ALECSCO,2012, p.109)

Applying of the Dual Learning System:

The dual learning is a system of education resulting from the partnership between companies and schools in implementing the study plan for the students to address the needs of those companies and to employ the technical education graduates.
The companies provide facilities and labs while schools provide curricula and teachers to achieve the development process of the technical education.

This sort of education requires coordination committees that include companies’ representatives, representatives of schools' teachers to assure that participated companies provide the required conditions for partnership. There should be a committee for curricula planning including academic professors and companies' representatives to decide the courses descriptions according to the goals or outcomes or the required competencies. The dual learning system applied in U.S.A, Germany and achieved good results. (ALECSO, 2012, p.108), (Schmidt, 2010, p.281)

The advantages of the dual learning system include the integration between the companies' facilities and schools, addressing the government plan of providing education related with the requirement of labor market and decreasing the cost of providing technical education to students. (ElAnsary, 2005, p.178)

The dual system disadvantages include the difficulty of designing justified programs addressing the needs of labor market especially in The Arab countries culture.

The developing of the technical education management:

There are many modern trends in developing the management of education as:

A- Applying of total quality management in secondary technical education:

The development of any educational system depends on its management efficiency. Thus, many of the educational reforms focus on the education management through using modern management forms and models as total quality management (T.Q.M.) as a path to achieve excellence and the global standards. Deming's models, Joran and Crosby and Ervin's models, European Award of quality are applications of total quality management in education. (Moustafa,2005, p.21)

The technical education quality is the most important component in human resources development systems. They are the inputs that social and economic growth depend on. Their importance increases as the continuous convertion towards knowledge economy in the society. (Seddikm ElAshkar, 2014, p.261)

Many studies referred to the importance of adopting total quality management in the Egyptian technical education considering the present defects of its management and the absence of clear philosophy. (Abd ElGhafar, 2010, p.57)


The applying of the T.Q.M in technical education has achieved positive results in many world countries and it has achieved an improvement of the performance of the educational institutions. There are conditions to achieve success of T.Q.M applying as raising the awareness of T.Q.M. importance and providing the facilities to implement its models.

B- Applying the re-engineering approach in the technical education management:

Re-engineering is a concept referred to the redesigning and rethinking about the managerial processes to achieve basic improvement in the performance measurements. (Dahawy, ElMeleighy, 2010)

The management reengineering aimed to:

The qualitative development of the school inputs and outputs to reach the required levels to form the productive learning society.

To adjust the quality levels of the learning process through the evaluation of learning outputs and the teachers' performance.

Achieving the school's excellence.

Dealing with teachers as professionals have their freedom in their professional practices and their rights to express their critical views.
Olumade (2013) referred to importance of reengineering professional and technical education and analyzed the views of (9220) students that indicated the importance of re-engineering process.

Mohamed's study (2007) provided a vision to apply the reengineering approach in technical secondary education and the need to adopt the modern techniques in technical education.

Hassan's study (2017) provided a suggested vision of applying reengineering approach in technical education management in Egypt.

Studies indicated that most important problem of applying reengineering approach represent in misunderstanding of reengineering concept between school individuals. The reengineering approach is not just making some quality improvements or using new computer's programs, but it is based on changes in the common values between the individuals and a change in roles and procedures to improve the outputs as possible. (Soliman, 2005, p.92), (Sabeeh, 2013, p.147), (ElDogany, 2010, p.10)

**Partnership between businessmen and technical schools:**

The financial support of businessmen, non-governmental organizations and companies is so important considering the high social demand of education in all its forms that faces the high cost of providing education. In Japan, the industrial sector provides the most of technical programs while the quarter of them were provided by the government represented in education ministry or the labor ministry. (Assido, 2014, p.217) The Japanese technical graduates are all qualified and all of them find their opportunities in the labor market.

(Mohamed, 2011) indicated the need to link the technical education in Egypt with the economic development. Also, Massoud's study (2011) indicated the role of social participation in developing the technical education.

ElSayed's study (2013) indicated the requirements of social participation building to link secondary industrial schools with labor market. Paul's study analyzed the Canada's experience through addressing the needs of the labor market and through using decentralization in managing those schools. Hosny's study investigated the role of school management in activating social participation to develop the technical industrial schools in Egypt and this study revealed the features of the social participation and its obstacles.

ElDowick's study (2016) diagnosed the reality of technical education in Alexandria governorate and put a suggested model for the participation between businessmen and technical schools.

Ahmed's study (2015) indicated the role of using technological incubators in developing technical education considering some global experiences. This study provides a vision for applying technological incubators in Egyptian technical schools.

All the previous studies indicated the importance of the partnership between businessmen and technical schools.

**The Preparation of technical education teacher and his Professional Development programs:**

The preparation of Technical education teachers is one of the most important problems of the technical education in Egypt as many studies referred.

(Hasanin, 2016, p.137), (ALECSO, 2012, p.13)

There is a variation in preparation program leading to heterogeneity between technical education teachers. Also, there is a gap between what they have studied in their faculties and the real technology used in factories and companies. They were not trained on what they will teach in their school.

(Waiter and Gray's study (2009, p.229) indicated the need to change educational studies to reform teachers' preparation program while, ElRacheed (2011) confirmed to the big gap between teachers' preparation program and the qualification requirement of labor market and the need to open new departments in the faculty of education.
Conclusion

Although all the country's effort of developing Egyptian technical education, but the reality and studies results indicated the need to make a good use of the contemporary global trends in developing technical education and to change our comprehensive vision, to provide all resources, facilities and the requirements of development. The technical education is the base for the development and progress of the society.

Thus, there is an urgent need to put a vision to develop Egyptian technical education considering the global trends and the results of the diagnosis of the Egyptian technical education.

Vision for Developing Egyptian technical education

Principles and Bases

There should be a complete belief with technical education and its important role in the progress of Egyptian society. Thus, ther should provide all the necessary resources for developing technical education according to the following principles:

A change of the social culture towards hand work and technical work.

Adopting the social engagement between companies and factories and technical schools as an approach for developing technical education.

Adopting competencies approach for developing teachers' preparation programs and for developing technical curricula and all activities.

Applying the decentralization of technical education schools' management.

Applying reengineering and T.Q.M philosophy and procedures for developing technical education.

Adopting planning approaches for the development of technical education depending on the engagement principle between businessmen and the stakeholders and the ministry of Education.

The requirement of the suggested vision

There will be a need to:

Modifying laws and regulations of education enabling partnership between technical schools, factories and companies.

Developing laws enabling technical schools to administer incubators and small companies.

Providing enough financial allocations for developing laboratories, libraries and classes in technical schools.

Mapping and designing technical teachers' preparation programs in faculties of education according to competencies approach.

Improving the work conditions of the technical education teachers.

Developing curricula of technical education.

Training teachers on new and modern methods of teaching.

Training teachers on labor market's competencies.

Training managers on T.Q.M. and Reengineering approaches.

Increasing the financial budgets allocated for the technical schools.

Means of development of the Egyptian technical education

The steps for developing Egyptian technical education include:
Spreading and instruction of the technical and technological skills in all educational stages especially in the technical education stage. Those skills should be included in courses and curricula either in an independent courses or as inherent skills in different courses.

Shaping experts, businessmen, companies’ representatives committees to determine the different profession frame, their descriptions and the different required levels of the labor forces either skilled or half skilled workforce. According to this frame, the competencies and contents of the curricula will be set. There should be a national qualification frame for each Arab country according to the labor market. Those qualifications should be suitable for all educational stages starting from general education stages till High technical education stage.

Establishing technical schools in all disciplines according to the requirements for each zone. Decentralization of the administration of those schools should be applied. Thus, the technical schools could administer small companies or incubators provide a return to students and schools.

Linking training processes with employment through training and educational paths based on dual learning system and adopted by both technical schools in Arab countries and companies.

Inclusion of some technical courses in secondary education that qualify general secondary stage students to enroll the technical faculties or to enable them to get simple jobs available in the labor market considering integrated study system adjust the relationship and the roles of the institutions in the labor market through focusing on learning through work which enable student to learn his skills and knowledge in the real work environments.

Strengthen basic and individual skills to deal with open international labor market represented in English language skills, computers’ skills, technical skills and soft skills as: (Planning- decision making- time management, …etc.

Providing professional abilities measurements for every available profession based on labor market according to the global trends.

Finding new financial resources of technical education as establishing new Funds depending on the returns of bug and middle companies grants.

Expanding the dual learning system schools in partnership with companies and factories.

Modifying laws and regulations enabling schools to establish incubators and small companies.

Activating the social engagement with different social categories in deciding educational curricula and methods of teaching leading to the change of the social status of the technical education.

Spreading the culture of entrepreneurship through technical courses and encouraging creativity through developing curricula and organizing activities as fairs and competitions between technical schools’ student.

Adopting decentralization of managing technical schools suit the variation between those schools and their societies.

Adopting modern management approach as reengineering an T.Q.M and training of teachers and managers.

Spreading quality culture between teachers and managers in technical schools.

Training of teachers on competencies required by labor market.

Studying the future needs of the labor market deciding the required changes in technical education.

Activating the role of media in changing the society look to the social rank of the technical education and raising the individual and social awareness with technical education and its importance.

Study recommendations

The present study recommends to:

Making comparative studies about the applying of the competencies approach in technical education all over the world and how to develop curricula according to the competencies.
Investigating the experiences of the other countries about how to change culture towards the hand work.

Analyzing the National Qualifications frames in the other countries and how to use them in developing technical education.

References


The Emancipated Student: Rethinking Knowledge, Equality and Democracy

Siavash Bakhtiar
Queen Mary University of London

Abstract

This paper’s ambition is to act as a short memento for novice language teachers. It is based on a reflexive practice that stems from my personal work experience as secondary school language teacher. Drawing upon Jacques Rancière’s portrayal of the paradoxical relation between explanation and emancipation, and Gaston Bachelard’s notion of epistemological obstacle, the article aims at giving way to a reflexion on the challenges of teaching a foreign language to a group of students coming from a particular cultural linguistic background in a secondary school. According to this perspective, which breaks away from common sense, the difficulties to learn of new language should not be understood in terms of lack or impairment, but rather as the presence of an a priori significant knowledge. From this alternative way to engage with education research emerges a political argument that does not envision equality between teachers and learners, and their emancipation, as a postponed goal, but instead as a presupposition to any democratic teaching practice.

Keywords: Language Teaching – Reflexive Practice – Crisis in Education – Epistemological Obstacle – Jacques Rancière – Emancipation

Introduction

The series of thoughts exposed in this paper is based on my experience as English teacher in a francophone public high school in Schaerbeek, a very multicultural district in Brussels with an important Turkish community. As a consequence, the Turkish language is present intra- and extra-muros, from home to the classroom, passing by the baker’s shop and the playground. As a beginning language teacher I was thus facing, on one hand, a majority of students who would benefit from the advantages of bilingualism, moving from French to Turkish, and vice versa, according to the circumstances – like many of their other comrades with an immigration background. On the other hand, in some minor but still significant cases, I witnessed disequilibrium in the mastery and use of the two languages. If this phenomenon was not a subject for concerns in the private social spaces, it might become problematic at school.

Before going further, it is important to clarify from this early stage that this essay – which will find, I hope, a watchful, but also lenient readership – is trying to offer an exhaustive and quantitative study of a complex phenomenon. I would like the reader to avoid any simplistic and fatalistic reading of the remarks of this essay, or to attribute to it any similitude with a theory of social-cultural disability. Indeed, I do not intend here to offer a reductionist portrait of the uses of the two languages, but it does not take too long to understand the impact of this issue in the relationship between students and teachers in the Belgian francophone educational system where, like in many other countries, the (official) language is the basis of the pedagogical methods and culture taught to and by the teachers.

Therefore, it should not surprise the reader to comprehend my first impressions as a novice teacher, confronted to the (omni-) presence of another language that supplants the official language of the institution. In the first semester, I content myself with the passive position of the “observant”: after only a few weeks of teaching, it was obvious that some students were struggling, even when I was using French to explain some simple grammar points. It is only in the second semester,

1 The studies from this current that emerged in the 1980s usually offer a very miserabilist and unidimensional depiction of the situation. Usually, they consider that the cause of the difficulties to learn that some students has to be found in the existence of a cultural deficiency in the domestic environment. Gerard Chauveau and Eliane Rogovas-Chauveau compares this perspective to what “Pierre Bourdieu calls ‘the logic of the stigma’ (la logique du stigmate): it refers to ‘representation judgements’ (underperforming at school is seen as a characteristic of the working classes) (1995: 67).
when I was appointed head master of one of the classes – a position that comes with a certain moral responsibility – that I felt that I had to move from observation to a position that requires an understanding of the mechanisms of the causes of this situation, and eventually help the students to go over it. It is only from that moment, by lifting a bit of the veil, that I had a glimpse of the immense challenge that awaited both students and teachers.

On the Issue of common sense

By focusing on this specific phenomenon, I realised progressively that the obstacles were not purely linguistic, but were in certain cases, also based on ideological roots. It is worth to insist that I am using expressly “ideological” rather than “cultural” to avoid the reasoning of some theorists or education professionals that think that “if there are deficiencies, one just need to fill the gap and the problem will be solved. One needs, according to a well-known catchphrase, ‘provide to those who have less’ (apporter à ceux qui ont moins). If the problem is identified in terms lack, the response will therefore be in terms of supply” (Fijalkow, 2000: 148). The latter comes usually in forms of reinforcement classes, which usually demands a lot of effort for a very small advancement because it does not address directly the main challenge of those students: the transfer of competences and knowledge they have acquired in private spheres into the learning methods of the class room.

A critique of a “cultural disability” theory would therefore interrogate the meaning those students give to what happens at school. Indeed, the acceptance of the common sense of the educational system – its symbolic order – can be seen as a new opening up to the world be understood, which might also be experienced as a rupture with what they already knew. The concern for the teachers and educators is thus to avoid insofar as possible that this rupture, this passage, becomes an abandonment or “betrayal” (trahison) of their community (Marage 2010: 130). On the symbolic level, their mission is thus to ensure that this rupture is not experienced as a betrayal, but rather as a crisis. This crisis has to be understood in the old Greek way: a critical moment when one understands her contingent condition – as a subject to a pre-existing world – and has to make a choice – as agent of this same world that brings something new to it. As Hannah Arendt points out:

“A crisis forces us back to the questions themselves and requires from us either new or old answers, but in any case direct judgements. A crisis becomes a disaster only when we respond to it with formed judgements, that is, with prejudices. Such an attitude not only sharpens the crisis but makes us forfeit the experience of reality and the opportunity for reflection it provides” (2006: 171).

This phenomenon is experienced by all human subjects as part of their process of personalisation, their participation in the symbolic and social functions that both incribe them and potentially allow them to escape the intersubjective frame of what French sociologists since Auguste Comte traditionally call social cohesion or le vivre ensemble. Besides, it is worth noticing that this process in modern societies is intrinsically interwoven in the process of literacy and education, with the school as indispensable institution. Of course, these elements are not new to hear of the majority of young teachers trained to work in the pedagogical framework of public schools: most of this narrative is taught in the teaching degree programmes.

Nonetheless, as I have already mentioned, many of the young teachers are disconcerted when confronted to the learning difficulties of some students that come from a non-native socio-cultural backgrounds. Their intuitive reaction is usually to reduce these obstacles in learning to a kind of social-cultural disability present in the domestic milieu of these students, and later interpret them as a deficiency or even a refusal to access the sens commun (commun sense) necessary their education, and lato sensu to their socialisation. This scenario is usually reinforced by the fact that some students would justify their presence at school by very pragmatic reasons: a school degree is a just necessary to get a job. This utilitarian representation of the education institution is often surprising for a young teacher passionate about the education, even humanistic, mission entrusted to her or him. The reaction would then be one of frustration, discouragement or even anger: why do these students do not seize the opportunity given to them?

I take the opportunity here to tell a short anecdote that illustrates well my remarks. On the third week, after starting to teach, seeing that there was a small group of students slightly older than the other students – some of them have repeated the same class two or three times – in one of my classes (4th year) that were always talking Turkish in class, I took the decision to follow the policy of the school board which implied forbidding students to speak Turkish, in order to favour the use of French – English or Dutch for the language classes. My main arguments were that this would improve their language skills and it would be a form of respect for the other students, the teacher and the institution. Of course, this strategy proved to be ineffective, and it did not last long before the situation escalated to the point that one day, one the students, after one of my umpteenth summons, shouted in an angry tone: “Sir, you are racist! Why don’t you want us to talk our language? You’re
insulting our culture.” When I tried to calm him down, he replied: “English is important for money and work, but I don’t forget that it is the language of the US!” Immediately, another student, visibly in order to calm down his comrade, joined the heated discussion and added “Sir, you shouldn’t bother so much… it’s too late for us. We have been taking the same class for three years now, and as you can see: we haven’t learned anything.”

This little incident was a tipping point in my short teaching experience. Later that week, when I had the opportunity to talk about it to other colleagues in the staff room, many told me that they had heard similar discourses, and that these clashes were not exceptional in classrooms. This was a relatively clear illustration of what French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu coins as symbolic violence, which peculiarity compared to the notion of manipulation, “resides precisely in the fact that it requires of the person who undergoes it an attitude which defies the ordinary alternative between freedom and constraint” (Bourdieu, Wacquant 1998: 168). Pushing the discussion a bit further, I also realised that some of the teachers explained this defiant narrative – which it is worth to remind that it was only relevant for a very small minority of the students – in terms of “lack,” was mainly due according to them to individual laziness or motivation of a category of students they called “rebels”, and also to a cultural and symbolic deficiency due to the habitus of that particular community of the latter, to keep using Bourdieu’s terminology.¹ This type of reasoning brought me back to the theory of social-cultural disability which, as I have already mentioned, delegates most of the reasons for the underperformance at school of those students to their domestic spheres.

This explanation was not satisfactory for me. First, because it seemed to make a clear cut division between private and public spaces, between home and school; then, it was based on a social deterministic narrative that is a fertile ground for a generalised defeatist attitude among teachers. This pessimistic explanation did not only give up on those students, but also favoured a stigmatisation of a certain category of students. This condescending attitude would then delegate all the responsibility for the issues to their community; and consequently, the role of teachers will be reduced to either one of “childcaring” (gardienage): the school would be a safe sanctuary for the children who would not be in the streets; or it would take another route, and delegate most of the responsibility to the school, which would then need to go through a reform process to fit the special needs of particular minorities.

No need to say that one of these perspectives looked satisfying: they reminded me of what philosopher Jacques Rancière calls in The Philosopher and His Poor the confrontation of “the traditional republican explanation” and “libertarian pedagogism:” on one side, there is a discourse that would say “it is not school itself that excludes the children of the common people. It is their parents that do not have the means to let them keep up with it or faith in its effects of promotion;” on the other side, another narrative “incriminates the educational structure in itself. School crushes the children of the common people because its authoritarian structure reproduces the hierarchical structures of society in forming the disciplinary spirits of its future officers and troops” (2003: 171). On one side, one has to face the official discourse that patronises and devalues those students; on the other, a sociological discourse that glorifies them.²

It is important to notice that as paradoxical as it might look, both narratives apply the same dualism that understands and reduces the students to their socio-cultural community, to their mode of life, to their habitus. In the same book, Rancière offers a convincing critique of Bourdieu’s early works about state institutions (schools included) and their narratives about class struggle in society (and in education), which usually idealises the oppressed marginal, but does not grant her or him any right to take part in the struggle on the symbolic level: “the symbolic game is reserved for the rich and is merely the euphemizing of domination. As for the poor, they do not play. Indeed, their habitus discloses to them only the semblance of a game where the anticipated future is not what is possible but simply the impossible” (Rancière 2003:184). Said differently, the privilege to take part to the symbolic battle is only reserved to the bourgeois and the intellectuals.

¹ This notion that can be understood as “a set of predispositions individuals develop to approaching, thinking about and acting upon their social worlds that they have come to learn over time as a consequence of their experiences. The more that they employ such thoughts and actions and find them to ‘work’ within particular social contexts, the more they become a durable and ‘habitualised’ part of their subconscious” (Connolly, Healy 2004:16). Bourdieu defines this key notion as “the product of the work of incultation and appropriation necessary in order for those products of collective history, the objective structures (e.g., of language, economy, etc.), to succeed in reproducing themselves more or less completely, in the form of durable dispositions, in the organisms (which one can, if one wishes, call individuals) lastingly subjected to the same conditionings, and hence placed in the same material conditions of existence” (1977:85).

²
The re/formation of the emancipated mind

Recently, other critics of Bourdieu have pointed out this contradiction in the Bourdeusian account, and took the discussion to the specific ground of education. Jean-Yves Rochex gives an alternative to the pessimistic narrative of just taking care of the students and the very ambitious and idealistic desire of some sociologists, committed admirers of Bourdieu, to “desinstitutionnalise” the school to become more democratic and fit the needs of the uncommon groups of students (Rochex: 1995, 2004; Bautier, Rochex: 1998). Without denying the need to reform the school programmes throughout time, Rochex gives nonetheless a warning with regard to an ambition that thinks only in terms of structures and not subjects and that would aim to an absolute school (école totale), which would be in charge of all the education and socialisation of young generations, reducing them to class determinism, without trying to investing “how and what they are capable of thinking” (2009: 31).

In other words, Rochex argues that many sociologists – and one could add instructors – have forgotten what I am tempted to call Gaston Bachelard’s very first rationalist counter-lesson in the two first paragraphs of The Formation of the Scientific Mind, where he points out that contrary to what Descartes thought, and after him, most of humanist thinkers, the formation of the (scientific) mind is primarily a negative process that moves forward not by adding or piling up new knowledge, but rather by question itself and its old models in terms of obstacles to overcome:

“…Even when it first approaches scientific knowledge, the mind is never young. It is very old, in fact, as old as its prejudices. When we enter the realms of science, we grow younger in mind and spirit and we submit to a sudden mutation that must contradict the past.” (2002: 24-25)

This quote contains in a nutshell one of Bachelard’s most important contributions to educational research by offering an alternative to the now mainstream cultural disability theory. A close understanding of his observations demonstrates that the (scientific) mind is primarily a negative process that moves forward not by adding or piling up new knowledge, but rather by question itself and its old models in terms of obstacles to overcome:

“…Even when it first approaches scientific knowledge, the mind is never young. It is very old, in fact, as old as its prejudices. When we enter the realms of science, we grow younger in mind and spirit and we submit to a sudden mutation that must contradict the past.” (2002: 24-25)

This might sound obvious, but I do believe that it is still crucial to keep reminding again as many times at it is necessary to the rational teachers that learners, when confronted to a new situation, usually cling on their past empirical experience and their intuition:

“Science teachers imagine that the mind begins like a lesson. They imagine too that pupils can always make good the slapdash knowledge they have indifferently acquired just by repeating a year, and that pupils can be made to understand a proof if the teacher keeps going over it, point by point. They have not given any thought to the fact that when young people start learning physics they already possess a body of empirical knowledge. It is not therefore a question of acquiring experimental culture but rather of changing from one experimental culture to another and of removing the abundance of obstacles that everyday life has already set up. (…) Let us take just one example: the buoyancy of floating bodies is the object of a familiar intuition that is shot through with errors. The activity here is more or less openly ascribed to the floating body, or rather to the swimming body. If we put our hands on a piece of wood and try to sink it, it will resist. We find it hard to ascribe this resistance to the water. It is not easy therefore to teach the principle of Archimedes so that it is understood in all its marvellous mathematical simplicity unless we have first criticised and undermined this complex and impure body of primary intuitions” (Ibid.: 28)

---

1 The force of Rochex’s perspective is in that fact that he gets on the same ground of those sociologists, committed admirers of Bourdieu, by offering a very ambitious conceptual armada that finds convergences between the works of Vygotsky, Wallon and Lacan (Terrail 1987: 175).
Bachelard’s lesson aims at reminding the teachers what is at the heart of the mechanisms of the mind during the process of knowledge: it is not about acquiring a set of new facts, but rather changing from a “closed” rationality which is mainly based on intuition, to an “open” more rational one, based on scientific method. As Jean-Claude Filloux writes in a sort of maxim, with Bachelard “formation becomes reformation of the mind” (1996: 160).

Although Bachelard addresses his critique to science teachers (his colleagues), I do believe that it is also valid for any other field of study, all the more so for language teachers. Teachers should be aware of the obstacles of the students, before embarking upon moralistic conclusions about which entity, the community or the school, is at fault in the student’s failure to take part in the educational system. By focusing on the intersubjective level, Bachelard recognises the importance of students’ agency in the educational scenario, but also sheds light on the responsibility of the teachers. His critical “theory of ignorance” (psychologie de l’ignorance) is not only valid for students, but also for the instructors – who have been students and actually never stop being one (Filloux 1996: 161).

Even though Bachelard does not mention explicitly the political implication of a potential symmetry between teachers and students, one can already envision a disruptive opportunity that has been envisioned by many other thinkers, like Antonio Gramsci, who has in several occasions advocated for such a symmetry, by writing that “every teacher is always a student and every student is a teacher” (1971: 350), and that “[w]e need to free ourselves from the habit of seeing culture as encyclopaedic knowledge, and men as mere receptacles to be stuffed full of empirical data and a mass of unconnected raw facts” (2000: 56-57). The question is then: what is the function of the teacher?

This brings me back to the anecdote I have mentioned in the previous section. I became aware that in the eye of some of my students, I was an agent, a visible face of the authority that imposes them rules and, according to some of them, even an imperialist ideology through the language. My “rebels” students, refer to same terminology used by some teachers, were holding tight on a rationale very close to the one of master-student dialectic, where I was to play the villain oppressor. Fortunately, the tension cooled down when we had the parents coming to discuss the mid-semester reports. I have to admit that I was pretty nervous to meet the parents of some of the students, especially the “rebels.” More specifically, I was fearing a confrontation with them, expecting them to come with horrible a priories about me and the school. This clash did not happen. Quite on the contrary. The so called lazy ones, agitators or rebels were quiet and ended up being extremely helpful. Indeed, since many of the parents did speak a very basic or broken French, the students did they best to translate what I was saying to their relatives, and vice versa. One could say that they were not students anymore, but mediators, translators, interpreters that were helping the two figures of authority, their parents and me, to communicate.

Somehow, we switched roles during these meetings that were actually a grey zone, where home and school meet, a zone of translation, of passage between the educational and extra-educational “intersignification” (Rochex 2009: 29). It is important to notice that this intersignification is always partial, because the student never stops being a teenager; this process is not about accepting the narrative of the institution, and forgetting about the community, but rather about potentiality, affordance and psychological plasticity.¹ The spotlight is back on the students, and what they think – or should I say what they are capable of thinking and doing.

But how does this answer the question about the teacher’s function? It certainly does not give a direct and absolute answer, but exposes what the teacher probably should not be, which brings us back to the Rancièrean critique of progressive intellectuals, who despite their best-intentioned efforts, stay very suspicious of the non-intellectuals in their attempts to explain from their superior position to the masses what is in their best interest: “[a]ccept to submit your (lower) intelligence to my (higher) understanding today, in order to be my equal tomorrow!” (2010: 32).

The humanist conception of teachers as educators, a term that derives from the latin word ex-ducere (to lead out). This is the conception that has been at the centre of the Platonist hierarchical models that positions the educators as the agents of a superior and primordial entity (school) that will extract the pupils from their natural and enlighten their path to the realm of ideas, lead them out of the cave of ignorance to a rational and modern knowledge of the world. This vision is perfectly illustrated by Arendt when she writes:

---

¹ As Ruth Sonderegger argues, this exchange of roles is not only is frequent but also necessary in order to keep alive what she calls “communality of collective intelligence,” its frequency is also an antidote to “the refication of emancipation as a stable position” (2014: 61)
“In education this responsibility for the world takes the form of authority. The authority of the educator and the qualifications of the teacher are not the same thing. Although a measure of qualification is indispensable for authority, the highest possible qualification can never by itself beget authority. The teacher’s qualification consists in knowing the world and being able to instruct others about it, but his authority rests on his assumption of responsibility for that world. Vis-a-vis the child it is as though he were a representative of all adult inhabitants, pointing out the details and saying to the child: This is our world.” (2006: 186).

In this paradigm, that goes right back to the division of labour delineated by Plato in the Republic, the students are always deficient and dependent of an exterior entity and should stay in their “proper” place, which is right below the masters who have the crucial task to enlighten them. According to this dialectic model, there will always be a distance – eventually it will be reduced in order to reach emancipation through knowledge – between the master and the student, between the one who knows and the one who still has to learn it. This distance in the traditional humanist narrative is usually represented as a synonym of autonomy that permits traditional intellectuals to exist as a category through history:

“Since these various categories of traditional intellectuals experience through an “esprit de corps” their uninterrupted historical continuity and their special qualification, they thus put themselves forward as autonomous and independent of the dominant social group. The whole of idealist philosophy can easily be connected with this position assumed by the social complex of intellectuals and can be defined as the expression of that social utopia by which the intellectuals think of themselves as ‘independent’, autonomous, endowed with a character of their own, etc.” (2000: 303).

For Gramsci, this autonomy is a sort of cunning of reason; therefore, the central point of his works is to find an alternative to this dichotomy between traditional intellectuals (teachers) and the people (students) in the favour of what he calls organic intellectuals,¹ who do not talk from outside the class struggle context, imposing a preconceived ideology on a situation, but actually emerge from it and is potentially accessible to everyone:

“The problem of creating a new stratum of intellectuals consists therefore in the critical elaboration of the intellectual activity that exists in everyone at a certain degree of development, modifying its relationship with the muscular-nervous effort itself, in so far as it is an element of a general practical activity (…) In the modern world, technical education, closely bound to industrial labour even at the most primitive and unqualified level, must form the basis of the new type of intellectual” (ibid.: 321).

Similarly, in his seminal work The Ignorant School Master, Rancière formulates, without putting in doubt the genuine willingness of these humanistic positions, an alternative answer to the crisis in education. The narrative of this early book takes the form of a historical account of the “intellectual adventure” of Joseph Jacotot, who in 1815 was exiled from France to the Netherlands after the Restoration of the Monarchy, and who was a university Lecturer in Leuven. Unable to speak Flemish himself and with a class of students who did not or barely know French, he handed them a bilingual version of Fénelon’s Télémaque, asking them to decipher the text with a Flemish translation. Quite unexpectedly, the students after a few sessions were able to write very decent essays in French; and more importantly, they did this without any form of explanation. This experiment led Jacotot to promote a radical pedagogical theory, called “Universal Teaching” (Enseignement universel), as an alternative the traditional methods of teaching of his epoch. Contra the traditional assumption that the teacher needs to act as an expert, an knowledge-provider on the subject that has to be transferred to fill the lack of the docile pupils, Jacotot reveals that this old model far from promoting equality, reinforces the gap between the explainer and the explainee:

“From the moment this slogan of duality is pronounced, all the perfecting of the ways of making understood, that great preoccupation of men of methods and progressives, is progress toward stultification. The child who recites under the threat of the rod obeys the rod and that’s all: he will apply his intelligence to something else. But the child who is explained to will devote his intelligence to the work of grieving: to understanding, that is to say, to understanding that he doesn’t understand unless he is explained to. He is no longer submitting to the rod, but rather to a hierarchical world of intelligence.” (1991: 8)

There is no doubt that many Bourdieusian sociologists would agree with this passage: once again, the authority is imposing a symbolic violence, very perniciously via one of its organs of authority. The explanatory method of the educational

¹ For a better understanding of this concept of “organic intellectuals” and its application in contemporary social and educational issues see e.g. Frétigné 2003: 166; Le Lay 2003: 30; Spire 2006: 171
institutions, on the condition of neutrality, actually divides between those who know and those who do not. In the traditional scenario, “[knowledge] is the metaphor of the radical gulf separating the schoolmaster’s manner from the ignoramus’s, because it separates two intelligences: one that know what ignorance consists in and one that does not” (Rancière 2009: 9).

However, it does not take long to find Rancière’s voice merged into Jacotot’s story, offering in the form of a crypto-narrative of his later critique of Bourdieu’s relativistic scepticism towards education. Indeed, Rancière does not reject the institution, which he still considers a primordial agent for the process of socialisation, but wants to narrow down the argument from structures to an intersubjective level, because the actual point of friction is not between structures (family or school), but between individuals: “here is stultification whenever one intelligence is subordinated to another” (Rancière 1991: 13).

Equality as a premise for a democratic education

Masters should promote the potential of their students to think by themselves, instead of being those silencing this potential by their expert knowledge, like I did by constantly silencing my students in class “The whole practice of universal teaching is summed up in the question: what do you think about it? Its whole power lies in the consciousness of emancipation that it realizes in the master and gives birth to in the student” (Rancière 1991: 36). During the parents meeting, they have showed me what they can be capable of, if I do not silence them, if I trust them and delegate them the power to lead the meeting, if I offer them a challenge that they had to overcome by themselves. On that occasion, I did not know what my exact function was, but it was certainly not dictated, as Citton would say, by the “Old Testament of pedagogical theory”: “my role was “limited to influencing the will, and did not include any actual transfer of knowledge” (2010: 27).

It is worth to mention that for Rancière, Jacotot’s major contribution to this argument can be found in his presupposition that, after what he had witnessed in his class, every individual must be by nature capable of learning by her or himself. Consequently, he conceives an ontological symmetry between the master and the student:

“There is inequality in the manifestations of intelligence, according to the greater or lesser energy communicated to the intelligence by the will for discovering and combining new relations; but there is no hierarchy of intellectual capacity. Emancipation is becoming conscious of this equality of nature. This is what opens the way to all adventure in the land of knowledge. It is a matter of daring to be adventurous, and not whether one learns more or less well or more or less quickly. The ‘Jacotot method’ is not better; it is different. (...)It is thus not the procedure, the course, the manner, that emancipates or stultifies; it’s the principle. The principle of inequality, the old principle, stultifies no matter what one does; the principle of equality, the Jacotot principle, emancipates no matter what procedure, book, or fact it is applied to” (Rancière 1991: 27-28)

Rancière knew that this is a counter-intuitive and powerful statement that is not limited to the question of education and its crisis, but can also have an important political implication: “equality was not an end to attain, but a point of departure, a supposition to maintain in every circumstance” (ibid: 138).

By focusing on the will and by choosing equality as a starting point, which cannot be observed and measured as such, Rancière risked to be labelled as an anarchist or a neo-liberal thinker. Indeed, one can say that if teaching is about the direct link between individuals (without mediation), then what are the institutions and the State standing for if not as apparatuses of oppression? But as I have already mentioned in the previous section, Rancière is less interested by the question of reforming structures than by individuals:

“Every institution is an explication in social act, a dramatization of inequality. Its principle is and always will be antithetical to that of a method based on equality and the refusal of explications. Universal teaching can only be directed to individuals, never to societies” (Rancière 1991: 105).

Understanding this helps to envision the audacity of Jacotot’s emphasis on equality as a premise of his teaching method that through Rancière’s work has become a political manifesto. As Citton asserts: “[a]ll of Rancière’s writings amount to a persistent and deepening reflection on equality in general, political equality in particular, with the principle of equality of intelligence as its foundation – a foundation drawn from his study of Jacotot’s intellectual adventure” (2010: 32).

The reader has to understand that what is at stake with this reversal of the traditional explanatory model to politics is that it encapsulates quite simply a reconsideration of the traditional notion of democracy, where “the postponement of equality into a never-fully-achievable future constitutes the main trap of progressive politics” (ibid). By empowering individuals, by
emphasizing on the necessity for equality to operate as a premise, and position the emancipatory potential within the agent itself, **Rancière cuts with the general notion of victims** that is omnipresent in the theory of social-cultural disability, which only leads to charity and pity for the dominated groups of people (Cerletti 2005: 87). It is also important to remind that this empowerment if it is not given or awarded – by the teachers – it has to be taken – by the student. This again implies that a Rancierian conception of equality is not a natural state, but rather a question of being able to reach it, to afford it: “[it] is true that we don’t know that men are equal. We are saying that they might be. This is our opinion, and we are trying, along with those who think as we do, to verify it” (Rancière 1991: 73). Rancière manages thus a very difficult tour de force by unveiling the pitfalls of the notion of democracy as it is often thought by the typical leftist intellectual, “the sociologist king” as he calls it, whose works is to explain the ignorant masses what to think, replacing the division of labour by another (symbolic) division: “in place of the doxa, there will be a science of rakings setting individuals in their proper places and reproduced in their judgement” (Rancière 2003: 167).

By way of conclusion, I will borrow Citton’s nice formula that presents his essay on Rancière as “an attempt to rewrite Rancière’s rewriting of Jacotot” (2010: 26). I should then say that in this paper – conceived as a memento for my young colleagues – I did not try to explain anything as much as I went back to my experience as teacher to rethink – I would not dare to say rewrite – Bachelard’s and Rancière’s works about the master and student relationship. This relation needs, today like in the 1820s and 1930s, to be constantly reassessed in order to counter the fatalist theories that promote an “intellectual hierarchy that has no other power except the rationalisation of inequality” (Rancière 1991: 129). In order to not lose faith in his students (and herself), the novice teacher should read and follow the example of Jacotot, Bachelard and Rancière – and all the other anonymous and less famous “emancipatory masters” – who do not explain, but challenge her student, as an equal, giving her the opportunity to prove to herself, that like any other human being she is capable to think by herself. If she is not silenced by the belief of the inferiority of her intelligence, then maybe she will realise, by experiencing it, that “[thought is not an attribute of the thinking substance; it is an attribute of humanity” (1991: 36).

**Bibliography**


Investigating Greek EFL Coordinators’ Involvement in Online ELTeachers Communities of Practice as a Means of Professional Development

Katerina Kourkouli
National and Kapodistrian University of Athens

Abstract

This paper examines Greek EFL Coordinators’ involvement in online ELTeachers Communities of Practice (CoPs) and its impact on their own and their trainees’/teachers’ professional development. The study focuses on four (4) Greek EFL School Advisors who acted as Coordinators of four online CoPs training forty-nine (49) EFL teachers using an online platform named 2gather developed by the University of Athens in the context of a national in-service professional development project in Greece. Founded on the theory of situated learning, CoPs have been defined as “groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis” (Wenger et al., 2002). The study involved monitoring the development of four online ELTeachers CoPs and their respective Coordinators’ patterns of involvement and response using a mixed-methods approach which combined quantitative data and qualitative research of collective case studies (Dornyei, 2007) of the four groups of teachers. A comparison of the Coordinators’ implementation of meaningful professional development (Franke et al., 2001) activities “before” and “after” their involvement in the online CoPs was carried out. Findings delineate the extent of the Coordinators’ “reformed” training practice in terms of professional development activities provided to the teachers “before” and “after” their CoP involvement as well as their report on their teachers’ and their own perceived benefit. Results also highlight the role of the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece and contribute to furthering our understanding of effective implementation of online CoPs in the context of continuing professional development.

Keywords: professional development, online communities of practice, effective implementation, reformed training practice

Introduction

Teachers’ professional development has been gaining increasing attention in the past twenty years all over the world (Vescio et al., 2008). In a climate of increasing accountability and effectiveness enhancement, there have been many attempts of educational reforms and interventions aimed at teachers’ professional learning and their impact. However, serious doubts exist about the effectiveness of teacher education initiatives, that is, teachers’ cognitive and belief restructuring as well as teachers’ reformed classroom practices (Navarro & Verdisco, 2000). A large number of articles pertaining to this issue have been published covering different geographical areas, research and professional development procedures (Avalos, 2011). Research findings have clearly highlighted the imperative for an alternative solution (Lai et al., 2006) based on a widespread consensus on the mode of delivery. The paradigm shift gathering momentum with regard to the professional development of teachers over the past few years has been that of online professional Communities of Practice (CoPs).

The implementation of this model in EFL teachers’ continuing professional development in Greece took shape in the form of ELTeachers online CoPs set up and officially launched in the academic year of 2014-2015. The investigation of the teachers’ participation has confirmed that teachers can benefit from membership in supportive online Communities of Practice and has also provided evidence on the central role that online Communities of Practice can play in the teacher education field in Greece as an effective catalyst for the professional development of teachers (Kourkouli, 2018).

Therefore, it is the purpose of this paper to investigate a different aspect, the involvement of the four (4) Greek EFL School Advisors who acted as Coordinators of the four (4) online CoPs under research, training forty-nine (49) EFL teachers.
They made use of the same online platform named 2gather, developed by the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, in the context of a national in-service professional development project in Greece with the objective to acquaint teachers with teaching English to young primary school learners. Firstly, it is intended to delineate the extent of the Coordinators’ “reformed” training practice by comparing the professional development activities they provided to their trainees “before” and “after” their involvement in the ELTeachers online Communities of Practice. Secondly, it is attempted to highlight the impact of their involvement in terms of their report on their trainees’ and their own perceived benefit. Thirdly, it means to showcase the role of the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece.

The research was conducted within the paradigm of a mixed-methods design which combines quantitative data with qualitative research of collective case studies (Dornyei, 2007) of the four ELTeachers CoPs.

This investigation contributes to deepening our understanding of effective professional development implementation and validates online CoPs as a dynamic and effective catalyst for enhanced teacher learning, reformed teaching and training practice. In addition, it provides a platform for other educators towards a true paradigm shift in teacher education in Greece.

**Literature review**

**EFL teacher education context**

Traditionally, teacher education programs are based on a “deficit” model, according to which teachers are in need of some sort of new knowledge or skill, which they do not yet possess but they should try to acquire (Day & Sachs, 2004). Therefore, attending teacher education programs is still considered the basic mechanism for the professional development of teachers. The usual practice consists of a visiting “expert” being the main agent for the transmission of knowledge to the trainees and the evaluation of learning outcomes through some sort of assessment procedure. Lecturing and presentations have been found to constitute the basic modes of training under this model, mainly due to the low implementation cost and relatively simple design (Díaz-Maggioni, 2004). However, the traditional teacher education model has been repeatedly found to be ineffective, taking the form of short-term, “spray-on” in-service PD seminars, failing to provide teachers with sufficient time, meaningful professional development procedures and activities (Kourkouli, 2015).

In Greece, over the past few decades, there have also been educational reforms taking place in order to contribute to the professional development of teachers. However, the educational model implemented, is more or less convergent with the traditional one delineated above. In-service teacher education policy in Greece, under the authority of the Ministry of Education, is highly bureaucratic and centralized, not leaving much space for initiatives. Teachers participate neither in the design, nor in the decision-making process on the educational policy development while teacher education policy is mainly characterized by lack of both long-term, coherent planning and consistency towards policy objectives, training content and forms. Organized by Instructional Coordinators (formerly School Advisors) who are selected by the Greek Ministry of Education in order to coordinate, supervise, provide advice and training opportunities for teachers appointed in the schools of their geographical jurisdiction, teacher education programs mainly take the form of non-compulsory three-hour seminars, make no reference whatsoever to the methodological procedures required for the realization of the goals set and or to guidelines on the mode of training to be adopted. The proposal put forward is for a more appropriate, meaningful and promising form of teacher professional development.

**Professional development**

Constantly updating teachers’ professional knowledge and skills becomes essential in an ever-changing world, therefore, it is considered indispensable to provide them with the appropriate professional development programs to achieve this goal. In Freeman’s (1989) view, teacher education constitutes a superordinate term that encompasses both teacher training and teacher development as different strategies by which teachers are educated. Training is based on a process of direct intervention, leading to the mastery of specific knowledge and skills and is based on external criteria for assessing teachers’ change. On the contrary, teacher development implies an idiosyncratic and individual process of influence, encouraging some sort of increase or shift in teachers’ awareness which can be non-evaluative by external criteria. Therefore, any course focusing on the education of teachers should feature elements of both training and development in order to bring about some sort of change in teachers’ beliefs, attitudes and teaching practices (Kourkouli, 2015: 8). Career growth as “an ongoing goal […] which involves change on multiple levels” (Pennington, 1990: 132) is a necessary component of any effective professional development initiative. The understanding of teachers’ and trainers’ change as a constant process
resulting from their everyday practice, involvement in professional development courses and cooperation with peers hints at the alternative normative – reeducative perspective of change (Richardson & Placier, 2001). It suggests the evaluation of the impact of teacher education courses in terms of the participants’ understanding of the training content and its value and how this leads to the development of reformed practices.

The success of professional development programs is dependent then, not only on the content it covers, but on the processes used for professional development to occur and the context which participants apply their knowledge to (Wang, 2012). Therefore, professional development should be a long – term ongoing process of putting newly – acquired knowledge into practice through teachers’ actual practice (Schlager & Fusco, 2004). It entails both gaining of new insights and accommodation of knowledge into their existing practice repertoire (Moore, 2008). The role of reflection in enhancing teacher change has been extensively researched and reported to be of utmost importance. In fact, teachers cannot develop themselves unless they are able to reflect critically upon what they do in their classrooms (Liu & Fisher, 2006). As Brandt (2008: 42) argues, “learning and reflection are interrelated” as it encourages them to take greater responsibility for their own professional growth and inspires autonomy.

Therefore, in order to enhance the effectiveness, a number of general principles are put forward for the design, organization and implementation of teacher education courses (Kourkouli, 2015). Under the prism of adult learning principles such as the exploration of teachers’ personal practical theories and beliefs (Levin & He, 2008) at the pre-training stage, relevance of topics, restricted use of the lecture mode for presenting new information, emphasis on reflection, experiential elements such as micro-teaching, self and peer-observation, demonstration techniques, collaborative learning in pairs or groups, exploratory learning in workshops and provision of continuous follow-up support to equip trainees with the knowledge and confidence required to implement new theories in their everyday teaching practice are among the predominant ones (Kourkouli, 2018).

Research therefore suggests that effective professional development courses should benefit from alternative, trainee – centred models of teacher education, which provide them with the opportunity for exploration and production of a common negotiated cognition in a community of peers (Johnson, 2009). In this new perspective, “professional development is not something you receive, but something in which you participate as part of your everyday activities” (Moore & Barab, 2002: 44) and teacher learning is a participatory involvement in “doing, becoming and belonging, not simply acquiring” (Ng & Hung, 2003: 62). The common denominator of such alternatives is that effective professional development often takes place within a unique individualized context and that we should move towards new models of education which make use of professional networks and social interaction.

**Online Communities of Practice – a new approach in teacher education**

The idea of a Community of Practice originated in the 1980s at the Institute for Research on Learning funded by the Xerox Corporation (O’Brien & Sarkar, 2004) but the term was coined by Etienne Wenger who is now considered to be the most prominent theorist in the field of CoPs. According to Wenger et al. (2002: 4), a CoP can be defined as “a group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis”. Its three main components are a) domain, the common ground on which participants share information and ideas, b) community, the result of belonging and mutual commitment shared by a group of people who establish positive relationships among themselves and c) practice, the materials, tools and knowledge that the community develops and possesses.

Based on Mezirow’s transformative learning (1991), according to which, critical reflection emerges as a precondition for learning through a persistent process of ongoing revision and restructuring of experiences and knowledge base and on the social constructivist theory which views the educational experience as a dynamic process “constructed” by the participants in the social context in which it takes place (Kimble et al., 2008), Wenger’s concept of a CoP is based on the theory of situated learning. Influenced by Vygotsky’s cognitive theory (1978), this concept views learning as a process of meaning making and identity formation within a network of social relationships. More specifically, learning is embedded within an activity, context and culture and is inseparable from practice. It is a social process of acculturation into an established community and therefore situated professional learning in authentic environments such as the workplace has been the prominent tenet of this approach. A shift of focus is therefore required, from formal training to learning in practice and to ongoing learning.
In CoPs, teachers share experiences and expertise, provide continuous support to each other and develop new insights by collaborating with their colleagues and working alongside more experienced members (Barab et al., 2003). They are also able to focus on specific work – related problems through ongoing collaboration and negotiation in order to gain “knowledge of practice” instead of “knowledge for practice” conveyed to them in training workshops (Cochran – Smith & Lytle, 1999). As Katz et al. (2005) suggest, fostering discussions on the theory and practice of teaching can support teachers in changing their practice through a culture of critical collegiality and reflective inquiry. This model also dismisses the idea of the visiting expert to disseminate their wisdom and recognizes the need for collegiality and co-creation of knowledge. In this way, CoPs facilitate knowledge sharing and knowledge creation and celebrate the role of trainees as co-learners and co-producers of knowledge (Lai et al., 2006: 24-26).

Contrary to the constraints of a co-located CoP, online CoPs offer participants the facilitative synchronous and asynchronous technology to share information and collaborate online, to practically reach out to everybody even in geographically isolated areas and can draw on powerful resources to provide work – embedded support for teachers’ ongoing learning (Karavas & Papadopoulou, 2014).

The vital role of leadership

The issue of effective leadership is identified and discussed in various studies but still continuous to portray as a relatively uncharted area, particularly as to the specific characteristics, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge base, activities, tools and presence attributes leaders should exhibit during their involvement in online CoPs teacher education programs. The crucial role of leadership for the sustaining/maturing phase is identified in both Cothrel & Williams’ (1999) and Stuckey & Smith’s (2004) studies. They argue that leaders should participate actively in the life of the CoP and identify ways to keep members involved. It also falls within their job description to foster community building, decide on the implementation of social and facilitation issues to support the group become a community, implement strategies to build traffic, increase participation and continually assess community progress and value among a plethora of other all-important duties. Different authors propose different frameworks for roles in CoPs but the underlying idea is that there is ample field to be occupied by leadership roles such as sponsors, community organizers, project managers, moderators/facilitators, coordinators, subject matter experts, knowledge managers and content coordinators (Lai et al., 2006). It becomes clear that it lies in the major stakeholders’ initiative to decide on the framework that would best serve their vision and objectives. In the light of the above, it should be within this and future papers’ scope to cast more light into this vital role.

Method

Methodological approach

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the Coordinators’ involvement in the ELTeachers online CoPs constitutes a meaningful professional development source for them by delineating the extent of their “reformed” training practice compared with the traditional models they implemented “before” their online CoP training experience. Secondly, it is our objective to highlight the impact of their involvement in terms of their report on their trainees’ and their own perceived benefit. Thirdly, we intend to showcase the role of the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece. In this light, we selected the most suitable methodological approach to address the following research questions:

1) To what extent do the Coordinators display “reformed” training practice in terms of professional development activities (Franke et al., 2001) provided to the teachers “during” their participation in the CoPs compared with the ones “before” their participation?
2) To what extent is there reported perceived benefit in relation to the Coordinators’ and the teachers’ practice as a result of this involvement?
3) What is the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece?

Study context

In order to respond to the research questions stated above, we made a difficult decision in the direction of reliability to gather the necessary data by developing our own authentic online CoPs, not with a focus group of the English Department.

The project and research were realized thanks to my PhD supervisor, Dr. Kia Karavas, Professor at the English Department, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, who initiated and supported me with feedback throughout this endeavor.
National Kapodistrian University acquaintances, but with the actual appointed volunteers Instructional Coordinators for the English language, operating in different geographical jurisdictions all over Greece. They are responsible for training all state – school appointed teachers working in their jurisdiction and the assessment of the state school teachers’ performance fell within the exclusive competence of these Coordinators as established by the Presidential Decree of 5 November 2013, No. 152 published in the Government Gazette Vol. 1, No. 240/2013. Coordinators communicated our invitations and announcements through the competent Directorates of Primary Education in order to recruit appointed volunteers EFL teachers working in the state primary education in Greece with real needs and everyday problems. For the online ELTeachers CoPs formation, we used the 2gather platform developed by the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens. Through open source technologies, it combined features of Learning and Content Management Systems with those of Social Networking Services. The platform integrated the following facilities useful to a CoP: a) homepage b) discussion spaces to foster discussions through a closed forum for every CoP, c) private and public messages, d) member directory with a profile – avatar and a short bionote for every participant as well as their online status, e) chatrooms, f) media library, g) activity streams and h) groups and sub-groups (Karavas & Papadopoulou, 2014).

The whole project amounted to a monumental effort of setting up, publicising, piloting, organizing launching as well as kick-off events, face and skype meetings, tutorial workshops as well as informing and training the Coordinators (the teacher trainers) on the innovative teacher education method, the specific platform and available tools. The investigation lasted from April 2014 – June 2015. Each online CoP was composed of one Coordinator and as many teachers - volunteers as they could find, working in the broader geographical area of the Coordinators' jurisdiction, sometimes a whole Prefecture. The CoP training schedule and material was based on reported teachers' needs and was given to the Coordinators as a “guidebook” for further development or, as it mostly happened, a step-by-step implementation procedure, which practically meant that it was fully adopted by the Coordinators and implemented with very little content and structure variation. Coordinators posted one monthly activity in each CoP’s forum divided in two fortnight sections with strict deadlines and specific ground rules designed to multiply interaction. The first section was designed to foster reflection and practice-related integration with posts and accompanying studying or viewing material. The second section was meant to foster the development of open discussion and the connection with teachers’ everyday practice through new posts, continuous provision of feedback and open interaction among the participants. The following topics were created and posted as monthly activities: 1. Introductions; 2. Teaching Context; 3. Multiple Intelligences and Learning Styles; 4. Classroom Management; 5. Increasing student motivation/Developing positive student-teacher relationships; 6. Differentiated instruction; 7. Project work on lesson planning (Kourkouli, 2018).

In other words, the whole project amounted to the first ever attempt in the EFL state education greek context to implement an innovatory model of teacher education with actual appointed Coordinators training actual appointed volunteers - teachers. This participation plan was meant to increase the validity and reliability of the research findings.

Participants
The research was conducted by the author of this paper, Katerina Kourkouli. Following Cambridge et al.’s example (2005), we assigned the roles as follows:

Administrator–Leader: Katerina Kourkouli, researcher at the English Department of the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, responsible for the setting up of the 4 online CoPs under investigation, registration procedures, training modules, Coordinators’ training, support, contact, organizing face-to-face, Skype and kick-off meetings with Coordinators and participating teachers, explaining the philosophy, publicizing the training innovation and addressing every technical or other issue that might arise. A lot of the decision – making was the result of fruitful deliberations with my supervisor, Dr. Kia Karavas, Professor at the English Department, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens.

1 It should be noted that at the time, November 2014 – January 2015, due to austerity measures and reforms enforced in Greece in the context of its fiscal adjustment, the competent Ministers had issued Presidential Decree No 152/5 November 2013 published in the Government Gazette Vol I, No. 240/2013, pp. 4107-4132 assigning School Advisors (currently Instructional Coordinators) to conduct teachers’ evaluations for the first time in years with the aim to create a potential tank for future state school teachers’ dismissals. They were signed as prior actions of the Second Economic Adjustment Programme for Greece in March 2012. The total number of online CoPs under my supervision amounted to 10 CoPs for the school years of 2014-15 and 2015-16 and the total number of participants amounted to 147. Despite repeated reassurance and affirmation on the part of the researcher and the School Advisors that teachers' participation in the CoPs training program would not be used for their evaluation reports, the final research participants were much fewer.
Coordinators: 4 state EFL Instructional Coordinators assigned their own online CoP (A’ CoP, K’ CoP, C’ CoP and I’ CoP named like this for anonymity reasons) who consented to answer the “before” the CoP involvement questionnaire (they were informed that it was meant to serve as a research tool and baseline investigation), volunteered to participate in all Coordinators’ seminars, meetings, skype, phonecall communications and problem – solving deliberations with the Administrator of the project, managed to initiate and keep their CoPs active and lively throughout the training period, fulfilled the criteria in terms of implementation specified by the CoP literature (Lai et al., 2006), consented to answer the “after” the CoP involvement questionnaire and provide all necessary information, data and clarification requested by the researcher. All four (4) Coordinators received certificates of the ELTeachers online CoPs Coordination. At this point, it is important to disclose that A’ CoP consisted of teachers working in schools of a major urban centre of Athens, the capital of Greece, whereas the remaining three consisted of teachers working in urban, exurban and rural schools scattered all around the corresponding prefectures of different regions in Greece. The allocation of online CoPs was based on the Coordinators' administrative jurisdiction, as they were responsible for training, supporting, encouraging the participants and providing feedback. In fact, one of them, C’ CoP’s Coordinator opted to acting as a Coordinator along with a chosen teacher of her jurisdiction acting as a Deputy Coordinator.

Participants: 50 EFL state school teachers working in the primary education (16 teachers/trainees for A’ CoP, 16 for C’ CoP, 6 for I’ CoP and 12 for K’ CoP) who consented to answer the “before” the CoP participation questionnaire anonymously and registered to participate in their Instructional Coordinators' CoPs. They were informed that it was meant to serve as a research tool and baseline investigation resulting finally in 49 EFL state school teachers working in the primary education who participated voluntarily and actively throughout the training period, in their authentic contexts, fulfilled the criteria in terms of workload and projects submitted specified by the CoP program and answered the “after” questionnaire (16 teachers for A’ CoP, 15 for C’ CoP, 12 for K’ CoP and 6 for I’ CoP). All 49 participants received a certificate of participation. Anonymity was guaranteed by their Coordinators and the researcher herself.

Data sources

In order to address the research questions, two questionnaires were constructed as tools for data collection and analysis administered “before” and “after” the Coordinators’ CoP involvement. The questionnaire administered “before” the CoP involvement is meant to serve as a baseline investigation of the Coordinators’ profiles, beliefs and training practices before their involvement in the CoPs program while the questionnaire administered “after” their CoP involvement is considered a tool for detecting “reformed” beliefs, attitudes and training practices. The “after” questionnaire is also meant to detect reported perceived benefit in relation to the Coordinators’ and their teachers’ practice as a result of this involvement as well as the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece.

Both questionnaires were constructed based on the study of variables that capture common experiences of people. In particular, the use of the Microsoft Excel 2007 Data processing programme accounted for the descriptive nature of this research and qualitative crosstabulation for the establishment of associations between variables (Dornyei, 2007: 228).

The sampling plan for this project involved two stages and yielded a total of 4 questionnaires from November-January 2014 (the “before” phase) and another 4 questionnaires in July 2015 (the “after” phase). 1

Instrument

Information was elicited through mainly clozed-ended item types using factual, behavioural and attitudinal questions. In effect, Part I aims to build a profile of the respondents who participate in this research, especially in the areas of formal training concerning the area of training teachers to teach English to young learners. Part II focuses on the teacher education courses themselves, both the traditional ones Coordinators used to provide “before” their CoP involvement and the online CoP course itself. This is achieved firstly by exploring the topics covered, the presence of training practices used which are regarded conducive to teacher development as well as the specific professional development activities Coordinators provided their trainees with “before” and “during” their CoP training. Secondly, it seeks to investigate the impact of both the traditional courses as well as the online CoP course itself. This is done through the tracing of reported perceived benefit in relation to the Coordinators’ and their teachers’ needs and practice as a result of this involvement. Finally, focusing

1 The “after” questionnaires were collected in a period of widespread financial and political turmoil in Greece with banks closed and capital controls imposed.
exclusively on the “after” instrument, we will also highlight specific tools that have supported teachers’ reflection and the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece.

**Presentation and discussion of results**

In this section, we will present the results and discuss them critically based on the research method described and the theoretical framework delineated above.

**Personal and professional data**

All the four Coordinators participating in this research are female, three of them have 2-5 years of experience as School Advisors/Instructional Coordinators and one of them 0-1 year. Half of them report having received formal training concerning the area of teaching English to young learners, whereas the other half report no such training. Most of them (75%) have not been involved in an organized Community of Practice but are motivated into familiarizing themselves with it.

**Description of results**

The second part of this presentation will focus on the online CoP teacher education course itself, in terms of the implementation of strategies, activities and training procedures considered to be conducive to teacher development. We will explore the extent of the Coordinators’ “reformed” training practice by comparing the professional development activities they provided to the teachers - trainees “before”, in the traditional seminars, with the ones “during” their involvement in the ELTeachers online Communities of Practice as well as the impact of their involvement in terms of their report on their trainees’ and their own perceived benefit. Finally, focusing on the “after” instrument, we will also highlight specific tools that have supported teachers’ reflection and the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece.

In response to the first research question,

To what extent do the Coordinators display “reformed” training practice in terms of professional development activities (Franke et al., 2001) provided to the teachers “during” their participation in the CoPs compared with the ones “before” their participation?

as can be seen in Chart 1 below, in terms of topic coverage, there is the introduction of new topics for discussion and exploration for the first time “during” the online CoP course such as the issues of multiple intelligences, collaborative and individual lesson designing and the all-important factor of reflection. Topic selection based on teachers’ needs also dictated the coverage of the all too popular and practical issue of classroom management at a rate of 100% “during” the CoP course, which is obviously more compatible with learner-centric approaches.

**Chart 1 : Topics covered before/after your CoP involvement with primary school EFL teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>before</th>
<th>after</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching practices appropriate to…</td>
<td></td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ role in the very young…</td>
<td></td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young learners characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilization of educational technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with individual learner…</td>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using the suggested material in the…</td>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (multiple intelligences,...)</td>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the professional development activities implemented, that is the methods the trainers employed to provide new input as well as the presence of training elements augmenting the effectiveness of training courses, the situation looks by
far more improved “during” the CoP course. More specifically, findings show that (see Chart 2) 50% of the Coordinators report regularly involving teachers in sharing problems with colleagues “during” the CoP course compared with only 25% of them reporting the same in the “before” / traditional courses. In the same vein, an astonishing 75% of Coordinators engaged their teachers in exploring solutions with their colleagues while no one of them (0%) implemented such an activity in the “before” traditional seminars. Similarly, 75% of the Coordinators report often involving teachers in reflecting on practice compared with only 25% of them in the “before” phase and there is also an increase in the number of Coordinators engaging teachers in putting a new approach into practice (50%). Since learning is a participatory process where knowledge is “constructed” by the participants, then collaborative and exploratory learning constitute effective professional development activities. Coordinators seem to perceive the notions of “social and situated learning” through interaction and collaboration at greater percentages than “before” the CoP course.

Findings also exhibit evidence of the Coordinators’ “reformed” attitudes (see Chart 3) when asked about the professional development activities they consider more effective for their teachers’ professional development. As can be seen below, there is a far greater appreciation of the “sharing problems with colleagues” and “exploring solutions with colleagues” activities (75%) compared with only 25% in the “before” phase. Giving lectures fell to 0% while identifying teachers’ needs and involving teachers in reflecting on practice are considered more effective for the professional development of teachers “during” the CoP course (75%).
In accordance with the above, findings also show a striking shift of the Coordinators’ focus on the provision of activities that foster teachers’ reflection on their teaching practice, experimenting and innovating in their work and sharing their professional experiences and successes at rates of 100% “during” the CoP. In addition, Coordinators seem more determined “during” the CoP course to engage teachers systematically in social learning, working in teams and discussing their teaching methods at percentages of 75% (see Chart 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Development Activities for EFL Teachers</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Giving lectures</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in sharing problems with colleagues</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in observing colleagues’ classes</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in exploring solutions with colleagues</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in sharing resources and good practices with colleagues</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying teachers’ needs</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in putting a new approach into practice</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving feedback to teaching problems</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving teachers in reflecting on practice</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving follow-up training on new ideas-techniques</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 3: Most effective professional development activities for EFL teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities Primary school EFL teachers systematically engage in before/during CoP involvement</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learn together with colleagues</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively seek ideas form colleagues in...</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routinely collect, analyze and use data...</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use e-learning opportunities</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regularly discuss teaching methods</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share their professional experiences and...</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment and innovate in their work</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work and learn in teams</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively reflect on their practice</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 4: Activities primary school EFL teachers systematically engage in before/during CoP involvement
They also report employing more effective reflection practices with teachers “during” the CoP, such as fostering discussions with colleagues in a collaborative environment (100%), writing reflective lesson plans (75%) and the introduction of peer evaluation for the first time (25%) (see Chart 5).

Base on Coordinators’ reports of teachers’ increased involvement in reflective strategies, exposure to collaborative and cooperative environments, provision of opportunities to stand critically towards the process experienced and practical application of new approaches, it could be suggested here that the online CoP courses incite Coordinators to engage teachers in more meaningful professional development activities than the traditional courses. Therefore, findings corroborate the hypothesis for the restructuring of both Coordinators’ and teachers’ attitudes and training practices as a result of their involvement in the online CoPs.

Addressing the second research question,

To what extent is there reported perceived benefit in relation to the Coordinators’ and the teachers’ practice as a result of this involvement?

Findings show (see Chart 6) a striking rate of satisfaction concerning the extent to which Coordinators report that teachers’ development needs have been met “during” the CoP course. In particular, 75% of the Coordinators report a great deal of satisfaction with the CoP course whereas only 25% of them took the same stance for the traditional courses.

Concerning the effectiveness of the CoP training course as a means of professional development both for the Coordinators and the teachers/trainees, the whole analysis and discussion of results below refers to the “after” questionnaire. In this light, in terms of the Coordinators’ perception of the impact and usefulness of the CoP training course for their own
professional development, all of the respondents (100%) who participated actively as Coordinators in their CoPs are totally positive in their appraisal (see Charts 7 & 8).

When asked to specify the benefits received, there is a wide distribution (25% for each one of the responses) of the Coordinators report on a plethora of teacher training aspects, from gaining useful information about their own teachers' teaching practices and difficulties, identification of teachers' training needs, sharing, collaborating and learning from each other an ethos of collegiality, to building better rapport with their colleagues, developing their organizational and management skills as well as getting better acquainted with the benefits of distance learning (Chart 9).

Results, display a perfect case of the most positive impact of the ELTeachers online CoPs training course. To corroborate this statement, all (100%) of the Coordinators who participated actively in their CoPs, report that the CoP training course responded to teachers’ everyday practice to a great extent (see Chart 10).
Answering the 3rd research question,

What is the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece?

Coordinators’ responses concerning the effectiveness of their online CoP course involvement on their own training practice will provide us with useful insights for more effective teacher training implementation in the future. They also provide evidence on the role that online CoPs can play in the teacher education field in Greece as an effective catalyst for more meaningful professional development and the potential for this model’s wider implementation as well.

As can be seen, all (100%) of the Coordinators report overcoming problems and difficulties as a result of this involvement (see Chart 11).

Time and geographical constraints constitute the most often reported problems overcome (75%), followed by the difficulty of sharing (50%) as the second most popular issue dealt with. The problems of instilling motivation, encouraging collaboration and communication as well as the empowerment of designing a coherent teacher training course and giving solutions to teachers’ problems have all been reported as overcome at a rate of 25% (Chart 12).

Among the main constraints mentioned to be addressed in future implementation endeavours are the issues of motivating teachers to participate and convincing them about the importance of this participation for their professional development
(50%), building trust among them and reducing their fear of exposure (50%). In addition, the time – consuming nature of the CoP involvement was mentioned, as it makes demands on the Coordinators’ time schedule (50%) (Chart 13).

Finally, assessing the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education “after” their involvement in it, 75% of them are greatly positive in their appraisal for its feasibility and viability as a teacher education model in Greece accounting for the 100% of the Coordinators who participated actively. The one Coordinator who acted in parallel with a Deputy Coordinator is also fairly positive (see Chart 14).

In order to better showcase the role of the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education for its feasibility and viability in Greece, the crosstabulation of data below depicts an association between the Coordinators’ opinion on feasibility and viability of online CoPs with their reported effectiveness of the CoP course on the teachers’ professional development.

As table 1 shows, the 3 Coordinators who reported a great deal of effectiveness of the CoP course, were equally greatly positive in their opinion on the feasibility and viability of CoPs as a teacher education model in Greece.

### Coordinators’ opinion on feasibility and viability of CoPs –

### Reported effectiveness on the teachers’ professional development needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Question 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A great deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to Some extent</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**
As the international educational policy increases expectations for improved educational outcomes, a more comprehensive understanding of teacher professional development experiences that can enhance their knowledge and can support teacher growth and change proves indispensable to policy decision makers and training course designers. Since traditional teacher professional development policies have been largely found to be ineffective, recent research findings confirm that online CoPs with their technological affordances and properly designed implementation schedules have a real potential to be an effective model for the professional development of teachers (Kourkouli, 2018). The present paper provides evidence in the direction of evaluating the effectiveness of this innovative teacher education model and highlighting this perspective in terms of the Coordinators’ reports while recognizing their key role. The findings therefore contribute to furthering our understanding of effective implementation of online CoPs in the context of continuing professional development.

In particular, the study found that ELTeachers online CoPs constitute a teacher training model that empowers Coordinators to engage in “reformed” training practice themselves as they are facilitated to provide teachers/trainees with more meaningful professional development activities than the traditional models of in-service teacher education usually implemented in Greece. The Coordinator has an essential role to play and through this model they engaged their trainees in the discussion of more meaningful topics, through more meaningful professional development activities than ever before. In addition, the ELTeachers CoP training was found to be very useful in terms of the Coordinators' reports on their trainees' and their own perceived benefit. Trainees are reported to have met their development needs regarding their everyday teaching practice to a much greater extent and Coordinators have reaped a number of benefits specified above. Finally, the study highlights the key role of the Coordinators’ attitude towards the innovative model of teacher education. In effect, very positive Coordinators’ feedback, attitudes and reported impact, given the prominent role of the Coordinators, can make a significant contribution to the feasibility and viability of this teacher education model in Greece. Further research on reform initiatives involving online CoPs can shed more light on more and different factors associated with increased teacher learning and effectiveness in this context, as well as with appropriate design principles that can potentially pave the way for an improved teacher education paradigm in Greece.

References


Polarities of Compulsory Education from the Perspective of Parents and Kindergarten Teachers

Jana Majerčíková
Hana Navrátilová
Faculty of Humanities, Tomas Bata University in Zlín

Abstract
This empirical study deals with the issue of compulsory education in kindergartens, which was implemented in the Czech Republic in 2017. Children aged 5 must attend kindergarten or opt for individual home-schooling. The intention of this Czech educational policy step was to raise the preparedness and eligibility of children for compulsory primary school education and to eliminate or compensate for potential handicaps when detected. The aim of the research was to document the reflections of parents and kindergarten teachers on the realization of the compulsory pre-school education, specifically the concerns and other reactions of the adults and the children themselves. The data collection was performed by two means: a questionnaire filled in by 305 parents within which predominantly open questions were analyzed, and the method of thematic writing by kindergarten teachers. In the second case twenty-nine texts averaging 2500 characters were obtained. To process the data we used the content analysis method based on open coding. Several significant findings were disclosed characterizing compulsory pre-school education, notably regarding ambivalence. The parents' attitudes are based on preferences and necessities of pre-school education (as opposed to individual home-schooling) for their children’s further educational career, however, the strict legal obligation to ensure children’s kindergarten attendance was disputed. The teachers welcome the expected improvement of the children’s preparedness; at the same time, they perceive a borderline shift regarding the follow-up childhood stage traditionally connected with entering primary school. The teachers also identify the changing attitudes of children in transition from an institution where they “go to play” while their parents work, to that of a learning place with a status similar to that of primary school.

Keywords: compulsory pre-school education, kindergarten teacher, parent, legislative change

Introduction
Pre-school education in the Czech Republic has undergone relatively important changes in recent years. One of the most significant shifts was a legislative intervention that caused a distinctive transformation of the overall character of pre-school education. Pre-school education, realized either as kindergarten attendance or as individual home-schooling, became a legal requirement in 2017. Czech pre-school education is built on a strong educational tradition. Implementing compulsory kindergarten attendance was seen to create several benefits, mainly the economic effects based on the financial return on investments into pre-school education along with social compensation benefits of education and specialized care for learners at pre-school age. This study presents the findings of a research survey realized within the framework of pre-school education after implementing the legal requirement of kindergarten attendance one year before entering primary school. The objective is to depict the reactions of parents, kindergarten teachers and children from the point of view of their teachers.

Theoretical and Legislative Framework
In recent years in the Czech Republic significant attention has been devoted to pre-school education. This can be observed not only at the level of scientific reflections through the increasing number of research and project activities realized in kindergartens or other institutions of pre-school education, but also in political interests that are reflected in conceptual and strategic documents of school policy (for instance, the governmental document Strategies 2020), as well as in real
legislative measures. One of them was the establishment of compulsory pre-school education to take effect in September 2017. The Czech Republic thus became a part of a consortium of states with compulsory pre-school education, which comprise about one third of the European Union member nations.

School policymakers came to the conclusion that compulsory pre-school education is the basis for increasing the preparedness and eligibility of children for further education at primary schools as well as of the possibility to eliminate potential children’s handicaps when detected.

In practical terms, the implementation of compulsory pre-school education means that children who reach the age of five must begin kindergarten attendance from the beginning of the following school year, or their parents must opt for individual home-schooling. In such a way the skills and personal potential of children for further education is to be purposefully and systematically cultivated within the framework of state-guaranteed and controlled conditions one year before children’s entry into primary schools. What needs to be stressed is that in the Czech Republic every six-year-old must enter primary school to undergo compulsory education. The average rate of pre-schooling (the attendance of kindergartens by five-year-olds) exceeds 90%. Thus even before implementing the compulsory pre-school education, voices could be heard indicating that this measure would concern only about 10% of children one year before entering primary school, which would make the measure redundant; with regard to the minority of specifically equipped parents it would even be non-functional (Smolíková, 2010).

According to the statement of reasons accompanying the legislative change (Důvodová zpráva [Statement of Reasons], 2015), a large group of children is still not predisposed to enter compulsory school education, notably including children from a socially disadvantaged environment. Another reason is the fact that the majority of these children participated neither in kindergarten education nor in preparatory classes for primary education. The point of departure is the fact that in kindergarten, as the first institution of life-long education, children adapt to new conditions, i.e. they become integrated into systematic and organized education which should be adjusted to their individual intellectual maturity, biological and psychological capacities and relevant social skills. The educational effort in kindergartens is directed towards the further development and cultivation of children's personalities. When the potentialities of pre-school education are not properly utilized before children enter primary school, the probability of problems in the initial phases of primary education increases. The benefits of pre-school education for children are thus indisputable and the obligation to participate in these programs at least one year before entering primary school also has a preventive and compensational impact. The overall evaluation of school education by the Czech public is positive, with the best evaluation ascribed to pre-school and primary school education (Walterová et al., 2010). Empirical studies have shown that parents of pre-school children mainly appreciate the socializing effects of kindergarten education and preparation of children for subsequent schooling (Šmlová, 2005; Majerčíková & Rebendová, 2016; Bernatíková, 2018).

Another option for fulfilling the compulsory pre-primary education requirement is individual education, typically provided for by parents in the home environment of the child. When parents decide to proceed in this way, a legal obligation arises for them (Act No. 178/2016 Coll.) to inform the headmaster of kindergarten located in the school district of the child’s permanent residence not later than three months before the beginning of the school year in which the child was to begin their compulsory pre-school-education. This decision must therefore be taken well in advance and the parents must proceed accordingly. The specialized state supervision of individual education is guaranteed through the verification of the requisite development level by testing the knowledge and skills in the local kindergarten by agreement with the headmaster. Parents must thus provide home schooling in accordance with the aims and subject matter of pre-school education programs as stated in the fundamental curricular document valid for pre-school education in the Czech Republic. The obtained level should be verified between the third and fourth month from the beginning of the school year, i.e., from the commencement of compulsory pre-school education. The verification is obligatory and the parent must ensure that the child is present. The law enables the headmaster to terminate individual home-schooling in cases in which the child is not present at testing in the first nor alternative term (Act No. 178/2016 Coll.). If the optimal cognitive and social development of a child has been demonstrated, the individual home-schooling may continue. If the required competences have not been proven, the headmaster should advise the parent on alternative possibilities regarding the further education of the child so that adequate educational results can be reached. It is thus quite obvious that this may not necessarily be a conforming situation for parents.

The Czech educational system permits the option of home-schooling even at the follow-up level of education, which gradually enables the formation of alternative groups of parents as bearers of specific parental interests. The families of
home-schooled pre-schoolers and primary school pupils are obviously in the minority; however, the number of parents who have expressed interest in this option is growing, as expressed by their increasing feedback on topical social networks (Kašparová, 2017). It is nevertheless a fact that the majority of five-year-olds attends kindergarten, which is compulsory in the last year. In this case, the pre-school education parties, i.e., teachers, parents and children, find themselves in a completely new situation. Therefore, we posed a question regarding how all the parties have reacted.

The Research: Aims, Methods, Sample and Limits

Given the circumstances expressed above, kindergartens have been currently experiencing and developing a new educational reality which we have made the subject of the present research. Our findings depart from the accepted precept that first experiences can be only detected one year after implementing compulsory pre-school education, and that experiences can be deciphered as views of the new reality. Proceeding further, certain empirical proofs as contributions to the relevant evaluation of compulsory pre-school education can be presented.

The aim of the research was to uncover how parents and kindergarten teachers perceive the realization of compulsory pre-school education with regard to the interests of adults as well as children. The following research questions were asked:

How do parents perceive the implementation of compulsory pre-school education?

Based on their own experience, how do kindergarten teachers respond to the present realization of compulsory pre-school education?

Two research methods were applied in the research. The principal source of data were texts obtained from kindergarten teachers by the method of thematic writing. It seemed useful to use the potential of free writing, which enables insights into the participants’ discourses and perspectives as well as provides the participants with an opportunity to meditate on their subjective attitudes without fear of reactions from other parties. The process of data collection was not interrupted by activities in environmental surroundings, which has been shown to clarify responses (Elizabeth, 2008). Overall twenty-nine texts averaging 2,500 characters were collected.

Further, two items in the form of open questions of a 21-item questionnaire distributed among parents were then used to gather data. The questionnaire asked for the parents’ points of view, opinions and experiences regarding compulsory pre-school education. Data from 305 parents who have had experience with pre-school education of their children were gathered. Both groups of source data were further sorted and processed by the open coding technique.

The research sample. As has been noted, twenty-nine teachers participated in the research, all of which had taught in a kindergarten the year before. The majority had a secondary-school education. They were all female. The questionnaire respondents were also mostly women (96.7%), approximately three quarters of whom in the age category of 26 to 40. From the point of view of their education, 40% of the respondents had university degrees, 31% had a secondary school education and 10.5% had vocational training.

Considerations regarding the research limits primarily focus on the type of respondent and participant choices. Limits are also imposed by the size of the texts obtained by the teachers. Their willingness to share ideas would have been more greatly encouraged through face-to-face communication, which was not the case in this research.

Results

The research brought several significant findings which showed an ambivalent view toward compulsory pre-school education; for this reason, the title employs the term polarities. The findings show the key participants of education – children, parents and teachers – as those whose perceived impacts of compulsory pre-school education can be characterized as diversified.

Attitude of Parents to Compulsory Pre-school Education

Firstly, it must be stressed that the institution of the requirement for compulsory pre-school education in the Czech Republic was not accompanied by any significant public debate, and after the implementation no noticeable parental reaction was observed. The parents whose children had already attended kindergarten did not perceive this step as a principal change, as their children had already been through kindergarten. Uncommitted parents probably did not perceive the seriousness of this situation.
According to their own statements, the parents assign high importance to pre-school education, i.e. they understand its legitimacy. This view is closely connected to the sound preparedness of a child to enter primary school; the dimension of the child’s educational perspective dominates. In parents’ understanding, the child’s development in kindergarten is thus not connected with cultivation of their present potentialities linked to the current life. One of the parents wrote in this regard:

“Socialization of a child in a group of others is important, as well as regularity of a daily regime, higher level of advertisement and encouragement by peers, learning independence and overall development of a child. This all should lead to the most important goal – preparedness for primary school.”

On the other hand, parents feel non-conformable in a situation in which kindergarten attendance is compulsory and they are obliged to observe this mandate. The symbol of this obligation is a written excuse which must be prepared in case the child is not present in kindergarten.

Parents prefer institutional education in kindergartens to that of individual education in the family.

“I take compulsory education as a great plus. I prefer education and preparation of children in a group of peers to stressful testing. Children learn to respect the authority of a teacher and concentrate on a given activity. They learn to respect differences among peers as well as self-assertion. I see the highest significance in working a group of peers.”

This is closely linked to parents’ positive attitude to strengthening the responsibility of the state for the preparation of children to enter primary school performed via compulsory education in kindergartens. This is natural, as until now the preparation for and taking the decision to attend kindergartens was purely in parents’ hands. Such a delegation of responsibility to kindergarten is advantageous for them. In words of one teacher:

“Parents make great use compulsory pre-school education. The preparation of their child for primary school is very important to them and they expect (and I think to an even greater degree) that we will prepare their kid for school without creating more duties for them at home.”

Teachers perceive and positively evaluate the signals leading to their growing professional prestige when they are able to provide the educational obligation in kindergartens both in terms of relationships with parents as well as with fellow teachers at primary schools. On the other hand, a higher responsibility for the preparedness of a child for primary school is binding, especially when teachers perceive the absolute delegation of these duties from parents. What is also significant is the growing nature of administration of kindergartens and teachers, for instance when excusing the child’s absence is taken into consideration. One teacher sees it as follows:

“I perceive the compulsory kindergarten attendance in a way which is positive for children as their preparation for school. Both children and teachers will have easier time in primary schools. However, it is more demanding for the teachers, as they should better prepare the child for primary school, i.e. teach everything children would need before entering the first grade, and that is another great responsibility.”

**Compulsory Pre-school Preparation in the Kindergarten Environment**

In a fashion similar to parents, teachers evaluate the introduction of compulsory pre-school education as a positive step leading to the support of children’s education. Educators welcome the anticipated improvement in children’ preparedness for primary school entry. Teachers point out the close link to follow-up school education in terms of competences development, which should help children to successfully adapt to the role of primary school pupils.

One of the leitmotifs of the Czech pre-school education is the individual approach to each child, a goal which should be applied across the age range of children attending kindergarten. Nevertheless, teachers claim it is the balancing of educational approaches towards children that implementation of compulsory pre-school education resonates with. This is an outcome undertaken with a vision of unified preparedness of all children for primary school education. One of the teachers claim:

“All the children have an opportunity to reach equal preparedness at a certain level, to socialize and learn, […] which is not what all families can provide in a sufficient quality […] differences can be eliminated. Children are also able to perceive an authority other than that of their parents […] so entering primary school eventually isn’t such a shock.”
The requirements of primary schools for the adequate school preparedness of children has created an overlap of didactic strategies applied in kindergartens which result in adopting elements of regular school education into pre-schools. This pressure by primary schools on kindergartens seems to be increased by the compulsory pre-school attendance. Naturally, children are generally not very aware or at least have not greatly reflected on the legislative intervention. According to teachers, however, learners are able to perceive the changes in the character of their pre-school education with respect to their age. Teachers identify this development in the children's attitude towards kindergartens from the age perspective as a shift from "the space for play to a space for learning." As play is generally understood to be the main activity of children in a kindergarten, indications toward learning are considered to signalize an important change in the character of pre-school education, a transformation perceived by teachers as a change in the very character of childhood. Educators evaluate this as the earlier onset of the next stage of childhood, a stage traditionally connected with entering primary school.

"Younger kids of 2 - 4 years think they go to the kindergarten to play while their parents work. They don't take it as a facility where they will learn something. Older children, to the contrary, begin to understand that kindergarten is here so they learn something to get ready for school when that time comes."

Conclusion and Discussion

It is obvious that by the implementation of compulsory attendance pre-school education has become a definitive part of lifelong learning. The present research indicates that the change was positively accepted by both teachers and parents, although a certain ambivalence can be seen regarding the changing relationships among parents, teachers and children.

A question of preparedness for primary school entry which concerned both teachers and parents clearly dominated the research. This is a much-discussed topic in the Czech environment, since the primary-school entry of approximately 20% of six-year old children is postponed, mainly on the basis of appeals by parents. This means that once diagnosed, approximately one in every fifth child does not reach the required maturity for succeeding in primary school (Majerčíková, 2017). Opinions have been voiced, though, that these Czech data indicate an education system error, as the school system is not able to ensure the overall success of pupils, which should be about 97–98% within the population (Mertin, 2015), and not only 80%. Thus compulsory pre-school education should be one of the systemic solutions through which the number of children who are able to begin primary school on time can be increased.

The results also showed that, on one hand, teachers find the compulsory pre-school education administratively demanding, but on the other hand it is a platform for raising their professional prestige. This can be viewed as a positive result; as professional self-confidence of Czech kindergarten teachers has been found not to be high. One example of this can be seen in how kindergarten educators see themselves in relation to other colleagues. They compare themselves with specialists in various other fields (e.g. regarding the decision making to postpone school entry) such as psychologists or pediatricians. Research has shown that kindergarten teachers do not consider themselves as specialists (Majerčíková, 2017).

Compulsory pre-school education naturally concerns the perceived attitudes and abilities of kindergarten children as well, since children are viewed today through the prism of their abilities and personal qualities by which they are able to squeeze into current, relatively static school programs (May et al., 1994). Thus compulsory pre-school education is an opportunity to support children in these efforts, even if the goals of many of these programs come at the expense of the individualistic approach to children with the usage of educational strategies characteristic for primary schools.

No research observation data of this type regarding the described issues has been found. Based on the present research we can claim, however, that one year after its implementation the compulsory pre-school education is viewed as a measure the consequences of which reach into various levels of pre-school education. So far, what seems to have been privileged is the preparation of children for primary school using an academic approach even in pre-school education (Starting Strong, 2012) with the aim of relevant preparedness of each child for follow-up education.
References


Support Teacher as Key Factor of Integration Children with Special Education Needs in Mainstream School

Mihaela Voinea
Ioana Roxana Topală
Department of Psychology, Education and Teacher Training, Transilvania University of Brasov, Romania

Abstract

The issue of integrating children with special educational needs in mainstream school depends on several factors. The most important is the support teacher, who is the link between school, family and community, between children and teachers and other specialists. (Avramidis & all 2000, Ainscow 2016, etc.). Teachers need to change their own mindset and system of values according to the new social responsibilities in order to become promoters of human diversity, acceptance and tolerance. Therefore, teacher training must respond diligently to the new teacher’s roles and responsibilities. The main purpose of this research was to identify the training needs for support teachers based on the analysis of their own socio-educational experience (their own role and their particular training needs as support teachers), as well as (mainstream school) teachers’, pupils’ and parents’ perceptions regarding integration. This study was conducted in a mix methods structure, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. A questionnaire-based survey was conducted, with mainstream teachers, on one hand, and parents, on the other hand. We addressed the issues of attitudes towards the integration of children with SEN (special education needs) and the collaboration with the support teacher. Also, focus-group interviews were conducted with support teachers. A number of 112 participants were included in the study (57 teachers from mainstream schools, 20 support teachers, and 35 parents) Conclusion: Teachers’ and parents’ cognitive schemas regarding what a support teacher can and should do in order to facilitate the integration of children with SEN are different from his/her actual educational role and responsibilities. This gap between the social representations and the actual job description can be bridged by building a more complex and accurate understanding of how every actor involved in the integration process must become aware of one’s personal beliefs and expectations, assume and thoroughly play his/her part in a collaborative manner. Teacher training through transformative learning based on sharing experiences and group projects is a learning experience suitable for developing competences for teachers for special education.

Keywords: teacher training, children with special educational needs, transformative learning, support teacher.

Introduction

This article is a continuation of a research (Voinea, 2018; Voinea, Topală, Bota, 2018) on teacher training for special education (support teachers). It is important to mention that in Romania the support teachers are the teachers who work with children with special educational needs who are integrated in mainstream school. One of the most important responsibilities of the support teacher is to help children with SEN (special educational needs) to achieve the educational goals, to help classroom teachers to adapt curriculum, to be a liaison between school and community.

But, most support teachers often face major difficulties in their work because of parents, students and teacher’s mentalities and affective barriers. Despite all the efforts made for this integration, as European studies show (Unesco, 2015), the issue of integration / inclusion still raises many resistances.
There is research (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Newton et al., 2014) which shows that teachers’ positive perception of pupils with disabilities or of inclusive education is a determining factor for their classroom behaviour. In this case, the support teachers have a major role in changing the mind sets of educational actors.

Support teachers, through their position in school, can make a significant contribution to changing mentalities, behaviours towards integration, and can help to develop an inclusive culture. More and more studies (Hattie, 2014; Senge, 2017; Fullan, 1993) demonstrate the link between school culture, teachers’ mental structures and school changes: "(...) The strong impact of our schools is the way we think" (Hattie, 2014, p.326). The way the teachers perceive and understand their roles and responsibilities contributes to their engaging in change in educational practice. That is why teachers today need to reconsider their own theories about their work and see themselves as something more than facilitators of learning, namely as agents of change (Fullan, 1993) with impact on the whole school culture.

How can this be achieved? First of all, through the appropriate training of support teachers, who then, through their interactions with all the actors involved in integration, will form new patterns of behaviour.

Training teachers through transformation is one of the possible solutions, which leads to the overcoming of cognitive and emotional barriers.

**Why is the support teacher a key factor of integration?**

Most specialists (Avramidis, Norwich 2002; Ainscow et al., 2016) in the field of special education emphasize that integration is a very complex process that depends on many factors. A literature review underlines a set of roles that a support teacher has, such as:

- Assesses students’ educational needs,
- Collaborates with classroom teachers (for example, attending team meetings),
- Assists all teachers in organizing curriculum and in using effective teaching strategies,
- Serves as a liaison between the local school and the community,
- Interacts with parents during conferences, home visits, and telephone conferences,
- Is informed on research on intervention strategies.

This synthesis of the support teachers’ roles and responsibilities emphasizes that the success of integration depends on them because they are the ones who analyse, select the educational experiences necessary for the child, share the results with the specialists, parents and teachers, permanently communicate with those involved in the integration.

Moreover, studies related to teachers' perception on integration show that positive attitudes lead to a good integration.

Even in the digital society, teachers remain agents of change because teachers can offer learning experiences that students, especially students with special educational needs, may not obtain at home.

The problem that arises is the training of support teachers who are aware of their important role in school and community. We also believe necessary a clearer redefinition of the support teachers’ professional identity in a 21st Century school that develops a culture of inclusion, promoting diversity and interest in the student’s well-being.

It is necessary to rethinking the teacher training system according to the individual and post-modern society. Teachers need to change their own mind set and system of values according to the new social responsibilities in order to become promoters of human diversity, acceptance and tolerance. Therefore, teacher training must respond diligently to the new teacher’s roles and responsibilities.

The transformative learning as a training strategy for support teachers for special education has the potential of becoming an effective approach.
Transformative learning as training strategy for support teachers

One of the most important quests in the teacher training system is re-orienting teacher training for sustainability and rethinking education from the perspective of a humanistic approach (Unesco, 2005; 2015). Teacher training in accordance with the requirements of a sustainable society, which also takes into account the personal fulfillment of individuals, capable of producing visible changes in people’s behaviour is transformative learning. The analysis of the emergence of the concept of transformative learning highlights its strong foundation: pedagogical, philosophical, practical (experiential) and last, but not least, social. The author of the transformative learning theory, J. Mezirow, launched the concept of transformative learning in 1978 in the article Transforming Perspectives, inspired by Paulo Freire’s critical pedagogy (the concept of critical consciousness), by Jurgen Habermans’ philosophy (which makes the distinction between instrumental learning and communicative learning) and even by the observations of his wife’s transforming experience, who returned to complete her studies as an adult.

Over the years, in which conferences and research on transformative learning took place, Mezirow developed the concept also taking into account the criticisms it had attracted. Mezirow defines transformative learning as “the process by which we transform problematic reference frameworks (mentalities, mental habits, perspectives on meanings) - sets of assumptions and expectations - to make them more comprehensive, lighter, more reflexive and more capable of affective change” (Mezirow, 2014p.168).

Transformative learning is a comprehensive theory of adult learning, based on social constructivism. It is the type of learning that suits the adults’ characteristics (Stolovitch, Keeps 2017, pp.94-95), meaning that it is the one that takes into account the learners’ experience, the fact that they can monitor their learning process, they are responsible and autonomous, but also have vulnerable spots, such as fear of failure and loss of reputation.

Although it has its limits, the transformative learning theory has been used in adult and teacher training successfully (Kostoulas-Makrakis, 2010; Kroth and Craton,2014)

Transformative learning is based, according to Mezirow, on the reflection and confrontation of various perspectives. The social context in which experience is shared is also very important. For teachers, who usually work alone with students, the experience of sharing and reflection on their own behaviour are crucial.

All these theoretical prerequisites were the basis of a training programme for support teachers aimed at changing the mentality of integrating children with SEN and their role in the community and school. The programme was designed in the form of workshops where teachers were working in groups, debating issues related to their role and their profession, sharing experiences in a context based on respect, collaboration and good mood.

Methodology: The main purpose of this research was to identify the training needs for support teachers based on the research of their own socio-educational experience (their own role and their particular training needs as support teachers), as well as the (mainstream schools) teachers’, pupils’ and parents’ perceptions regarding integration.

This study was conducted in a mixt methods structure, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection, embedded in a constructivist-interpretivist research paradigm. We are interested in deeply understanding specific cases within a particular context. (Patton,2002).

A descriptive research design was used, employing 3 non-random samples – 35 parents, 57 mainstream teachers and 20 support teachers - and a mixt methods approach to data collection:

questionnaire-based surveys for parents and mainstream teachers,
focus-group interviews for support teachers,
over a span of two weeks.

A questionnaire-based survey was conducted, with mainstream teachers, on one hand, and parents, on the other hand. We addressed the issues of attitudes towards integration of children with SEN, and the collaboration with the support teachers.

Also, focus-group interviews were conducted with support teachers.
This study included a number of 112 participants: a sample of 57 primary and secondary school teachers, 35 parents, and 20 support teacher from schools from Brasov.

Mainstream teachers were asked to respond to a questionnaire aiming to determine aspects regarding their collaboration with the support teachers. This questionnaire consisted of 34 closed-structured items, using a 5-point Likert scale, pertaining to both behaviour and attitude towards integration and the teacher’s collaboration with the support teacher.

For typical parents (whose children are normal, but have class colleagues with SEN), the same 27 closed-structured items questionnaire was used in order to collect information regarding their attitude towards the integration of children with SEN.

Results and Discussion:

After analysing the data collected via questionnaire, which targeted 57 teachers (from primary and secondary school) regarding their collaboration with support teachers, and 35 typical parents regarding their attitude towards the integration of children with SEN, we were able to have a more accurate image of how these two actors (teachers and parents) relate to the integration issues. A selection of results was made in order to present the most relevant information. As concerning mainstream teachers, we found that approximately 40% of the respondents declared to be willing to actively participate in the integration of children with SEN (31.58% - likely + 8.77% - very likely), as depicted in Fig 1.

![Figure 1. Distribution of declared willingness of mainstream teachers regarding their active participation in the integration of children with SEN](image)

Moreover, as seen in Fig 2, 73% of the questioned teachers declared that they were willing and very willing to collaborate with support teachers in order to facilitate the integration of children with SEN.

![Figure 2. Distribution of mainstream teachers' declared willingness to collaborate with support teachers for the integration of children with SEN](image)

As for their input regarding integration responsibility, nearly 59% of the teachers who responded agreed and strongly agreed to the contention that the main responsibility when thinking about integrating children with SEN in a typical class was theirs...
(Fig 3), whereas aprox. 69% of the respondents believed that support teachers were first bearers of the responsibility of integration (Fig 4).

Figure 3. Levels of agreement declared by mainstream teachers regarding their perceived responsibility for the integration of children with SEN

Figure 4. Levels of agreement declared by mainstream teachers regarding the support teachers’ responsibility for the integration of children with SEN

Findings also showed that the mainstream teachers who responded perceived themselves as being not properly prepared to facilitate the integration of children with SEN – only 22,42% agreed and strongly agreed that a mainstream teacher was ready to facilitate integration (Fig 5) – coherently responding that they were willing (62,62%) to participate in specific training programmes concerning the facilitation of integration of children with SEN (Fig 6).

Figure 5. Levels of agreement declared by mainstream teachers regarding their readiness to facilitate the integration of children with SEN
Figure 6. Mainstream teachers’ declared willingness to participate in specific training programmes for the integration of children with SEN

Data was also collected from 35 typical parents who responded to the questionnaire, and the findings showed that 47% of parents with non-disabled children did not consider themselves as having a great responsibility when it came to facilitating the integration of SEN children (Fig 7).

Figure 7. Levels of agreement declared by typical parents regarding their responsibility to facilitate the integration of children with SEN

When asked whether the integration of children with SEN was beneficial (for everyone involved), 51.4% of the typical parents agreed or strongly agreed that it was indeed beneficial, even if approximately 59% of them declared that they were worried about the integration of a child with SEN in their child’s class.

Figure 8. Declared willingness of typical parents to get involved in the integration of children with SEN
Moreover, when asked about their willingness to get involved in the integration process, their answers were somewhat equally distributed between willingness (in various degrees) and unwillingness, 33.33% being undecided (Fig 8). However, 54.28% of the typical parents declared willingness to encourage their non-disabled child to participate in specific educational activities (both inside and outside the classroom, curricular and extracurricular) in order to facilitate the integration of children with SEN.

The analysis of the data gathered through the focus group led to the outline of the following topics presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Identified topics</th>
<th>Teachers with less than 10 years of experience</th>
<th>Teachers with more than 10 years of experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The roles and responsibilities of the support teacher</td>
<td>The main role of support, mediation</td>
<td>Support, mediation, “child’s advocate”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The highest satisfaction</td>
<td>Integration of the child</td>
<td>Integration of the child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good relationships with parents and teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The greatest difficulty</td>
<td>Legislation</td>
<td>Many documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Many documents to fill in</td>
<td>Lack of collaboration with teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Collaboration with Teachers</td>
<td>Difficult (Especially with teachers of exact sciences)</td>
<td>Difficult (Especially with teachers of exact sciences)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good (with primary school teachers)</td>
<td>Good (with primary school teachers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Training needs</td>
<td>Specific courses (autism, behavioural disorders, therapies)</td>
<td>Specific courses (autism, behavioural disorders, therapies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Personal development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Topics identified in focus group

The focus group with support teachers highlighted that in terms of roles and responsibilities, teachers defined themselves as support, mediator, or even the child’s “advocate”. The fact that there are no differences in perception between the two categories of teachers (in terms of experience) shows that one of the responsibilities assumed by support teachers is precisely to help the child with special educational needs.

Focusing on the child with special educational needs is also obvious in the second theme identified in the focus group, which is that all teachers say that the greatest satisfaction they have is when the child is integrated. However, this integration is perceived differently by teachers (some say they feel satisfaction when the student acquires certain behaviours such as writing or reading, or when the student succeeds in passing from one school level to another). We can notice a difference in senior teachers’ perception, who also add good relations with pupils’ parents and teachers as far as satisfaction is concerned. This demonstrates that, with experience, satisfaction with working with children with SEN is not only about the integration of the child, but also about good relationships with other important agents of integration.

The support teachers’ difficulties are related to the (many) documents they must do (intervention plans, curricular adaptations), legal aspects or the lack of collaboration with class teachers (as reported by support teachers with over 10 years of experience).

Regarding working with class teachers, all support teachers said there was a good collaboration with the primary school teachers and a difficult collaboration with teachers from secondary school, especially with those teaching science.

With regard to training needs, we noticed that all support teachers desired training courses addressing the specific issues they encountered in everyday practice. In older teachers, however, the need for personal development also arose.

By summarizing the data from the focus groups and from the questionnaires, we can state that support teachers, especially those with less seniority in education, have a limited perceptions about their roles and responsibilities. In general, they only see themselves as support teachers for pupils, less for teachers and parents, or as agents promoting the values of inclusion in the school or the community. We could say that they are especially centred on the child and his problem. Experienced teachers have a wider perception on both the roles and responsibilities, and the training needs. Collaboration of support teachers with class teachers and parents remains a vulnerable issue of integration. An important barrier is the traditional representation of the role of school, support teachers and parents’ involvement in school life.
Even if the research has its limits, specific to a predominantly qualitative research, we consider that the collected data help to design a training programme, primarily aimed at reconsidering professional identity.

4. Conclusions

The present findings could have practical implications in a sense that they underlie the need for support teachers’s specific training. An important conclusion refers to the fact that the perceptions on the role of school, of teachers, collaboration with parents are obstacles in adopting new roles (not only for teachers, but also for parents), of roles more flexible and tailored to the students and the community. An important part in covering this distance between beliefs, perceptions and behaviours is even given to support teachers, who, by adopting new roles, can make changes in their network of relationships. Hence the practical conclusion: the need for adequate training of support teachers.

Support teachers need a transformative training (in Mezirow’s view), capable of producing those mental changes that lead to new, more flexible and more adaptive behaviours

Acknowledgements

This research is part of an interdisciplinary project under the aegis of Transylvania University of Brasov, Romania, which aims to develop a training programme for support teachers, seen as the key factors in creating an inclusive school culture.

References

Drama in Education Reaching Beyond the “Art Form or Teaching Tool” Dichotomy

Irina Lešnik
Faculty of Education, University of Primorska, Slovenia

Abstract
In the following article we try to re-evaluate, the place drama occupies in contemporary elementary education. By limiting the role of drama to literature studies and theatre productions, we lose a greater potential Theatre Pedagogy has to offer to a much broader educational spectrum. The participatory practices of Theatre and Drama in Education (TIE, DiE) promote active learning, based on a most organic children’s activity – play. While students co-create the fictional world of drama, teacher's guidance is crucial in setting new challenges, encouraging students to find creative solutions and reflect on often-complex social issues. Because of its art component, drama challenges the participants on a cognitive as well as emotional level, becoming a truly transformational experience. As such, Drama in Education is especially useful when approaching sensitive and controversial topics. This thesis is presented on a case study observing Year 6 students at St' Michael's CE Academy in Birmingham, UK, using Drama in Education method as part of History curriculum.

Keywords: drama in education, theatre pedagogy, participatory practices, holistic teaching, sensitive topics

Introduction
Theatre or drama education is, in accordance with the rich tradition of Dorothy Heathcote, Gavin Bolton, and other founders of theatre pedagogy, in Anglo-Saxon education systems represented much more than in Slovenia. Contrary to our predominant practice, however, it is not primarily (for) preparing a theatre project intended to be presented to the interested public, but it is a key emphasis on an integrated approach to the treatment of selected learning content. Thus, the methods of theatre pedagogy are not limited to a single subject, but they can be used by teachers from all subject areas, not stemming from the traditional position of power, but by transferring a large part of the decisions to the pupils and merely directing them to the set goals. Everything takes place in the form of a drama play, also called drama in education (DiE), where teacher and pupils take on different roles, and, when necessary, stop playing them and later go back to them again. The methods of theatre pedagogy are suitable for dealing with emotionally complex topics, since the role paradoxically simultaneously enables both the total emotional proximity and the necessary critical distance in defining the chosen theme.

In this paper, I am presenting an example of a drama in education that deals with the historical theme of the Holocaust and the Second World War, which I followed as an external observer, as an academic guest at the Birmingham City University (UK). In the case study, children aged 10 to 11 were involved, who were moved within the safe, fictitious world of drama to the time just before World War II and accompanied their peer Inge (in the role of a teacher/actress) on a forced trip from Berlin to Birmingham. In selected roles, they encountered difficulties in integrating themselves into the new environment and reflected on modern-day refugees.

1. Theatre Pedagogy - Definition of the Field
Although we could also decide for a term drama pedagogy, theatre pedagogy appears to be more appropriate, since in the Slovenian school field, drama is primarily associated with literary art, and not with theatrical. As such, the term encompasses various drama techniques that are used in the creative process in the theatre and are suitable for pedagogical work as an adapted version in the classroom. The most commonly used drama techniques in the class include: warming up play, confidence play, concentration play, role play, group work, interpretative narration, improvisation, dramatization, critical reflection, etc. (Heathcote v O'Neill 2015; Bolton 1986; Swale 2009).
In the field of theatre pedagogy, we also have (in Slovenia) lesser-known integrated learning approaches that can be placed under the Drama in Education (DiE)\(^1\) concept, used by Heathcote (in O'Neill 2015), Bolton (1986, 1999), O'Toole (1992) etc. Drama in education is an integral process that cannot be limited to a single drama technique - similarly theatre performance combines various arts, drama in education connects many different drama techniques and if the key goals of artistic drama are primarily aesthetic, drama in education combines also pedagogical and educational goals. (Bolton 1986). Drama in education is often defined as a process activity, which is contrary to the literary version of the classic drama of the Western European tradition - this is supposed to aim for the final, finished product. From this inconsistence, many misunderstandings of the drama in education in our country (Slovenia) originate which in the framework of school and out-of-school activities are often inspired by the classical theatre drama, directed mainly to the final product, public presentation.

2. Drama in Education - the Key Elements

Since its inception in Great Britain in the 1950s, drama in education has already undergone several stages of development and, consequently, different definitions, but certain drama elements appear in all, even though they are differently represented. The following elements are summarized mainly from the theoretical and practical findings of Dorothy Heathcote (in O'Neill: 2015) and Gavin Bolton (1986; 1999), considered the founders of contemporary theatre pedagogy in both the UK and around the world.

2.1 Context of drama fiction

Heathcote (in O'Neill 2015) defines the drama in education as a "reconstruction of life", but in this, for a precisely selected part of the real context, it is placed into the world of drama fiction for the purpose of further analysis and reflection. Of course, during the duration of the drama, everyone must believe in a fictional context, in the so-called "big lie" (ibid.) that the drama can even happen. A fictional context can be pre-selected by a teacher or co-shaped with pupils. It affects all other elements.

2.2. Roles and relationships

Taking various roles is at the centre of any drama, and drama in education. Teacher's and pupils' roles are replaced at different times for a variety of drama roles, and they can again take on the previous one, if required by the pedagogical process, which is a key difference compared to a classical drama where, during the duration of the drama, actors cannot, under any circumstances, exit from the given roles. It is not immaterial, what social status and personality traits have a chosen role, but, of course, as in the context of drama fiction, the pupils themselves can contribute a lot. Both Bolton and Heathcote (in McGuinn 2014) attach great emphasis to the role of the teacher, which must be carefully selected so that it can influence the course of dramatic events - it increases dramatic tension, offers a new perspective, etc. If pupils are deemed to forget that during the duration of the drama they are actually part of the learning process and are fully immersed in the fictional context of the drama, this is by no means true for the teacher. His/her primary "role" is to achieve the set learning goals (ibid.). At this point it makes sense to emphasize that the role of pupils is taken voluntarily (they can also be group roles), in one way or another, they actively participate in dramatic events - in contrast to the classical drama there is no sharp division of performers and the audience.

2.3. Dramatic tension

Dramatic tension is the driving force of the drama. It cannot be easily defined, but at any time we know whether it is present or not. The development of dramatic tension is crucial for the successful implementation of the drama in education, but it must always come from the very dramatic situation and should not be the result of external factors such as lack of time, authoritarian intervention of the teacher, etc. (Heathcote v O'Neill 2015). Heathcote (ibid.) often warned that dramatic tension is in the domain of the theatre, while teachers often have difficulty in establishing an appropriate atmosphere. Of course, the level of dramatic tension depends on each individual group, and it is also necessary to adjust it throughout the duration of the drama.

\(^1\) In the continuation, I will occasionally use a shorter term of drama for drama in education, whereby, (to the extent not explicitly stated), I do not mean classic literary work.
2.4 Time and space

Drama in education always happens at a given moment that is unrepeatable, which in itself causes a certain level of the already mentioned dramatic tension. Of course, this is true for real time; as fictitious time passes slightly differently. The teacher can (with the participation of pupils), if necessary, rewind or skip some events at a time, insofar as he/she considers this to be appropriate in a given dramatic situation. A similar dichotomy also controls the spatial field, where the relationship between the real and the fictitious space is a matter of agreement between the participants of the drama (Heathcote in O’Neill 2015).

2.5 Language and movement

Language and movement may seem to act as completely separate elements at first, but they are often inseparable in drama. Movement is an important complementation or can even fully take over the place of verbal communication, which is usually promoted in the drama in education as it is a method of expression that is often neglected in the framework of the existing educational system (the emphasis on the linguistic intelligence (Gardner 1995). Pupils increase expression of their body, understand theatre language, which is always alive and present. Development of communicative literacy is one of the important goals of drama in education. Although the theatre has been sticking to the subordination of word art for centuries, and searching for its own language of expression, in accordance with the prevailing guidelines of communication instruction, the teaching of the language of drama in education is an extremely suitable medium for the “natural” adoption of various language structures, registers, intonations, etc. (McGuinn 2014).

2.6 Symbols and meanings

A symbolic value of a drama is not limited to the reference to certain characters/props, but rather, in drama in education, it focuses more on symbolic drama acts that occur in a fictional context, but can be applied to the real context. Heathcote (in Wagner: 1999) and Bolton (1986) develop drama symbols in the so-called “universal sense”, which is difficult for students to comprehend due to complexity in the real world, but in the world of drama fiction they relive them from different perspectives, and thus they also understand the often contradictory views. Even Vygotsky (1978) advocated the thesis that, through a symbolic play (which represents the starting point for drama in education), the child recruits various conflicts of the real world and thus gradually integrates into a wider social community. But even at higher levels of abstract thinking, the safe world of drama fiction allows children (and adults) to actively test different theoretical concepts, which can lead to the elimination of established patterns of behaviour and, consequently, into wider social changes. According to the teachings of the established school of theatre of the oppressed Augusto Boal (1995), theatre is no less than an exercise for the revolution. In addition, although this is an extreme thought, Boal (ibid.) clearly implies that the power of the theatre pedagogy should not be underestimated.

3. Drama in Education - Case Study

As part of the Erasmus+ Teaching Staff Exchange at the Birmingham City University, I had the opportunity to observe an example of drama in education at St. Michael CE Academy in Birmingham. The learning approach was similar to a related form of Theatre in Education (TiE), as independent theatre educators/performers/teachers/actors participated in execution. Nevertheless, I will retain the term drama in education when describing it, since an in-school teacher could set the school lesson in a similar way.

Drama in education was held during a regular class at St. Michael CE Academy, which consists of a nursery and a primary school. It dealt with the historical theme of the Holocaust and the Second World War. It was intended for students of the 6th grade, aged between 10-11. We started in the classroom, and later we moved to the gym. In-school teachers only monitored the drama as observers, only occasionally they helped pupils with an additional explanation, suggestion, etc. Drama in education was run by two independent teachers/actors, members of the The Play House theatre, which deals exclusively with drama and theatre in education.

---

1 Theatre in Education (TiE) is a related genre of drama in education. It is still very participatory, but it can be almost a performance event. Performers or teachers/actors often travel from school to school and present their own program. Theatre in education therefore fits somewhere between a drama in education and an artistic performative event (O’Toole 1992).
In the following, I quote the initial section of my own logbook, as it was instigated with careful observation of the drama in education, and summarized analyses and breakdowns previously mentioned. Written text does, of course, not replace the live experience, which is always the foundation of any theatre event, but aims to illuminate the theoretical concepts from the previous chapter. The log record below is written in italics and the analysis is upright.

Teachers/actors come to the classroom completely dressed, carrying some suitcases. The teacher/actor addresses the children with the question of whether they love interesting stories and, after hearing affirmative answers, explains that today we will learn an interesting story, which will be narrated with the help of the children themselves.

Drama starts in class, with no additional costume design, scenography. Pupils are sitting in their seats; they have school utensils on the tables and are waiting for a learning process to continue. Suitcases, brought by the two teachers/actors, are the only props, and have in themselves a strong symbolic meaning, which triggers a certain dramatic tension. Usually, rich scenography and costume design in the theatre are primarily intended for the audience, but this is not the case in drama in education - all present persons are also performers. Teachers/actors clearly tell that the story will be a product of mutual cooperation.

The teacher/actor then tells that the story will talk about people who had to run away from their homes in 1938. He asks them why they think people had to run away then? Children say that due to war, bombing, etc. When the teacher/actor has enough answers, he projects a photograph of a statue of three Jewish children, which is located in London, on the schoolboard. He asks, which of the children is Inge, that is, the little girl the story will talk about.

The teacher/actor makes a clear reference to the subject of the previous history class, and pupils help to create the time and space of the drama fiction in invoking already known facts. A real photo of the monument is also introduced. Realistic resources, such as photos, maps, letters, etc., often occur in drama in education, helping to build a real historical context.

When the pupils recognize the statue of Inge with the joint forces, the teacher/actor announces that we will now meet Inge, to which the, until now, silent teacher/actress, immediately transforms with a help of a red hat. The kids greet Inge, who then returns to the background. The actor/teacher announces that we will now temporarily move into the present and learn about the contemporary refugee Imran, to which the teacher/actor transforms with the help of a hat. Imran is waiting at the train station, not knowing what will happen to him.

A head cover is a simple and effective way to transform from a teacher into a particular fictitious character or selected fictitious characters. There is no need for rich and realistic costumes in the drama in education, but simple costume design elements such as a hat, a cape, etc., help children recognize them as a teacher/actor and their roles.

Soon after the introduction of the primary story arc, the teacher/actor introduces a new fictitious time and space and, consequently, a parallel story. Since this is a current socio-political situation, the teacher/actor must be particularly careful not to fall into the ideological discourse of any political option.

The teacher/actor then announces that we will now be following Inge along the crystal night. Teacher/actress in the role of Inge, is frightened and hides under a table, while in the background pupils can hear the sound effects of breaking windows, shouts, etc. The teacher/actor asks children what they think happened on the crystal night. After a few answers, the teacher/actor suggests they should ask Inge or a teacher/actress, who answers them as a ten-year-old frightened girl.

An illustrative depiction of a traumatic historical event creates a considerable amount of dramatic tension. The sound basis, and, above all, emotional reactions of the frightened peer, enable the children to enjoy the world of drama fiction, developing empathy and simultaneously interacting with the already known historical subject. Without emotional involvement, it is impossible to revive it, and the precise connection between emotions and reason is the basis for integrated learning as a key guideline for theatre pedagogy.

The pupils observe the teacher/actress in the role of Inge, how she puts the most necessary items in a small suitcase, which she will take with her on her journey. Pupils are then divided into five groups (in-school teachers help with group formation) and each group receives a small suitcase, and a pile of paper sheets. Every pupil receives his own sheet of paper, on which he writes only the most urgent items that he would take with him if he should suddenly leave home. Each group then collects the sheets of paper, puts them in a suitcase, and then "travels" to the gym.
In this part of the drama, pupils are the most active so far. Because they have already accustomed to this dramatic situation, the teacher/actor can now appeal to their own living situation. In this kind of activity, which can be extremely effective, even therapeutic, we must respect the privacy of pupils. It is enough to think about certain things on their own, if they do not want to share with the group, because they interpret drama with their own (sometimes traumatic) experiences. Imaginary travel is now also followed by a physical journey (drama in education seeks to integrate as many senses as possible), which coincides with the topic discussed.

In the gym, children sit on mats and immediately meet Imran, who is still waiting at the station (a prop is introduced - a traffic sign indicating the station). We then meet Inge a year before the Crystal Night, when she is already playing at home. On the radio, she suddenly hears an audio recording in which Adolf Hitler reads the already introduced ban imposed on Jews, e.g. ban of bicycle riding, cinema visit, etc. The inscription "Juden Verbotten" is presented, which was placed to many public places. Kids follow how quickly Inge's life changes - she loses her former friends, no one comes to her birthday party, she has to give up her pet, starts going to a special school for Jewish children (because the Jews are not Germans!), she must wear David's star ... Teacher/actor interrupts the course of the story with an intriguing question: "Do you imagine that your teachers would separate you like this?" Children react with a great deal of uncertainty.

When they go to another room, a time slip happens - suddenly, we are moved to the time when the outbursts of the upcoming tragedy appeared. We are monitoring all through the prism of Inge, that is, the peer of children, which is often overlooked at the horrors of war, but which children can easily understand. Various authentic materials are being introduced (sound recording of Hitler's speech, David's star, etc.), which symbolize the real historical situation. The actor, with a very clear question, moves discrimination to modern times and with the parallel flow of Imran's story clearly shows that history can repeat itself at any time.

So, we go back to the Crystal Night and Inge repeats the scene from the class again. We meet Inge's father (teacher/actor) who is actively discussing sending Inge somewhere where she would be safe. He asks pupils whether he should send Inge away from home? The children suggest that he should send Inge that she is going on holiday, that he loves her and she will soon come back, etc. Inge's father asks the children if it is really better to intentionally lie to Inge? Opinions among children are not uniform. Inge's father then thanks the children for their help and summarises their arguments. He decides to tell Inge the truth.

The above section is meaningful from the perspective of taking into account the views of children, which is crucial for drama in education. It is important that when we ask children for an opinion, this is also taken into account in further course of the drama. Participants should have the feeling that their decisions influence the course of events; otherwise they would only have a passive role of observers. Of course, for a large group of children, opinion is often shared, in which case the teacher/actor must justify why he chose one of the options. In the reflection phase, we can also consider the unseen options and whether the drama could be considered in a different way.

Inge comes from school and the children accompany conversation with her father, which turns into a moving farewell. Inge's father gives his daughter a grandmother's medallion. The teacher/actor says that the day of departure came and Inge must go away. He explains that her parents are not allowed to go to the platform from where Inge will departure by train, Inge so waves away somewhere in the distance, and suddenly "freezes" in the middle of movement. The teacher/actor asks children what her face tells them? The children respond that she is sad, thinking about her family, etc. The teacher/actor then tells us that there are some other children on the platform and asks for volunteers. Almost all children want to be volunteers, but the teacher only chooses a few. He tells them that he will count to three and then they should freeze like Inge, with an expression that shows their feelings at a given moment. Then he tells everyone that some children were too young to know exactly what was going on, some of them thought it was just a trip, explaining the laughter of some volunteers. He asks children on the stage how they feel, they respond and go back among their classmates.

Mimics and gestures are an important part of developing communicative abilities and are often highlighted by drama in education. A drama technique, named image theatre (Boal 2012), that is, "frozen images", helps in expressing and

---

1 St. Michael CE Academy is a highly intercultural institution, visited by students of different nationalities and religions (Muslims, Christians, Sikhs, etc.).
accepting non-verbal messages, paying special attention to the recognition of often complex and difficult-to-describe emotional states.

It is also sensible to emphasize a quick reaction of the teacher/actor when the established dramatic tension is interrupted by child’s laughter, not really appropriate in the given situation, but the teacher/actor makes sense in a wider fictitious context so that the drama can smoothly continue. Since the drama in education is largely improvised, this kind of quick action is the rule rather than the exception.

Imran comes to life again. In the background, we hear announcements of arrival and departure of buses. Imran tries to phone his brother Mohammed, who is supposed to meet him in Birmingham - unsuccessfully. Then we go back to Inge. The teacher/actor asks for two volunteers who are introduced in the role, the rest of the audience do not hear what the role is, because they are sitting on two gymnastic benches facing each other, representing a train carriage. Children carry suitcases from the class. The train is leaving (sound of the departing train), children look through the windows, they wave, leaving their home ... Inge walks in with her suitcase and asks if there is a place for her, as she already walked through the whole train and there was no empty seat. The children are happy to let her take a sit. Inge teaches children some simple songs that her grandmother sang. Children become very playful. Suddenly, the teacher/actor and two volunteer children in the role of the Nazis arrive in the carriage (the roles are indicated by hats). They say hello with “Heil Hitler!” The atmosphere is immediately changed. The Nazis are robbing items from suitcases; they take Inge her grandmother’s medallion, because the Jews are not allowed to have jewellery. At the departure, the Nazis shout “Heil Hitler!”, demand the same from the children, but some children resist, and do not say these words. Inge tells everyone that they took her grandmother’s medallion, which is extremely valuable to her and asks the children what they took from them.

I am concluding this section from the logbook with one of the most memorable parts of the described drama in education, the part in which good and evil are directly confronted. Earlier, evil appeared in the form of symbols, sound material, etc., but now it is the first time that it is presented as a personalized role. The teacher/actor decides to have two children besides him as Nazis. Just before their arrival, the teacher/actress creates a carefree cheerful atmosphere with playful singing. Thus, the arrival of personalized evil makes an even stronger impression. Tension in the room is palpable, and some children also actively resist evil. Insofar as their reaction would increase the permissible limit, the teacher/actor would simply turn back into the role of a teacher, which is a good mechanism for regulating dramatic tension.

The next scene with Inge, in which children have the opportunity to share contents of their suitcases, as it was conceived in the class, is also meaningfully set. According to the drama rule "Chekhov's gun", all introduced props must come to the forefront eventually, which is completely organically integrated into the drama through the act of violent deprivation.

I briefly summarize the continuation and conclusion of the drama play:

The drama continues with the arrival in England when Inge comes to live with an English family. We are following her difficulties in adapting to a new environment, where it is not easy for her, as English classmates mark her as "German", she is getting used to a new language, new cultural habits, and, at the same time, misses her family in Germany very much. We can draw parallels with Imran's position - he also found himself abroad, without a family, and encountered disapproval of the surrounding area.

The teacher/actor tells us that Inge tried to find her parents after the war, but failed. She created a family in England and died of old age. The teacher/actor suggests that children play a scene in the next hour, in which adult Inge and Imran meet. What would they have to say to each other ...

The open end of the drama in education gives an in-school teacher an excellent starting point for further work in the classroom, which can be simply a continuation of the drama in contemporary or any other time, new people can be involved in the drama, or the scenes that have already been seen, which require additional attention and in-depth reflection.

Definitely, the reflection phase is crucial for every activity related to the field of theatre pedagogy. It brings about the conception of often-condensed theatre events and takes place both, on the emotional and the rational level. The goals of this kind of reflecting go far beyond just reaching the set standards in the curriculum, since with the help of in-depth reflection, we try to offer a different perspective of reality and life outside the school walls, and it places an important emphasis on the development of personal principles and values.
Conclusion

From the described example of drama in education it is clear that the range of theatre media in elementary school reaches through the preparation of school plays and the visit of the theatre institution once a year and can serve as a thoroughly thought-out learning approach that still preserves artistic elements. The interactive approaches of the theatre pedagogy to education undoubtedly bring many advantages, such as: encouraging creativity, establishing a positive class climate, motivating students, holistic learning ... (Lešnik, 2017). But, it can only be used by trained teachers who understand the leverage of dramatic tension, are ready to take on various roles and to give up the traditional power ratios for the duration of the drama. To begin with, they need to understand the very concept of drama in education that is not tied to (only) literature lessons, not intended for public performance, does not know the traditional division of actors and spectators - all participants are both - and combines pedagogical as well as artistic goals. At present, the field of theatre pedagogy in Slovenia develops primarily in the context of informal educational events, but in accordance with the current principles of experiential learning, it may soon become an important enrichment of classic lessons.

References

Ethnic and Language Identities among Finland-Swedish Young People

Jean d'Amour Banyanga
Âbo Akademi University, Vasa, Finland, Developmental Psychology

Lillemor Östman
Âbo Akademi University, Vasa, Finland, Caring Sciences.

Jacob Kurkiala
Âbo Akademi University, Vasa, Finland, Social Sciences

Pia Nyman-Kurkiala
Âbo Akademi University, Vasa, Finland, Social Sciences

Abstract
In youth many significant physiological and psychological changes take place. These identity changes are especially important for an individual's identity development. However, questions of identity for young people, especially as they shift from childhood to adulthood, have become a central concern in numerous researches. Ethnic and language identities are bonds that hold a common social identification for individuals who view themselves as members of the same group. This study investigates the role and importance of ethnic and language identities for Swedish-speaking young people in Finland presented through an analysis of existing literature and documents on the matter. The data consists of essays written by 1012 (704 boys and 308 girls) ninth-graders from 12 Finland-Swedish high schools on the topic, “Me, a Finland-Swedish youth.” These were analyzed by using a thematic analysis. The results show that ninth-graders feel that the Finland-Swedish culture gives them a stable foundation in life that affects their identity, health and well-being in a positive way. The language and Finland-Swedish culture appear to be important for the youths’ sense of belonging and happiness as well as for a sense of stability in a changing world. Thus, the results illustrate that their language is an important aspect of self-identity and a central part of their lives.

Keywords: ethnic, language identity, Finland, swedish, young people

Introduction
In our contemporary times, questions of ethnic identity, integration, migration, and refugee displacement are debated worldwide. Identity is used to differentiate and identify the majority from minority ethnic groups in various contexts. Thus, identity has become important to an individual’s sense of belonging and self-understanding (Verkuyten, 2006, pp. 224-225). In addition, questions of identity for young people, especially as they shift from childhood to adulthood, have become central to many people’s lives. Ethnic and language identities refer to a set of individuals who hold a common social identification and view themselves as members of the same category (Stets & Burke, 2000). In the past decade, the number of studies on ethnic identity that investigate why people place themselves in their social environment, and why such positions play a major role in terms of personal meaning and value, has increased (Delgado, 2009; Haarmann, 1986). From a psychoanalytical viewpoint, Freud argues that one’s sense of self-identity is derived from parental introjection during the genesis of the superego, and at the end of the oedipal conflict (Freud, 1930/1965).

In the latter half of the twentieth century, Erik H. Erikson investigated the implication of identity development in the ethnic group (Verkuyten, 2006, p. 41; Schwartz, 2005). Erikson’s findings showed that the self-image (ego) is impacted by ethnic and ecological factors. He stated that identity development occurred as a result of the interplay between biology, psychology, and environment (Sameroff & Chandler, 1975; Ferrer-Wreder, Trost, Lorente, & Mansoory, 2012). Erikson...
extended Freud’s theory, which suggested that identity occurs within the first 15 years of life; Erikson went beyond childhood to suggest that identity development occurs throughout the lifespan (O’Brien, 2010). Erikson spoke of personal identity as the set of goals, values, and beliefs that one shows to the world. Personal identity includes career goals, knowledge, belief, art, language, law, morals, customs, and other aspects of self-identification that are acquired by individuals as members of the group that may help to distinguish them from other people (Schwartz, 2001; Martin & Nakayama 2008, 87).

Ethnic identity is a kind of social or collective identity, and ethnicity is typically analyzed in these terms (Verkuyten, 2006, p.42-43). However, a basic lack of theoretical precision seems to pervade Erikson’s writings (Côté & Levine, 1987). His writings are rich in clinical and metaphorical accounts, but they lack consistency in detail. Erikson showed identity as a collective project between young people and their context, and he described three distinct levels of identity: ego, personal, and social (Schwartz, 2005). Erikson’s student James Marcia (1966) developed Erikson’s theory and derived four independent ethnic identity statuses which are: identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, identity moratorium, and identity achievement. Marcia further suggested that each identity status is associated with a distinctive set of personality characteristics.

Identity moratorium (high exploration, low commitment), is associated with indices of critical thinking, when one individual in the ethnic group is faced with an important life choice or a serious commitment (Kidwell, Dunham, Bacho, Pastorino, & Postes, 1995). Identity foreclosure (low exploration, high commitment) is the state of having made commitments to a set of goals, values, and beliefs in the relative absence of prior exploration. The foreclosed individual often goes into crisis without knowing what to do, and not being able to rely on the norms, rules, and situations to which the individual has become accustomed (Marcia, 1994, 1995). (E.g. a young boy who steps into his family business just as soon as his father is ready to retire).

Identity achievement (high exploration, high commitment) is the mature status because it is associated with balanced thinking, effective decision making, and maintaining interpersonal relationships (Craig-Bray, Adams, & Dobson, 1988). Identity diffusion (low exploration, low commitment) is the apathetic or disinterested state. It is a lack of both exploration and commitment that may hold individuals together and afford a solid basis for making choices to follow a consistent life path (Marcia, 1993 a). One example is a talented secondary school student who continues to fail classes because of spending much time on WhatsApp and Facebook and not do assignments. Turner suggests three characteristics to identify ethnic identity: personal identity, social identity, and human identity. He argues that personal identity is the characteristics that make an individual special and unique in the group; social identity is characterized by the various classifications the person belongs to, such as ethnicity, race, hometown, occupation, and age; while human identity is the perception of self-image that links a person to the rest of humanity and sets such a person apart from other life forms (Turner, 1987, p.45).

Furthermore, ethnic identity refers to the subjective experience of embracing the feelings, experiences, and behaviors through which people put their membership in a single or multiple ethnic group (Trofimovich & Turuševa, 2015). People’s identities could be categorized into two different groups: a personal individual identity and a group identity. The individual identity is created in the process of self-reflection or the understanding of the self (Korostelina, 2007, p. 36). Psychological mechanisms exist that causes people to be selective about the groups they join and about the individuals they allow to join (Buss, 1990; Michael et al., 2009, p. 514). These findings are unrelated to Finland-Swedish young people because they did not choose their identity by themselves. People who feel socially rejected are subject to a host of behavioral, emotional, and physical problems, suggesting that human beings may possess a fundamental need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

According to Samovar, Porter, McDaniel & Roy, social structures help the members of the ethnic group to organize their lives, establish communication networks (WhatsApp group, Facebook, twitter), and regulate norms of personal, familial, and social conduct (Samovar et. al., 2012, p. 32). Studies (Schwartz, 2005; Smith & Silva, 2011) show that because individuals who belong to the same group share invisible characteristics and values, ethnic identity may promote healthy development, less depression, and trauma coping.

The language identity of young Finland-Swedish

Language is an ethnic, cultural product of human interaction through which individuals define themselves to the world. Language allows the members of the ethnic group to communicate with each other freely, and to share ideas, feelings, and information; it is also one of the cornerstone mechanisms for the transmission of culture (European Parliament, 2017).
an instrument of communication, and presentation of the members of the ethnic group to the world using their own minds, learning and words that such language provides (Ager, 2001, p. 3). Philosophers have claimed that language is a basic human need to express ideas, feelings, and desires, and to socialize with other people who are outside their group. They indicate that absence of language communication may result in frustration, anger and social exclusion from ethnic groups (Patak, Gawlinski, Fung, Doering, Berg, & Henneman, 2006).

According to Ting-Toomey (2005), language and ethnic identity is reflective of self-conception that members of the group have received from their family, gender, culture, and ethnicity (Ting-Toomey, 2005, p. 212). Until 1809, Finland had been part of the Swedish kingdom for over half a millennium (Allardt & Starck, 1981, pp. 166-171; Huldén 2004, pp. 45-55). When Sweden was defeated by Russia in 1809 and made Finland part of its own territory, the power of the Swedish-speakers was dramatically changed from the majority to a minority position. However, when Finland gained independence, the group of Swedish speakers came together in defense of their language (Engman, 1995, pp. 185-190). In the mid-19th century, Finnish and Swedish were declared to be the two official languages of Finland (Allard & Starck, 1981, pp- 200-211; Statistics Finland, 1990-2018). Regarding age group 10-19, young Swedish-speaking people are 33.149 (17.100 males and 16.049 females). According to the United Nation’s (2017) Universal declaration of human rights, article 2, “Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth, without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, or social origin, property, birth or other status”; however, the Swedish language tends to be under strong social and political pressure in Finland.

At the most contextually oriented level, social identity is identified as a sense of inner solidarity with a group’s ideas, the consolidation of elements that have been integrated into one’s sense of self from groups to which one belongs. Social identity has sometimes been described as group identity in the social psychological literature (e.g., Côte, 1996b; Weigert, & Teigte, 1986). Language is an important aspect of self-identity and a central part of an individual’s culture (European Parliament, 2017; Haarmann, 1986, 37). According to Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy, how people think and how they speak are determined to a large extent by their cultural identity. They argue that the knowledge and information that is communicated in language is an artifact of language itself since language is constituted to identify and give meaning to human experience (Samovar et. al, 2012, pp. 143–151). Martin and Nakayama (2008, p. 87) considered linguistic identity as individuals’ self-concept, how they think they are as people. Language as a tool of communication helps the group’s institutions to function because it infiltrates the core of cultural and ethnic identities without people’s awareness (Joseph, 2004, p. 15).

Interview results

Essays were written by 1012 (704 boys and 308 girls) ninth-graders from 12 Finland-Swedish high schools on the topics, “Me, a Finland-Swedish youth,” “To live in a bilingual country, and “My contacts with Finland-Swedish youth.” At the time of the data collection, these students were studying in different locations in Finland: Karleby, Jakobstad (Oxhamns skola), Nykarleby, Vasa (Övnings skola and Borgaregatans skola), Kristinstad, Åbo (St. Olofsskola), Pargas (Sarinska högstadiet), Tammerfors (Svenska Samskola), Ekenäs (Svenska högstadium), Helsingfors (Grundskolan Norsen and Ashöjdens grundskolan). The participants were selected according to the following criteria: the respondents should be ninth-graders from Finland-Swedish high schools; they should speak the local language, Swedish; and have a Finnish citizenship. The data were analyzed by using a thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The results are thematically presented below.

Ethnic identity as a sense of belonging among Finland- Swedish youth

Human beings have the capacity to develop and maintain their relationships. Ethnic identity is reflected by several indicators: inner beliefs, feelings, emotions, a sense of belonging and commitments to the group, identification as a member of the group, a sense of shared attitudes and values; and specific dimensions of ethnicity such as language, behavior and customs (Della Pergola, 2011). Thus, Finland-Swedish young people in Finland are strongly attached to Sweden and are proud to present themselves as Swedish speakers. Regardless place of residence, these young people, particularly those residing in Ostrobothnia, manage to find ways to preserve their Swedish identity. They have their own media channels, schools, and university where they can learn their cultural identity and hear their language. The assimilation into the Finnish culture by young Finland-Swedish is a possible form of identity and identification. This assimilation may be moderated among youths who build bridges with the Finnish majority and their transnational connection with Sweden, a process that can be beneficial to both sides. However, according to bilingualism issues, the respondents in Ostrobothnia report that their knowledge of the Finnish language is not as good as that of those who reside in southern Finland.
Studies have broadly discussed the complexity of ethnic identity and identification, but they differ in their explanations of the origin of ethnicity. For instance, Castles and Miller (2009) argue that ethnicity is a primordial attachment that results from being born into a community and its cultural dimensions (Castles & Miller, 2009, pp. 35-36). According to this theory, ethnicity is not a matter of choice, but is rather pre-social because no individuals have ever chosen to be born as they are. Ethnicity is a growing phenomenon that continues to develop as the position of groups and individuals change within a dynamic social structure (Nagel, 1994). Identity and culture go hand in hand because human beings are attached among themselves based on cultural perspectives (Nagel 1994).

Culture and ethnic identity are like luggage which people carry wherever they go. However, the longer migrants stay in the new destination, the more they socially and economically resemble the natives, even if their ethnic origin continues to have a residual influence on their structural mobility. Therefore, both migrants and natives may change their inter-group encounter (Alba & Nee, 2003; Portes & Zhou, 1993). Based on appearance, people cannot differentiate Finnish from Finland- Swedish youth. However, conflicts sometimes occur between Finnish-speaking Finns and Finland-Swedish youths. Those who speak Swedish and Finnish fluently have many chances and advantages of securing work compared to those who speak only one language. Those who speak only Swedish in the big cities feel like they live outside their communities. They are uncomfortable when they do not receive service in their mother tongue and prefer to speak English instead of Finnish.

In the adolescent stage, people enter intimacy and the young person can experiment with different roles; consolidate the past self with a new changing and multifaceted sense of self. As these young people's organs reach maturity, boys and girls begin to engage in new forms of social behavior because the heterosexuality is attractive (Bornstein, & Lamb 1999, p. 107). In some cultures, during this period young women were considered fully grown, but the young men had to prove that they could support themselves and their families. According to Erikson, children at this stage become independent and experiment with various roles in the communities and families; however, during this stage, their sense of identity can be confused (Berzoff, Flanagan, and Hertz, 2008). Thus, during this stage, society, including parents, may help young people explore and give them freedom and responsibility.

Relying on good advice and counsel, this stage would be meaningful and offer a sense of safety and security, but avoidance of intimacy can lead to isolation, loneliness, and depression (Berzoff et al., 2008, pp. 100-101). At this stage, it is important to have friends to connect with. However, in the case of hobbies and sports many of the activities for young people are in Finnish which Finland-Swedish youth found was not worth it. Other studies show that relationships to other human beings are the most powerful psychological and behavioral transformers known (Dayringer, 1998, p. 7; Hofmann & Otto 2008, p. 82). A recent longitudinal research that studied 1700 New Zealand adolescents on connectedness to their family, school, peer group, and community, show that the physiology and psyche of adolescents who had a higher connectedness functioned well; they felt secure and had positive relationships (Crespo, Kielpikowski, Jose, & Pryor, 2010). Moreover, studies on the effects of personal ethnic discrimination have shown that discrimination is related to psychological ill-being which can lead to distress while the positive impact of ethnic identity for ethnic minorities leads to good self-esteem, less depression and to trauma coping (Adams et. al., 2016; Banyanga, Kaj & Karin, 2017; Lee, 2003).

**Social identity as a stable foundation**

People are designed for relationships, and their deepest cry is for intimacy and meaningful involvement with others. Social identity refers to the liaison between people and their surroundings. It localizes a person in social space through the quality of relationships and is indicated by membership (Gecas & Burke, 1995). Social identity indicates what a person is from a social perspective in terms of location or place in society (Simon, 2004). According to Verkuyten (2006, pp. 64-65), identification can correspond to an existing social distinction to which one belongs and can also be resisted or denied. For instance, sometimes Finland-Swedish people feel unwanted in Finland, and, as a result, some young Finland-Swedish have chosen to emigrate to Sweden or other western countries for work. People who violate property rights are aggressive toward group members, fail to share the cost and risks of group membership and are likely to be excluded from the group (Buss, 1990). According to the above lines, there is a positive example of Finnish-speaking and Finland-Swedish youths in Pargas working together on their show called “Show 21600” which led them to get to know each other, spend time together, and have discussions.

Some studies have shown that young people who are accepted in their social group and who have good social skills do better in school; by contrast, socially rejected young people are at risk for numerous negative outcomes (Asher & Coie,
1990; Hinshaw, 1992; Wentzel, 1993). However, other studies on children of effectively sick parents have found that being born into and raised by a depressed parent may lead to antisocial issues (Downey & Coyne, 1990). In many cases, this is because of violence at home, and especially in developing countries children are inclined to live on the streets, use drugs, beg and commit crimes. Although divorce may be considered a positive solution to destructive family life, it can also have negative consequences for the entire family, especially, the children. According to Statistics Finland (1987−2018), the percentage of divorce in Finland is 27.1% (13.5% male and 13.6% female). However, according to the International Comparative Study of Ethno-cultural Youth (ICSEY) that studied ethnic majority and minority youth in 5 nations (The Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Portugal), Finland and Sweden were the only states where minority youth reported better academic performance and less antisocial behavior compared to majority youth (Sam, Vedder, Liekkind, Neto, & Virta, 2008). Therefore, relationships play a central and formative role in children’s and youths’ development and identity; social relationships should be increasingly organized within institutional frameworks, such as at home, in school and in the community (Bornstein, & Lamb 1999, p. 418−422; Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

Discussion

The cultural literature suggests that minority youth are likely to live simultaneously in and between two or more “worlds,” and issues of otherness and segregation from the majority culture may play an important part in their identity formation (Sam & Berry, 2010). However, the results in this study show that ninth-graders in Finland feel that the Finland-Swedish culture gives them a stable foundation in life that affects their identity, health and well-being in a positive way. Minority research by Ahmadi and Carpelan, (2003) shows that minority youth are at risk of perceiving themselves as strangers, individuals in a culture and nation without a sense of belonging to their own ethnic or national heritages. As the results show above, some Finland-Swedish young people feel unwanted in Finland, and, as a result, some young Finland-Swedes have chosen to emigrate to Sweden and other western countries for work.

According to Judy’s study (2006), an individual’s identity exists in connection to the world, to understand “what or who they are not”. Identity can be seen as a collection of different features from an individual’s culture of origin (Judy, 2006, p. 101). For instance, the respondents from Vaasa, Nykarleby and Jakobstad, say that their Swedish language is like a rock which cannot be moved away by any circumstances. They continue to express that individuals should receive service in their mother tongue. In addition, many respondents think that being bilingual is a gift and blessing and contributes to being happy in private life, in the academic arena, and in future working life. Finally, bilingualism opens up for more opportunities for different education programs, and for more important jobs in the future labor market.

References


Complete Places Visioning - Collaborative and Problem-Based Learning in Urban Planning: Example of the Faculty of Architecture Poznan University of Technology in Poland

Bartosz Kaźmierczak, PhD
Dominika Pazder, PhD
Poznan University of Technology Faculty of Architecture

Abstract

Complete place visioning is an idea of designing active places in the city space. It is important part of urban design so as to act in accordance with inhabitants’ needs and provide vivid and socially desired places. In the paper there is presented an idea of complete places visioning introduced into academic learning system within the urban planning course at the Faculty of Architecture of Poznan University of Technology. The presented example of collaborative and problem oriented learning seems to be a useful tool in solving real urban problems and aiming at improving a quality of a city space. In the paper, collaboration is considered also in terms of participatory planning. There is shown the case study of polish commune Tarnowo Podgórze in which the project of civic activity centre together with neighboring public space is designed and realized as the final result of long-term collaboration between academic institutes and municipality.

Keywords: complete places visioning, problem-based learning, urban planning

Introduction

The following paper discusses issues related to the use of intellectual and creative resources of academic and research centres within a collaboration with external environment. In general, it is about the cooperation between universities and cities or communes authorities aiming at solving urban problems and directing the desirable and sustainable development in accordance with participatory planning paradigm.

There are number of advantages both for communes and for students and academicians as well. The main advantage for a commune is the opportunity to obtain a graphically legible material that can be an important and helpful in the discussion about its future development and development opportunities. The posters prepared by students under supervision of academic teacher are very often presented at exhibitions or evaluated in public plebiscites, which helps to define a coherent development vision both for authorities and residents. Thanks to the open discussion, the postulate of participatory planning is also implemented, which allows to develop a consensus and ensure the proper direction of spatial development.

From the point of view of the academic centre, cooperation with local communities interested in solving a specific spatial problem and those who knows the conditions of a given space very well is of a great value. A big advantage is the opportunity to orientate academic teaching to the practical needs of the place and the search for specific solutions for the real spatial problem. It is especially important in terms of urban planning education because helps students to understand thoroughly how complicated and multilayered can be existing spatial conditions.

There is presented in the paper, an example of a few years cooperation between the Faculty of Architecture at Poznan University of Technology with the authorities of rural commune named Tarnowo Podgórze which is located in the Greater Poland Voivodeship (north-west part of Poznan agglomeration). In the case of cooperation between the Faculty of Architecture and the authorities of Tarnowo Podgórze commune, the main assumption of collaborative and problem-based...
learning was to search for a way to improve the quality of spatial and functional offer as well as to change the image and visual standard of public spaces in the central part of Tarnów Podgóreme. These spaces play an important compositional, functional and social role, but their development and aesthetic quality have not been satisfactory.

An important issue was the need for social and civic activation of local community and providing inhabitants with a formally and functionally attractive place to carry out activities, interactions and social contacts. The initiator of the cooperation was a non-governmental organization named Haverford Institute of Public Sociology, which became the main catalyst for all activities and animator of long-term cooperation.

A multi-stage and several-year cooperation has resulted in identification of development opportunities and possible directions. The analyses and design work was prepared in various scales of problem – starting from the level of the entire commune, through the village scale to architectural projects and proposals of urban design solutions. The main purpose was to define and point out existing values and spatial deficiencies and to adapt them to the modern needs of users in order to ensure social activity and visual attractiveness of the center of the village and commune.

**Complete and active places visioning - chosen aspects**

The starting point of the considerations undertaken in the area of raising the socio-spatial quality and attractiveness of the central part of Tarnowo Podgôrême village was to understand architecture and urban planning issues as the ability to shape the human environment. It is crucial to take into account the multi-aspect of existing determinants, not only in spatial meaning but also humanistic, cultural and social and economic ones. Complete place visioning is understood as creating an attractive and socially active space of high aesthetic and compositional quality, which affects the provision of positive emotional experiences, psycho-physical comfort and the possibility of establishing social contacts.

From the point of view of spatial issues, it is composition which is considered to be an important tool that helps to achieve these goals. The composition plays an important role in assessing the quality of the urban space by the user, and decides to help achieve the desired order and spatial harmony. The composition emphasizes the existing values: the specificity of the place, its cultural and physiognomic identity as well as social and cultural prestige. In the art of composing space, many factors should be taken into account, among others: scale, proportions, references, rhythm, relations, connections, contrasts, compensations, light, color or texture, as well as the implementation of the principle of unity in diversity. Which is significantly important in terms of providing social attractiveness of public space.

The issues of the activation of inner-city areas raised through work by introducing spatial solutions based on the use of creative, artistic and cultural potential, to a large extent concern the change in the image of public spaces in the middle parts of commune. These spaces play not only an important compositional, functional and social role, but above all express the level of culture of local communities. In these terms cultural activities support the spatial development and social attractiveness of city space based on factors such as: generating social involvement, developing a sense of pride, creating the image and identity of the city, creating attractive places to live, visit and invest, implementing cultural projects that activate development.

Within the work on identification and adaptation of existing spatial potential of the analyzed commune so as to identify the best development possibilities we have found very inspiring the idea of creativity by Landry [2013]. These researchers enumerated and accentuated a very important element of the creative city concept which is vitality. It seems to be crucial aspect of providing vivid and livable public space. Term vitality is defined as a specific, internal resource of the city/place, which is in constant process of dynamic changes. This potential lies in three layers: cultural resources, which include the inhabitants’ abilities and creativity, products of material culture in the form of buildings, manufactured products or artefacts, as well as intangible assets, such as the social environment, collective memory, reputation or the identity of the place, creativity, thanks to which the potential can be identified and creatively used, as well as the vitality and vitality of the city. In general, vitality is understood as the ability to adapt to changes occurring within development.

Implementation of creative urban design is considered to be an important factor of creating vivid and inspiring public space. Space which is well equipped with small architectural forms and pieces of urban furniture with artistic value can be found very useful in terms of providing desirable spatial affordances [Kopljar, 2016]. In the context of space quality, it is necessary

---

1 Directed by well-known sociologist - prof. Suava Salameh from Sociology Department at Berkeley University of California, who is founder and director of the Haverford Institute of Public Sociology.
to ensure the proper form and visual quality of these elements, which in addition to their obvious functional aspects should also present an appropriate aesthetic level, because they have an impact on spatial harmony and attractiveness. The pieces of small architecture should be adapted to the existing landscape consistent with its dramaturgy and spatial character. The specificity of the elements of small architecture lies in the fact that they affect constitution of space image and quality, both in terms of aesthetics and functionality.

**Participatory planning and design intervention**

Participatory planning is an urban planning instrument worth emphasizing, in which the real participation and involvement of residents plays a key role. There is a wide range of possibilities how this paradigm of participation can be realized. The case study presented in the paper of collaboration among university, non governmental organization and commune authorities is considered to be a good example of participatory planning. In this case not only representatives of local management but also local communities were involved. The given example of spatial arrangement of a central part of the commune touches the issues of placemaking. The general idea of placemaking is to provide socially desirable, functionally completed and though active places. The idea of creating attractive places is also a kind of socialized planning, in which the emphasis is put on creation of meanings. The concept of a place is defined in terms of the perception of physical space, which users attribute to symbolic and emotionally characteristic features, and in which the relationships between man and space are strongly emphasized [Dovey, 1985]. It is not about providing well-equipped public space but to satisfy users' needs answering them within functional and semantic layer. In this context it is also worth accentuating the term place. It is defined as a space of specific meaning which refers closely to the emotional relationship between space and its user. That is why it is so important to provide a real participation in planning or designing process of public space which are especially significant for inhabitants. Referring to the metaphor of Canter's place [Canter, 1977], one can point to three features characterizing the places: • economic, cultural and social activity; • form - proper relationship between buildings and public spaces; • sense of place - historical and cultural significance [Montgomery, 2003].

Nowadays, the role of design has changed and it is perceived in a very broad context: as interdisciplinary (cross-disciplinary), collaborative, speculative, discursive, and transitional [Clarke, 2016]. With regard to the considerations presented in this work, temporary and engaging design is a tool for creating creative and flexible space, responding to changing needs and conditions, and at the same time attractive and inspiring, which is particularly important in the context of providing high-quality public space in the city center.

This idea is close to the concept of design intervention, which is a method of creative design, allowing the discovery and application of new ways of experiencing space in terms of complexity of development processes. It is a tool helping to start a dialogue and social interactions aiming at raising consciousness. Design intervention is part of experimental design, in which the main focus is on adoption of a specific perspective and analysis of potential effects of its implementation. In the assumption this type of design process balances on the border between reality and fiction, and also stimulates the creativity and imagination of participants. It is a kind of research tool from the borderline of ethnography and design arts, allowing the use of ephemeral, non-obvious solutions, enabling the exchange of thoughts, views and opinions, increasing the awareness and level of social coexistence [Halse, Boffi, 2016].

This idea of design intervention can be treated as an instrument allowing for the staging of commune development process according to the five-phase division:

1. generating ideas and projects,
2. putting ideas into practice,
3. networking - dissemination and promotion,
4. providing adequate facilities and presentation mechanisms - such as cheap premises for rent, business incubators or exhibition space,
5. popularizing the results of creative projects, creating markets and target groups as well as discussion groups to generate further innovations [Landry, 2013, p. 231].

At this point it is worth emphasizing the importance of complementarity and cooperation between citizens and public institutions within development process. Design intervention can be treated as a tool to realize a participatory planning paradigm and to balance bottom-up and top-down activities in order to satisfy needs and answer preferences of local community. At certain stage of development process independent activity of citizens must be supported by public
authorities. This means that the authorities must demonstrate activity in maintaining and stimulating social processes as well as initiating and tightening intersectoral cooperation, thus creating appropriate conditions for citizens to develop their own initiatives, make efforts and achieve desired results to improve the quality of the city's functioning and meet the needs users [Kieliszewski, 2010].

Collaborative and problem-based learning in urban planning at the Faculty of Architecture Poznan University of Technology in Poland

At the end of 2017 there was organized in commune of Tarnowo Podgórne a meeting summarizing the several-year cooperation for spatial and social activation of the central part of the village. The meeting was organized by Haverford Institute of Public Sociology which is the initiator of this long-term and multi-stage project. There were also invited all the representatives of the local community and commune officials, academicians and students who were engaged in the collaboration.

Cooperation with the Faculty of Architecture has been going on for several years - including two contracts signed with the Institute of Architecture and Spatial Planning of Poznan Faculty of Architecture. Within few years of this cooperation, many students from various years (of first and second cycle) were involved working on concepts of spatial development and transformation of the commune, villages and selected places of Tarnowo Podgórne village. These projects were prepared in different urban scales under the supervision of educators – urban planners and architects from Poznan Faculty of Architecture. The first stage was dedicated to the questions of the innovative directions of the commune's development. Students’ task was to identify the existing spatial potential and define proper strategy of development. The main idea was to find right solutions which may contribute to the increase of spatial attractiveness and competitive tendering of individual settlement units of the commune, at the same time cooperating and strengthening on the basis of synergistic links.

Detailed studies and conceptual design works concerned selected strategic areas chosen out of the entire commune. Urban and architectural projects were aiming at identification of very specific spatial character and uniqueness taking into account existing social conditions. All the design decisions that have been made were done in accordance with the assumption of the improvement of public space standard, both in terms of functional offer and aesthetic level aiming at stimulation of social contacts between residents.

That was also the year of the student competition for the concept of the spatial arrangement of a central part of the village of Tarnowo Podgórne. It was organized by Haverford Institute of Public Sociology in cooperation with commune authorities. The main task was to design an architectural vision of the Center for Civic Activation together with the neighbouring area. The idea of implementation of such a function was to bring together and integrate all the residents. It is also very important to promote the idea of responsibility for the common space and to strengthen the sense of identity. The task was to take into account the needs and expectations of the residents and to identify the historical and urban contexts of the given space. The cooperation has resulted in the creation of innovative concepts for the commune development which were found very attractive and interesting both for authorities and inhabitants of the commune.

Students’ competition for the architectural project of Center for Civic Activation and neighbouring area in the central part of Tarnowo Podgórne village

There were seven team projects taking part in the design competition in 2017. There were finally three concepts chosen, which, in the jury’s opinion, fulfilled the assumptions in the best possible way. Presented urban ideas and architectural solutions were fitting into the spatial context and social importance of the place. The winning work of the third year students of the first cycle of higher education met with appreciation of the President of the Tarnowo Podgórne Commune and other representatives of the authorities and local community. The main prize was not only first place but the realization of the project. On the basis of the concept selected in the competition there was prepared an architectural and construction project prepared by architectural office. The first actions of the erection process of Center for Civic Activation have already been taken and the implementation of the first stage of the investment is planned for 2019.

There are presented the brief descriptions of the three awarded works expressing the main project assumptions described by the authors:
I prize – work of students: Zuzanna Wysoczyńska and Karolina Wnuk (pic.1)

The main design goal was to create a place where equally important are: good architecture, greenery and human. As a result of accepting these assumptions, a concept was created in which architecture meets nature, nature interacts with users and users with each other. The name of the “ZŁAKA” (in Polish) project was created by combining the first letters of the most important elements referring to civic integration: to join, to educate and to activate. There was made an observation of Wielkopolska countryside which was a basis for modelling the shape of building of Center for Civic Activation. The landscape is characterized by compact housing closed in a quadrilateral form, thanks to which not only the building but the space around will act as a magnet attracting residents to come and stay and interact. An important element of the project was the introduction of naturalistic greenery and natural materials. The final effect of the design work is the visible integration of inside and outside space providing a wide range of leisure activities and attractive and friendly space.

II prize – work of students: Natalia Złotkowska and Barbara Urbańska (pic.2)

Nature and unity are the slogans in accordance with which the design idea was contained. The aim was to emphasize the natural beauty of nature which is a characteristic feature of Tarnowo Podgórne commune and village. In order to realize this assumption, natural materials were used, thanks to which the effect of the homogeneity of the object and the surroundings was obtained. The main idea was the recognition of the needs and aspirations residents recognizing that the human being is the most important within architectural design process.

The proposed spatial arrangement of the given area is to unite and integrate the residents providing livable place offering a wide range of spending spare time together - meetings with friends and neighbours, daily shopping at stands offering local products, business talks, trainings. The concept takes into account all-year use - in the summer, it offers rest in the bosom of nature in a quiet place, visiting an outdoor art gallery for adults and children, as well as a playground for children, which are located within a comfortable distance from the café gardens. In the evening it is possible to organize various types of events and concerts. In winter, there is possible to organize events for the whole commune e.g. dressing the Christmas tree or learning skating.
Pic.2. Second prize in the competition – work of students: Natalia Złotkowska and Barbara Urbańska (visualization prepared by authors of the concept).

III prize – work of students: Katarzyna Wróbel and Mikołaj Zydorowicz (pic.3.)

The diversity of users who will visit the newly designed object was a main assumption of design work. It was projected to be a space offering a variety of functional possibilities and of a high visual value. In terms of function, the building and a neighbouring area will provide entertainment, relaxation, room to work and, above all, will be a place of social integration and activation. The small architecture and pattern of the pavement are arranged according to the designated urban direction, so as to invite residents to a friendly public space, where it is possible to stay sitting on specially designed hammocks and to spend time talking and resting. The idea was to provide a place for a pro-social, intuitively felt meeting place - meetings not only with other residents - also with art. Hence the name of the place “public art zone”.

Pic.3. Third prize in the competition – work of students: Katarzyna Wróbel and Mikołaj Zydorowicz (visualization prepared by authors of the concept).

Conclusion

The idea of complete and active places creation is possible to be implemented only in the process of participatory planning. The voice of local communities expressing their needs and preferences is the only way to design desirable and socially accepted places. The participatory planning paradigm can be implemented within a collaboration between academic centres, non governmental organizations and city or commune authorities. The results of this kind of cooperation can be presented publicly and evaluated in plebiscite welcoming all residents. The exhibitions of students work prepared under supervision of academicians and practicians can be found as a very useful and attractive tool to start a discussion about possible development direction of a given settlement unit.
References


Personality Dimensions and Importance of the Social Role of the University Student in Explaining Student Involvement in Student Organization

Marijana Markovikj
Eleonora Serafimovska
University of Ss Cyril and Methodius, Institute for Sociological Political and Juridical Research

Abstract

In order to explore the student involvement in the student organization, field research was conducted amongst 669 students. The research instrument contained a questionnaire on students' perception and satisfaction of the student organization; two scales of IPIP NEO (short form): Agreeableness (A) and Conscientiousness (C), and one dimension of the Laponce's questionnaire: the importance of the social role of the university student. The analysis of the overall obtained data showed a very low level of involvement in student organization and a weak expression of the importance of the social role of the university student. A relatively weak connection between two personality dimensions and the involvement of students in the student organization has been found. A student's involvement is determined more by the importance of the role, than by personality dimensions.

Keywords: student organization, personality dimensions, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, student involvement, social role of the university student.

Introduction

In this article, the concept of student involvement refers to the active participation of students in the student organization in a direction of being able to achieve its established goals, these being improving the student standard, advocacy and lobbying for students' rights, international affirmation of the student movement, reforms in higher education, and encouraging active student membership through organizing various activities (http://spukm.org n.d.).

Beside student involvement in student organization, student participation in the political life of the country was registered during the course of 2014 as the informal organization of students was formed, the so-called Student Plenum. The initiative appeared at the end of 2014 after the announcement of the changes in the Law on Higher Education of the Constitution of Macedonia, which according to the movement strongly violates Article 461 which guarantees the autonomy of universities. In the period of announcement of the adoption of a new Law (during 2017) on Higher Education, the research challenge was to explore the perception and satisfaction of students from Student Organization at the biggest and oldest University Macedonia2. Over the course of 20173 the field research was conducted in order to determine to what degree students were informed about the existence and work of the bodies of the student organization, how involved they were in the activities, and how satisfied they were with the way in which they managed their student organization, as well as to identify which personality dimensions exert an influence on students’ involvement, and how important it is for students is the social role of the university student (this paper is only one segment of this complex research).

The general outcomes of bigger research show that, to a large extent, students are not completely familiar with the way the student organization functions, and that they barely know the representatives of the student parliament, especially the small percentage of students who were in some way involved in some of the activities of the organization. A large percentage of students are not satisfied with the work of the student organization. Despite student organization’s defined competences, students are not cognizant of the fact that this organization carries significant influence on the decision-making processes at the University level. Students have stated that they choose not to get involved in the work of the student organization

2 University of “Ss Cyril and Methodius” in Skopje (UKIM)
3 This research was conducted by the Institute for Sociological Political and Juridical Research, Skopje, member of UKIM
primarily because of a lack of interest, a lack of knowledge of the opportunities for participation, and also because of the belief that professors mete out retribution upon actively involved students, and because of the involvement of political parties in the decision-making processes (Серафимовска et al., 2018).

As the participants of this survey were undergraduate students (from 18 to 25) it is relevant to broach the subject of psycho-social developmental issues. These students belong to the Millennials, the demographic generational cohort that is considered to include those born between 1981 and 2000. This generation has been witness to a series of events generating a sense of insecurity and unsafely. When all the events that have taken place in the period of growth and development of this generation are put together, it can be concluded that they are living in a society that is continuously at high risk in terms of security from an economic and social aspect. Young people from Macedonia, as well as youth from other republics of the former Yugoslavia, have been exposed to dramatic events such as armed conflicts, mass migration, and refugee crises, the transition of the social system from socialist to capitalist, political parties influence on public administration, dubious privatization of social property, multiple reforms in the education system, etc. The general perception of the situation in the state, as well as the perception of the internal political situation, clearly demonstrates the sense of lethargy that exists among the youth, accompanied with mistrust towards state institutions (Тапески et al., 2006). Young people in Macedonia are usually not socially active, but those who are, are members of political parties, with a lesser number being members of non-governmental and sports organizations, whilst the smallest number are members of professional organizations. The percentage of students who answered that they are politically active, have cited pragmatic reasons for this, to wit, employment, desire for a better standard of living, protection, etc. (Цветанова et al., 2016; Латковиќ et al., 2013).

Regarding political ideology, socialist ideology still dominates among students in Macedonia, even 71% of students possess a socialist ideology (Markovij, 2010). The socialistic ideology is characterized by collective responsibility, equal distribution of funds, non-conformism and expectation for the responsibility to be taken over by government institutions.

Students, according to the theoretical and empirical knowledge of developmental psychology, belong to the life period designated as “early maturity”. At the age of 18 to 25, young people strive for independence from their parents and build a vision of achievements in life related to their profession and intimate relationships (Gormly and Brodzinski, 1990). Findings from studies conducted in Macedonia showed that the process of achieving independence from the parents starts at a later age or in some cases never. Relevant numbers of young people still live with and are financially dependent on their parents, and their political attitudes are similar to those of their parents (Латковиќ et al., 2013).

Sociologists, studying the phenomenon of youth from the perspective of social inclusion and independence from parents, distinguish synchronized and non-synchronized youth (Nikolic et al., 2004:7-17). Synchronized youth is characterized by temporal and content coordination of achieving economic independence, permanent employment and family formation. Non-synchronized youth is determined by temporally and content-wise uncoordinated attainment of certain adult roles. In highly developed countries, the duration of the period of youth is more or less a matter of choice, as there is a low level of unemployment, for example in Germany it is 3.65% (Eurostat, n.d.); however, in transitional countries, such as Macedonia, the level of overall employment is 22.4% (State Statistical Office, 2018) and youth unemployment is 42.3% (Латковиќ et al., 2016) prolonged period of youth dominates (unsynchronized youth).

The transformation of youth depends on the degree of freedom in a society, reflected in the possibility of choosing values according to the existence of pluralistic offers, existing culture, quality of education, and conflicts in society. Social transition hinders the transformation that occurs in youth, especially when the transition does not appear alone, but along with various forms of armed conflict. Osgood et al. (2005) noted that transition to adulthood is influenced by various events. Those events can be in the form of personal, relational, or of a socio-economic and political nature; some of them can have negative effects on this process, for example adolescents’ marriages, economic issues, family issues, substances abuse, political and civil affairs, etc. (Osgood et al., 2005, pp.1-27).

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN STUDENT ORGANIZATION, FIVE-FACTORIAL PERSONALITY MODEL AND THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SOCIAL ROLE

The Five-Factor Personality Model assumes the existence of five basic dimensions that lie at the heart of personality traits. This model begins with the concept of hierarchical structure of personality traits (Costa and McCrae, 1992). The five basic factors are named as domains and behavioral dimensions. Neuroticism (adaptability and emotional stability); Extraversion
(social relations, intensity of interpersonal interactions and the level of activity); Openness (active seeking experiences, aesthetic sensitivity, intellectual curiosity, need for change, and non-dogmatic attitudes); Agreeableness (trust, interpersonal relations, the need to help others); Conscientiousness (ability of self-control as disciplined direction for the realization of set goals, and adherence to one’s own principles) (McCrae and Costa, 1992; Markovikj and Serafimovska, 2014).

Mondak and Halperin (2008) point out that the change in research in the domain of political science occurs owing to the research in the field of personality psychology where several factor models appear. Of these, the Five-Factor Personality Model is best known. The series of research in the field of political science has resulted in data indicating that all five personality dimensions have a certain connection with certain aspects of political behavior, and student involvement in student organization can be assumed as a behavior needed for civic democratic society engagement (Howe and Fosnacht, 2017). Student involvement in student organizations is considered as a direct representation of their likely involvement outside of school/college/university later in life. Participating in organizations, groups, and other activities allows students to improve their leadership and organizational skills and is related to increased skill development as well as other aspects of personal growth (McCannon and Bennett, 1996).

The relationship between personality and political behavior could be considered in two respects. The first aspect is that differences in personality can directly affect different forms of political behavior: manner of voting, political attitudes, strength of identification with certain political parties, etc. The second aspect is that differences in personality can lead to indirect, situational effects on political behavior. Recent research in psychology suggests that situational factors, such as the threat to society’s security, influence political reasoning.

Data from surveys in the domain of political behavior/involvement in societal processes through the connection with personality dimensions have shown that the basic political predispositions are rooted in personality. The data has shown that personality dimensions are related to important political predispositions and attitudes. These dimensions/traits are not considered to be under our conscious control, but have been found to have a significant effect on thoughts, attitudes, and behavior. In the realm of politics they have been shown to influence one’s political participation, sense of civic duty, partisanship, ideology, and political efficacy (Dusso, 2016). It has been demonstrated that Openness is negatively linked to identification with conservatism as an ideology (Gerber et al., 2009). Openness and extraversion is positively linked to direct democracy, e.g. to political protests (Brandstatatter and Opp, 2014; Gallego and Oberski, 2011; Ha et al., 2013; Mondiak et al., 2010). Other research has pointed out that Extroversion and Openness are conditioning factors of political activism (Ribeiro and Borba, 2016).

Persons with high expressiveness of the Conscientiousness dimension have a sense of obligation to be good citizens and thus to participate in society (Verhulst, Eaves and Hatemi, 2012), and also to stand behind traditional values (Geber et al., 2009). Conscientiousness includes the disposition to be safe, organized and accurate, as well as to work hard and be diligent. People with a high level of conscientiousness usually excel in school and at the workplace. Conscientious citizens are known to participate in politics if they perceive it as their civic duty (Mondiak et al., 2010). Agreeableness has proven to be positively related to interpersonal trust and trust in politics. Generalised trust is a relevant segment of democratic citizenship, so people high on the Agreeableness scale will be more willing to participate in solving collective problems (Dinesen et al., 2013). Agreeable persons are known to be conflict avoidant and they will avoid political situations that are conflictive (Ackerman, 2016).

It has been shown that the dimension pointing to emotional stability (Neuroticism) influences the attitude towards political rights. Namely, persons who are calm and secure are advocates of the politics of equality (Mondiak et al., 2010).

These are findings, which support the hypothesis that the personality dimensions have influence on political attitudes and behavior but there are other researchers (Hatemi and Verhulst, 2015) who suggests the relationship between personality dimensions and political orientations are either not significant or are weak. They declare that the covariance between personality and political preferences is not causal, but due to a common, latent factor that mutually influences both.

In this paper it is assumed that two dimensions can be relevant for student involvement in the activities of student organization: Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. High Agreeableness refers to prosocial, communal orientation as well as political participation (Dinesen at al., 2013), and high Conscientiousness describes the socially prescribed impulse control following norms and rules, planning, organizing, and prioritizing tasks (Gerber et al., 2010). People who are
conscientious will participate in institutionalized forms of participation (like a student organization – author’s note), but rarely in non-institutionalized forms of participation such as a political protest (Ackerman, 2016).

The relationship between personality and society is realized through the social position. The behavior expected of a person with a certain social position defines the social role (Rot, 1987). The social roles are sets of behaviors that are recognized by the members of society, these being the “specific orderly system of social action” (Znaniecki, 1994:37). They provide identification of the person with the others who share the same attitudes, sets of behavior etc. and have a function to place an individual in society. These issues make social roles very important for human social life. The importance of the social role in this study has been based on the Laponce construct of the minority effect. According to Laponce, roles that have minority status in society attract more importance than do those that are in the dominant (majority) position.

The social role of the student is temporary and lasts only until the person graduates (Rot, 1987). The expectation of the students is mostly orientated toward fulfillment of their basic function, which is studying and completing the process of education. Besides this basic expectation there are others which are more connected with involvement in society and activism. Some of the expectations are more oriented toward the quality of education and some of them toward social movements. Students are usually labeled and seen as progressive, free-minded, intellectual, critical of the current social and/or political situation and, from this perception, the expectation of political participation occurs. History has shown us that over time students have assumed a somewhat important social and political role, putting relevant issues on the political and social agenda (Kovacic, 2014).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This paper tends to explain single segment of the wider research titled as: “Perspectives of Higher Education Development in the Republic of Macedonia”, which focused on the connection between student involvement in the student organization, two dimensions of personality (Agreeableness - A and Conscientiousness - C), and the importance of the social role of the student at UKIM. So, the main research question is: ‘What is the connection between personality dimensions, the role of a student at UKIM, and student involvement in the student organization?’

Participants

Field research was conducted on 669 students from the state university, St. Cyril and Methodius (UKIM), Skopje during May 2017. Appropriate approval for research had been received by the Office of the Rector as well as from the Deans of Faculties. Students voluntary participate in the study.

Quota sampling and convenience sampling was used. The number of male students was 33.2%, and the number of female students was 61.4% (5.4% do no answer this question). Respondents included students from the first and fifth year of studies from almost all faculties that constitute UKIM.

Measures

In order to answer the main research question, the data obtained from the following instruments have been analyzed:

a) Set of questions from the Questionnaire (QP) on the Perception and Satisfaction of students about their student organization (SPUKIM): student’s need for information about the existence of certain bodies/commissions of the student organization; satisfaction with the work of student organization, addressing the student organization representatives, perception of the influence of organization, perception of the factors which have an influence on student involvement according to the process of decision making and feelings toward organization.

b) Two scales from the short form of IPIP NEO: Conscientiousness and Agreeableness. IPIP NEO (the short form of 50 items) is a brief measure of the Big Five Personality Dimensions. In this form of the test, each dimension is defined by ten items. This test uses the Big Five Factor markers from the International Personality Item Pool, developed and constructed by Goldberg (1992). This test is taken from the "Possible Questionnaire Format for Administering the 50-Item Set of IPIP Big-Five Factor Markers" (International Personality Item Pool<http://ipip.ori.org/New_IPIP-50-item-scale.html>). The test contains 50 items ranked on a five-step scale where “1” is “very inaccurate”, “3” is “neutral”, and “5” is “very inaccurate”. The items were translated into Macedonian and the basic metrical features of the two scales (Agreeableness and Conscienousness) were checked. Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient, which indicates the internal reliability was 0.79 for Agreeableness, and for Conscientiousness it was 0.82. These coefficients indicate high reliability on both scales. In order
to determine whether the items have the capacity to differentiate respondents, the Pearson correlation coefficient was applied. Coefficients of correlation between the score of each item, with the item total score, were statistically significant (p<0.01), confirming the discrimination of items. Also, both scales (Agreeableness and Conscientiousness) correlate highly (r=0.31, p<0.01). By using the Principal Component Analysis, which determines how many factors the scale consists of, it has been found that each of the scales are determined by one dominant factor. When one considers the obtained data, it can be said that the two scales have solid metric characteristics that allow for their use in further research.

c) One segment (question) from the Laponce\(^{1}\) questionnaire about the importance of social roles - the significance of social roles for individuals (in this case: the significance of a role student for students from UKIM).

RESULTS

The interaction between two personality dimension (Agreeableness and Conscientiousness) and the importance of the role of the student “student at UKIM” is presented in two coordinate systems (see Figure 1. below). Figure 1 shows a coordinate system defined by the two coordinates, one being the importance of the role, and the personality dimension Conscientiousness, where “C+” (above the 50th percentile) refers to high intensity of particular dimension, and “C–” (below the 50th percentile) to a low expression of it. The importance of the role is determined by continuum defined by two extremes: important (I) and non-important (N). Important (I) is defined by two levels of expression of “completely important” and “partially important to me”. Non-important (N) is defined with both degrees of non-importance: “partially not-important to me” and “not-important to me at all”, with neutral answers excluded from further statistical processing.

**Figure 1** Graphical presentation of the zones defined by the dimensions: importance of social role of the student at UKIM and personality dimension Conscientiousness.

Figure. 2, (below) shows the coordinate system defined by the two coordinates: importance of the role and the expression of dimension Agreeableness (“A–” indicates the low intensity of the dimension, scores below the 50th percentile, while “A +” indicates the high intensity, scores above the 50th percentile).

**Figure 2** Graphical presentation of the zones defined by the dimensions: importance of social role and personality dimension Agreeableness

As was stated in the research question, the connection of personality dimension and the importance of the role and student involvement are to be explored. In the further statistical processing, obtained groups, which are defined by the level of personality dimension and importance of the role, are compared with the student involvement expressed in the six questions from the Questionnaire on the Perception of UKIM students about their student organization (QP).

The concept student involvement in the QP is presented with the following aspects (which correspondent to one question of QP):

Need for information.

Satisfaction with the work of student organization.

Addressing the student organization’s representatives regarding issues of interest of the students.

Perception of the influence of student organization in the promotion of student interests.

Perception of the factors which have an influence on the student involvement according to the process of decision-making.

Feelings toward student organization.

The data based on interaction between personality dimensions (A, C), the importance of the role of the student at UKIM, and student involvement are presented below:

---

\(^{1}\) Laponce (2004) constructed a questionnaire concerning 14 different roles which every individual has during his/her life. That questionnaire contains questions about the solidarity with the members of the various social roles; mutuality of interests with the members of the various social roles; difficulties in changing different social roles and opinion on the degree of satisfaction of individuals belonging to specific social roles on how they are treated in a society.
Need for Information

Regarding the question “Would you like to be better informed about the work of student representatives?” a statistical significance was found between the responses of the four groups (the groups are shown in Figures 1 and 2).

The analysis of the obtained data shows that the need for better information stems from the degree of intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role (Chi square = 10.93, p <0.05), thus those students who have a higher degree of intensity of dimension C have a need to be more informed see Figure 3 (note: data in all figures are presented in percentages). This finding corresponds to the nature of this dimension, that is, the person who falls into the high intensity category on dimension C tends to fulfill his/her duties, and is conscientious and responsible in regard to his/her work tasks (Bracken and Ludvik, 2014). Respondents with a higher intensity of dimension C, for whom the role of the student at UKIM is important have a more expressed need to be better informed about their student organization.

**Figure 3** Expression of the need to be better informed depending on the intensity of dimension C (Conscientiousness) and the importance of the role.

It was also observed that to be better informed is not the primary result of the intensity of dimension A, but by the importance/non-importance of the social role of the student at UKIM (Chi square = 7.82, p <0.05), see Figure 4 below. The lowest need for information is for those students with a low intensity of A and to whom the role student at UKIM is not important. The highest need is those with a low intensity of A and for whom the role is important.

**Figure 4** Expression of the need for better information depending on the intensity of dimension A, and the importance of the role.

2. Satisfaction with the work of the student organization

A statistical significance (Chi square = 17.41, p <0.01) was noted between the responses of the four groups regarding the issue of satisfaction with the work of the student organizations at particular student parliaments at faculties (SPF). There is statistical significance between the four groups concerning the intensity of dimension A and importance of the social role with the satisfaction of the work of the organization. If the role is seen as important, the more intense is the satisfaction with the SPF; the less satisfied with the work of student organization are those who have a higher intensity of dimension A, and for whom the role is non-important (N).

**Figure 5** Expression of satisfaction with the work of SPF depending on the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role.

This same tendency can be found concerning dimension C and the importance of the role (Chi square = 18.21, p <0.01), see Figure 6 below.

**Figure 6** Expression of satisfaction with the work of the SPF depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of student at UKIM.

The findings regarding the satisfaction of the work of student organization exhibit the same tendencies as do the findings regarding the satisfaction with the work of SPF (Chi square = 23.52, p <0.01 for intensity of dimension C and importance of role, and for the importance of the role and dimension A, Chi square = 21.63, p <0.01).

These data indicate that the satisfaction with the work of student organization at the faculty and at the university level occur in cases when the role of the student at UKIM is perceived as being important. The most commonly expressed point of dissatisfaction is among those students for whom the role of the student at UKIM is not important.

3. Addressing student organization representatives regarding issues of interest of the students.

Irrespective of the intensity of dimension C, students with a higher importance of the role of the student at UKIM show greater readiness to approach the representatives regarding a problem that is of interest to the students, and this shows the statistical significance between the four groups (Chi square = 8.60, p <0.05).

**Figure 7** Address to representatives depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of the student at UKIM.
There is no statistical significance found concerning the dimension Agreeableness.

Perception of the Influence of student organization in the Promotion of Student Interest.

There exists statistical significance between the four groups concerning the influence of student organization in the promotion of student interest (for dimension C and importance of role, Chi square = 19.15 p <0.01, while for dimension A and importance of the role, Chi square = 19.50 p <0.01).

**Figure 8** Perception of the influence of student organization in the promotion of student interests depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of social role of the student at UKIM.

Students for whom the role is important are of the impression that student organization does have an impact on the promotion of students' interests.

**Figure 9** Perception of the influence of organization in the promotion of student interests depending on the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the social role of the student at UKIM.

The student organization has been perceived as being influential in the promotion of student interest among those students who have lower intensity of dimension A and for whom the role of the student is important. This data stems from the nature of the intensity of dimension A. Students with a low intensity of dimension A tend to advocate the interests of the organization rather than tending to agree with others. Those with lower intensity of dimension A are more focused on the processes of the organization rather than on interpersonal issues, but they see the organization as influential only if they identify with the role. However, for the most students, personal motivation appears to be the most important factor, which can be taken to indicate a low level of awareness in regard to social responsibility.

**Table 1** Factors that influence students' involvement in decision-making processes according to the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of the “student at UKIM”.

In identifying the factors of student involvement, dimension C and the significance of the role are also influenced. The greatest difference has been found to exist between these two groups: (C-)N and (C+)I. For the first group, the most important are personal motivation and party affiliation, and for the second greater significance was given to the way organization is organized, unity in performance, argumentation of requests, and quality of communication with teachers.

Perception of the factors which have an influence on the student involvement according to the process of decision-making

When choosing the factors that have an influence on student involvement in regard to the decision-making process, the role is of primary importance, but only in cases where there is a low expression of dimension A. The biggest difference is between following groups: (A-)N and (A-)I. The first gives the highest importance to personal motivation and party, whilst the second one will give great importance to the way student organization is organized, argumentation of requests, and quality of communication with teachers.

**Table 2** Factors that influence students’ involvement in the decision-making processes according to the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role

Feelings toward student organization.

Statistical significance was found in the four groups concerning the feelings towards student organization (Chi square for dimension A and importance of the role is 25.57 p <0.01 and Chi square for dimension C and importance of the role is 27.41 p <0.01).

**Figure 10** Feelings for the student organization according to the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role.

**Figure 11** Feelings for the student organization according to the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role.

When the role is not important, negative feelings towards the student organization dominate. Positive feelings prevail among students to whom the role of the student is important (Figure 10 and 11).

The obtained relevant findings from the statistical processing of the received data are shown in a single table that attempts to unify all particular indicators.
Table 3 Aspects of student involvement, personality dimensions, and the importance of the role of the student at the University.

DISCUSSION

The summary presentation of the results shows that the importance of the role of a student at the University is of primary importance for student involvement in the activities of the student organization. If the role is important for students then there will be a greater desire from students to be informed about the work of the student organization, to have positive feelings towards the organization, to be satisfied with organization, to show greater initiative when referring to requests for improvement of the work of the organization, and ultimately the organization will be perceived to be influential. For these students, relevant factors for involvement in the organization will be organizational issues and not personal ones.

Dimension C, together with importance of the role (I) becomes relevant for the cognitive component, the higher intensity of dimension C (C+), and a more explicit need for greater information about the management of the Student Organization. The same students (C+ I) pointed out the organizational issues as the most important factors for students’ participation in the decision-making processes on aspects important for student life.

Dimension A together with the importance of the role becomes relevant in regard to the following aspects of student involvement: need for information and perception of influence. Students with a lower intensity of dimension A (A-) and for whom the role is important (I) will have a more pronounced need for information. They will perceive the organization as being influential and for them the most important factors for involvement in the organization are personal issues.

We assumed that two dimensions should be of higher intensity concerning student involvement in order to improve the functioning of the student organization, which was the case for dimension C, but it turned out that those students with a lower level in dimension A, but for whom the role of the student is important, are more concerned about the student organization. This leads to the conclusion that they see the student organization as offering them the real possibility of being able to help them achieve their own personal aspirations. This finding can be supported with real cases in the history of student organization functioning, e.g. active students became members of political parties that later actively participate in government (there are many samples in each established Government in Macedonia till now). This statement, together with supported findings that the highest percentage of respondents will be involved in the student organization only for personal motivation and to facilitate later participation in political parties.

CONCLUSIONS

This article has explored student involvement in the activities of the Student Organization examined through the importance of the social role of the University and two personality dimensions: Agreeableness and Consciousness (measured with short-form of NEO IPIP). Student involvement is interpreted through understanding responses to a set of questions that represent one part of an extensive questionnaire on the perception and satisfaction of the work of student organization, while the importance of the social role of the university student is identified with one question from the Laponce’s questionnaire. This text analyzes the involvement of students in a structured and formal shape of student organization such as the student organization at the University, including the following segments: the need for information, satisfaction with the management of the organization, addressing the representatives of the organization in regard to questions of interest for the students, the perception of the influence of the student organization in promotion of students’ interests, the perception of factors which have an influence on student involvement as well as the affective aspect felt towards the organization.

Based on the respondents’ grouping according to the intensity of the personality dimensions and the importance of the social role of the university student, it is clear that the involvement of students in the student organization mainly depends upon how much the role student is important for them. Dimension C appears additionally as only relevant in the domain of cognitive component (need for more information about the management of the organization) and domains of perception of relevant factors for student involvement for relevant aspects of a student’s life, which are oriented toward organization (way of organization, unity in advocating the interests of students, etc.). These students, with high C, are more active in processes of planning and organizing tasks as well as oriented toward occupational achievement (McCrae, Costa, 1992). A low intensity of dimension A, together with importance of the role becomes a relevant factor for student involvement in the student organization. These students will be involved in the activities of the student organization as they perceive it as a means for achieving their own personal goals.
In general, young people (students) have a very low interest in being involved in the processes of managing the student organization or in participating in the activities organized by it. They exhibited little or no knowledge at all about the work of student organization (61.6% are not familiar with student organization), and what is very important is that the percentage of students who claimed that students from organization are important for them is very low (only around 20%). A low level of involvement in the student organization is not a positive indicator regarding citizenship behavior. Since student involvement is a relevant segment of a participatory political culture and primarily depends on the importance of the social role, it follows that the student organization should put forth greater effort into investing in the processes of integrating its own members so as to make the role of a student important and significant to them. This can only be achieved by establishing a democratic system of organization.

References

Table 1 Factors that influence students’ involvement in decision-making processes according to the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of the “student at UKIM”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C and the importance of the role of the student at SPUKIM</th>
<th>Personal motivation</th>
<th>Way of organizing</th>
<th>Party affiliation</th>
<th>Unity in performance</th>
<th>Argumentation of requests</th>
<th>Communication with teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I (C-)I N</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I (C+)I</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II (C-)I</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II (C+)I</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Factors that influence students’ involvement in the decision-making processes according to the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A and the importance of the role “student at UKIM”</th>
<th>Personal motivation</th>
<th>Way of organizing</th>
<th>Party affiliation</th>
<th>Unity in performance</th>
<th>Argumentation of requests</th>
<th>Level of communication with teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A (C-)A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (C+)A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (C-)A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A (C+)A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 Aspects of student involvement, personality dimensions, and the importance of the role of the student at the University.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of personality and importance/non importance of role</th>
<th>Cognitive component (need for information)</th>
<th>Affective component (satisfaction and feelings)</th>
<th>Behavior component (addressing)</th>
<th>Perception of influence</th>
<th>In the decision-making process, what does participation depend upon?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness (A)</td>
<td>A-I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>A-I</td>
<td>A-I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non important/important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness (C)</td>
<td>C+I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>C+I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non important/important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 Graphical presentation of the zones defined by the dimensions: importance of social role of the student at UKIM and personality dimension Conscientiousness.
Figure 2  Graphical presentation of the zones defined by the dimensions: importance of social role and personality dimension Agreeableness

Figure 3  Expression of the need to be better informed depending on the intensity of dimension C (Conscientiousness) and the importance of the role

Figure 4  Expression of the need for better information depending on the intensity of dimension A, and the importance of the role

Figure 5  Expression of satisfaction with the work of SPF depending on the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role.
Figure 6 Expression of satisfaction with the work of the SPF depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of student at UKIM

Figure 7 Address to representatives depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role of the student at UKIM.

Figure 8 Perception of the influence of student organization in the promotion of student interests depending on the intensity of dimension C and the importance of social role of the student at UKIM
Figure 9 Perception of the influence of organization in the promotion of student interests depending on the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the social role of the student at UKIM.

Figure 10 Feelings for the student organization according to the intensity of dimension A and the importance of the role.

Figure 11 Feelings for the student organization according to the intensity of dimension C and the importance of the role.
Similarities in the Syntactic Structure of the German and Croatian Language

Manuela Svoboda
PhD, Lecturer of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Rijeka, Croatia.

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to analyse any potential similarities between the Croatian and German language and present them adopting a contrastive approach with the intent of simplifying the learning process in regards to the German syntactic structure for Croatian German as foreign language students. While consulting articles and books on the theories and methods of foreign language teaching, attention is usually drawn to differences between the mother tongue and the foreign language, especially concerning false friends etc. The same applies to textbooks, workbooks and how teachers behave in class. Thus, it is common practice to deal with the differences between the foreign language and the mother tongue but less with similarities. This is unfortunate considering that this would likely aid in acquiring certain grammatical and syntactic structures of the foreign language. In the author's opinion, similarities are as, if not more, important than differences. Therefore, in this article the existence of similarities between the Croatian and German language will be examined closer with a main focus on the segment of sentence types. Special attention is drawn to subordinate clauses as they play an important role when speaking and/or translating sentences from Croatian to German and vice versa. In order to present and further clarify this matter, subordinate clauses in both the German and Croatian language are defined, clarified and listed to gain an oversight and to present possible similarities between the two. In addition, the method to identify subordinate clauses in a sentence is explained as well as what they express, which conjunctions are being used for each type of subordinate clause in both languages and where the similarities and/or differences between the two languages lie.

Keywords: German and Croatian language, similarities in syntactic structure, subordinate clauses, main clauses, adverbial clauses, syntax

I. Introduction

This paper will focus on analysing the possible similarities in syntactic structure of the Croatian and German language by presenting specific syntactical structures of both respectively. As the topic of Croatian and German syntax encompasses a wide range of research subjects, this paper will mainly focus on sentence structure, i.e. types of sentences of the mentioned languages. The rationale for selecting this topic is a personal interest as the author is in daily contact with German as foreign language (hereinafter: GFL) students and is privy to the shortcomings of textbooks and teaching methods. The author is of the opinion that similarities are not emphasized thoroughly enough in GFL lessons.

A stronger focus is placed on subordinate clauses because, as it turns out, they present difficulties for Croatian GFL students. Most problems occur in terms of identifying the type of adverbial clause and using them correctly in German, especially when it comes to choosing the correct conjunction.

Taking into account that each language follows its own set of rules, it is vital to point out the specifics to students in order to assist them in learning the desired language. Naturally, it is easier to learn languages which stem from the same origin, i.e. languages belonging to the same language family, for instance the Indo-European languages.

At first glance, the German and Croatian language respectively have little in common, but at second look similarities definitely do exist which could be helpful to foreign language students when considering the possibility of applying known rules from the mother tongue to the foreign language. By pointing out these similarities, certain aspects would presumably be more straightforward for the learner and perhaps add to their confidence level due to the fact that they already have
knowledge of specific structures from their mother tongue and are able to transfer them to the foreign language. Of course, differences should not be disregarded as they are also of great importance. Dependant on each students learning preference, some find it easier when focussing on similarities, others when focussing on differences; therefore, both needs should be satisfied in GFL and other foreign language lessons.

II. The German and Croatian language

The German and Croatian language belong to the same large language family, i.e. the Indo-European language family. Consequently, they have certain common traits but also many differences especially in regards to dealing with the syntax of both languages. These differences make it especially difficult for Croatians to learn GFL. Unfortunately, in GFL lessons only the differences are normally pointed out, whereas the similarities are ignored, for the most part. As a result most students are familiar with basic distinctions as is the case, for instance, with the most striking one: the Croatian language does not possess determinatives, i.e. articles, whereas the German language has definite and indefinite articles. The Croatian language inflects nouns by adding a suffix; thus, posing a difficulty for German native speakers attempting to grasp the Croatian language.

Seeing as the German language system belongs to the West Germanic group, it morphologically is not only determined by article usage but also by declination of adjectives, a small number of grammatical cases (i.e. four) as well as regular and irregular verbs. The Croatian language system, on the other hand, belongs to the South-Slavic language group which has adopted the highly developed morphological system of the Proto-Slavic language. Throughout the course of history this ancient morphological system has been reduced yet these reductions bore no major impact on the declination or conjugation system.

Concerning linguistic typology, the German language belongs to the category of inflectional languages or rather inflective-analytic languages. Here a difference must be made between the “inner” inflection (root vowel changes, e.g. gebe – giba) and the “outer” inflection (suffication, e.g. Kind- Kinder). Mixed forms of both, inner and outer inflection, also exist as is shown in the example of Turm - Türme. Inflections are not alike in all inflective word classes but rather are more pronounced in adjectives, verbs and pronouns than in nouns.

Adopted from the Proto-Slavic language, Croatian is a synthetic language which attempts to simplify the morphological system with its multitude of declinations and conjugations. The present-day Croatian language has maintained a small number of ancient language units and developed a grammar system with seven cases, definite and indefinite adjectives as well as a system of imperfect and perfect verbs, e.g. jesti (imperfect) and pojesti (perfect), meaning eat and eat up in English and essen and aufessen in German. The Croatian language possess a tripartite inflection system with noun, verb and pronoun inflection.

In regards to sentence structure (syntax), there are striking differences as well as similarities between the German and the Croatian languages which will be further examined in this paper. The Croatian language inherently follows the subject-predicate-object (SPO) rule. The indirect object is usually placed in front of the direct object but in general the word order in Croatian is relatively free. As word order follows the theme-rheme-structure, it can also appear as object–predicate–subject. As a general rule, the theme should be found at the beginning and the rheme at the end of the sentence. Whether a noun is definite or indefinite is not defined by definite or indefinite articles but rather depends on the positioning of the noun within the sentence. If the noun is placed at the beginning of the sentence (theme position), it is considered as definite; if it is at the end of the sentence (rheme position), it is regarded as indefinite.

Word order in the German language is much more clearly structured. The verb is in a central position and, due to its valence, requires a certain number of mandatory or facultative actants. Generally, the German word order also follows the SPO rule in declarative sentences which is determined by syntactic, morphological and communicative conditions. The indirect object comes before the direct object when using nouns, but vice versa if pronouns are used. Adverbials also follow rules, i.e. there is the TKML rule stating that the adverbial of time comes first, followed by adverbials of reason, adverbials of manner and adverbials of place at last. Of course, depending on the objective or emphasis of the entire sentence, adverbials may be placed in other positions (mainly at the beginning of sentences). It is possible to transform all adverbials into adverbial sentences which are then introduced by conjunctions indicating the type of adverbial clause they represent.

Concerning sentence structure (syntax), both languages follow the principle of the synthetic or inflective syntax which is common in all European languages. What's more, the German and the Croatian language, like all other European
languages, possess common categories of grammatical case, gender, mood and tense while non-European languages have other distinct categories.

In the Croatian language, the direct and the indirect object are distinguished. In a sentence, the direct object is usually placed in front of the indirect object and in the main word order, adverbials are placed in front or behind the verb finite verb. Sentences in the Croatian language are divided into independent and dependent complex sentences. According to Havkić, independent complex sentences can be strewn together without conjunctions yet conjunctions may also be used as in the German language. Hence, independent complex sentences are simply main clauses strung together, while dependent complex sentences are nothing but subordinate clauses. The difference between Croatian and German subordinate clauses is that the Croatian subordinate clauses stick to the main word order while the finite verb in subordinate clauses in German appears at the end of the sentence (cf. Havkić 2016:39).

III. Types of sentences in the Croatian and German language

The distinction of subordinate clauses in the German language is based on the grammar book titled Deutsche Grammatik by Helbig G. and Buscha J. published in 1996, Pregled gramatike njemačkog jezika/Deutsche Grammatik im Überblick by Marčetić, T. issued in 2001 and Lehr- und Übungsbuch zur deutschen Syntax by Svoboda, M. issued in 2013. According to the authors, the German language distinguishes between simple (einfacher) and compound sentences (zusammengesetzter Satz). The latter consists of a combination of main and main clauses, named Satzverbindung by Helbig/Buscha as well as main and subordinate clauses, termed Satzgefüge by Helbig/Buscha. We speak of compound sentences if the sentence has at least two predicates.

Subordinate clauses can be further divided into subject and object clauses, predicative clauses (or simply “predicative”) along with attributive and adverbial clauses. The latter can further be divided into adversative clauses (opposite), causal clauses (reason), concessive clauses (despite something), conditional clauses (condition), consecutive clauses (result), final clauses (purpose), modal clauses (manner), local clauses (place) and temporal clauses (time).

The distinction of sentences in the Croatian language is based on the grammar books titled Gramatika Hrvatskoga jezika za gimnazije i visoka učilišta by Silić J. and Pranjković I. published in 2007 and Hrvatska gramatika by Barić, E., Lončarić, M., Malić, D., Pavešić, S., Peti, M., Zečević, V., Znika, M.: issued in 1997. According to the mentioned literature, the Croatian language distinguishes between simple (jednostavne) and compound sentences (složene rečenice). The latter consists of main and main clauses, or main and subordinate clauses. As is the case with German, we speak of a compound sentence if it has at least two predicates.

Subordinate clauses can be further divided into predicative clauses, subject clauses, object clauses and adverbial clauses. Subordinate clauses relating to the noun or pronoun of the main clause are termed attributive clauses. Adverbial clauses are divided into vremenske (temporal clauses), mjesne (local clauses), načinske (modal clauses), namjerne (final clauses), uzročne (causal clauses), pogodbene (conditional clauses), posljedične (consecutive clauses) and dopusne (concessive clauses).

Ordinarily, in both languages compound sentences (main clause and subordinate clause) can be defined as sentences in which one sentence is embedded into the grammar structure of another sentence. The sentence into which grammar structure another sentence is embedded is labelled the main clause and the sentence being embedded into its grammar structure is termed the subordinate clause.

Subsequently, the subordinate clauses will be defined in more detail and examples in both the German and Croatian language will be presented in order to clarify just how the subordinate clauses are formed and used in both languages:

a) Subject clauses

In the German language subject clauses, in their role as subordinate clauses, replace the subject of the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions dass, ob or by an interrogative pronoun. Subject clauses are determined by the questions wer oder was? (who or what?). If the subject clause follows the main clause, the sentence begins with a correlative (cf. Svoboda 2013: 90):

Es ist schade, dass sie nicht gekommen ist.

Ob Gloria die Prüfung bestehen wird, ist nicht klar.
Instead of subject clauses it is also possible to use infinitive clauses (zu + infinitive construction) (cf. Marčetić 2001: 141):

Dass er die Prüfung bestanden hat, war ein wahres Glück.

Die Prüfung zu bestehen, war ein wahres Glück.

Subject clauses in the Croatian language are, in fact, subordinate clauses which replace the subject in the main clause and relate to the main clause in the same way that the subject relates to its predicate. In Croatian, subject clauses are further divided into relative subject clauses, relative-interrogative subject clauses and declarative subject clauses. The relative pronouns tko, što, koji and the conjunction da are used in subject clauses:

Tko čeka, taj dočeka.
Zna se da je ona preko veze došla do tog posla.

Relative subject clauses

Relative subject clauses are compound sentences in which the subordinate clause is placed into the main clause by using relative pronouns or adverbs. Such subject clauses are very similar to the mentioned predicative clauses as they make it possible to insert relative pronouns and pronominal adverbs. The following pronouns and pronominal adverbs appear to take on the function of conjunctions:

(Onaj) tko ima, neka dijeli or Tko ima (onaj) neka dijeli;
(Oni) koji su dijelili, sretni su or Koji su dijelili (oni) su sretni;

Relative-interrogative clauses

Relative-interrogative clauses are subject clauses in which the subordinate clause appears in the form of a question. Furthermore, they are reliant on passive forms of verbs or predicative expressions conveying a question, speech, thought, feeling or the like. Interrogative pronouns (tko, koji, koja, koje, čiji čija, čije and što), interrogative adverbs (kako, kamo, kuda, odakle, gdje and kad) or interrogative particles (li and da li) can be used to introduce relative-interrogative clauses:

Poznato je tko je opljačkao banku:
Nije rečeno čije je to dijete;

Declarative subject clauses

Declarative subject clauses are subject clauses in which the subordinate clause is introduced by passive verb forms or predicative expressions conveying opinion, speech, feeling or the like. In such clauses da and kako are often used as conjunctions:

Priča se da bi opet mogao pasti snijeg na proljeće;
Nekad se mislilo da je dobro fizički kažnjavati učenike;

b) Object clauses

Object clauses, in their role as subordinate clauses, replace the object of the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions dass, ob or by an interrogative pronoun. Object clauses are determined by the questions wen or was? (whom? or what?). If the main clause comes prior to the object clause, sentences do not begin with the correlative es but rather the correlative is always placed in mid-sentence. There are verbs that require the correlative es to be in the middle of the sentence as shown in these examples: es ablehnen, es ansehen, es betrachten, es aufgeben, es aufnehmen, es empfinden als, es (nicht) ertragen, es halten für, es lieben/mögen/hassen/ (adverb+) finden, es nennen (cf. Svoboda 2013: 91). If the object clause precedes that main clause, the correlate es is omitted.

In cases where the subject of the dass-sentence and the subject of the main clause are identical, it is possible to replace the dass-sentence with an infinitive clause. If the subject of the subordinate clause and the main clause is the correlative es, it is also possible to replace the dass-sentence by an infinitive clause. Generally speaking, infinitive clauses are “more elegant” than dass-sentences from a semantic perspective. (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 671)
Ich weiß nicht, ob ich das wirklich kann.
Meine Professorin erwartet, dass ich die Prüfung morgen bestehe.
The mentioned definition of an object clause in the German language also applies to the Croatian language and they are
formed just the same:
Nikad nije doznala što je bilo s njim.
This sentence is composed of the following two sentences:
Nikad nije doznala to.
To je bilo s njim.
The second sentence is embedded into the first sentence replacing the object to, thus, becoming the direct object of the
sentence. When inserting the subordinate clause into the main clause, the demonstrative pronouns become relative
pronouns. The pronoun to can be replaced by the conjunctions da, gdje, kako or the particle neka:
Tek sad student shvati da bi mogao pasti ispit.
Profesor zapovijedi studentu neka mu donese knjigu iz knjižnice.
At first glance, the subject and the object clause may seem to be relatively similar as far as content is concerned. In order
to distinguish the two we ask the questions tko? (who?) or što? (what?) for subject clauses. Another indicator is: if there is
no subject in the main clause of the compound sentence, it is a subject clause. The object clause can be distinguished by
asking the question koga? (whom?) or što? (what?). Another indicator is: if there is a subject in the main clause of the
compound sentence, it is an object clause.
c) Predicative clauses (or predicatives)
In addition to subject and object clauses there is also the predicative clause in the Croatian language and the predicative
in German. These subordinate clauses in the German language complete the Kopulaverb (linking verb) which, on its own,
has little meaning. Only in connection with adjectives, nouns or subordinate clauses they form a complete sentence (cf.
Helbig/Buscha 1996: 540)
Das Schlimmste ist, dass es draußen schneit.
Das ist, was mir am meisten Angst macht.
We can review the sentence by replacing the predicative with the correlative es: Das Schlimmste ist es. Another possibility
is to ask the question: Was ist das Schlimmste? The answer would be the predicative dass es draußen schneit.
In Croatian, predicative clauses are embedded in the main clause and thereby replace the predicate:
Studij više nije što je nekad bio.
This sentence is composed of the following two sentences:
Studij više nije to.
The predicative clause results from embedding the second sentence into the first sentence by attaching it to the predicate
nije (negation of je) which occurs in both sentences.
c) Attributive clauses
Attributive clauses are, in fact, subordinate clauses mostly referring to a noun in the main clause and acting independently
of the verb valence. Attributive clauses are represented by subjunctional clauses with dass and subordinate clauses
introduced by relative pronouns der, die, das etc.:
Sie möchte unbedingt die Prüfung bestehen, die sie letztes Jahr nicht bestanden hat.
Der Wunsch, dass sie die Prüfung bestehen wird, ist wirklich immens.

Infinitive clauses may be used to replace the attributive clause only in cases when the main clause and the attributive sentence have the same subject (cf. Marčetić 2001: 148).

Sie hat keine Hoffnung, dass sie die Prüfung je besteht.

Sie hat keine Hoffnung, sie jemals zu bestehen.

In the Croatian language, the attributive clause is a subordinate clause that is embedded in the main clause instead of its attribute. As an attribute it refers to the noun or pronoun:

To neugodno iskustvo bilo je zaboravljeno izjavom koja je osvanula u novinama.

This attributive-compound clause consists of the following two sentences:

To neugodno iskustvo bilo je zaboravljeno izjavom.

Izjava je osvanula u novinama.

The attributive clause results from embedding the second sentence into the first sentence by attaching it to the noun izjavom. This occurs in both sentences and can therefore be omitted when formulating an attributive clause which describes the noun in more detail. (cf. Barić 1997: 471-472)

d) Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are sentences in which the adverbial is not represented by a word or a group of words but rather by a subordinate clause. We distinguish Adversativsätze (adversative clauses), Finalsätze (final clauses), Kausalsätze (causal clauses), Konzessivsätze (concessive clauses), Konditionalsätze (conditional clauses), Konsekutivsätze (consecutive clauses), Modalsätze (modal clauses), Lokalsätze (local clauses) and Temporalsätze (temporal clauses). (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 680)

In the Croatian language, compound sentences in which the subordinate clause refers to the main clause in the same way the adverbial refers to the predicate, pertain to adverbial clauses (cf. Silić/Pranjković 2007:334):

Čim sam prvi put pao ispit izbacili su me iz fakulteta.

This adverbial clause consists of the following two sentences:

Tada su me izbacili iz fakultete.

Prvi put sam pao ispit.

The adverbial clause results from embedding the second sentence into the first sentence where the adverbial of time tada used to be. In the Croatian language there are also different types of adverbial clauses: mjesne (locale/place), načinske (modal), usporedne (comparative), uzročne (causal), posljednične (consecutive), namjernie (final), uvjetne (conditional), dopusne (concessive), vremenske (temporal) (cf. Barić 1997:471).

Adversativsätze (adversative clauses)

In terms of adversative clauses in the German language, the action of the subordinate clause is in contrast to the action of the main clause. The adversative clause is introduced by the conjunctions: sofern, insofern, soweit, insoweit, während, wohingegen (cf. Svoboda: 110):

Während er gestern eine Prüfung schrieb, habe ich gefeiert.

Die Studierende schaffte jede Prüfung beim ersten Mal, wohingegen der Studierende immer mehrere Anläufe brauchte.

In Croatian there are compound sentences called suprotno rečenice (adversative clauses). They express a difference, separation or incompatibility of the main and subordinate clause. The conjunctions a, ali, nego, no, već are used to introduce them:
Kausalsätze (causal clauses)

According to Helbig/Buscha, the causal clause in the German language is further divided into the causal clauses of condition, concession, consequence and purpose. The causal clause gives a reason for an action in the main clause, can be determined by the question why? and is introduced with the conjuncti0ns weil, da, zumal (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 689).

Sie lernte viel, weil die Grammatik ihr schwer fiel.

Da sie viel nachzuholen hatte, kam sie im Unterricht nicht mit.

In the Croatian language, conjunctions are used in the causal clause and also yield a reason for the action in the main clause. Examples include: jer, što, kad, kada and budući da. In addition, according to style preference, other usable variations are: jerbo, pošto, gdje, zašto, bo, zato što, stoga što, zato što, zahvaljujući tomu što etc. (cf. Barić 1997:495-498):

Možda sam prošao ispit upravo zato jer sam slušao profesora na predavanjima.

Konditionalsätze (conditional clauses)

The conditional clause predicts a condition or consequence, can be determined by the question in which case? and is introduced with the conjunctions wenn, falls, im Falle, dass…, sofern, soweit as well as the facultative correlative so, dann (cf. Svoboda 2013: 108 and Marčetić 2001: 146).

Ich gehe morgen zur Sprechstunde, wenn du der Professor an der Uni ist.

Falls ich genug lerne, (so/dann) bestehe ich die Prüfung.

It is also possible to omit the conjunctions and construct a conditional clause without an introductory word:

Lerne ich genug, bestehe ich die Prüfung.

The conditional clause is termed pogodbena or uvjetna rečenica in Croatian. The following conjunctions are used to introduce the conditional clause: ako, da, kad, li, ukoliko, samo ako, samo da, samo kad. In the Croatian language three types of conditional clauses are distinguished:

- Stvarne pogodbene rečenice (reality) – the action of the main clause will only take place if the condition of the conditional clause is realized. The conjunctions used in such sentences are ako and ukoliko:

  Ako vam kopiramo materijale, morate platiti papir.

- Moguće pogodbene rečenice (possibility) – The action in the main clause will be realised if it is probable that the action in the subordinate clause also is achieved. The predicate of the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive and is always introduced with the conjunction ako:

  Ako bi išao polagati ispit, prošao bih ga.

- Nestvarne or irealne pogodbene rečenice (unreality) – If the condition was possible, the realisation of the action in the main clause would be possible also. In such sentences the subordinate clause is mainly in the present or past tense and the conjunction used is da. The kondicional I or II (Konjunktiv I or II/subjunctive I or II) is applied in the main clause.

Da postoje duhovi, ja bih ti vjerovao.

Konzessivsätze (concessive clauses)

According to Helbig/Buscha, the reasoning mentioned for the subordinate clause does not yield the expected consequences due to the law of cause and effect. The concessive clause can be determined by asking the question despite
of what? and is introduced by the conjunctions obgleich, obwohl, obschon, obzwar, wenngleicht, wenn auch, wennschon, wiewohl, ungeachtet, gleichwohl (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 691):

Obwohl er keine Ahnung hatte, ging er zur Prüfung.

In the Croatian language the concessive clause represents a type of sentence where the expected result is not achieved, regardless of whether or not it meets certain conditions. The following conjunctions and adverbs are characteristic for this type of sentence: opet, ipak, ali, ali opet, no, pa opet, pa ipak. In addition, the conjunctions iako, ako i, ako, premda, makar, makar da, ma, mada, da, i da, da i, pa da i, koliko can also be used in a concessive clause (cf. Barić 1997:511-514):

Premda se nisu previse pripremili za ispit, ipak su se odlučili otići i pogledati pitanja.

Makar se ti i ljutila, ne mogu ti dati dobru ocjenu.

**Konsekutivsätze (consecutive clauses)**

The consequence expressed in the subordinate clause results from an action in the main clause, a particular level/quality of action in the main clause, or even the non-occurrence of an expected consequence (negative consecutive clause). The consecutive clause can be determined with the question what is the consequence? and is introduced by the conjunctions so dass, als dass, dass (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 693):

Er kocht sehr gut, so dass man wirklich alles essen kann.

Er war in der vergangenen Woche bei einem Kochkurs, ohne dass er etwas dazugelernt hat. (Negative consecutive clause)

The definition of the consecutive clause in the Croatian language is identical to that in German. Conjunctions da, kako, te are used for consecutive clauses in the mentioned language (cf. Barić 1997:501-502):

Fakultet je toliko dosadan da svi redovno spavamo na predavanjima.

**Finalsätze (final clauses)**

The final clause is dependent on personal matters and expresses an intention, purpose or goal. It can be determined with the question what is the purpose? and is introduced by the conjunctions damit, dass, auf dass. Another possibility is to form it with the infinitive clause um+…+zu (cf. Svoboda 2013: 110):

Der Professor gab den Studierenden eine Hausaufgabe, damit sie zu Hause üben.

Die Studierenden nahmen die Hausaufgabe mit, um damit zu üben.

In the Croatian language, the definition of the final clause corresponds to that in German and the conjunctions da, kako, li, neka are used to introduce it. Furthermore, the adverb zato or the expression radi toga are often used to introduce the final clause. In this case, the conjunction da is placed after these two words (cf. Barić 1997: 498-499):

Student požuri radi toga da prije profesora stigne u predavaonicu.

Student potrči da stigne na bus.

**Modalsätze (modal clauses)**

In German, the modal clauses express the manner by which an action occurs in the main clause. It can be determined by asking how? Modal clauses are further divided into:

- **Instrumentalsatz (instrumental clause):** giving us information on the means being used in order to achieve a certain goal or eventual success.

- **Modalsatz des fehlenden Begleitumstands (modal clause lacking attendant circumstance):** against all expectations, the circumstance of the action in the main clause is not being realised in the subordinate clause. The conjunction used for this clause is ohne dass.

- **Vergleichssatz/Komparativsatz (comparative clause):** representing modal clauses in the proper meaning of the word, where the action in the main clause is not described by manner but by comparison. If two circumstances are compared by
establishing a parallel with one or more comparatives, we speak of a Proportionalsatz (proportional clause): Je mehr man lernt, desto besser die Note.

Conjunctions used in modal clauses are indem, ohne dass, statt das, anstatt dass. (cf. Helbig/Buscha 1996: 684).

Er bestand die Prüfung, ohne dass er gelernt hatte.

Er ging weg, ohne dass er uns etwas sagte.

Modal clauses lacking attendant circumstance can also be expressed by an infinitive clause but only if the subject in the main clause and the subordinate clause are comparable.

In the Croatian language, the definition of modal clauses is the same as in German. The conjunctions kako, kao što, kao da, koliko, što are used to introduce the modal clauses:

On je pisao kolokvij onako kako to rade svi studenti.

Pri tome nije prepisivao kako to čine svi ostali student.

The so-called correlative adverbs tako, ovako, onako also occur in modal clauses but they can be omitted as shown in the second sentence above. (cf. Barić 1997:483)

Usporedne rečenice (Vergleichssatz/comparative clause)

In the Croatian language, the comparative clause is not part of the modal clause but rather acts as an autonomous adverbial clause. The action of the main clause is compared to the action in the subordinate clause (mostly in terms of quality). There are three categories of comparative clause (cf. Silić/Pranjković 2007:340-341):

- comparison of equality (conjunctions kao što, kako, kao da):

Ove godine je vrijeme lijepo kao što je bilo i prošle godine.

- comparison of inequality (conjunctions nego što, nego, nego da):

Studenti su lošiji nego što su bili prošle godine.

- analysis of comparative clauses (conjunctions što, kako, koliko, to, tako, toliko)

Što sam više čitala, postajalo je sve jasnije.

The latter is comparable to the German Proportionalsatz (proportional clause).

Lokalsätze (local clauses)

The local clause answers the question of where the action of the main clause occurs and refers not only to place but also to direction and extended areas of action. The modal clause is not introduced with subjunctions but rather with local adverbs wo, wohin, woher:

Das Universitätsgelände beginnt, wo das Krankenhausgelände endet.

Soweit das Auge reichte, (so weit) war die Dürre fortgeschritten.

If an antecedent is present in the main clause and the subordinate clause is introduced with wo to which it refers, it is not considered a local clause but rather an attribute clause. (cf. Svoboda 2013: 104):

Das Universitätsgelände beginnt dort, wo das Krankenhausgelände endet. (Attributive clause)

The local clause in the Croatian language also expresses where an action in the main clause takes place and gives information on direction and extended areas of action. The conjunctions gdje, kamo, kud, otkuda, otkuda, odakle, dakle are used to introduce local clauses (cf. Barić et al. 1997: 480-482):

Uputila se na fakultet gdje ju je u kabinetu čekao profesor.
Živjela je u stanu odakle je imala lijep pogled na more.

**Temporalsätze (temporal clauses)**

Temporal clauses express the time at which the action in the main clause takes place. In the German language further distinctions are made between the three categories of simultaneity, anteriority and posteriority.

The most common conjunctions for temporal clauses are als and wenn. Als is used if the action in the main clause happens once in the past, while wenn is used if the action in the main clause has occurred repeatedly or happens regularly (cf. Marčetić 2001: 142):

Sie hat ihre alte Schule besucht, als sie in Berlin war.

Wenn es schneit, gehe ich immer Skifahren.

Conjunctions used in temporal clauses of simultaneity are während, indem, indes, indessen, solange, sobald, sowie, sooft, als, wie, wenn, nun, for anteriority nachdem, als, wenn, sobald, sowie, seit, seitdem and for posteriority bis, bevor, ehe, als, wenn.

The definition of temporal clauses in the Croatian language is the same as in German. Temporal clauses are also divided into the subcategories of simultaneity, anteriority and posteriority. The conjunctions kad, kada, dok, dokle, dočim, čim, jedva, tek, netom, pošto, kako, što otkada, otkako, kad god, dok god, dokle god, sve dok, samo dok, jedva što, tek što, istom što, netom što, nakon što, tek kad, poslije nego, prije nego, poslije nego što, prije nego što are used in Croatian to introduce temporal clauses (cf. Barić et al. 1997: 486-494):

Bio je zadnji ispitni rok kad je konačno uspio položiti morfologiju.

Čim bude imao diplomu, dobit će posao u struci.

**IV. Conclusion**

According to the above mentioned classifications, we can already see that the division of simple and compound sentences, subject and object clauses, predicative clauses (predicatives), attributive clauses and adverbial clauses is nearly the same in both the German and Croatian language. Furthermore, the subdivision of adverbial clauses into adversative clauses, causal clauses, concessive clauses, conditional clauses, consecutive clauses, final clauses, modal clauses, local clauses and temporal clauses is also not lacking in similarities.

Certainly slight differences do exist between the German and Croatian language as is proven in the example of subject clauses. In the German language there is one subject clause, whereas in the Croatian language the subject clause is further divided into relative subject clauses, relative-interrogative subject clauses and declarative subject clauses, as specified in the preceding paragraph. Object clauses are identical in both languages, they express the same information and are formed in a like manner. Both languages have the predicative clause, or predicative but a slight difference lies in the fact that, in German the predicative completes the linking verb while in Croatian the predicative clause replaces the verb of the sentence in the main clause.

A small difference can be noticed in the modal clause between the two languages, as there are subcategories of modal clauses in German language which do not appear in the Croatian language. In German, the modal clause is subdivided into Instrumentalsatz (instrumental clause), Modalsatz des fehlenden Begleitumstands (modal clause lacking attendant circumstance) and Vergleichssatz/Komparativsatz (comparative clause), which also includes a subcategory titled Proportionalssatz (proportional clause). Nevertheless, the Croatian language also has a comparative clause and a proportional clause which are not part of, nor are they subcategories of the modal clause but rather represent a separate type of adverbial clauses.

Local clauses and temporal clauses are used identically in both languages and even the division into simultaneity, anteriority and posteriority of temporal clauses is present in both languages.

Concerning recognition of subordinate clauses, the same questions can be asked in both languages to identify them, considering that the function of the subordinate clauses is the same. With the exception of the conjunction kako for the object clause, in most cases even the conjunctions can be transferred (or translated) in a straightforward manner. In both
languages the subject and the object clause can be introduced by interrogative pronouns, kako also being one of them. The problem arises in Croatian object clauses, e.g. Znala je, kako ću proći ovaj ispit meaning: She knew (that) I would pass this exam. In this case, the interrogative pronoun kako does not function as an interrogative pronoun but rather as a conjunction and must be translated into German as dass or into that as shown in the English sentence above. Therefore, the proper German object clause would be: Sie wusste, dass er die Prüfung bestehen wird. For the most part, Croatian GFL learners have difficulties in this area as they translate kako with the German interrogative pronoun wie. As a result, the German object clause Sie wusste, wie ich diese Prüfung bestehen wird does not express the same content, as it means She knew HOW I would pass this exam.

In conclusion it can be stated that the German and Croatian language have much in common when it comes to syntactic structure, especially regarding sentence types. In the author’s opinion it would be useful to introduce a more contrastive approach to grammar and textbooks alike in order to point out obvious similarities between the two languages. This would surely make it easier for GFL learners as they would recognize that they already possess an abundance of knowledge which can be transferred from their mother tongue to the foreign language, in this case German. Particularly, with regards to the types of sentences presented in this paper, it is easy to apply the structures from the mother tongue to the foreign language except in the case of object clauses, as mentioned in the paragraph above. Still, the questions asked to determine sentence type and conjunctions to be used with every respective type of sentence are indistinguishable. Thus, pointing out the similarities in this particular case would be advantageous as it can prove confusing when solely being exposed to the grammar structures of the foreign language without linking it to that which one already knows. This is especially the case in terms of the background of terminology for respective grammar structures of the foreign language seeing as though it is already poses a difficulty to learn.

As mentioned in the introduction, most GFL lessons/grammar books/textbooks constantly refer to the differences between the German and the Croatian languages which, of course, is justified as the difficulties are important and surely aid in preventing mistakes. Yet, it would seem just as important to mention as many similarities as possible for they can be of help in terms of broadening knowledge on the basis of what learners already have acquired. Students would simply have to link or transfer the knowledge from their mother tongue to the foreign language.

Bibliography:


Edmodo as an Assessment Tool in the Foreign Language Learning Process

Flavia Kaba
Ph.D, Department of Spanish Language, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Due to the rapid developments in educational technology, today’s professors are in search of exploring innovative techniques in order to promote involvement of students in the learning process in general and in the foreign language learning process in particular. This is why today’s students are seen as digital-natives and being motivated for the learning process is very difficult if the modern technology they are familiar with is not utilized effectively in the classroom. When it comes to the assessment part of this process, the situation may become worse, as most of the students feel unwilling due to anxiety problems in general and foreign language anxiety in particular. This study presents an innovative way of assessing students’ skills that they gain during foreign language learning process introducing Edmodo, which is an educational social network that provides a secure learning platform for students and educators. This study is a descriptive one, based on the analyses, surveys, and opinions of different researchers that have implemented this platform in their teaching process. The main objective is to introduce the implementation of various assessment applications through Edmodo.

Keywords: assessment, Edmodo, Learning management system, foreign language learning process, foreign language anxiety, test anxiety

Introduction

Nowadays due to recent developments in information and communication technologies professors are trying more and more to create contemporary learning environment, modernizing current teaching techniques, materials, new methods and tools. Todays students, labelled as “digital natives” need more than what traditional classrooms can give. Motivating and engaging today’s students in the learning process is very difficult if the learning environment doesn’t “call” them.

For these reasons, technological devices have become essential and crucial for these students facilitating access to information anywhere and anytime.

In the foreign language, learning process the assessment is regarding as an essential component and many studies showed that language learners confront much more assessment activity than other subject learners. Many students have reported the existence of foreign language anxiety. It seems quite natural for them to be anxious as they are assessed almost during the whole process.

That is why a great amount of attention has been paid to foreign language anxiety and language test anxiety and have been reported by many researchers. For examples Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that the language anxiety is mostly grounded in the skills of speaking and listening. They also stated that language anxiety appears when an individual is evaluated in academic and social context. Therefore, they have identified three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

To put it in other words an individual experiencing communication apprehension finds it difficult to speak in a group or in public, or even to listen to a spoken message. The communication apprehension can also be caused by the necessity to produce language structures in a language which is not yet fully mastered. The inability to express themselves in a desired manner or to understand others can lead to frustration and can make otherwise talkative people silent in foreign language class. (Horwitz et al.1986)
Performance evaluation is an ongoing feature of most foreign language classes, so tests are a common measurement of progress (Horwitz et al.1986).

Many researchers have found that there are differences in the anxiety produced by different testing forms. One of the most anxiety provoking tests are those involving translation, while dictations and true-false forms of tests are least anxiety provoking (as cited in Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008).

The third element of anxiety that also accrues in the foreign language process is the fear of negative evaluation. According to Horwitz et. al. (1986) there is a moderate correlation between the fear of negative evaluation and language anxiety. Students are afraid of making mistakes, especially in pronunciation and oral communication, because they fear the negative evaluation from their peers or professors. If the students are anxious, they will try to avoid any form of communication, or reduce it to a minimum, in order to avoid negative evaluations.

For these reasons motivating students has become more difficult and challenging. That is why researchers and professors are constantly searching innovative techniques to promote today’s students involvement in learning activities and in particular in foreign language learning process.

For examples, Lee and Lee (2015) examine the effects of audio-visual aids on anxiety, retention in reading, comprehension test scores in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. During their study reading and listening tests, general and test anxiety, and retention were measured in English-major college students in an experimental group with audio-visual aids (n = 83) and a control group without audio-visual aids (n = 94) with similar general English proficiency. As the result lower reading test anxiety, unchanged reading comprehension scores, and better reading short-term and long-term retention after four weeks were evident in the audiovisual group relative to the control group. In addition, lower listening test anxiety, higher listening comprehension scores, and unchanged short-term and long-term retention were found in the audiovisual group relative to the control group after the intervention. They conclude that employing audio-visual aids can help students reduce reading and listening test anxiety.

Therefore, foreign language professors should know how to cope with anxiety problems inside the class especially during the testing of their students since anxiety has the potential of decreasing students' motivation, integration, and involvement in learning.

So the researchers recommend foreign language professors to create more innovative, helpful and supportive atmosphere in their class in order to decrease students’ anxiety levels and to encourage their involvement in the learning process. As it is clear from many studies conducted in different context about foreign language anxiety in general and test anxiety in particular, reducing students’ anxiety in the foreign language learning process is crucial for the success.

This study, suggests an alternative way of evaluating students' different language skills encouraging the use of modern technology with which almost all students are familiar.

This form of evaluating tool is embedded in a learning management system (LMS) called EDMODO which is a user-friendly and popular platform.

**Learning Management System**

Learning Management System (LMS) also called Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) or Course Management System (CMS) are mainly used in e-learning environment to control and arrange learning and teaching activities. They are employed by professors and students too for posting contents, sharing materials and presentations, assigning students, perform assessment, creating quizzes, conducting polls, etc.

They provide learners with both synchronous communications facilities like chat rooms, whiteboards, video conferencing and asynchronous communications like quizzes, polls, surveys, forums, etc.

Irene Govender and Desmond W.Govender in their study “An Exploratory Study: The effectiveness of a Learning Management System (LMS) in the delivery of a face-to-face programming course” stated that using an LMS to manage administrative and organizational matters and for making more course resources available is effective and useful in large
classes; the discussion forums brought the greatest satisfaction among students; the increased communication, via the forums, helped lecturers respond to problem areas quickly and to be more sensitive to student learning needs.

Dalton (2009) makes suggestions for professors of English that young people feel connected to people and the global knowledge. In contrast with the classroom setting, they may feel disconnected and isolated because it seems to them that school is irrelevant to their lives.

He addresses further these implications. Firstly, professors might try to use learning technologies in the classroom whenever they can so that they make the learning experience relating to their students. Secondly, professors might take on the role of trainer instead of engineer. Finally, they might find out which social networking site their students are using the most. So he suggests that LMS are reported to create an informal and relaxing atmosphere by making the learning process effective.

**Edmodo - the Facebook for Education**

Recently the use of Information Communication Technologie (ICT) has spread in education all over the world. Specifically, in language education, the use of computer assisted language learning (CALL) has been broadly acknowledged as a positive contribution. Many language professors adopt and use various application software into their classrooms so they can deliver effective lessons and develop language skills.

Many studies have shown that social networks sites (SNS) like Facebook and Twitter have been emphasized as sites for interactive language learning. However these sites are not education- oriented.

In contrast, Edmodo is a education-oriented SNS developed in the United States in 2008. Many studies that have focused on the use of Edmodo in the education have showed that it is a very powerful online learning tool and have named it like “Facebook for Education” (Enriquez, 2014, p.1)

Edmodo is a highly user-friendly application for educational purposes, and its access is limited to students and professors who are registered. This site is supported in various languages, so professors and the students can select a preferred language to manage their accounts.

Every professor can create a different number of courses and for every course can invite students to join it by giving them the course’s code created automatically by the platform.

Edmodo also allows to attach a variety of files types like Word doc, PPT, Excel, JPEG, MP3 etc. The users can share web sites links, embed flash objects like Google forms, YouTube videos, games, etc. Sharing different types of games (creating by other softwares) can help to learn and improve new vocabulary items and grammar rules. When the game is then uploaded students receive notifications and are required to complete it within the given amount of time.

The video sharing is also useful for the foreign language learning process and helps to train listening.

Each file is supported by useful links to assignment or note like online dictionaries, forums, etc.

This platform enables professors to create quizzes, tests, assignments, assessments, analyse the result and estimate weather the learning goals have been accomplished. The analysis allows tutors to make the appropriate changes in the learning program, types of activities, etc.

Evidently, Edmodo makes the learning environment more flexible and adaptive to students’ needs.

As a matter of fact, incorporating technology in teaching, especially these platforms like Edmodo is not a popular option in Albania, especially in our Faculty, due to several issues like lack of infrastructure or teacher’s preferences for the old fashioned way of teaching.

My study stems from the curiosity of discovering views and concerns regarding conventional teaching which consequently triggered an interest in exploring an intervention scheme for foreign language learning showing potentials aspects of implementing Edmodo and I prefer to focus shortly in two aspects that I thought are important for the foreign language learning process:

1. Using Edmodo as a channel to do assessments (supporting anxieties problems for the foreign language learners) and
2. Using Edmodo to develop language learning autonomy.

Edmodo as a channel for assessments

Many studies have showed mismatched teaching and learning styles whereby the focus of conventional teaching is to prepare students for examinations while students of digital age need different learning strategy in order to retain information longer.

In her study "Rethinking Conventional Teaching in Language Learning and Proposing Edmodo as Intervention: a Qualitative Analysis" Farha Alia Mokhtar focuses on perceptions of future teachers selecting as participants of the study pertaining to conventional teaching and potentials of implementing Edmodo to a foreign language classroom.

She explains that regarding the new ways for assessments using Edmodo the participants think that “Quizes created and shared in Edmodo make learning interactive. The professor gave us the fill-in-the-blank task and such form of assessment gives an exiting new experience while and the end of the task they'll also know about their overall performance … Quizzes added new experince to the learning curve and the “poll” feature is also noteworthy because you can get quick opinions just by voting”.

At the introduction of my study I mentioned three forms of foreign language anxiety: problem of communication apprehension that is caused when the student has difficulties to speak in a group or in public, or even to listen to a spoken message, fear of the negative evaluation and test anxiety. Implementing Edmodo in the learning process and using it as a tool for the assessment these problems are avoided. Different studies based on interviews and surveys have reported some students’ reflections according this new tool, for example “before I answer the questions professor posted on Edmodo, I read others’ replies to see how they write their responses, how they use grammar items and finally I try to apply what I’ve read in my reply. In a way, I am learning grammar and vocabularies by looking at other comments...I think the fact that everyone will be able to see my answer/response make me more cautious and give extra attention to it, for example I don’t want to commit grammar mistakes so it makes me more careful of my replies. You will want to write the best that you can because of the competitive situation. My vocabulary can also be improved as I get to read other comments and learn new words from them. I can learn from peers at the same time.”

In his article “Integrating Edmodo into Foreign Language Classes as an Assessment Tool” Emrah Ekmekçi, has reported some results from the semi-structured interview conducted by him with 62 students attending English preparatory classes in a state university in Turkey participated in various assessment activities through Edmodo during 2014-2015 academic year.

According to the question “Which assessment type would you prefer if you had a chance? Pen and paper quizzes or online quizzes?" a great number of students (n:53) reported that they would prefer online quizzes to pen and paper quizzes. Only 9 students stated that they would prefer pen and paper quizzes if they had a chance.

As a response to this question, students also stated that they feel less test anxiety in online quizzes compared with pen and paper ones. Some students’ speech are as follows:

S1: "I prefer online quizzes, because I feel more relaxed and secure during online quizzes"

S2: "Normally I get excited in all exams. However, I really feel comfortable in online quizzes"

S3: "I don't like pen and paper quizzes. I feel nervous and I forget everything, but I believe that online quizzes help me reduce my test anxiety".

---

1 School of Education and Modern Languages, College of Arts and Sciences, Universiti Utara Malaysia.
2 Rethinking Conventional Teaching in Language Learning And Proposing Edmodo As Intervention: A Qualitative Analysis by Farha Alia Mokhtar.
3 Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Department of English Language Teaching
Implementing Edmodo to develop language learning autonomy

Phil Benson at his book “Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in language learning” writes that as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes.

He also adds that when learners succeed in developing autonomy, they not only become better language learners but they also develop into more responsible and critical members of the communities in which they live. Autonomy can be broadly defined as the capacity to take control over one’s own learning; but we have to note that autonomy is not a method of learning, but an attribute of the learner’s approach to the learning process. As a teacher and researcher who has been involved with the promotion of the idea of autonomy for a number of years, he takes the position that autonomy is a legitimate and desirable goal of language education. He states that autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning. In other words, the development of autonomy implies better language learning.

On Edmodo, the students have to answer questions given by professor or they will not be given marks. In this way, students are more responsible with their own learning process.

By using Edmodo the learning process become more attractive to students because it’s student-centered while teachers only facilitate, observe and assess.

Edmodo provides a plausible solution by enhancing learners’ learning curve and offering diverse options in assigning tasks always maintaining the focus and aims of the lessons through content analysis, grammar and vocabulary improvement and the most important students’ self-efficacy.

One of the features of Edmodo, is the use of ‘backpack/library’ that allows extended storage on the site (i.e., documents, files, images and others). Besides storage, there are some other applications such as quiz, poll, assessments and quick buttons as useful in enhancing students’ learning experience. Students can find information or links and keep it in ‘backpack’ and when it is time to submit or when they are done with the assessment/task, they can put up the link or whatever they found as a reference. They can store their assignments in “backpack” as a backup file to consult them further individually.

Edmodo as an intervention has the potential to produce promising results on students’ self-efficacy.

Limitations and Relevant Issues

Edmodo has been designed for mobile devices and PCs. Its main objective is to provide remote control to the discussion section, materials, and assignments. But its effectiveness is significantly decreased if the student are unable to download this platform to their mobile device. The insufficient memory of smartphones makes impossible to download Edmodo and join learning process so the student has difficulty to pass the test successfully due to limited access of learnings materials.

Another limitation is associated with a battery charge of the device where Edmodo is downloaded. Low battery voltage may prevent a student from passing the quiz or doing the assignment on time.

Finally, the use of Edmodo requires the users to have the Internet connection, otherwise they cannot access the information, participate in the discussion. So it limits the working process, making it less convenient than face to face interaction. To ensure adequate systematic learning, the schools and universities, where Edmodo is used, are expected to provide every student and professor with the updated PCs, tablets or smartphones. Moreover, it is necessary to create the areas with uninterrupted Internet connection so to enable every student to join the educational process and the learning materials quickly. It’s very important that equality in learning, access to information, and participation in quizzes or discussions will be guaranteed.

Conclusions

It is necessary to say that LMS has recently become one of the most progressive ways for the foreign language learning process. Tools like Edmodo can be used both as a primary and as a supportive tool for professors. It enables them to share useful learning materials with the students, monitors their interest and progress in acquiring four skills which are reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Use of Edmodo increase the effectiveness of learning process.
Different studies introduce Edmodo as an alternative assessment tool to traditional pen and paper assessment techniques. Being a free of charge learning platform, Edmodo can provide all professors in general and foreign language professors in particular with various assessment facilities. Edmodo can be used as an effective assessment techniques as well as a learning platform through which professors can share course materials, notes, links and documents.

Some studies conducted with pre-services professors has suggested that Edmodo application should be carried out with international participation. So it is possible to create virtual classrooms with international participation of professors and students who are teaching and studying in the same departments and grade level in different countries, so the professors and students can see and recognised different experiences from the education system of the countries.

References

[1] A constructivist approach to teach a programming course: Students' responses to the use of a LMS by Irene Govender;


[4] Edmodo as a Motivation and Inclusion Tool in the Foreign Language Classroom by Dolores Gómez Gómez - Escuela Oficial de Idiomas de Santiago de Compostela, Santiago de Compostela (Spain);

[5] EDMODO in language teaching by Jakarta Anwar Hidayat - School of Post Graduate UHAMKA;

[6] Edmodo in Language Teaching, by Anwar Hidayat - School of Post Graduate UHAMKA, Jakarta;

[7] Edmodo: A Beneficial Digital Tool for English Language Teachers by Sree Lakshmi Ammanamanchi, Lecturer, English Language Centre, Al Musanna College of Technology;

[8] Effects of Audio-Visual Aids on Foreign Language Test Anxiety, Reading and Listening Comprehension, and Retention in EFL Learners by Shu - Ping Lee, Shin -Da – Lee, Yan – Lin – Liao, An -Chi Wang - Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Asia University, Taichung, Taiwan;

[9] Fostering Independent Learning through the Use of Edmodo and a Self-Access Learning Center, by Roxana Sandu, Hiroasaki University, Japan - The Asian Conference on Technology in the Classroom 2015;

[10] in the delivery of a face-to-face programming course, by Irene Govender - School of Information Systems & Technology, University of KwaZulu-Natal South Africa and Desmond W Govender - School of Maths, Science & Technology Ed., University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa;

[11] Integrating Edmodo into Foreign Language Classes as an Assessment Tool by Emrah Ekmekçi, Ondokuz Mayis Üniversitesi, Department of English Language Teaching;

[12] Language Anxiety – Causes and Consequences - Graduation Thesis - Student: Lana Čiček, Supervisor: Professor Jelena Mihaljević Djigunović, Ph.D. - University of Zagreb, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of English, TEFL Section;

[13] Lizzie Pinard: Reflections of an English Language Teacher - 5 ways of using Edmodo with language learners (part 1, 2);

[14] Modern Languages, College of Arts and Sciences, Universiti Utara, Malaysia;


[16] Teaching foreign language by using technology – virtual classroom EDMODO by Khatuna Kumelashvili;

Resiliency and Cooperation or Regarding Social and Collective Competencies for University Achievement. An Analysis from a Systemic Perspective

Miriam Aparicio
National University of Cuyo, PICTO Project 2016-0008. BID Loan. Argentina.

Abstract
This research is found within the framework of the issue of University Quality. It was carried out using a sample of subjects from 6 different university schools in Argentina who extended their studies (1985-2004). The objective was to determine the factors underlying this extension. The methodology used was quantitative-qualitative. The model integrates base variables, pedagogical-institutional variables, structural variables, organizational variables, and psychosocial variables. Among the latter, we focus on Cooperation – nucleus of Resilience – in relation to university success (US), taking into account that cooperation is a social/collective competence which is highly valued in the new organizational models looking toward student success (PISA, 2015; OECD 2018). The results show the impact of this factor on achievement, as well as the importance of building collective competencies.

Keywords: cooperation – resiliency – university – extending studies – social and collective competencies

1. Introduction
Abrupt changes within the context of globalization, particularly at the social and economic level, demand integrative transformations on the part of labor organizations and educational institutions. In fact, more educated and more resistant human capital is needed (not just in disciplinary terms) in order to face the growing difficulties and demands, as well as the adaptation/reconversion, that innovation requires. And this “human capital” is formed inside socializing educational institutions.

Economic changes imply an important questioning of the traditional organizational model. “Large organizations are no longer seen as ‘models of success’. They reduce permanent employees, use provisionary labor (subcontracting) and redesign their limits. They work more with the networking model than with that of the centralized organization. Their system of relations occupies considerable space. The quality and trustworthiness of interactions within the system are a source of competitiveness and wellbeing. In other words, there is a change of model within the workplace organization. The model is no longer based on a position within the company and individual performance, but rather on consistency and the integration of subsystems, on communications between services, beyond those of subcontractors (associations)” (Bernoux, 1995, p.31, cit. por Petit & Dubois, 1998, p.105).

The global model has changed: today, progress does not happen through specialized activities (Berlinger, 2017: 219-244); on the contrary, development implies rather the exchange and reformulation of specialties. There are new ways of handling human resources, ways which are more participatory and decentralized, and new ways of training based on consulting, coaching and on the transformation of cognitive, social and collective competencies which make employees too agents of change. Adaptability to and understanding of a situation occupy a central space. And this requires two new types of abilities: a) theoretical dominance of processes and b) cooperation with team members.

In this context, cooperation becomes a profound necessity (Raus, 1994) for a variety of fields: health, business, education and culture, among others.
2. General theoretical framework

2.1 General issue and related aspects: On Quality, pertinence and prioritized « skills »/competencies

Here we present the results of research at a national university in Argentina, carried out with individuals who extend their studies (1995-2004), that is to say, individuals who present “negative performance” at the institutional level, even if this extension, from a personal point of view, corresponds to “reasons” appropriate to the student’s level; reasons that could respond to a “choice” and sometimes even accompanied by satisfaction (Lévy-Garboua, 1978, theory of deferred gratification / “patterns of deferred gratification”, Aparicio, 2013 a, b). More precisely, this research is part of the general issue of organizational / institutional quality (in this particular case, of the university) where rates of extending studies are very high.

Our research contributes to an understanding of the quantitative factors and captures the qualitative « reasons » underlying the elevated rates of relative failure: only 11% of students, globally, finalize their studies; 60% drop out; and 29% « decide » to extend them1. This issue represents a material and human cost in terms of frustration. In effect, among the psychosocial responses that can be observed, we find anomie, emptiness, depression and burnout (Aparicio, 2009 e, f).

The results of previous and complementary research carried out with different university populations (Aparicio, 1995-2016) show that the characteristics of university education —reduced almost to the disciplinary level— are an underlying factor for the aforementioned statistics. In fact, the system very often neglects the formation of additional abilities necessary for both academic and workplace success: communication, coping strategies, resilience, cooperation, problem-solving skills, skills for collaborative work, and the ability to reflect on one’s own actions and practices, looking towards change and the new demands.

In other words, despite the need for interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary work (based on the “problems” that our reality presents), the educational system has continued to operate with a structure based on “rigid” courses of study and disciplines with no contact among them. Integral and transversal reforms which make way for additional abilities / competencies and ways of working currently necessary have not been achieved.

On the contrary, other countries have prioritized education and, in the short term, lead the rankings of student performance and system quality (Singapore, Japan, Hong Kong (China), Korea, Canada, Estonia, Finland,...) (OECD, 2017 a and b2; OECD, 2018; PISA, 2015).

Transformation is, therefore, possible and from our perspective implies the articulation of three levels: the educational policy level looking towards the demands of employment of the future, the institutional level and the micro-individual level.

If we focus now on the changes those countries which lead the rankings of student performance in terms of skills / competencies have made, the key centers on: a) a change in positioning of prioritized competencies (OECD, World Economic Forum, 2018; cf. especially the diagram that shows this change, and b) the prioritization of “soft competencies” (defined by the author, for at least the last 15 years, as “social and collective competencies”).

And among these competencies emerges Resilience – a central variable / dimension of this article – a variable which was recently compared by Agacisti et al. for the period 2006-2015, within the framework of PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment). The authors demonstrate that this variable is particularly associated with more positive results for

1 These percentages, practically without any changes, are still observed today.

We read: In total, 52 countries and economies participated in the 2015 assessment of collaborative problem solving.
OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. Partner countries and economies: Beijing-Shanghai-Jianguo-Guangdong (China), Brazil, Bulgaria, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cyprus*, Hong Kong (China), Lithuania, Macao (China), Malaysia**, Montenegro, Peru, the Russian Federation, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, Thailand, Tunisia, the United Arab Emirates and Uruguay.
disadvantaged student groups, through a more positive work environment in the classroom\(^1\), an environment where there is motivation, flexibility and interest (micro level), but also support, advice, guidance and limits set by teachers and the institution itself (meso level).

International results, in line with our research, invite us to: a) establish the importance of this ability, Resilience, and other related competencies in our system, and b) make a real transfer by taking advantage of programs recently implemented by the Science, Technology and Innovation system (STAN, High-Tech Transfer Services, 2017).

2.2 Specific theoretical framework regarding central notions: Resilience, Cooperation / Collaboration

The notion of Cooperation encompasses a very broad semantic field: collaboration, aid, participation, contribution, association and competence. In fact, it is considered a collective competency that prioritizes the relationship level\(^2\). In addition, it is related to other concepts currently being highlighted in the literature, such as Resilience.

Resilience develops social connections, relationship abilities which will be very useful in the academic world, in the workplace and for life itself. It can be defined as an individual’s capacity to react to and to overcome adversity. Agaisti, 2018 defines resilience as “… an individual’s ability to prosper despite adverse circumstances” (tn). We read in Koninckx, 2011\(^3\) that “B. Cyrulkik defines resilience as the ability to be successful in life and to develop acceptably despite stress or adversity that normally implies serious negative consequences.” Later, a combined definition will be adopted (Vanistaendel, Lecomte, among others): “Resilience is a person’s or group’s ability to project into the future despite destabilizing events, difficult life conditions or severe trauma, as it moves from the isolated individual to the concept of group and community, highlighting the importance of an individual’s interaction with his environment” (t.n). This competency implies a set of qualities that favor a process of successful adaptation and transformation despite risks, the fear of a loss of power and resistance to change. All of these components are important as they relate to success and failure, as they play a fundamental role in cooperation.


Nevertheless, in terms of resilience, it is important to note that the ability to handle new demands, pressures, negotiations, and reformulations of identity is, in the first place, a set of social and intrapsychic processes. It involves the changing of past representations,

\(^1\) This article defines academic resilience as “…the ability of 15 year-old students from disadvantaged sectors to perform at a certain level on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) exams in reading and math, which will prepare them for most all learning opportunities presented to them throughout their lives and which will allow them to play an active role in their communities. Using the most recent PISA data, this document explores the changes in the number of resilient students over time (2006-2015); highlights the importance of school environments and their resources for mitigating the risk of negative performance for disadvantaged students; and identifies the academic factors associated with the probability of academic resilience for socioeconomically disadvantaged students. The analyses reveal that various countries have been able to increase their number of resilient students over time, which reflects improvements in average student performance or a weakening relationship between socioeconomic levels and performance. For the majority of educational systems examined, the probability for academic resilience for disadvantaged students is less in schools where students report a negative classroom climate. The document concludes by exploring the policies and practices of schools for which students report a positive classroom climate. (t.n.)

\(^2\) During the last century, emphasis was placed particularly on the socio-cognitive aspects more than on strictly relational aspects. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, 1986) define coping strategies as the cognitive and behavioral efforts made by individuals when confronted with situations that are considered emotionally demanding. They can be divided into two groups: strategies centered on problem solving and strategies centered on emotion. Here, individuals must control their emotions in order to reduce anguish (Lazarus, 1994, 2003; Later, Elder and Parker (1990, 1994) speak of Confrontation oriented towards avoidance. Currently, though these factors continue to be very important, in our opinion attention should be focused on the relational aspects within the framework of global social crisis (violence, xenophobia, discrimination, etc.).

\(^3\) “B. Cyrulkik defines resilience as ‘the ability to succeed, to live and to develop in an acceptable manner in spite of stress or adversity that normally has a serious risk for negative outcome.’ Subsequently, a transversal definition will be adopted (Vanistaendel, Lecomte, among others): ‘Resilience is the ability of a person or a group to project into the future despite destabilizing events, tough life conditions, and sometimes severe trauma. This is the definition that we will use as a reference, because it moves from the isolated individual to the notion of group and community. The importance of the individual’s interactions with the surrounding environment are thereby highlighted’.”
the retrospective and conscious learning of new models of action and the construction of collective competencies. In addition, as an ability, resilience does not only concern individuals, but also groups (families, communities, businesses or others)\(^1\). It leads them to be more flexible in order to be successful in the face of adverse circumstances, thanks to daily practices that promote conscious problem-solving and adaptation to change through the support and reflection developed in one’s own action (Hemández, 1998; Puerta de Klinkert, 2002, Koninckx, 2009, 2011; Vanistendael & Lecomte, 2000; François, 2000; Bernaud & Lemoine; Shön, 1983, 1992; Argiys, 1982; Argiys & Shön, 1982. Dans Aparicio 2007 a and b with an in-depth revision of these competencies)\(^2\).

In terms of Cooperation / Collaboration, just as with resilience, it is necessary to highlight that these are personal and organizational constructions or co-constructions (Aparicio 2007 a and b). They are systemic in and of themselves.

Before diving into the methodology, we should make some comments regarding the terms Cooperation/Collaboration and Collaborative Work, this last term now being the most used in academic circles, taking into account that this research has been carried out with university students.

In fact, authors such as Maria Angeles Andreu-Andrés (2016), using the experimental model, have demonstrated that there is no difference between the cooperative and collaborative strategy. We read: « The hypothesis that the same educational objective, stated as cooperative or collaborative learning in university teaching settings, does not affect students’ perceptions of the learning model guides this study. We analyze the reflections of two student engineering groups that shared the same educational goals implemented through two different methodological active learning strategies: Simulation as a cooperative learning strategy and Problem-based Learning as a collaborative learning strategy. The participants in each group (eighty-five and sixty-five, respectively), as well as the use of the two active learning strategies, either collaborative or cooperative, showed no differences in the results from a qualitative perspective”

Other authors, on the contrary, highlight some subtle differences, and even identify phases of progress in which collaboration would occur previous to cooperation.

To cooperate means to work with another individual so as to make him or her more capable of doing something (typically providing information or resources that they would otherwise be unable to access).

To collaborate means to truly work together with another individual (from the Latin laborare: to work) to achieve something.

On this page\(^3\), we detail the differences between the two, though this goes beyond the objectives of this article.

We read: “Collaboration and cooperation are words in the English language that have very similar meanings. In fact, there are many learners of English who mistakenly use these words interchangeably as if they were synonyms. Despite overlapping, there are certain subtle differences between the two words that will be highlighted in this article.

**What is Collaboration?** Collaboration is working together to solve a problem or to achieve a goal. Collaboration takes place between individuals, organizations, and even governments to tackle shared goals and objectives. Sharing of knowledge, expertise, and manual labor may be required in any collaborative venture or endeavor. If a team of scientists is working on a project such as the one that took place at CERN to understand how our universe came into being, we term it a collaborative endeavor. When two countries decide to partner to achieve a shared goal such as fighting terrorism, it is indeed collaboration (…).

**What is Cooperation?** Cooperation is a word that refers to a process of working in unison to achieve an objective, rather than to work independently to compete with each other. We all know about cooperatives where people pool resources together to have a working system. At the social level, a family is the smallest yet most powerful example of cooperation (…). Without cooperation, it is hard to imagine the world surviving, as nations today are dependent upon each other for

---

\(^1\) This applies in many disciplines: physics, metallurgy, computer science, ecology, finance, psychology, etc. “In psychology, resilience is the ability to live, to grow, and to overcome the traumatic shocks of adversity” (cf. Koninckx, op cit.).

\(^2\) In order to formulate the theoretical framework for this subproject, it was necessary to review the theory established to date on the topic. Presenting the contributions of each author goes beyond the scope of this article (cf. Aparicio, 2007b).

most of their resources. We see how countries of the world cooperate with each other whenever there is an epidemic or endemic, or when a calamity or natural disaster strike.

What is the difference between Collaboration and Cooperation? Collaboration is similar to cooperation but takes it to a higher level with the active participation of all members in collaboration; b) When different people or organizations come together to achieve a certain objective, they adopt a shared strategy, shelving their individual approaches. This is what is involved in collaboration. On the other hand, the pooling together of resources and doing one’s bit for a shared cause is what characterizes cooperation, c) Cooperation is opposite to standing alone or competing, but collaboration is active participation in a shared endeavor. There is a more formal approach in collaboration than in cooperation”.

Globally, the first implies working closely with another, with partners, with the very active participation of both parts. PISA and other programs currently emphasize the importance of collaborative research and of collaborative work and present the question of whether or not schools are prepared for such collaboration. (OECD (2017 b), "Collaborative schools, collaborative students", in PISA 2015 Results (Volume V): Collaborative Problem Solving, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264285521-12-en.

We read “This chapter – Collaborative schools, collaborative students – examines the impact of positive relationships among and between students, teachers, principals, parents and the wider community on students’ proficiency in collaborative problem-solving and attitudes towards collaboration. It tries to answer the question: if all school stakeholders get along well and work together to achieve common goals, does that help students develop their own collaborative problem-solving skills?”

In fact, in 2015, for the first time since the program went into effect, researchers set out to learn about students’ abilities to collaborate to solve problems, beyond their individual abilities, internationally (Mo, 2018). This aspect was included due to the fact that it is considered central to the improved development of individual and group potential and to greater development of institutional quality.

“The ability to solve unfamiliar problems individually is certainly essential, but in today’s ever more connected world, we are frequently called upon to collaborate to reach our objectives, both in our professional and personal lives. Working as part of a team has numerous advantages: it allows one access to an array of different points of view and experiences; synergies between groups members are created; and finally, it is possible to divide work or distribute tasks according to each member’s strengths. However, collaboration can also present many difficulties. If the division of labor is not effective, two group members could find themselves doing the same task. Interpersonal tension and bad communication inside the group could also impede its potential. They are not innate; however with time and practice, collaborative competencies can be developed. It is for this reason, therefore, that PISA 2015 decided to expand its research beyond individual problem-solving to measure, for the first time in an international assessment, students’ ability to collaborate in problem-solving” (t.n.).

---

1 We read in French: “La capacité à résoudre individuellement des problèmes non familiers est certes essentielle, mais dans notre monde de plus en plus interconnecté, nous sommes souvent amenés à collaborer pour atteindre nos objectifs, tant dans notre vie professionnelle que privée. Le travail en équipe présente de nombreux avantages : il permet de disposer de tout un éventail de points de vue et d’expériences ; des synergies peuvent se créer entre les membres du groupe ; et enfin, il est possible de procéder à une division du travail et à une répartition des tâches en fonction des points forts de chacun. La collaboration peut toutefois aussi exposer son lot de difficultés. Si la répartition des tâches n’est pas efficace, deux membres du groupe peuvent se retrouver à effectuer le même travail. Des tensions interpersonnelles et une mauvaise communication au sein du groupe peuvent également l’empêcher d’exploiter pleinement son potentiel. Si elles ne sont peut-être pas innées chez tous, les compétences de collaboration peuvent néanmoins se développer avec le temps et la pratique. C’est pourquoi l’enquête PISA 2015 a décidé d’étendre son investigation au-delà de la résolution individuelle de problèmes et de mesurer – pour la toute première fois dans une évaluation internationale – la capacité des élèves à collaborer pour la résolution de problème ». The Ministry of Education Report can also be consulted, Steve May (November, 2017), related to the results of the PISA 2015: Collaborative Problem-Solving, which included an assessment of their collaborative problem-solving abilities and attitudes towards cooperation. We read: “Collaborative problem-solving is the way in which an individual works with others to solve a problem, by establishing and maintaining a shared understanding of group organization.” This report summarizes the results for New Zealand.


127
Having made these clarifications (which are further developed in an article currently in press), we must highlight the fact that collaboration supposes a previous attitude, a willingness to work within this line of action. One is not born with this willingness; it is formed and consolidated through instances of socialization.

And this attitude underlies collaborative work.

Cooperation and collaboration, in contexts of pleasant relationships, help to reinforce connections/bonds, generating support. Along with this, they consolidate resilience or the ability to cope with unexpected situations, increasing levels of adaptability and lowering levels of stress.1

In another study (Aparicio et al, 2010 a), we worked with N=100 public employees (42 men and 58 women); in different work environments (public and temporary jobs); and with different hierarchies (intermediate bosses and employees), in the government of Mendoza, Argentina. The average age was 43 and average seniority was 16 years. As regards their level of education, 71% had reached the Higher Education level (completed or not) and the remaining 29% had reached lower levels. We used three tests: the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) and BM (Pines & Aronson, 1988), both to measure burnout; and we also applied the Coping Strategies Questionnaire to measure coping (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1996). A qualitative instance complemented the obtained results, which suggested possible “reasons” for burnout.

The techniques used were lexicometric analysis and hierarchical evocation: additionally, in-depth interviews were carried out with individuals and key respondents, which helped thoroughly, analyze aspects such as expectations, goals, levels of satisfaction within the world of work, and relationships with peers and superiors, among other aspects. Results showed that State University employees, having had more education in the area of coping mechanisms, were better able to adapt to change and had lower levels of burnout. (cf. Aparicio, 2015 a and b, vol. 2).

2.3 Specific theoretical-methodological framework of the research

Taking into account the interaction between individuals and organizations, which is the base of resilience, cooperation and collaboration, we adopted a strategy of macro-micro-meso-macro analysis for our research based on a systemic sui generis approach: subject and structure in sustained interaction (Aparicio 1978-2014, in particular 2005, 2007 a and b, 2009 a and b, 2011 c, d and e, 2012, 2013 c, 2014, Aparicio & Cros, 2015 c, Silva & Aparicio, 2015 a, b – the author’s theory titled “The three dimensional spiral of sense” or “Theory of three interactive levels”, 2015, a and b, published in English2.

According to this strategy, the individual exists within a context which imposes structural restrictions but is not determinant (Boudon, 1973). This is a context with both conflicts and opportunities for academic and professional development, one which can both favor or diminish the possibility of overcoming socio-professional obstacles and seeing life projects played out in terms of personal/professional achievement.

It is within this ecosystem and from a dynamic perspective, full of “goings and comings” that education / training seems to be key for sustainable human and social development.

How can education help us to overcome sociocultural and economic obstacles? Precisely through training in / consolidation of new abilities that allow us to “learn to learn” under the new learning paradigm (Shön, 1992): today “to know” is valued, yet what is one “capable of doing with that knowledge”, just as “knowing how to behave” and “knowing how to live together”. Countries which lead the rankings demonstrate that here is where we find a key aspect of achievement.

Objectives:
Quantitative approximation

---

1 It is also important to note that a previous comparative study carried out by Aparicio found interesting results. In this study, the author compared stress levels, burnout and coping mechanisms of secondary level educators (currently those most pressured by their context, with clear salary problems and general non-conformism/unrest because of daily environmental conditions) and Argentine university level educators (who are less pressured and have greater opportunities for professionalization). The findings show that burnout decreases notably when individuals are able to cope with adversity and have developed coping mechanisms; in this study, these correspond to the university educators (Aparicio et al, 2010 b).

2 This approach was presented in 2005/2009 (theory of the “dialogue between man / world”); it was later called the theory of “complexity in action”, taking into account the interrelationship between society, personality and culture which is at the heart of socialization (Aparicio, 2012).
To understand which factors, among those most mentioned in the international literature, have a significant impact on student success, helping to prevent the extension of studies (base, structural, pedagogical-institutional, organizational and psychosocial factors, including resilience) (theoretical plan).

To understand which sociocultural, psychosocial and organizational aspects are most frequently related to the performance of individuals who extend their studies, in order to recognize at risk populations and provide those responsible with the tools necessary to implement preventative measures. This applies not only to programs of study or evaluation systems, but also in particular to the adoption of new strategies which would encourage reflection on practice and which would lead to the construction / consolidation of collective and social competencies at the base of the learning system (transfer / intervention plan).

Qualitative approximation

- To understand the “reasons” that are at the root of this phenomenon of extension, a phenomenon which has become common at Argentine universities and around the world, and particularly to understand the role that cooperation and social and collective competencies play in effective learning (theoretical plan).

- To understand the role that education in collective competencies plays in the words of failure expressed by the actors themselves: the students.

General hypotheses:

- At the quantitative level: a) Psychosocial factors – including the ability to recover when faced with adversity, which is favored by both the cultural context and by socialization (family, classmates, the educational institution), as well as by educational organizations – once they are internalized, will generate profiles more inclined towards professional success. b) There exist spaces which are better at educating in collective competencies (here, specific study programs, university schools). In fact, Resilience and related sub factors are not innate: it is institutions / organizations which are responsible for forming and consolidating these (Aparicio, 2007 a and b; Petit & Dubois, op. cit.).

- Qualitatively: among the dimensions that have an impact on failure, social and collective competencies are fundamental.

- Applied level: early tracking and the formation of education / prevention programs for the construction of new collective competencies would greatly impact both individual achievement and institutional quality.

Specific hypothesis:

- Using this investigation’s approach, high levels of resilience (RESIL) – including cooperation, collaboration and related abilities – have a positive influence on academic success (RU).

3. Methodology: quantitative and qualitative. Here we focus particularly on the qualitative results.

3.1. The Sample: was made up of 229 individuals from six schools at the National University of Cuyo in Mendoza, Argentina (1985-2004) who were interviewed at home. These are individuals who have been registered at the University since 1985 and reregistered for the 2004 school year but who are absent to classes, considered “ghost” students. They are enrolled in programs at six schools: Philosophy and Letters (Education Science), Economy (Accounting, Management), Political and Social Science (Social Communication), Law, Medicine and Engineering (Civil, Industrial and Oil). From a total of 1880 individuals identified in the files, the real number of individuals interviewed (those whom we could locate) was N = 229.

3.2. Techniques

Quantitative level:

We used a semi-structured survey with open-ended questions which allowed actors to speak freely, interviews and tests specifically designed to measure variables of the study extension model (generally cited above), including psychosocial variables related to
academic success (United Kingdom): strategies to “cope” with difficulties (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1996); attributional styles (Seligman, 1991); motivational factors (Montero & Alonso Tapia, 1992); and resilience (Henderson & Milstein, 2003).1

Let us now observe resilience, a factor which incorporates cooperation as a sub-factor.

The Henderson and Milstein Questionnaire consist of three scales: Student (RESIALUM), Personnel—Administration and Teaching—(RESIPERS), and Institutional (RESIFACU)—and six subscales which can be grouped into two sub dimensions. They are:

I. Mitigating risk: 1. Enrich social bonds; 2. Establish limits (Develop and implement coherent academic policies and procedures, articulate behavior expectations, express rules clearly in writing); 3. Teach life skills (cooperation, conflict resolution, communication, involvement, commitment, problem-solving, decision-making, and stress management, among others).

II. Developing resilience: 1. Give affection and support, this is a crucial element; 2. Establish and transmit high and “realistic” expectations, hoping for the best (avoiding the use of labels and the notion of a glass ceiling on development); 3. Provide opportunities for meaningful participation (putting students and institutional leaders in charge of problem-solving, decision-making and goal-setting).

As is easy to observe, strong bonds, cooperation and rewarding relationships occupy a central place here as a sub factor.

We have interpreted the variable academic success (VD) in both a broad and strict sense of the term. Here we only present an outline of the variables considered:

- Performance in the broad sense of the term includes the following categories: a) Success: finalizing the program of study (graduation), b) Delay: finalizing the program of study over a period of time longer than officially expected (late graduates), c) Failure: dropping some courses.

- The stricto sensu result was measured using the following data provided by the Statistics Department of the UNCuuyo: a) Years registered in a program of study (2005 cohort), b) Program length according to each student’s study plan (ANPLAN), c) Unsuccessful courses (MATPLAN-PASS), d) corresponding to the program of study and study plan to which the student belongs (MATPLAN), e) Number of failures (APLAZOS) and f) Successful courses (MATREUS).

Finally, all of the information gathered (both qualitatively and quantitatively) was triangulated. This is a significant contribution as the tools which have existed up until now generally only capture the phenomenon unilaterally, focusing on only one factor (resilience, coping, etc.) measured quantitatively.

Qualitative level:
We use the metric analysis of maintenance and lexis, which takes into account the frequency with which actors use words related to the published nodes. This analysis includes the elaboration of categories and subcategories that express actors’ representations of problematic aspects that they consider central or peripheral regarding obstacles that they have encountered to progress and finally obtain their degree.

4. Results

4.1. Quantitative: These show the role that resilience plays in achievement / extending studies.

We must remember that the factor Resilience was measured using three scales: Student (RESIALUM), Personnel (RESIPERS) and Institutional (RESIFACU). For each of these three scales –Student, Personnel and Institutional- the average was concentrated in Category 3, which indicates that Resilience training is “in its beginnings”.

1 Il faut noter que ces aspects ont été soulignés comme des facteurs centraux pour les pays ou les étudiants ont les rendements les plus hauts (PISA, 2015). Le détail est abordé dans un autre article, ou émerge, aussi, comme facteur important « l’auto-efficacité », de Bandura (1977 ; OECD, cit.). Dans ce questionnaire le regard « réaliste » sur soi-même est sur l’item 2 (sous presse). Il convient de se rappeler que “Les tests PISA sont appliqués tous les trois ans. Ils examinent la performance des élèves de 15 ans dans des domaines thématiques clés et étudient également un large éventail de résultats éducatifs, parmi lesquels: la motivation des élèves à apprendre, la conception qu’ils ont d’eux-mêmes et leurs stratégies d’apprentissage” (L.n.).

http://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisaespaol.htm/consulte 2 mai 2018
This means that, in general terms, at all of the University’s schools, the assessment of the institutions being capable of Resilience training for students, personnel and the institution is rather low. In addition, each institution has its own profile (identity), some seem to generate resilience in students, personnel and/or the institution itself, promoting cooperation and interaction among the system’s diverse actors\(^1\) (Aparicio, 2009\(^a\), f; 2013 a, b, 2016).

In other words, there do exist both spaces that generate resilience and cooperation, and institutional cultures (schools / sectors in our study) that promote its emergence: a) the creation of informal social networks that guarantee unconditional acceptance (Petit & Dubois, 1998); b) the development of the ability to build strong, respectful and rewarding relationships to consciously comply with standards and limits; c) the ability to learn to learn, to solve problems through reflection on practices and subsequent step by step analysis, which leads to the construction of relationship abilities through the exchanging of past representations for new ones that refer to new, more effective models of action for individuals and for the organization.

Finally, it is important to note that among the factors observed in our model (base variables, pedagogical-institutional variables, structural variables, sociocultural variables and organizational variables), the psychosocial and organizational dimensions have been shown to have the greatest impact on academic success (lower rates of extending studies).

### 4.2. Qualitative:

At the qualitative level, we have already highlighted the techniques utilized: interviews, lexical-metric analysis and open-ended questions (introduced as part of the semi-structured survey which allowed actors to express their opinions and present their representations freely).

Using the responses given, we constructed nodes, categories and subcategories.

For the nodes, actors manifested aspects which, from their point of view, interfered notably with their possibility for progress. The expressions used are far from those which the media focuses on daily (economic factors, poverty, linguistic codes, …)

On the contrary, they highlighted communication problems with professors and administrative personnel more than with their classmates, lack of collaboration, absence of a sense of cooperation, teacher-student interactions, indifference, problems to listen, lack of strong bonds and support from the institution through formal or extracurricular strategies (Aparicio, 2015 d), weak group integration, fear of failure, lack of solidarity and tolerance, low levels of collaboration on daily tasks, little teamwork, rigidity, and the prioritization of disciplinary aspects, among others (François, 2000, Aparicio, 2009 a and b).

Our results bring to the forefront one specific situation: according to the actors, despite today’s valuation of cognitive and social / collective abilities (study and work plans), these dimensions have not come to occupy a central place, in spite of failure and unemployment followed by a lack of training and certification.

The implementation of programs that emphasize these aspects is critical. In this way, it would be possible to achieve better results in terms of efficiency and greater satisfaction. The institution, on the other hand, in the cited interplay of individual and meso context, would obtain benefits in terms of efficiency and quality (Aparicio, 2005, 2011 a and b).

Finally, we must remember that each institution has a unique profile and identity in terms of collective /social abilities, strengths and gaps which could guide decision-makers to implement programs which prioritize reflection (Aparicio, 2009 a, b, 2 volumes, Silva & Aparicio, 2015).

### 5. Discussion:

These results represent a significant contribution in this context: they demonstrate the need to develop sources of resilience, strong social bonds and cooperation within academic and extra-academic institutions; abilities that will positively impact the development of individuals and organizations and the articulation between training systems and productive systems (Aparicio, 2005, 2007a, 2007b, 2011a and b, 2015 a, b).

---

\(^1\) We are unable to explain the typical profile of each School. To analyze the quantitative weight of each factor included in the research, see Aparicio, 2007a, volume 1.
The influence that the context has is clear, especially in the qualitative analysis. Individual and context in constant interaction, which can either enrich or weaken both the individual and the context. Developing the capacity to promote cooperation, even in the face of contextual limits and resistance to change, is therefore a challenge for institutions.

6. Conclusion

An understanding of the influence of certain factors / dimensions in light of theories on success could encourage the consolidation of some non-disciplinary abilities, often neglected in our system, and the transformation of best practices.

In fact, it seems important to base the educational / academic system’s “integrative” reforms on the results of this research, founded on empirical referents, going beyond the still existent divorce of policy and technical aspects, of theory and practice.

It is also important to recover relevance / pertinence as a criterion for quality of educational institutions: in fact, we must pay attention to workplace requirements in terms of competencies (not only disciplinary but also interdisciplinary). Institutions should prepare their students for the future workplace and for the future of work, work which requires conversion, taking into account the impact of robotization, artificial intelligence, information technologies and other new technologies.

The socio-economic and political scene is complex in this context of globalization. Changes create uncertainty and in order to cope with difficulties we must develop social, collective and disciplinary competencies for the continuous renovation of action models. But we should also consolidate resilience at both the individual and group level in order to promote adaptation to change and flexibility; to promote cooperation. “Collaborative work” is becoming more and more necessary in all areas (PISA, 2015, World Forum). The results, which reveal the importance of these abilities/competencies, are a challenge for educational institutions (of all levels) and for labor organizations.

References


[58] OECD. PISA. http://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisanespaol.htm/consultado 2 mai 2018


Organizational Design of Big Data and Analytics Teams

Lennart Hammerström
University of Kaposvár, Hungary

Abstract

Although many would argue that the most important factor for the success of a big data project is the process of analyzing the data, it is more important to staff, structure and organize the participants involved to ensure an efficient collaboration within the team and an effective use of the tools, the relevant applications and a customized flow of information. A main challenge of big data projects originates from the amount of people involved and that need to collaborate, the need for a higher and specific education, the defined approach to solve the analytical problem that is undefined in many cases, the data-set itself (structured or unstructured) and the required hard- and software (such as analysis-software or self-learning algorithms). Today there is neither an organizational framework nor overarching guidelines for the creation of a high-performance analytics team and its organizational integration available. This paper builds upon (a) the organizational design of a team for a big data project, (b) the relevant roles and competencies (such as programming or communication skills) of the members of the team and (c) the form in which they are connected and managed.

Keywords: Big Data and Analytics • Organizational Design • Roles and Competencies • Incorporation of teams

Introduction

Big data and analytics is not a vision, an idea or a concept only for very specific fields of application any more. It is driven within almost all industries and there are many success stories told within a wide range of different industries.

The possibilities to analyze big data are enhancing and what is possible today could hardly be imagined a decade ago. Also the toolset has developed dramatically (e. g. deep learning and neuronal networks). It provides new approaches to the researcher and enables the applicant to search through more and more data and to find patterns with automatisms.

In many cases the organization for big data projects focus on the application of tools and software, a powerful hardware to crunch the vast amount of data and sophisticated algorithms, applicable by specialists only.

But even more important, due to the complexity and the variableness of big data projects, is it to find the right setup of roles and competencies in the earliest project phase. It is also necessary to take social skills such as the ability to communicate and to share information into consideration.

For most of the technical problems coming along with analytics applications can be purchased; expertise, processing power and data storage can be hired or leased at external companies. But big data projects require often a higher education and a further training on specific fields of applications.

The organization design of the team and its integration into the companies’ processes is often disregarded. Working out the organization design does not only have to take into consideration the companies structure but also the requirement of different roles and the internal and external collaboration.

Setting up a big data analytics team in the traditional way (e.g. within an own department with clear boundaries) is leading to accurate results but it limits the operating distance of the team and produces segregated applications. The team will not be interconnected exceeding for example a business unit or a certain type of departments (such as Research and Development).
To attain the goal of each big data project (or to exceed its expectations) the applications need to be connected and embedded into an overall digital manufacturing strategy; a flow of information and a common understanding of the problems has to be achieved and comprehensive expectations of the “success” of the projects has to be obtained.

This paper builds upon

The organizational design of a team for a big data project

The relevant roles and competencies (such as programming or communication skills) of the members of the team and

The form in which they are connected and managed.

Some further comments on big data and analytics are reasonable to capture the relevance of the organizational design for such type of projects.

Applying big data and analytics

There is no rigorous definition for Big Data. Dijcks states that it refers to three different types (Dijcks, 2013):

Traditional enterprise data

Machine- or sensor generated data and

Social data

Chen (Chen et al 2012) defines big data in the volume of data, starting at terabyte or petabyte, sometimes even at exabyte (Chen et al 2012). Only some years ago data-sets with some hundreds of thousand observations were considered to be ‘big’, today this is an averages sample size (Reimer et al. 2014) (Kübler et al. 2017).

Besides the volume (tera- or petabyte) there is velocity (the data-flow is too fast for analysis), variety (the range of data types) and variability (the data is unpredictable or erratic) of the data. The data derives from different sources, such as the environment.

![figure 1 - multiple sources of data](image-url)

With the turn of the millennium the volume of data started skyrocketing, the available technology back then was not able to analyze the amount of data; up to the point that IT faced a data scalability crisis (Dijcks 2013). Due to further development of the relevant technologies and following Moore’s law, the management and the analysis of this tremendous amount of data became possible.
Currently most of the publics’ attention is drawn to the influence of social data (e.g. the data scandal that shocked Facebook, triggered by Cambridge Analytica) and its impact on the market (Facebook shares fell 5% within the scandal, worth $80b (Monica, 2018).

The huge positive impact of the analysis of big data is often not that present in media and therefore unknown to the public. Internet giants like Google (e.g. Google Bigtable; designed to scale petabytes of data or Google Dremel; designed to run instant queries on multiple petabytes of data in seconds) (Scott, 2014) or Facebook (e.g. viability to predict highly sensitive personal attributes by analyzing a user’s account and likes) (Monnappa, 2017) developed outstanding solutions to handle big data.

There is also a negative side of big data and analytics, for example the tendency to always ask for more data – just because we can (Håkonsson et al. 2016). This can slow down decision processes because more and more data are requested and can lead to the attitude to let the machine find and make management decisions. This side of the analysis of big data-sets is left unattended in this article.

For companies such as Google, Facebook and others, the collection of data has become an end in itself rather than a way of achieving other ancillary business goals (Nunan and Domenico, 2015).

This is a strong indicator that the way businesses compete, collaborate, and operate is changing. The competition is accelerating and encompasses the next-generation competition (Teece, et al. 2017); and big data is part of the driver for this acceleration.

Facebook is the social website with the largest number of users [more than 2 billion users per month in 2017 (YouTube: 1.5b, WhatsApp: 1.2b, WeChat: 889m) (Constine, 2017)]. In 2014 Facebook stored a volume of 300PB and had a daily incoming rate of 600TB (Vagata and Wilfong, 2014). This data is used to explore connections and relations between users (and even none-users that don’t even have a Facebook profile), their needs and expectations and their behavior to improve for example the response-ratio for advertisement. To analyze a data-set with exabytes is exceptional and challenging, but it is possible (Chen et al. 2012).

Today Big Data and Analytics solutions can be applied to almost any industry. The high-impact areas of today are the e-commerce and the market intelligence, but also within the health industry and security and safety the capabilities of the analyses have been proven.

The data itself is not generating value, if not purchased as data to a third party. But with the application of analytical methodologies a value can be created. Big Data and Analytics can provide insights into hidden patterns and relations, help to come to the right conclusions and to improve the decision process.

The analysis itself is a conjunction of different methodologies and requires a different compound of methods, experts and applicants. The applied methods have to fit to the problem that shall be solved; otherwise the result is questionable. There are different methods available; such as logistic regression, decision trees, artificial neural networks, discriminant analysis, random forest and others (see the supplement). The use of one of these techniques requires expertise and experience to interpret the results in the right way and to come to the right conclusions.

The amount of data that is handled in manufacturing analytics projects is less than in social data analytics but reaches also giga- or terabytes of data for a single analysis.

Manufacturing companies recognized several years ago that the data they ‘produced’ on their shop floor has developed to a point that it has become an asset in its own. The analyst’s task is to uncover patterns within the datasets and to discover new business facts that are currently unknown to the enterprise (Russom, 2011).

In most of the cases, a big data project will be started due to the tangible benefits that are expected to come with a successful project. The analysis can be utilized to support different goals of the enterprise. Most obvious is the improvement of established processes, for example the increase of efficiencies.

Though some of the benefits are underestimated in big data projects, intangible benefits (Hadjinicolaou et al. 2018) strike areas such as an improved relationship and/or an improved mutual trust with share- and stakeholders, organizational capabilities or legal/customer requirements.
Applying big data and advanced analytics, enterprises can also develop a better understanding of the current state of their businesses and also predict evolving aspects, such as future customer behavior.

Implementing a big data project requires not only to hire people with the right knowledge and the right mindset, but also to connect those with the experts in production, design and development, industrialization, process design and so on.

To that end, there is no such structure available today that facilitates the top management with the right tool set to staff such projects.

The article provides a framework to analyze the critical success factors, to rate the hard- and soft skills of the team members and a toolset to evaluate the concrete set up of the team. Weaknesses in the set-up can be identified right in the beginning and counteracting measures can be taken.

Origin of the Term ‘Big Data’

It is not fully clear, who coined the phrase ‘big data’, but it is certain that its meaning was different when used by authors three decades ago.

The first who conjoined statistics, a storage medium (computer tapes) and the methodology to extract information from data was Charles Tilly in 1984.

“Against these procedures, Stone lodges the objection that historical data are too unreliable, ...., that the storage of evidence on computer tapes blocks the verification conclusions by other historians, ...., that none of the big questions has actually yielded to the bludgeoning of the big-data people, ...” (Tilly 1984)

Other sources can be traced back till the 80s, such as an article from 1989 by Erik Larson writing for Harper’s Magazine and showing the far-sightedness of the author (Larson 1989).

“The keepers of big data say they do it for the consumer’s benefit. But data have a way of being used for purposes other than originally intended.”

Also John Mashey, who was working at the beginning of the 90s for Silicon Graphics is credited to have invented the phrase. Mashey was using that term for a range of issues, looking for the simplest, shortest phrase to convey that the boundaries of computing keep advancing (Lohr 2013). The is no written paper or published article that can be used as evidence but there are former colleagues that testify that he was using the term.

A definition of Big Data

Mauro et al. published a substantial article regarding a consensual definition of big data (Mauro et al 2015. “What is big data? A consensual definition and a review of key research topics”). It is an extensive article that is recommended for further investigations and a more detailed research on the definition of big data.

The authors propose the following formal definition:

“Big Data represents the Information assets characterized by such a High Volume, Velocity and Variety to require specific Technology and Analytical Methods for its transformation into Value” (Mauro et al. 2015).

In October 2011, The Economist projected that the number of connected mobile devices would reach 10 billion in 2020 (The Economist 2011). In 2018 the number of connected devices already reached 23.14 billion devices, creating data non-stop (Statista.com 2018) demonstrating that the prediction accuracy is unsound.

Comments on Analytics

The analytics part is the key to success within a big data project from a mathematician’s or engineer’s point of view. It is the section where the extracted and prepared data is given to the data scientist and she has to apply mathematical models or work out an algorithm to apply machine-learning methods. To work out a sound model, the collaboration of experts from different fields of expertise has to be applied. To work out and to apply an algorithm, experts of programming, data banks and mathematician have to contribute.

Two main directions have to be taken into consideration: statistics and machine learning.
The origin of those methodologies is a different one but machine learning and statistics share common methodologies such as regression analysis, resampling, classification and non-linear methods (Kübler et al. 2017).

**Statistics**

The methodology of statistics is applied in many different fields, such as physics, medicine, economy, astronomy, social science and the humanities.

The scientific foundation of the development of statistics can be seen in the work of academics such as Blaise Pascal\(^1\) and Pierre Simon de Laplace\(^2\) (and many others) working on probability calculations within the game of chance. The second point of origin was the ‘description of the state’, starting for example with the editing and aggregation of life- and mortality tables (Hudec & Neumann n. d.). Today there are different definitions eligible, such as:

**Statistics is a science for the quantitative gathering and manageable preparation of mass occurring isolated phenomenon** (Werth 1985)

or

**Statistics is the methodology of learning based on empiricism** (Hackl & Katzenbeisser 1996)

Statistics is classified in three subdomains (Moore 1992).

- Descriptive statistic
- Inductive statistic
- Explorative statistic

Those three subdomains are all applied in the analysis of big data.

Wasserman claims that statistics in general is applied to low dimensional problems (Wasserman 2012). E.g. a statistical problem within chemical production is the correlation between the supplier of raw or pre-processed material and the yield of the final process. Problems such as regression, factor analysis clustering and discriminant analysis can be solved with multivariate statistics.

An important part of the analytics phase of a Big Data project is assisted from analytics software. There is proprietary software (such as Almo, GAUSS, Minitab, qs-STAT, SAS, SPSS, SsS) and non-proprietary software (such as PSPP, R, Statistiklabor) available and the selection of it is subject to the analytical problem.

**Machine Learning**

Machine learning is a sub-set of artificial intelligence (Marr 2016) and originates from computer sciences (Kübler et al. 2017).

In contrast to statistic, machine learning is more outcome-oriented and focuses on accurate prediction making. The data in computer science often originates from high dimensional problems and an undefined number of variables (Wassermann 2012).

Machine learning algorithms use computational methods to “learn” information directly from the data-set without relying on a predetermined equation as a model, and the algorithms adaptively improve their performance as the number of samples available for learning increases (Soni 2017).

The machine learning system consists of three major parts, which are:

- The model: the system that makes predictions or identifications

---

\(^1\) Pascal, Blaise (● June 19, 1623 ● August 19, 1662) was a French mathematician, physicist, inventor, writer and Catholic theologian (Adamson 1995).

\(^2\) de Laplace, Pierre Simon (● March 23, 1749 ● March 5, 1827) was a French scholar who contributed to mathematics, statistics, physics and astronomy (Crosland 1967).
Parameters: the signals or factors used by the model to form its decisions

Learner: the system that adjusts the parameters – and in turn the model – by looking at differences in prediction versus actual outcome

Machine learning can be perceived as less restrictive and less formal than statistics (Wasserman 2012), but is facing other problems such as the required time (up to a week) to train a neural network (Milutinovic 2017).

Different technologies from statistics and computer science can be applied to analyze datasets. Manyika et al. provide a list (see supplement) of techniques applicable across a range of industries (Manyika et al. 2011).

**Data Analytics Algorithms**

There are several algorithms for the purpose of data mining and analytics. In 2006, the IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM) defined the 10 most influential data mining algorithms. Those are:

- **C4.5**
- **k-Means**
- **Support Vector Machines (SVM)**
- **Apriori**
- **Expectation Maximization (EM)**
- **PageRank**
- **AdaBoost**
- **k-nearest neighbors (kNN)**
- **Naïve Bayes**
- **Classification and Regression Trees (CART)**

Wu et al. (2007), Panson (2015), Quinlan (1986 and 2007) provide explanations regarding the algorithms and the area of their application. Especially the work of Wu et al. (2007) provides detailed explanations for the algorithms. For further readings on the algorithms, see the supplement.

**Organizational Design**

Organizational design is a systematic approach to aligning structures, processes, leadership, culture, people, practices, and metrics to enable organizations to achieve their mission and strategy the organization should be designed to fit the circumstances (Burton et al. 2018).

For the organizational design of a big data and analytics team, there is no such thing as the ‘one best organizational design’. Before the team is set up, the following two main questions must be answered.

The first question is about the integration of the team within the company. How shall the lines of command be organized, what is the reporting structure, who is setting the targets?

The second question is about the staffing of the team. Before starting any hiring process, the corporation must define what type of problems need to be solved, how the required roles can be formed, what the strategic target of the big data team is and what competencies are required.

**Integration**

There are different factors that have an influence on the incorporation, such as:

- Form of the organization
- Functional
Divisional
Matrix
Channel of communication
Hierarchical
Network organization
Virtual organization
Spiral organization

The industry the company is operating in (e.g. manufacturing trade, information technology, commercial enterprise, chemical and process industry, textile industry, public services, energy provider, …)

Principle of structure
Origin of position (object oriented, execution, region)
Principle of management (unity of command, multiple-line system)
Decision making authority (centralized, de-centralized)

The size of the company (SME vs. large scale enterprise)

All topics are relevant, but the topics #1 and #2 are outstanding. Those are the ones that have to be considered first of all, the other ones have minor influence. The form of the organization and the channel of communication have to be defined upfront and have to be established to avoid losses in performance when the team shall start to work on the big data projects.

Big data and analytics requires a short chain of command, where information is flowing fast and without losses, the team has to have a company wide access to the data storage and the loggers to really get a full picture of the data and to ensure that all relevant information is taken into consideration.

The incorporation therefore has to enable the team members to get in contact with the relevant stakeholders of a company quickly and without obstructions to understand the requirements right from the beginning and to understand the scope of action as early as possible.

Roles and Competencies

The success of a project is in most cases measured by what is called the iron triangle: scope, deadline and cost. Defining success based on this three criteria is not easy and depends on the perspective of the share- and stakeholders and it is intensively influenced from the type of the project, the external and internal conditions, the prestige it obtains and so on.

Conventional projects can be organized, staffed and executed in a structured manner, especially if these projects are reiterating and even more when they are perseverating.

Big Data and Analytics projects have to be set up in a structured way as normal projects, too. But they cannot be treated in the same way; the complexity of these projects can hardly be handled by the standard project management techniques. The reason for this is:

The required competencies are very specific, the curriculums at the universities offer courses in this specific field of application since a little more than a decade and only as part of higher education (Debortoli et al. 2013)

As it was stated before, the interfaces within a project are complex; even with distinguished experts in every single phase of the project it can fail when information is transmitted incorrectly or is misunderstood or misinterpreted (Donald et al. 2013)

The interpretation of the analytics phase, its recommendation for the application and the transfer into the real life application requires a high level of awareness
With an increase of complexity, it is becoming necessary to invest more time for organizing and staffing the project in the right manner directly from the beginning.

As the integration of the team depends mainly on the current structure of the company and on the channels of communication, the links for the team and especially the manager of the project become important. Figure 2 shows a project manager within a matrix organization and the different communication channels she must serve.

Figure 2 - Multiple levels of communication

The team must be able to share knowledge, share ideas and to work together to find the right solution for a certain problem. The interaction between the different areas is part of the success of innovative problem solution (Ebert, et al. 2017).

Required competencies

The literature regarding high-performance teams within the field of Big Data and Analytics is limited. The research focuses either on the competencies (with a focus on analytics, less on social skills), or the management of the project, or the hardware (e.g. the drive), or the software (e.g. analytics software).

There is very little research available how to access the competencies, how to arrange a team with respect to their skills and the Big Data problem. The factors for the success of a Big Data project are not set into a concrete order to achieve the best out of the available resources.

Most authors share the opinion that the next-generation competition has turned the attention to superior competences and dynamic capabilities. This ability is necessary to coordinate the tangible and intangible recourses (Teece, et al. 2017).

Competencies that have been the key to success in one project can be futile in other ones. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the required competencies based on the specific project for each domain and each sub-domain before the start of a project (figure 3).

Figure 3 - Different domains of competences
An example of how demanding the tasks and how broad the range of the applications can become is provided in the supplement matrix *statistics and computer science technologies*; this matrix provides insights just for the analytical part of a Big Data project.

**Required Roles**

The contribution of the analytics toolset, the speed of the hardware and the latest version of the software that is used to process the data is too often the focus of attention. As a matter of course, there will hardly be a big data project without the support of hard- and software, no question about that.

However, without the right expertise, well-organized coordination of the project, and sound communication, all big data projects will fail or stay far beyond the expectations. Research has shown that “inadequate staffing and skills are the leading barriers to Big Data Analytics” (Russom 2011).

In addition to technical system implementation, significant business or domain knowledge as well as effective communication skills are needed for the successful completion of such BD&A projects (Chen et al. 2012).

To deploy and to implement a big data analytics team has a whole host of requirements and implications (Geissbauer et al. 2017). It is not only about hiring and making up the team, it is also about the team structure, the expertise of its members and the right composition of the team (Debortoli 2014).

Based on the content of the matrix in the supplement (roles within a Big Data team) the following roles within a Big Data team are proposed to be set up for a Big Data project:

- Data analytics expert
- Data scientist
- Systems architect
- Data software expert
- Operations expert
- Data project manager

The roles recommended cover the required competencies and the interfaces between the different scopes of application. Each role has to cover a certain set of competencies to fulfill the tasks of a Big Data project.

**Data analytics expert**

The data analytics expert is the one who has to apply the statistics and computer science methodology to the data-set. It his her who has to find the patterns in the data and to point out where the team has to focus on and who has to make recommendations for the next steps.

**Data scientist**

Collecting, preparing and customizing the data from systems (like ERP or MES; databanks or data storage systems) are the task of the data scientist. She has to develop access to the relevant data, extract and provide it to the data analytics expert.

**Systems architect**

The systems architect creates an environment that is necessary to get access to the data, according to the requirements of the business. If the data, for example, is stored in a business intelligence system and the analysis requires a retrospective analysis, the architecture has to be set up in a certain manner. If the data has to be analyzed in real-time, the architecture has different requirements and will look different. The systems architect has to have a broad knowledge of IT systems, its structure and the advantages and disadvantages of different architectures.
Data software expert

The data software expert creates and establishes the computer system to carry out the Big Data operations. It can be considered as the ‘backbone’ of the analytics. It consists of a set of programs and procedures (some of them open source) that need to be modified for the application. It provides the ability to store and process huge amounts of data, the computing power (the more nodes, the more power) to the data software expert. It can be scaled according to the requirements.

Operations expert

Most big data projects zoom in on the analytics part and neglect the interfaces, the complexity of the ‘real life’ applications, or struggle to find the right interpretation what the results of the analysis imply.

This can result in overlooking or ignoring significant findings and thus the project falling short.

The team member who can provide the essential insights into the processes of the application, who can manage the tasks on the interconnection points and can conceptualize the projects broader framework, is compulsory.

The team member that can incur such liability is the operations expert.

Data project manager

One of the presuppositions of this article is that a big data project can only become an outstanding success if the required hard and soft facts are available and also managed in matters of the requirements of big data projects. This demands a specialized big data project manager.

The data project manager cannot be considered as a standard project manager and cannot be assigned from any other type of project to a big data project. Besides the iron triangle (scope, deadline and cost), she simultaneously has to take care of an intensive management of the interfaces; she has to invest much of her time in the management of the interfaces and has to coach the different experts that run the analytics part. Overall, she has to be well versed in cognitive and behavioral sciences and must be able to manage a team of highly educated experts.

Management of Interfaces

Treating a big data project in the same way as a conventional project can establish right at the beginning the reason for its fail at a later point in time. One of the key factors that require the project managers’ attentiveness is the management of the interfaces.

The interfaces of a big data project cannot be mapped out in neat fashion with pre- or well-defined points of transfer. Deploying the analytical tools, the hardware that provides the required analytics performance and setting up the right systems architecture for a big data project are already a tough challenge, even with the right people in the team and an adequate budget at hand.

Liaising all of those different areas and experts is in the hands of the data project manager; but the team needs to be sensitized to the specific challenges and requirements of such projects and the delicate management of the interfaces.

Besides the standard tool set of a project manager the following tools can be advised to improve the management of the interfaces:

Full time assignment of team members to the project so they can focus

Setting up the team as kind of a ‘virtual enterprise’ with collaboration and communication tools (Cordova et al. 2013)

Combining the virtual tools with an agile approach for the project management to ensure that the team can maneuver fast and is not slowed down by external factors (Baker 2017; Contractor et al. 2006)

Access to external support; such as specialists/consultants from outside the company or senior experts within the enterprise when unexpected trials and tribulations come up

This kind of a team set up requires a high self-employment of the team members and a high degree of autonomy. Team members must possess a personality that supports this autonomous working style and an entrepreneurial spirit.
Besides the personality, the team must have the possibility to engage in so-called deep work and to focus on the problem and its potential solution. Knowledge workers need such distraction free time periods to finalize tasks that require extended periods of concentrated work (Ebert et al. 2017).

Assessment of the competencies

Before undertaking a big data project, it is recommended to (a) define the required competencies for this specific project and (b) to determine the existing competencies of potential team members. This needs to be done to match the requirements and the available competencies. If the requirements of a certain project cannot be fulfilled, it shouldn’t be started in the first place.

Defining topic (a) can be done with an analysis of the existing situation. This requires (I) an evaluation of the root cause of the problem with problem solving methods (such as an Ishikawa diagram, a 5-Why analysis or a clustering approach), (II) gaining a first overview of the availability and the type of data and (III) a problem-oriented workshop with the users of the system to develop first insights into the nature of the problem. Working out topic (b) can be done with (I) an elaborated questionnaire provided to the potential team members, (II) conducting a structured interview, (III) an assessment done by the superior or (IV) a self-assessment of the team members.
The polar coordinate diagram is the result of the assessment. The projects requirements and the competencies of each employee are visualized and an active decision whether an employee shall be allocated to a project can be made. Based on the single diagrams the team can be set up; finding the optimal set up is an optimization problem.

Such problems can be solved with an add-in in Microsoft Excel, the Excel Solver. The Solver is a program that enables the user to find a certain value (maximum or minimum) for a target that is subjected to certain restrictions. The objective of the optimization is to set up a team with the best abilities to solve the big data problem.

**Discussion**

The higher motive of a company when setting up a big data and analytics teams is to create value for the company. This value does not have to be necessarily a monetary one in the beginning. There are other motives influencing this decision and finally leading to the founding of a big data and analytics team.

It is important to understand the effect that digitalization may have within the company in general and big data and analytics in particular in the value stream. Without knowing where the value stream will be affected, or even worse, not knowing where to apply big data and analytics within the value stream can result in a low return on investment or even in a loss for the company.

A common statement can be heard at conferences and symposiums quite often. It is that a company should “just” start with analytics, develop a “start-up mentality” and should not follow one path for too long and “fail fast” when the desired results cannot be achieved.

My opinion is a different one due to the fact that many companies just cannot develop a start-up mentality just hoping for a return on investment.

The success of big data projects origins partly in the correct planning, the correct application and the right execution of the mathematics. More important for the success of a big data project is the adequate organizational design, the definition and application of the right roles and competencies, and, at the end, an excellent management of the team and the project itself.

The results of research regarding leadership, motivation and social interactions apply also for a big data and analytics team. The Team needs to be managed accordingly, e.g. the cultural background, the generations perspective and their working style need to be taken into consideration by the management. The manager needs to able to lead such a team, and for this he has to have an understanding of the tasks, processes and methods the team is working with.

It can be argued that in most companies’, there are already departments in which an analytics team could be integrated. Such departments could be IT, simulations, Research and Development or a continuous improvement department (CIP) that is working with Six Sigma methodology.

But those departments have a different focus; they provide structures, hardware or access to software in the best case. Those departments were not set up to be the driver for disruptive change in the analysis of mass data nor were they prepared to extract or treat or condition data following the requirements of a big data project.

Therefore, a different solution for the core team has to be found. Different scenarios were presented in this paper and allow the decision maker to work on the best solution for her or his company.

**Supplement**

The following supplement provides better insights into the scientific background to the literature research. The extracts and conclusions are presented in a short version in the article.

**Statistics and computer science technologies**

The list shown here is a shortened version, taken from the original articles to provide an overview, and does not claim to be thorough. The list is in an alphabetic order (Manyika et al. 2011).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A/B testing</td>
<td>A technique in which a control group is compared with a variety of test groups in order to determine what treatments (i.e., changes) will improve a given objective variable, e.g., marketing response rate. This technique is also known as split testing or bucket testing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association rule learning</td>
<td>A set of techniques for discovering interesting relationships, i.e., “association rules,” among variables in large databases (Agrawal et al. 1993) (Hajek et al. 1966). These techniques consist of a variety of algorithms to generate and test possible rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification</td>
<td>A set of techniques to identify the categories in which new data points belong, based on a training set containing data points that have already been categorized. Often described as supervised learning because of the existence of a training set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster analysis</td>
<td>A statistical method for classifying objects that splits a diverse group into smaller groups of similar objects, whose characteristics of similarity are not known in advance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowdsourcing</td>
<td>A technique for collecting data submitted by a large group of people or community (i.e., the “crowd”) through an open call, usually through networked media such as the Web (Howe 2006).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data fusion and data integration</td>
<td>A set of techniques that integrate and analyze data from multiple sources in order to develop insights in ways that are more efficient and potentially more accurate than if they were developed by analyzing a single source of data. Signal processing techniques can be used to implement some types of data fusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data mining</td>
<td>A set of techniques to extract patterns from large datasets by combining methods from statistics and machine learning with database management. These techniques include association rule learning, cluster analysis, classification, and regression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensemble learning</td>
<td>Using multiple predictive models (each developed using statistics and/or machine learning) to obtain better predictive performance than could be obtained from any of the constituent models. A technique used for optimization that is inspired by the process of natural evolution or “survival of the fittest.” In this technique, potential solutions are encoded as “chromosomes” that can combine and mutate. These individual chromosomes are selected for survival within a modeled “environment” that determines the fitness or performance of each individual in the population. Often described as a type of “evolutionary algorithm,” these algorithms are well-suited for solving nonlinear problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genetic algorithms</td>
<td>A subspecialty of computer science concerned with the design and development of algorithms that allow computers to evolve behaviors based on empirical data. A major focus of machine learning research is to automatically learn to recognize complex patterns and make intelligent decisions based on data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine learning</td>
<td>A set of techniques from a subspecialty of computer science and linguistics that uses computer algorithms to analyze human (natural) language. Many NLP techniques are types of machine learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural language processing (NLP)</td>
<td>Computational models, inspired by the structure and workings of biological neuronal networks (i.e., the cells and connections within a brain), that finds patterns in data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neural networks</td>
<td>Neuronal networks are well-suited for finding nonlinear patterns. They can be used for pattern recognition and optimization. Some neuronal network applications involve supervised learning and others involve unsupervised learning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Network analysis
A set of techniques used to characterize relationships among discrete nodes in a graph or a network. In social network analysis, connections between individuals in a community or organization are analyzed, e.g., how information travels, or who has the most influence over whom.

Optimization
A portfolio of numerical techniques used to redesign complex systems and processes to improve their performance according to one or more objective measures (e.g., cost, speed, or reliability).

Pattern recognition
A set of machine learning techniques that assign some sort of output value (or label) to a given input value (or instance) according to a specific algorithm.

Predictive modeling
A set of techniques in which a mathematical model is created or chosen to best predict the probability of an outcome.

Regression
A set of statistical techniques to determine how the value of the dependent variable changes when one or more independent variables is modified.

Sentiment analysis
A set of techniques from electrical engineering and applied mathematics originally developed to analyze discrete and continuous signals, i.e., representations of analog physical quantities (even if represented digitally) such as radio signals, sounds, and images. This category includes techniques from signal detection theory, which quantifies the ability to discern between signal and noise.

Signal processing
A set of techniques, some applied from statistics, which analyze the topological, geometric, or geographic properties encoded in a data-set. Often the data for spatial analysis come from geographic information systems (GIS) that capture data including location information, e.g., addresses or latitude/longitude coordinates.

Supervised learning
The set of machine learning techniques that infer a function or relationship from a set of training data (Cortes & Vapnik 1995).

Simulation
Modeling the behavior of complex systems, often used for forecasting, predicting and scenario planning. Monte Carlo simulations, for example, are a class of algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling, i.e., running thousands of simulations, each based on different assumptions. The result is a histogram that gives a probability distribution of outcomes.

Time series analysis
Set of techniques from both statistics and signal processing for analyzing sequences of data points, representing values at successive times, to extract meaningful characteristics from the data.

Unsupervised learning
A set of machine learning techniques that finds hidden structure in unlabeled data.

Visualization
Techniques used for creating images, diagrams, or animations to communicate, understand, and improve the results of big data analyses.

Data analytics Algorithms
C4.5: The C4.5 algorithm is a classifier applied to generate decision trees, using the concept of information entropy. It was developed by Ross Quinlan, a computer science researcher. It is one of the most used tools in data mining.
k-means: The k-Means is an iterative method to partition a given dataset into a user-specified number of clusters, k. It is a type of unsupervised learning, which is applied to unlabeled data, e.g. data without defined categories or groups. Data points are clustered based on feature similarities (Trevino 2016).

Support Vector Machines (SVM): SVMs are supervised learning models that analyze data and recognize patterns; they can learn already from a short number of examples and develop at a fast pace. That algorithm was very popular in the 1990s.

Apriori: This algorithm is often applied to discover relations between variables in large datasets, using candidate generation.

Expectation Maximization (EM): The EM algorithm is suited to problems such as the estimation of the parameters of a probability distribution function (e.g. the estimation of the mean of a signal in noise). It produces maximum-likelihood (ML) estimates of parameters when there is a many-to-one mapping from an underlying distribution to the distribution governing the observation (Moon 1996).

PageRank: The PageRank algorithm was developed from Larry Page and Sergei Brin and provides the basis for the success of GOOGLE. It is a method to assign importance ranks to nodes in a linked database, such as any database of documents containing citations, the World Wide Web or any other hypermedia database (Page 1998).

AdaBoost: The algorithm deals with methods, which employ multiple learners to solve a problem (Dietterich 1997). The generalization ability with other algorithms to improve their performance is usually significantly better than that of a single learner. The contribution of the other learning algorithms is called the weak learner and is combined with the weighted sum to calculate the final output of the boosted classifier.

k-nearest neighbors (kNN): The k-nearest neighbor classification finds a group of k objects in the training set that are closest to the test object, and bases the assignment of a label on the predominance of a particular class in this neighborhood.

Naïve Bayes: The naïve Bayes algorithm enables the researcher to construct a rule to assign future objects to a class, given only the vectors of variables describing the future objects.

Classification and Regression Trees: Classification and regression trees are machine-learning methods for constructing prediction models from data. The models are obtained by recursively partitioning the data space and fitting a simple prediction model within each partition. As a result, the partitioning can be represented graphically as a decision tree (Loh 2011).

Roles within a Big Data Team

The list shown here is based on scientific articles (Deborotoli et al. 2014, Pedersen 2017, Hitchcock 2017) and research in job portals (such as monster and stepstone).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of Application</th>
<th>Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analytics (proposed role: Data analytics expert)</td>
<td>Advanced analytics specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data analyst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analytics expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Big data analyst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data scientist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Web portal programmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Database administrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data extraction, preparation and provision (proposed</td>
<td>Data manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role: Data scientist)</td>
<td>Software engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analytics developer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology (IT) and hardware architecture</td>
<td>Application developer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(proposed role: Systems architect)</td>
<td>Platform specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BI programmer Big data hardware architect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Big Data IT system architect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information architect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software architecture (proposed role: Data software expert)</td>
<td>BI architect for Microsoft/Power BI, SAP/Business Objects, IBM/Cognos, QlikView, Cubeware, MicroStrategy, Teradata, Oracle, pentaho, and so forth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hadoop developer</td>
<td>Hadoop applicant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data warehouse appliance specialist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project and change management (proposed role: Data project manager)</th>
<th>Big data project manager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Big data business consultant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big data business analyst</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big data change agent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big data digital marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bibliography**

[5] Chen, H., Chiang, R. H. L., Storey, V. C. (2012). Business Intelligence and Analytics: From Big Data to Big Impact. MIS Quarterly; Special Issue: Business Intelligence Research


City Branding and the Tourist Gaze: City Branding for Tourism Development

Sonia Jojic
Polis University, Tirana

Abstract

For many years now the topic of city branding has gained a significant interest in both the academics and policy maker’s specified fields. As many cities tend to compete globally in attracting tourism, investment or talents, the concepts of brand strategy has been increasingly adopted from the commercial filed and has been applied to the urban development, regeneration and quality of life of cities. Nevertheless, city branding helps in increasing the status of the place as touristic destination, residential, or business location. As many places are mainly branded as touristic destinations, urban tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of worldwide tourism market. Thus this article intends to explore the essence of city branding related to tourism and John Urry, “Tourist Gaze”; city image, and the relationship between city branding and its residents.

Keywords: city, branding, tourism, development

Introduction

City Branding

City Branding itself is the process of distinguishing and diversification, where local tourism organizations, cultural and arts facilities, museums, historic preservation groups join and construct a place images, helping in producing tourist sites with the common aim to attract consumers and investment to a particular local area. This process involves in two main components, 1. Place making or city building,(the process which makes a specific place more attractive) and 2. Place or city branding (the process of promoting a place), (Anholt, 2008), ( Avraham and Ketter, 2008), (Kavaratzis, 2004). The main goals of city branding is to re-image a city perception, depending on its place identities and of course understanding the local culture of the place. Still, city branding is more than the promotion of a place and its marketing, its about constructing and reshaping the cities image from its historical architecture and street plans, the images of the city heard or read, the art produced by its residents etc, thus attracting the desirable consumers and maximizing consumers spending. Therefore, City Branding aims to:

1. Develop new ways of communicating the city’s image
2. Achieve competitive advantages
3. Strengthen the reputation of a city, improving also its economical importance.

Building a good city image is an important mixture of activity and structure. Because successful brands give benefit beyond the physical aspects of cities, there is a big necessity to process the visual image into a unique brand image through clear strategies.

As Unsworth states, “City branding should be associated to the main things that people should know about a place”. Thus, the process of creating a brand requires media-generated imagery; branding of the urban projects; city life, historical buildings, important signature architecture, and the overall form of the city, should follow in accordance with main target focus on how to develop the brand (tourism, investments, attracting new residents).

City Branding comparable to corporate branding
While researching if branding is whether beneficial for cities or not, first branding should be defined. The American Marketing Association defines ‘brand’ as ‘a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors’.

On the other hand, Hankinson (2004) also emphasizes the distinctive character of the branded product which is the result of the positioning efforts in relation to competition and unique combination of attributes and values. Paul Biedermann defines brand as the essence of one’s own unique story. Moreover, De Chernatony and Dall’Olmo Riley (1998) define brand as the multidimensional construct of values facilitated by the producers and recognized by the consumers of the product. This is a two – way process of communication between the owners of the brand and the consumers who perceive it. It is more than a name or a slogan promoting a certain product, as it integrates a number of different qualities associated with that specific product. A brand differentiates a product from its competitors by these attributes and values, forming a unique combination. Thus, a brand carries values, bonding’s and loyalty in relation to the customer (Stigil and Frimann, 2006).

Nevertheless, a distinction is necessary to be made between product or service brands and corporate brands. Corporate brands different from product brand have a slightly different aim. The targets are not only the customers, like in the case of product brands, but different stakeholder groups. Therefore their complexity ought to involve the company’s mission, values, beliefs, communication and culture. (Simoes and Dibb, 2001). As defined by Simoeeas and Dibb, a corporate brand is a continuous expression of the distinctive business model of an organization through the verbal, visual and behavioural means.

The concept of “brand” and “branding”

In addition of the comparison of city branding and corporate branding, distinction should be made also between the concepts of brand and branding, which are not equal. As described by the Business Dictionary term “Branding” involves the entire process of creating a unique name and image for a product or company in the minds of consumers and other stakeholders. (businesdictionary.com). On the other hand, the term “Brand” is an overall image or set of perceptions and associations in people’s perception of the brand. Hence, “Branding”, emphasis on establishing and maintaining this brand. (Stigil and Frimann, 2006). However, branding does involve promotion, most importantly, it goes beyond it. The aim of branding is to establish a significant and distinguished presence in the market that attracts and retains loyal customers. Indeed, the aim of branding is not only to distinguish a product or a service from others, it consists also in the representations of values and beliefs that will influence the behaviour of customers (Tasci and Kozak, 2006). After all branding is about altering or refining an image. Thus, it should be treated as a complete and continuous process, which all other marketing activities are subject. (Kavaratzis, 2004). In fact when it comes to places, they are very complex and can be still treated as a single product, however the functions of this product should be treated as a combination of various services, associations, etc. In his book “How to Brand Nations, Cities and Destinations” Rainisto (2003) states that place brands are more similar to corporate umbrella brands than they are to product brands, and therefore a place’s image is a value a place can benefit from. While referring corporate branding the company itself is the main focus and not the products or services it offers, is the company’s mission, vision and culture that are the main elements of branding. It can be believed that the same applies to places, as place branding is not about the single products the city offers, it is about the larger picture of branding the city as a whole entity. Thus, the main goal of place branding is in using the place’s values that are associated with its local products, which can promote the place itself. Similar to corporate branding, place branding is about attributing certain qualities to the entire combination of place products, as every single one of these products can then benefit from the place brand as a whole.

In addition, Merrilees, Miller and Herington (2009) define place branding “as the ways in which communities, cities, regions and countries market their entity”. Thus, defining City branding as a part of place branding which applies to single cities rather than whole regions or countries. On the other hand, if a city’s efforts focus on attracting tourists, then city branding can be expected to be a part of destination branding.

Since destination branding applies to the tourism market, its primary aim is to attract visitors to a given destination. Therefore, city branding can be considered as both place branding and destination branding for an urban region. “Cities have always been brands in the truest sense of the word”. (Anholt, 2008). Anholt reinforces the idea that governmental attempts have been made to create place identity and to promote it to its either external or internal consumers, have long taken place before the name ‘city brand’ started to be used. (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Thus, city branding in its
essence is similar to corporate branding, both of them aim to attract attention of multiple stakeholders and not single customer groups. Furthermore, both city branding and corporate branding have multidisciplinary roots, they both have a high level of intangibility and complexity, which need to take into account also social responsibility, both dealing with multiple identities and need a long – term development. (Anholt, 2008) In fact, Hankinson (2007) claims that city brands are comparable to corporate brands and consequently concludes that place branding needs leadership, a brand-oriented organizational culture, coordination of different departments influencing the “brand”, constant and consistent communication and strong partnerships. Hence, methods and techniques applied previously to corporate branding can now be used for building strong city brands. (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2005). After all, the idea behind branding is to persuade the customer, in which the city is able to fulfil his needs better than the competition. Michalis Kavaratzis states in his article “From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical framework for developing city brands”, that city branding and city brand management aim at influencing spatial behavior of people and companies by putting the city on their mental maps and enforcing the positive perception of it, whether it relates to living, visiting or investing. (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005). On the past years the aim of city branding has changed, from attracting outsiders, nowadays it focuses more on the current and potential residents rather than just visitors. It has become more important to keep its residents, and thus keeping business in the city, thus resulting in sustainability. In conclusion, we can define place branding as the planning and execution of the entire process of creating, managing and/or improving the perceptions of a existing city, its potential customers and other stakeholders, which aim to influence the spatial behaviour of customers, being beneficial for the city’s sustainability and development, and focuses on the values of a city as a whole.

Branding strategies for cities

City image can be projected into the international market place very fast, where the chances of attracting tourist, companies, will certainly improve the urban vitality of the city. Importance of city branding focuses in the empowerment of local knowledge and creativity which can be used in a more efficient approach to public planning and urban development of the city, thus using city branding as an essential tool in urban regeneration. On the other hand, city branding can also be treated as segment of destination branding when concerning tourism. Tourism is the main backbone for political and economic progress and social restructuring, helping in exposing domestic enterprises to the international market, but also encourages interaction between host populations with outsiders. Nevertheless, the value of place branding and destination branding is in the importance of attracting visitors, with a highly potential of helping the economical aspect of the city. Branding can bring positive and profitable associations. However, in creating a positive city image a set of clear values should be defined with the brand. Branding is not just about logos and slogans, but the “ACTUAL IDENTITY” of the brand itself that takes in consideration different groups of stakeholders. Nonetheless, branding should be based on a clear set of values and beliefs with a clear purpose for the strategy to be effective and in return beneficial for the city. In order to be successful and have a long-term impact, branding should be accompanied with actual visual changes within the city.

Undoubtedly, marketing campaigns have a slightly impact in helping to ‘sell’ the city as a tourist destination, investment location by improving the perceptions of people about the city. Moreover, the role of branding should also focus in policy change. In his article “Place branding: Is it marketing or isn’t it?”, Anholt, claims that strategy consists about the knowledge of the authorities of the current situation of the city, what is the actual desired position of the city and how to get and manage it. In addition, “Substance” is stated as the implementation of the strategy in different forms, such as economic, political, and cultural activities which take place in the city. In conclusion, ‘Symbolic’ is seen as the action that will be communicating the actual changes in the city. (Anholt, 2008). Most of the time, people believe that the image of a city improves with excessive marketing or advertising tools, however it is the actual change that is being communicated and used as a marketing tool. Definitely branding is important, still alone it cannot achieve much. It has to be strengthened by positive visible evidence in the city.

The 4d place branding model

Branding itself is a major trait of contemporary postindustrial society. As mentioned before, Kavaratzis (2009) claims that the concept and techniques of product and corporate branding are now also employed in a variety of different ways, including place branding (Kavaratzis, 2009). Thomas Gad’s 4D Place Branding Model consists in conducting in more in-depth research as a framework for destination marketing projects. This also encompasses further communication process that helps establish the brand and its message with regards to the target audiences. Thus the 4D Place Branding Model, also focuses on communicating a created image. This reflects the essential role assigned to image formulation and image
communication in theoretical discussions (Kavaratzis, 2004). Thomas Gad’s 4D Place Branding Model consists of four phases: 1. Discover, 2. Define, 3. Design (re-Design) and 4. Deliver.

The model was designed for general application of place branding. Moreover, place branding can be treated as a new image created by distinctive characteristics of a place as well as preexistent images.

Discover: The first phase where primary research takes place, consisting of five constitutive parts, including questionnaires, workshops conducted by NGO, interviews, research on materials and analysis. Gupta, A. (2010), in her publication “Branding a nation: Framework for building favorable country-image”, claims that “discovering” and identifying the image of a place is thought to be the preliminary aspect in the theory of branding (Gupta, 2010). Moreover, Gertner and Kotler state that the image of a place influences the brand response to its residents, visitors and investors (Gertner and Kotler, 2004). Still, Kotler emphasizes that the image of a place is a sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place (Gertner and Kotler, 2004). In addition, cultural heritage often incorporates traditional and cultural values of certain regions or places, hereby including beliefs, ideas, traditions, architecture and foods, which can be used in creating or identifying the image of a place. The focus of Discover as the first component of the 4D Place Branding Model is to gather all the significant and available resources for creating the underlying themes of the brand image. These underlying themes can focus on distinct cultural and heritage values, historical stories, local values or natural resources of the place. Morgan (2006) argues in her publication “How has place branding developed during the year that place branding has been in publication, Place Branding.” That the process of branding focuses in two main phases: 1. Internally, all the gathered information of cultural and historic artefacts help in identifying the preferred and suitable image of the city; 2. Externally, focusing in discovering the citizens’ perception of the cities. Nevertheless, both these two phases have a reciprocal process, thus underlying that the direction and themes of the place branding strategy are determined through the Discover process.

Define: The second phase of the 4D Place Branding Model is Define, aiming to identify a simple definition and clear solution for the brand positioning, reflecting the uniqueness of the concept of brand identity in theories of branding, which indicates the way in which the branding theme wants the brand to be preserved (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2006). The process of Define starts by extracting a word or creating a slogan, a memorable phrase, that defines a place. Description occurs in a concise form, which can be in a length of a paragraph or in a statement in comprehensive scale.

Design / re-Design: Design (re-Design), the third phase in which the process of created or present images are transformed into tangential branding resources. This is described by Kavaratzis (2004) as the core part in branding places, were re-image or re-inventing of a place is done. This phase falls right after developing a brand through its branding positions from the previous stage of Define. As Kotler (1999) describes in his book “Marketing Places Europe”, there are four distinct areas used as the core for creating competitiveness in place branding: 1. Design (character), 2. Infrastructure (fixed environment), 3. Basic services (service provider) and 4. Attractions (entertainment and recreation), proposing on how to enhance the attractiveness of a destination through practical design. The Design (re-Design) phase from the 4D Place Branding Model also includes a range of different strategies for brand positioning, such as cultural heritage and physical design. There are general qualities that make up the physical design related to the landscape, urban space, architecture and infrastructure, which reveal s the place brand and uniqueness of the destination. Cultural exhibition features the distinctive cultural heritage in the form of paintings, relics, traditional songs and performances, food making, local customs and ceremonies. Since the presentation of the cultural heritage elements contributes to communicating the brand and its messages to the people on a more direct level, it is reflected both in the process of image formulation and communication. Nowadays, succeeding in attracting wider recognition is part of the development agenda of contemporary cities, faced with the need to differentiate and compete against one another. However, city branding plays an important role in this struggle of recognition. On the other hand Cultural Heritage, tangible or intangible can potentially become a striving force in creating an identity and a city brand for cities or places rich in cultural and natural heritage.

Deliver: The fourth phase of Tomas Gads branding model is Deliver. This step of the process aims to communicate the brand and designated messages to the intended target audiences. This phase is set to work constantly to strengthen the image of the situated brand by communicating through multiple channels (marketing means of communication).

Cities and the tourist gaze

Nowadays, urban tourism is one of the most fastest growing segments of worldwide tourism market. Thanks to a number of low cost transport carriers, city trips have become increasingly popular. Planning a city trip has become more than easy
more than half of European consumers arrange their holidays on their personal computer. Clearly, competition between cities for tourists has increased (Selby, 2004). Due to this phenomenon, more cities try to invest in city branding. In their Research Report of the Nordic Innovation Centre in Oslo, “Image of the City: Urban Branding as Constructed Capabilities in Nordic City Regions” Jason and Power, state that the usual branding strategies employed are usually twofold (Jansson and Power, 2006):

1. Cities either emphasize the material characteristics of the place such as buildings and events, or its

2. Immaterial aspects, for example, stories, slogans and logos. In this way, cities hope to differentiate themselves from the competition and attract tourists. Certainly, city branding can be a useful tool in building a touristic image. But in fact how does this image building work? What can cities really do to attract attention? Why is, for instance, Rome, Paris, or Venice tourist magnet? To better understand the phenomenon of why tourist prefer some cities instead of other ones, which might be of the same historical value, the theory of the “tourist gaze” by Urry (1990), will be explored.

John Urry, cities and the tourist gaze

The British sociologist, John Urry, in his book The Tourist Gaze (1990), developed a theory on why people travel for leisure and why they visit certain places (Urry, 1990). The author, emphasises that tourism is a process that involves the act of going away to search for visual experiences that people normally do not see at home or at work. The main activities/objective of tourists are ‘gazing at signs’. Signs regarding the particular features of a place, such as a famous cathedral, beautiful landscape or many other attraction that a city might have. For instance, tourist visiting New York will definitely visit the Statue of Liberty, or gaze through Wall Street or Little Italy. Different form a place inhabitants, tourists usually look for different things in a place, thus adopt a ‘tourist gaze’. However, places which are gazed upon are not randomly chosen. Urry argues that the tourist gaze varies by society and is always socially constructed (Urry, 1990). According to Forbes, Chinese tourists prefer to gaze upon the city of Frankfurt, New York, gazing upon the skyscrapers. In addition, American tourists would not prefer to visit the small historic towns in Italy of their own adherence. Urry, explain that this happens due to the manipulation that happens by a variety of media channels constructing that gaze about a certain place. Advertising, television documentaries, websites and blogs, social media channels, travel guides, and newspaper articles, enable people to form an image of what to expect when visiting a place. Thus, in Urry’s view, both tourists and attractions are manipulated: the gaze falls upon those features of a place that are already anticipated. Or, as Urry (2002: 3) puts it: ‘When tourists see two people kissing in Paris what they are gazing upon is “timeless, romantic Paris”’.

Urry’s theory is highly affirmed by the rise of mass tourism since the second half of the 19th century. Nevertheless, since from its invention, photography started to accompany tourism, right at the same time that organized tours arose. In fact, the growth of tourism had a huge impact in the future development of photography. Mac-Cannell, D. (1999), states in his publication “The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class”, “the act of taking pictures of a place that is no longer used, ‘sites’ are turned into ‘sights’: thus tourists visit churches, not to pray, but to photograph them” (MacCannell, 1999). Peter D. Osborne views this phenomenon as a ‘site sacralisation’ which has become the engine behind tourism, in an attempt of become what places are expected to be, the tourist industry thus has produced a lot of ‘pseudoauthentic attractions’ (Osborne, 2000). Similarly, most Dutch cities reinforce the stereotypes of ‘Dutchness’ by inventing spots, events and souvenirs encouraging to tourists that they have found ‘the real Dutch culture’. Urry (1990), notes that not all tourists are the same type, tourists with a ‘collective’ gaze tend to feel safe, thus aiming in following organized trips to visit tourist magnets. On the contrary, more tourists are developing an individual, ‘adventure’, ‘romantic’ gaze, searching for authenticity in the cities or places they decide to visit.

Although a sociologist, Urry theory of “tourist gaze” did not develop in the context of city branding. However, the notion of the tourist gaze, is much of relevance towards cities that want to build an image and attract tourists. Hence, if people visit

---

1 Mass Tourism is a form of tourism that involves tens of thousands of people going to the same resort often at the same time of year. It is the most popular form of tourism as it is often the cheapest way to holiday, and is often sold as a package deal. Source: www.geocoops.com/mass-tourism.html
2 Essays on photography regarding the relation to art; space, identity and landscape; travel and mobility. Book: Travelling Light – photography, travel and visual culture
3 Attractions
places mainly because of photographic images, then city branding itself can help in providing and distributing these pictures. That said, city branding can be a powerful tool in constructing a positive a trustful tourist gaze based in providing an experience that resembles the images used in their branding. Although a pragmatically view, regarding historical and social-cultural reasons (Morgan, 2004), city branding can offers hope and possibility for every place, small cities, towns, villages, localities that suffer from offering nothing special. **Examples:** Wallander detective television series Fig.01 “Wallander” detective television series takes place in the city of Ystad in the south of Sweden: The example highlights how the “Wallander” detective television series is taken as an advantage from the city to organize Wallander tours.

![Wallander](image)

**Fig.01 “Wallander detective television series City Tours”. Source: Ystad Commune, http://www.ystad.se/filmlocations**

“Tomatino festival” Buñol, Spain Fig.02. Buñol village located in Spain has developed a reputation as a photogenic attraction consisting of the annual Tomatino festival where villagers throw tomatoes at each other, coloring the streets of Buñol entirely red purely for entertainment purposes.

![Tomatino](image)

**Fig.02 “La Tomatina” festival, Buñol Spain”.Source: La Tomatina Tours http://www.latomatinatours.com**

**City’s image**

Upon John Urry theory of “touristic gaze”, Kevin Lynch theory is based on his empirical research of the built environment noting that individuals perceive a city predominantly based on a set of built objects. Nevertheless, OECD(2005), and Ashworth (2009), base their theory of “touristic gaze” in regards of hallmark events, and famous personalities Fig.03.
Fig. 03 Examples of “Touristic Gaze ” models. Source: Sonia Jojic

Regarding Lynch observations, he argues that tourists visit a city to gaze upon objects in the built environment. Lynch (1960) notes that in many American and European cities, most individuals perceive a city predominantly as a set of built objects (Lynch, 1960), particularly, five physical elements, developing people’s image of a city:

![Five Physical Elements Diagram](image)

Fig. 04 Kevin Lynch diagram of the “Five Physical Elements”. Source: Sonia Jojic

Lynch, with the concept of ‘imageability’, noted that some part of a city create a strong mental impression on people minds. Edges and Landmarks, particularly for tourist, function as image carriers, because they are easily identified, recognized and remembered. Nevertheless, tourists also direct their gaze towards hallmark events taking place in a certain city, in a certain time of the year. A city can not only be identified with certain activities organized during events (music, art or sports), but also its organizing capacity by hosting it. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), argue that although the benefits of hallmark events for the local economy are mostly overestimated, the impact on the local image of a city can be considerable (OECD, 2005). Referring as a good examples of mega events that contributed to image building is the example of the Summer Olympics of Barcelona (1992), Fig.05.

![Summer Olympics of Barcelona (1992)](image)

Fig. 05 Summer Olympics of Barcelona (1992). Source: Visit Barcelona [http://www.welcome-to-barcelona.com/](http://www.welcome-to-barcelona.com/)
In addition, tourists tend to visit a city due to the association with a personality, such as a famous painters, musicians or writers, where very often, the affiliation of a place with a named individual might tend to be the result of city branding. This branding technique is called the ‘Gaudí gambit’ after the the architect and designer Gaudí (Ashworth, 2009). Nevertheless, painters, musicians, writers, scientist are suitable icons for a city, even if they might not be linked to the place( examples: Vermeer (Delft), Mackintosh (Glasgow), The Beatles (Liverpool). Clearly, some cities might hold on to more image carriers than the three types mentioned above. Certain cities or places, tend to be in the public imagination due to important position in history (Athens (antiquity)). Hence certain places hold on to reputation related to the aspect of the local economy, ‘city of- origin effect’ Wolfsburg (Volkswagen). Hospers (2009) notes that for city branders, tourists are an attractive target group, especially in regards with urban and cultural tourism, seen as a growing market, where tourist are quite responsive to their branding technique (Hospers, 2009). Urry’s theory of the tourist gaze indicates that people visit a city to ‘gaze at signs’, looking for certain features in the urban landscape that are already presented to them by pictures (Urry, 1990). This theory explain the self-reinforcing ‘Matthew effect’ in tourism magnet cities, such as Venice, Paris, New York, etc, imageable cities already in the public eye which attract even more attention for the fact that are famous for being famous. However many other cases in city branding such as the case of Barcelona, Budapest, Slovenia Fig.06 , etc, are examples that highlight that cities can easily identify their image carriers, trace and possibly construct new ones through the improvement of the imageability of the place. Nevertheless, cities that do not hold the “Matthew effect”, should prevent the emergence of a visual overload for the tourist gaze, building a stronger touristic image through new means of tourism (Hosper, 2009).

Fig. 06 Slovenia Branding Model, “I Feel Slovenia ”, Logo. Source: Government Communication Office, Republic of Slovenia

City branding and residents

In the urge of creating a city brand, many city authorities tend to underpin the importance of its residents, where this group most of the time is neglected in the process of building the city brand. Underestimating the essential value that residents have in shaping and enhancing a city’s brand, can weaken the aims and intentions of a city’s brand strategy. Although it might be unrealistic to satisfy the demands and desires of all residents, they are crucial point in building the city brand, as they ‘live and breathe’ the city’s brand identity. The perception of tourists in directly influenced by the residents’ attitudes and attachment to the city where they live, work and play. Residents’ talents and skills, also contributes to the city’s and region’s growth. This way, residents can possibly add value to the brand equity1 of the city in which they live. Aside from the economic advantages, cities also offer their residents many social and emotional benefits, opportunities to share information, social bonds, and engagement in a range of activities which match their interests.

Similar to the objectives of a product or service brand, the ultimate objective focuses in creating preferences and loyalty to the city among various segments which cities serve. Nevertheless, the number of stakeholder groups with an interest in the city are potentially unlimited. However, in the race to build a brand which has to be admired by tourists and other short-

---

1 The commercial value that derives from consumer perception of the brand name of a particular product or service, rather than from the product or service itself.
term visitors, in most cases residents are overlooked, despite their important role as loyal supporters and the true ambassadors of the city brand. Residents personify a city’s local culture, defined as the “Genius Loci”, they represent the personality of the place. Residents and other stakeholders should aim in preserving the aspects of their city they value, making their cities appealing and viable places to live. Moreover, a city’s diversity and richness used as source of inspiration for its branding strategy, may also present challenges, where the approach of “one-size-fits all” might be misguided and impractical. Referring to the cities diversity and richness, scale, personality, history, values, residential composition and urban assets are defined as a multiplex system, where its components overlap with each other reflecting the image of that place (Lynch, 1960). Thus, residents should be considered as the key factor in building an identity for city branding, an identity that is credible, compelling and sustainable in the minds of the stakeholders.

Concluding Remarks

City’s branding helps in increasing the status of the a place as touristic destination, residential, or business location. As mentioned above, branding itself is associated primary with economic value. On the other hand, branding also holds symbolic values, since it constitutes a strategy to provide places, cities, towns, an image and its cultural meaning. Branding indicates the need for individuality and emotional connection with the environment in the contexts of globalization, thus giving cities depth and originality, its distinctive character. However, a strong city brand should not only be seen as a potential tool in attracting visitors, business, investment, but most importantly should be used as a strategy to retain its residents and attract new resident. The image of a city has a powerful factor in persuading all of the above in different ways. However, authorities should be more than responsible in giving proper consideration to a strong brand, seen more as a tool of improvement regarding the urban development of the city, thus allowing branding in contributing with the construction of local identity of a place.

Nevertheless, city branding itself is seen as the process of distinguishing and diversification, where local tourism organizations, cultural and arts facilities, museums, historic preservation groups join to construct a place images, helping in producing tourist sites with the common aim to attract consumers and investment to a particular local area. This process involves in two main components, 1. Place making or city building,(the process which makes a specific place more attractive) and 2. Place or city branding (the process of promoting a place), (Anholt, 2007), (Avraham and Ketter, 2008), (Kavaratzis, 2004). As stated before one of the main goals of city branding is to re-image a city perception, depending on its place identities by understanding the local culture of the place. Seen more than promotion of the place and its marketing, city branding stands in constructing and reshaping the cities image from its historical architecture and street plans, the images of the city heard or read, the art produced by its residents etc, thus attracting the desirable consumers and maximizing consumers spending.

Therefore, City Branding aims to:

1. Develop new ways of communicating the city's image
2. Achieve competitive advantages
3. Strengthen the reputation of a city, improving also its economical importance.

For many years now the topic of city branding has gained a significant interest in both the academics and policy makers specified fields. As many cities tend to compete globally in attracting tourism, investment or talents, the concepts of brand strategy has been increasingly adopted from the commercial filed and has been applied to the urban development, regeneration and quality of life of cities. Previous published research regarding city branding originate from the disciplines of marketing and urban studies, tending to follow parallel directions rather than interdisciplinary paths. The close parallelism drawn between city branding and corporate branding has gained the attention of many scholars in terms of their complexity and range of stakeholders. Here the complexity of city brands is determined from their accountability to address the needs of a wide spectrum of different target groups, which may vary, from tourists, sports fans, fashion consumers and residents.

Nevertheless, research has also shown that techniques of marketing and branding may also be used in order to tackle existing negative perceptions of a city. Thus one of the key challenges for branding cities stand and revolves around the issue of how to develop a strong ‘umbrella’ brand which could be coherent across a range of different areas of activity with different target audiences. Moreover, target audiences are as diverse as a city’s residents, potential investors, tourists and stakeholders.
Bibliography

[18] Review vol. 27 No.2, pp. 245-268
Piano Performance Technical Analysis of *The People United Will Never Be Defeated* by Rzewski

Liang Deng  
Southwest Minzu University, Chengdu, China

Abstract  
The piano variations *The People United will Never be Defeated* by Rzewski contains many modern piano performance techniques and skills. The difficulties of these techniques and skills in these enormous variations are far beyond the boundaries of traditional piano performance techniques and skills. This analysis will give a specific classification for these modern piano performance techniques and skills in order to provide a more comprehensive guide for the piano performers.

Keywords: Piano, Techniques, Rzewski

Introduction

*The People United Will Never Be Defeated* by Frederic Rzewski can be considered as one of the longest piano variations, which has grand and complex characteristics in compositional structure. It totally has 1 theme and 36 variations, every 6 variations are combined together as one group, and the last variation of each group reviews all the playing techniques and compositional characteristics of this group. Moreover, each variation of this epic piece has a different and primary technical challenge for its performance, and, the last variation of each group reviews all the characteristics of the previous 5 variations, not only in musical characteristics, but also in playing techniques. This combination of ideas applies equally to musical matters as well as technical ones (Deng, 2017). The below is a summary of pianistic technique schematic for each variation and set:

**Theme:** popular song

**Set one**
Var.1: tonal, wide jumps and octave displacement  
Var.2: displaced accents and rapidly changing dynamics; bridge from tonal to atonal  
Var.3: hexachords; awkward finger patterns in arpeggios in both hands  
Var.4: canonic; hexahedral sextuple running arpeggio passages; extreme difficulty  
Var.5: individual staccato chords with dynamic contrast; difficult pedal/hand coordination  
Var.6: summary of 1-5

**Set two**
Var.7: 2 against 3, wide leaps  
Var.8: two-part counterpoint, awkward finger patterns, as in variation 3  
Var.9: left hand static and right hand is a slow chord progression with melody on top, soft playing for an extended period (ppp)  
Var.10: atonal, hexachords, *glissandi*, palm clusters  
Var.11: slam piano lid, shouting and whistling  
Var.12: Summary of 7-11

**Set three**
Var.13: jazz blues melodic line, swung right hand melody, repeated chords in bass. Cadenza to join with variation 14  
Var.14: pentatonic arpeggios; imitation between right hand and left hand  
Var.15: rhythmically free and improvisatory; arpeggios as in variation 14  
Var.16: hexachords; contrary motion between hands; rapid sequence of chords = very difficult
Var.17: rhythmic expansion and contraction of right hand while left hand static; each right hand part carries the instruction: 
"each phrase like a sudden burst"
Var.18: summary of 13-17

Set four
Var.19: irregular (fragmented) staccato; imitation between the hands
Var.20: tremolo; single line shared between the hands; toccata-like
Var.21: contrary motion; ostinato patterns
Var.22: based on variation 19, triplets extend what was in variation 19
Var.23: tremolo and martellato, quasi toccata
Var.24: summary of 19-23

Set five
Var.25: expansion on variation 5; Webernesque; extreme dynamic contrasts
Var.26: hexachords combination of tonal and atonal, awkward fingering patterns
Var.27: climax of this piece, stormy and explosive, motoric and repetitive rhythm, ostinato
Var.28: based on variation 26
Var.29: bridge, slurs and staccato, very short duration; irregular metre
Var.30: summary of 25-29

Set six
Var.31-36: summary of variations 1-30

Summary of the Main Pianistic Technical Requirements

The section which follows analyses most of the pianistic techniques required to successfully perform The People United Will Never Be Defeated.

Wide leaps

Example: Variation 1

Here, the technical issues are not simply of one kind but are the result of combinations of different requirements. This variation is difficult enough when played out of context, but in the context of a performance of the work, the pianist must also rapidly adjust from the playing of the theme (forceful and march-like) to immediately playing at the level of pianissimo. To achieve the pp with security, the keys must be depressed more slowly, but there is scarcely time for that because the tempo remains the same as for the theme (106 crotchet beats/minute). Because of the wide range of notes (octave displacements) and rapid exchange between right hand and left hands, the technical demands here are considerable. The issue is one of accuracy and the addition of extremely varied dynamics makes this a more difficult assignment. On occasion, some adjacent single notes must be played with different dynamics. In this, right and left hands are frequently required to cross, which increases the danger of inaccuracy. Rapid and precise sideways shifting of right and left hands is essential.

Accents on the weak beats

Example: Variation 2

This technique appears in classical piano music occasionally, such as in Chopin’s Etude Op. 25 No.3, Brahms’s Variations on a Theme of Paganini, book 1, variation 3, and the Two Romanian Dances of Bartók. However, Rzewski pushes the technique to the limit in this variation by virtue of the large leaps involved and also by alternating accents in right and left hands. A further complication is that Rzewski’s technique reverses the normal gravitational direction of accenting strong and weak notes. In this case, the weak beat is always louder, requiring a reversal of the physical action of the pianist’s hand and fingers. This means that energy has to be applied to what is normally a release action. Moreover, the entire variation consists of this reversal of the normal physical action.

There is also a connection between the appearance of the music and the difficulty caused by the displaced accents. One technique which I found useful is to mentally remove the bar lines (by taking the bar line away it doesn’t feel quite so
unnatural), or to mentally shift the bar lines to the right by the margin of a quaver (similar in effect to removal of the bar lines).

**Awkward fingering patterns**

Example: Variations 3, 4, 8 12 and 16

The most challenging passages in these variations is the passagework in semiquavers. These passages vary between duplets, quadruplets and sextuplets in both right and left hands, combining awkward fingerings and covering almost the entire keyboard. These variations are also extremely atonal in character, which makes relationships within the patterns of notes much harder to pin down. Without a tonal formula, the difficulty of these passages is increased several folds. The patterns therefore do not lie easily under the hand. An example from variation 3 will illustrate:

![Figure 1. Variation 3, bars 13-16 (circles and square not in the original)](image)

Some additional awkwardness relates to the large gaps between some notes (see squared section in bar 16). Often these are intervals greater than a fourth and therefore involve considerable extension and contraction of the hand to execute properly. When this is coupled with the extensive range of notes that is being utilized, the difficulty level becomes severe. It is imperative that the pianist avoid an unnecessary waste of energy and to this end the softer dynamic requirements are actually helpful. The gradual increase of dynamics to $f$ makes these passages progressively more testing. A further complication is the requirement for *legato*. Interspersed through this variation are the main melody notes usually written as crotchets or minims and passed freely from bass to treble clef and back again (see circles above).

This technique witnessed in these variations is not new: Bach, Beethoven, Chopin, Liszt and Rachmaninov all used the technique of a fixed part with a moving accompanying part. However, Rzewski’s design represents a substantial evolution of the technique because it involves greater difficulties than anything written by his predecessors and greater difficulties than most pianists will have previously encountered in any repertoire. This type of technical difficulty also appears in Rzewski’s *Winnisboro Cotton Mill Blues* (from *North American Ballads*).

**Coordination of pedacling and hands: Catching the resonance in the pedal**

Example: Variation 5

In variation 5, Rzewski requires the pianist to play *staccato*, but also to catch the resonance of each *staccato* note with pedal. Note that, although marked *staccato*, these notes are written as minims and semibreves with a *staccato* marking over the top. The fingers cannot leave each chord until the desired pedal effect has been activated. This requires a very cooperative effort between fingers and foot and must be practiced a great deal in order to make the technique reliable. The action of fingers and pedal does not happen synchronously; rather, the pedal must follow the action of the fingers at a very short distance. This is almost like a physical “echo effect”. If the pedalling occurs too early, the whole chord will be sustained instead of just its resonance. If it is too late, the resonance will have already disappeared. Such critical close coordination of fingers and foot can cause the pianist’s hands and arms to become tense and so practice of this technique requires not only the coordination to be mastered but must also be coupled with relaxation of the muscles. Another aspect of this technique is that each chord will have two sound qualities. This is because of the relative dynamic of the played chord ($f$), and the softness of the resonance when caught by the pedal ($p$). This layered effect is built in to this music and is always
marked in the score \( fp \) by Rzewski. The first is the real sound and the second is what can be called the resonance sound. Rzewski also takes care with the location of the pedal marking on the score and places it immediately to the right of each chord (see Figure 2 below). The same technique can be found in George Crumb’s *Makrokosmos Vol. II: Gargoyles* (Crumb, 1973).

**Figure 2.** Variation 5, bars 1-6

**Coordination of Pedalling:** gradually releasing the *una corda* pedal combined with extreme technical difficulty with repeated chords

**Example:** Variation 16

In the middle of this variation, Rzewski adds a new pedal skill, that of gradually releasing the “soft pedal” (*una corda*) to create a *crescendo* effect. In this instance, Rzewski has written a series of rapid chords in which he requires the dynamic level to increase from \( pp \) to \( ff \) and he clearly recognizes the difficulty this creates without the aid of the *una corda* pedal. A further consideration in the context of this moment in *The People United* is Rzewski’s recognition that the pianist will find it impossible to play this particular configuration of notes softly enough, particularly since there are many repeated notes contained within the chord sequence. The notes themselves constitute a great difficulty without the extra layer of *crescendo* which Rzewski requires. It is worth noting that Rzewski also indicates on the score that the pianist may “slow down if necessary”.

**Figure 3.** Variation 16, bars 11 and 12

It is helpful to the pianist to measure the gradual release of the *una corda* pedal, one useful way being to measure a slight raising of the pedal in increments of, say, eight demisemiquaver chords. Unless this or some similar approach is adopted, the pianist may find that the *una corda* pedal is fully released too soon to make the *crescendo* effective. Other ways of
measuring the incremental release of the *una corda* pedal could be equally effective. For example, a method which follows the musical contours of the outer notes in the right hand would make musical sense. The gradual “staging” of the release will require the pianist to develop, through practice, some idea of where, when and how much release will be necessary.

It is also relevant to mention that the sound quality is also transformed as the pianist releases the *una corda* pedal. The real nature of the *una corda* on a grand piano is to engage/disengage the resonance of one of the strings. The resultant sound is quite different, not only in volume but in quality as well.

The gradual engagement/disengagement of piano pedals is not unique to Rzewski. For example, George Crumb also uses the gradual depression/release of the piano pedal in *Makrokosmos Vol. II*, No. *1*, *Morning Music*. In this instance, Crumb uses the sustaining pedal to achieve a gradual transformation of sound quality and volume.

**The wide skips combined with 2 against 3**

Example: Variation 7

In this variation there is a serious difficulty for the pianist, partly because of the 2:3 ratio of notes but with a number of additional complications which Rzewski gives to the pianist. One of these additional difficulties is that the location in each bar of the syncopation between right and left hands continually shifts through the addition of quaver beats so that it is very easy for the pianist to become disoriented. Adding to this confusion is the fact that the duplet and triplet units are frequently passed from one hand to another. Finally, the pitches themselves incorporate wide skips which utilize the entire piano keyboard. This displaces the hands of the pianist (in a physical sense) and makes the rhythmic units even harder to master. Also, sometimes the triplets and duplets interact in such a way as to confuse the pianist even further (see bar 1, variation 7 left hand part). A solution which I came up with was to write by hand continuous semiquaver triplets and to play the notes of this variation against this visual pulse. The visual pulse then acts as a guide to prevent rhythmic inaccuracies in performance. The problem, in a nutshell, is that the performer needs always to know exactly where the pulse is located and Rzewski has built in a very strong temptation for the performer to shift the pulse around or to confuse pulse with division of pulse. One of the most significant discoveries that I have made as a result of preparing this music for concert performance is the idea that technical difficulties can relate directly to one’s inability to play in time and that rhythmic confusion can add greatly to one’s physical discomfort at the piano. Conversely, rhythmic security can assist the pianist to overcome other technical problems. Because of this, it is absolutely essential that the pianist solve the rhythmic difficulties as a first priority before tackling the problem of playing the correct notes. The rhythmic difficulties in variation 7 are at their greatest when there are fewer notes and more rests in the bar, such as in bars 1-6.

![Figure 4. Variation 7, bars 1 and 2 (with rhythmic guidelines added)](image)

From bar 17 the music becomes more disjointed in regard to the displacement of the notes all across the keyboard, and it is interesting to note that, at this point, Rzewski instructs the pianist to play “a little slower” to accommodate the wide skips with accuracy.

A final point relates to the need to maintain *legato* throughout (note Rzewski’s slur markings) even though the notes are often far too wide apart to enable the pianist to join the notes with the fingers alone. Pedal has to be used very sparingly here because of the atonal harmonic context of the music.
Soft playing for an extended period (PPP)

Example: Variation 9

In the first half of this variation the left hand chords repeat over and over a similar figure (each bar is subtly different) while the right hand plays an even more slowly unfolding part in which the chords themselves change. Because of the extremely soft dynamic levels, the technical requirement to play variation 9 successfully is to be able to play "inside the keys", that is, the fingers seldom leave contact with the keys so that the keys are depressed comparatively slowly.

Such soft dynamic levels are not uncommon in twentieth-century piano music, for example, the late piano works of the American composer Morton Feldman (Feldman, 1963). It is a relatively new (modern) piano skill to have whole sections of a work played at a continuously very soft dynamic level. Certainly, the assistance from the soft pedal is necessary and Rzewski indicates on the score to use the una corda pedal. An extreme example of extended soft dynamics is in the pppppppp of the Ligeti Etude No. 4 Fanfares, which I will also perform in my final recital.

Playing clusters and glissandi with the palm of the hand

Example: Variation 10

In variation 10, Rzewski makes a distinction apparently for musical reasons, between single note glissandi and glissandi involving multiple notes (clusters). Accordingly, sometimes the pianist's hand has to be turned over (glissando on finger nails) and sometimes it is the right way up so that the glissando is played with the palm. The musical effect of one method compared to the other is subtly different, which seems to be what the composer is seeking. The palm glissandi comprise between three- and five-note clusters and are extremely dramatic (see Figure 5 below, bar 2).

Figure 5. Variation 10, bars 1 and 2

In addition, bars 16 and 18 contain sudden palm clusters which explode from within the dramatic context of the music (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Variation 10, bars 15-18

Sections of this variation also contain rapid and extremely varied dynamic shifts, for example, in bars 9-11 (in Figure 7).
Slam keyboard lid, vocalization and whistle

Example: Variation 11 and 35

Rzewski used three “external-to-the-piano” techniques in this variation:

Slamming the keyboard lid (Variation 11) NB. referred to as a rifle shot by Ralph Van Raat (Raat, 2008).

Short vocal cry (Variation 11 & 35) NB. the syllable for this is not specified by Rzewski - in performance the writer chose the syllable ah!

Whistle (Variation 11 & 35) NB. the pitch is given by Rzewski.

Slamming the keyboard lid appears to be a technique unique to Rzewski in this work and could represent a rifle shot which might be heard in a revolution. George Crumb uses vocalizations and whistling in a number of his works, for instance, vocalization in Eleven Echoes of Autumn; whistling in Vox Balaenae (Voice of the Whale) (Crumb, 1972). As is the case with Makrokosmos Volumes I & II, in The People United, Rzewski seems to be adding to the colour spectrum of the piano, though in Rzewski’s case the use of these devices is quite momentary.

The use of these three techniques adds an element of theatricality to the music and although such devices are not common in the music of Rzewski, indicating perhaps a strong orientation towards purely musical effects in his music, it has to be said that the occasions on which they do occur are certainly very memorable from a theatrical standpoint.

“Slow down if necessary”

There are a number of instances in The People United where Rzewski invites the pianist to “slow down if necessary”. Examples of this can be found in variation 4, 7, 8 and 16. In each of these cases it appears that Rzewski is telling the performer that the musical detail is of paramount importance and that he doesn’t want his musical intentions obscured by inaccuracies or omissions on the part of the performer. This instruction to the performer tells us quite a lot about what Rzewski values in his own music and although it is music of extreme technical difficulty, Rzewski places a premium upon musical qualities. It might be argued that Rzewski is engaged in two pursuits simultaneously, one technical and the other musical and in laying out the work in the way that he has, he is enticing the performer to approach this music with equal emphasis upon the technical development and musical values.

The sudden burst together with interesting rhythmic organization

Example: Variation 17

Rzewski writes on the score “RH: freely, roughly as in space, LH: strictly”. He then added to the right hand part the comment “each phrase like a sudden burst”. For the first half of the variation the left hand is static while the right hand part has a varied number of notes per bar. These roles are later reversed, with the right hand taking on the static role while the left hand manipulates the rhythm.

However, when the music is looked at from a performance perspective, there is an additional difficulty which must be overcome. This is the problem of making a “sudden burst” of sound in the active part, while at the same time maintaining a fixed dynamic level in the other, more static part. There are also sudden accents marked in the active parts and these are problematic in performance, partly because the rapid tempo makes it difficult to achieve the extremes of dynamic contrast.
called for by Rzewski and partly because the other part (hand) must remain at a static dynamic level. The accents can really only be made by the fingers alone. The problem is also one of sudden physical tension and the equally sudden release of tension. The best way to achieve this, for example in the first half of this variation, where the prevailing dynamic is pp, is to start with both right hand and left hand perfectly relaxed and then practice making the accents and crescendo in the right hand while maintaining relaxation in the other hand. This takes a great deal of concentration so that any tension which occurs as a result of the accents and crescendo is quickly released in order to ensure that both hands and arms return immediately to a relaxed state. An additional layer of difficulty is found in the changes from legato to staccato. The addition of staccato alternating with legato reinforces the idea that staccato is really only a letting go of the note rather than a particular type of downward attack upon the note. Note also that pedal cannot be used in this variation because the continuous quaver parts are quite chromatic.

![Figure 8. Variation 17, bars 4–7](image)

The irregular staccato (fast tempo)

Example: Variation 19

As has been previously noted, variation 19 is the beginning of a new section which might equate to a development section in a sonata structure. Rzewski’s approach is to introduce different and new figurations at this point. This variation is also of considerable difficulty, which is brought about by a combination of fast tempo, a very wide range of notes that encompass the entire keyboard, staccato articulation and the placement of accents in odd places such as on the final quaver of a bar or on some other off-the-beat location. The fingering patterns in this variation are also extremely awkward. The music is always forte. The existence of the accents requires a very deliberate approach by the performer because although the overall dynamic is f, there has to be enough sound in reserve to enable the pianist to make the required accents strong enough.
This variation also requires that the performer develops an understanding of the fact that accents are not only made by the exertion of extra effort but equally are made possible by limiting to some extent the dynamic level of the surrounding notes. If one is going to have an accent on a certain note one must ensure that the surrounding notes are played in such a fashion that they do not obscure the accented note.

**Contrary-Motion and Rotation; Controlling Dynamics**

**Example: Variation 21**

This variation is written in a very regular way with the right and left hands doing exactly the opposite from one another. This emphasizes in a very physical way a continuous rolling action between the outer parts of each hand (third, fourth or fifth fingers) and the inner parts (thumbs). In order to achieve the right effect and to manage this variation without undue muscle fatigue, one must gain an understanding of the fact that there are limits to the amount of volume that can be produced by the individual notes. Rather, one must rely upon the cumulative effect that the notes in combination will produce (together with the pedal). In essence, the pianist should play it all between p and mf, according to the crescendo/decrescendo directions. The accents which are marked on the score require an additional rotation motion so that the keys of the piano where the accents occur are approached from well above the key itself. See Figure 10, below:

**Variety of dynamics combined with speed**

**Example: Variation 27**

The technical characteristic of this variation is that of quaver running passages in both hands but with an extreme range of dynamic change, such as from pp to ff. The basic finger position has to be on top of the keys so that the fingers maintain their contact with the key surface virtually all of the time. The pianist must then develop sufficient skill to produce the required louder dynamics by limiting the extent to which the fingers are allowed to move away from the surface of the keys. It is realized that the louder sounds are produced by lifting the fingers higher off the keys but the extent to which this is done must be strictly regulated by the pianist.

*Crescendi* and *diminuendi* must be incorporated as well, but the adjustment to the fingers to accommodate these dynamic changes must be subtle and not overdone. The atmosphere must be stormy as this variation (the longest of the entire work)
is the climax of the entire piece. To assist with achieving this effect, Rzewski also calls again for the una corda pedal to be used, instructing the performer to gradually release it for the dynamic shift from mp to f.

![Figure 11. Variation 27, bars 61-71](image)

**Summary**

The pianist David Burge has summarized *The People United Will Never Be Defeated* in the following words:

> Technically, the work is of paramount difficulty. The widespread arpeggios of variations 16 and 18, the Chopinesque sextuplets of variation 21 (marked, correctly, “uncompromising” by the composer), the fast, exposed triplets in variation 22 and 24, and the long double-note passage at the end of variation 27 demand complete pianistic skills (Burge, 1980).

For the author, the most challenging aspects of this work are:

- Extremely awkward fingering patterns (unnatural patterns that do not lie easily under the hand).
- Rapid chord playing such as on page 35.
- Wide skips that cover the entire piano keyboard and must be performed with accuracy.
- The stamina required to play a piece of this size and complexity.
- The difficulty of switching rapidly from one characteristic to another and from one keyboard technique to another.

However, Rzewski’s own video recording (Rzewski, 2008) of this variation represents an unusual phenomenon is that he never follows his own music markings during the performance. Perhaps this phenomenon shows that composer himself has absolute right to revise his composition under any circumstances. No matter what he does for this piece, there is nothing wrong with this master updating on the attractiveness of this variation.

**Acknowledgment**:

2018 Sichuan Provincial Department of Education Scientific Research Project (Humanities & Social Sciences General Project 18SB0788)

Proof reading: Professor Robert Constable
References


Motive for Social Justice and Students Activism at University Level

Eleonora Serafimovska
PhD, Senior Researcher/ Associate Professor, University Ss.Cyril and Methodius
Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical research

Marijana Markovikj
PhD, Senior Researcher/ Associate Professor, University Ss.Cyril and Methodius
Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical research

Abstract
Student organizations exist to protect the rights and interests of their members. Therefore, if they are organized into representative student governments, students can be a very influential agent who shapes the policy of higher education, and build themselves as democratic force in the society. The purpose of this study conducted by Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research (ISPJR), Skopje was to consider student activism at university level in light of social justice motive. The data show that components of social justice motive influence the activism in Student Organization but also certainly proved that educational system of the country has serious omissions and errors in developing responsible and active youth and the country has to invest in its students because good student organization, in addition to exercising rights, freedoms and needs, and engaging in improving students’ standard and their well-being, means investing in an active, efficient, motivated and democratic youth.

Keywords: Student activism, Student organization, Motive for Social Justice, Social Responsibility

Introduction
There are many good reasons to explore student activism, and the crucial one is that student activism have a potential to make influence on reforms at university level but also to start wider changes in national politics (Altbach, 1989).

In the most general and broadest sense, student activism or movements is student’s involvement in processes with the purpose, desire and need for specific or wider social change. Students, and youths in general have been involved in protests and movements for hundreds of years, organizing their peers and communities for progressive social change in a variety of areas around the world (Fletcher, 2005; Atlantic, 2015).

Student activism is so complex, multi-faceted phenomenon (Altbach 1991,p. 247), that modern student activist movements vary widely in subject, size, and success, with all kinds of students in all kinds of educational settings, and all races, socio-economic backgrounds, and political perspectives (Revoly, Atlantic International University, n.d). Student activists were ‘conscience of their generation’ (Altbach, 1992, p. 1444), they were leftist, democratic, environmentalist, young people who tend to respect equality (Altbach, 1991; 1992).

Student organizations represent only one kind, a segment of student activism and student organizing whose primary goal is to represent and defend the interests of the collective student body (Duke Law, n.d.).

It is not uncommon for student activism to associate with social justice. In the same broadest sense, ‘social justice is distribution of advantages and disadvantages within a society’ (Social Justice, n.d.), and can be ‘broadly understood as the fair and compassionate distribution of the fruits of economic growth’ (Social justice in an Open World, 2006). Other experts will sum the different approaches and say that social justice means not only “promotion the equal distribution of resources”, but also “empowerment and advocacy” (Niegocki et all, 2012). In the literature the social justice can be seen as “an ideal condition in which all members of a society have the same basic rights, protections, opportunities, obligations, and social
benefits” (Barker, 1995). These concept, no matter of scientific aspect always include relations between individual and society; always refers to the ‘overall fairness of a society in its divisions and distributions of rewards and burdens’ (Sociology Guide, n.d); always refers to the human rights, recognizes the dignity of every human being, and is based on the principles of equality and solidarity (Zajda et al, 2006); always encompasses economic justice and ‘imposes on each of us a personal responsibility to collaborate with others’ (CESJ, n.d.).

Although the discussion about the concept of social justice is maybe no appropriate any more in the era of contemporary globalization (Gindin, 2002), and seek for interdisciplinary interests and expertise if we want to operate with it (Banai et al, 2011), this paper has intention to explore this concept as a motive which can be understand as various obligations of the individual in her social environment, which include the tendencies to help others, to provide them with help and support in order to provide equal opportunities and conditions (Sheikh, 2014, p. 8).

Starting with the assumption that social justice motive as a personal resource exist and influence the human behavior, the assumption that student activists “tend to have a higher moral sense than their uninvolved peers” (Altbach 1991, p. 254), believing that students activism is antecedents of civic engagement and civic engagement is important for the individual and the communal well-being (Hope and Jagers, 2014), as well as believing in civic engagement maintains the viability of democratic society (Moore, Hope, Eisman, & Zimmerman, 2016) the focus of interest in this research is relation of social justice motive and student activism at University level.

**Motive for social justice**

In this paper the motive of social justice is considered as a segment of the model of moral motivation (Sheikh, 2014). In the base of this model are two distinctions in motivation: the first is distinction between tendency of approaching and tendency of avoiding. Tendency to approach is directed by a desirable outcome and simply means positive moral behavior - to do what is moral: what someone should do. Tendency to avoid is directed by a negative/undesirable outcome and simply means not to do what is immoral: what someone should not do. These two tendencies represent the concept of self-regulation and if individual has good self-regulation he/she will tend to behave in positive manner and to activate to do what is moral, and will tend to inhibit immoral behaviors (Janoff-Bulman and Sheikh, 2006); The second distinction in the model of moral motivation is the distinction between the self and the others, more precisely, personal and social responsibility. Individuals who have perceived the concept of responsibility will be able to understand which behavior include personal responsibility, and which social responsibility consequently. These concepts, “concept of self-regulation” and “concept of responsibility” constitute “Model of Moral Motivation” which can be understand as coordinate system with 4 cells: “Self-Restraint”, “Self-Reliance”, “Social Order”, and “Social Justice” (Sheikh, 2014, p. 6). The moral system of each person contains all these four motives to some degree, “Life experiences” and “unique socialization process” can “created a greater focus on one or more motives in each individual” (Sheikh, 2014, p. 6).

**Figure no.1 2 x 2 Model of moral motivation**

Considering that the student organization is a formal organization where students tend to organized themselves to protect the rights and interests of all their members, motivation for social justice is seen as possible motivator for student activism and participation in such an organization. The Social Justice motive as it was defined in this model of moral motivation means “motivation to provide for others and to help others in the community advance, and is associated with efforts to insure greater economic and material support, often involving matters of opportunity, income and equity” (Sheikh, 2014, p. 8-9).

**Student activism at the university level**

One of the dimensions of student activism is that at university level and this kind of activism is nearly as old as the university itself (Revoly, Atlantic International University). The first breakthroughs in student organization can be perceived in the Middle Ages when the University of Bologna developed a model of “University of Students”, where students organized in the so-called guilds (Klemenčič, 2012) had control over their studies. There was a “rector student” who together with the pro-rectors decided on the level of fees, sanctions for professors who had not completed their duties on time such as disregarding the lectures timetable (Živković, Mirchevska, Galevski, Božović, and Aleksoski, 2015).

This demonstrates that students have been fighting for student organization hundreds of years ago, participating in decision making and advocating for their rights. In XIX and XX century, student movements became more frequent and they were
an expression of student autonomous critical thought, which meant interest in issues of political and social-economic character. Many of these student movements merged into formal student organizations later, including parliaments. Today some of them represent a symbol of student organization with the main goal of struggle for defending, protecting and expanding students' rights and interests (Youth Educational Forum, 2016). The modern roots of the student presentation are reflected in the events that marked the process of democratization of universities in the 60th and 70th years of the 20th century when students are involved in decision-making processes at universities as well as in the emergence of managerialism in the academic sphere (Luascher-Mamashela, 2013; De Boer and Stensaker, 2007; Luescher-Mamashela, 2010).

As a member of the academic community, today the student has the opportunity to be active and participate in all governing bodies of the University and be responsible for making decisions on important matters in higher education, such as curriculums, financing, research projects, etc. Students should be relevant partners in the academic community and with their constructive ideas and solutions contribute to the promotion of the higher education institution and the University in accordance with the Bologna Declaration. With the help of student organization, the students develops a critical and democratic thought; they are better aware of the democratic mechanisms and thus forms themselves as an active and responsible citizens of their own country (Youth Educational Forum, 2016).

There are many modalities of student participation and many arguments why the inclusion of students in management is justified (Luascher-Mamashela, 2011), but regardless of their versatility and number and systematization in different ways, nevertheless the ultimate goal of student participation in the decision-making processes through the student organization should be the influence in making decisions primarily on issues and topics of their interest, that is, influence in the process of creating University policies (Youth Educational Forum, 2014). Although student organizations exist in variety of forms, in the base they are specific “system of rules and norms”, “they function as governments” and are quite effective (Klemenčič, 2014, p. 396). The student organizations can be also seen as “political institutions” in the sense that they are intermediaries of collective student interests to higher education bodies and/or in the wider political sense. Namely, in addition to the professional function, student governments around the world “provide a framework for student and political activity in the academic environment”. (Klemenčič, 2014, p. 396).

There are several studies on student participation in decision-making processes in Macedonia and these are part of the research of more general youth participation in decision-making processes, youth activism in the Republic Macedonia, and more specifically, student organization (Youth Educational Forum, 2014). The data speak that the young people in Macedonia are not at all proactive and initiative; they are not at all involved in decision-making at both local and national level neither practically nor theoretically know their right to participate in decision-making processes; they are not believing in the student organization and almost do not see such organizations as advocates of their rights; the youth perceive the student organizations as deeply politicized working in the interests of the political parties that are in power and who support them (Youth needs and youth organization in the Republic of Macedonia, 2010). All these conclusions justify the research interest.

**Method**

The Institute for Sociological, Political and Juridical Research (ISPJR)-Skopje in May 2017 conducted research titled “UCM Students Perception of Their Organization and Representation”. This paper is focused on only one aspect of the students perception of their organization and the research interest in this study moved around the three questions: How many students are involved in the activities of the student organization (work of bodies/commissions, participation in elections)?; How developed is the motive of social justice of students? and How motive of social justice of students is related to the involvement, the inclusion of students in the student organization? Moreover, the assumption in this article moves towards the motive for social justice as a predictor of the participation in the student organization.

**Sample**

The study was conducted on 669 students from the State University “Ss Cyril and Methodius” (UCM). Quota sample was designed in the first phase of the research and convenience sampling in the second (field) phase. Boys were 33.2% and girls were 62.8%. Students from all faculties were involved in the study: the biggest percentage (17.2) were from Faculty of Economic, 12% were from Low Faculty and 9.7% from Faculty of Philosophy. All students voluntary participate in the study and fulfill the research instruments in approximately 30 minutes.
Instruments

The measuring instrument for this study was consisted of two parts. One part contained Questionnaire on student activism (operationalized as participation in the Student Organization—the student representative body at the University “Ss Cyril and Methodius”). This questionnaire was consisted of 18 questions distributed in three areas, with the first area referring to the participation of students in the activities and bodies of the Student Organization, the second area referring to the reasons for participation, i.e. non-participation of students, and the third one concerning the students perception of the ways, possibilities and obstacles for student participation in the Student Organization. The first area covered several questions about participation (inclusion) of students in the activities organized by the Student Parliament of the Faculty (SPF) or the Student Parliament of UCM (SPUCM), participation in the work of some SPF or SPUCM body, participation in voting for representatives in SPF, participation in SPF and SPUCM presidential polls, addressing of students to SPF or SPUCM representatives regarding some problem or issue of interest to students, participation in other formal or informal domestic and international student associations.

The other part contained Scale for Social Justice Motive as part of the Moralism Scale¹ (Sheikh, 2014). Each item is actually a short scenario in which the actor/s decide/s whether to engage in a particular behavior. Respondents are asked to answer two questions about each scenario. First question is about extent to which respondents view the scenario to be a matter of personal preference. This rating is part of so called “Moralism Preference subscale” and is from 1 (“not at all a matter of personal preference”) to 9 (“completely a matter of personal preference”). Second question is about extent to which respondent believe the actor in the scenario should or should not perform the behavior. This rating is part of so called “Moralism Evaluation subscale” and is from 1 (“feel very strongly he/she should not”) to 9 (“feel very strongly he/she should”) (Sheikh, 2014, p.15).

Since the assumption was that the motive for social justice is the one in relation with student’s activism, only those 6 scenarios (from total 24) which examine what person should do in promotion a moral, just society were extracted.

Results

The reliability analysis for the two subscale of Social Justice Motive scale was performed first and showed that the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients for Moralism Preference was 0.85 and for Moralism Evaluation was 0.70. The obtained range (and theoretical) of the sum of the types of ratings (Moralism Preference and Moralism Evaluation) is from 6 to 54, with M=46,16 for the first type and M=38.58 for the second type of rating.

The next step was to place the participants in the coordinative system which represent ratings on Moralism Preference and Evaluation. In upper left side are the persons who have tendency to do what is good and socially desirable and they understanding the concept of social responsibility, and this is probably the most desirable place in this coordinative system and assumed motivator for student activism at university level. Percentages of the respondents according the two types of ratings are showed below.

Figure no.2 Frequencies and percentages of respondents in the Social Justice coordinate system

Figure no. 2 shows that majority of students (59.3) are in the right upper corner. These students do have a tendency to do what is good and socially desirable, but they still do not understand the concept of social responsibility; 5.3% of the students are in down right corner where is the place for those who neither have tendency to do what is good and socially desirable, neither understand the concept of social responsibility. In the desirable left upper corner are only 3.1%. The same percentage is in down left where is the place for those who do have tendency to do what is good and socially desirable but do understand the concept of social responsibility. The remaining 29.3% of the students are in the neutral zone², zone in the middle of the coordinate system with no extreme ratings of the subscales.

Student participation in the activities and bodies of the Student Organization

¹ Scale is a 24-item scale that incorporates items representing each of the four cells of the proposed model of moral motivations: Self-Restraint, Self-Reliance, Social Order and Social Justice.

² The scale is 9 point Likert scale and from >4 and <6 is considered as neutral zone by the authors. Retrospectively the neutral zone in sum on both scales is from >25 to <35.
Regards the participation (inclusion) of students in the Student Organization, or, more specifically, the first area regarding the participation of students in the activities and bodies of the Student representative organization and how much this kind of participation is determined by the Moralism Preference and Moralism Evaluation⁠¹, the following results were obtained.

Table no.1 percentage and predictors for participation of students in the Student Organization

Generally speaking percentage of students who participate in activities and bodies of the Student Organization (SPF, SPUCIM and other formal and informal organization and association) are extremely low. Still, the highest participation is on the First level (level with a lowest degree of involvement) which means addressing of students to SPF or SPUCIM representatives about a problem or issue of students’ interest, and the lowest participation is on the Fourth level (level with a highest degree of involvement): participation in the work of some of the bodies/organs of the SPF/SPUCIM. It means that students are somehow active only as a student which sick for answers from student organization, but not as member of that organization. Talking about the predictors of students participation in the activities and bodies of the Student Organization the data show that the Moralism Preference dimension is a predictor of student participation in the work of some of the SPF bodies, addressing of students to SPF representatives about a problem or a matter of interest to students, as well as membership in informal associations of students in the foreseen direction. Namely, it was assumed that individuals who understand the concept of social responsibility are more likely to pursue and be involved in the Student Organization and thus contribute to the realization of the rights of all students. And, the data, although not in all levels, show exactly the same: individuals who have adopted the concept of social responsibility for certain procedures are more active and involved in the Student Organization.

As for the dimension Moralism Evaluation, it can be said that it is the predictor of voting for the SPF representatives, the students’ addressing to SPF representatives regarding a problem or a matter of interest to students, and membership in other formal associations of students from UCM in this direction: the desire to do what is socially desirable is a predictor of the vote for representatives in the SPF, while the absence of such a tendency is a predictor of students’ addressing to SPF representatives, as well as a predictor of membership in some other formal domestic student organizations, outside the formal representative organization at UCM.

Reasons for participation and non-participation

Apart from the participation or non-participation of the students, it was interesting to see the reasons students indicate for non-participation, as well as participation in the Student Organization, and what is their relation to the two dimensions of the motive for social justice separately. First table show the data about reasons for non-voting.

Table no. 2 Beta value of how strongly each predictor variable influences the student’s reasons for non-participation

If we disregard the percentage of students who didn’t have a student status when elections were held, then it is clear that the main reason for not voting is the lack of information on the election date. Students simply did not have information on when specific elections took place. But it is interesting to see how the two dimensions of the social justice motive are separately related to certain reasons. Students who understand the concept of social responsibility will be those who do not want to go to the polls because they think they will change nothing. Students who do not have the tendency to do what is socially desirable and morally expected are the same people who would not vote even if they knew there would be voting. They are the same people who do not want to vote if they know that will not change anything. Lastly, it is also expected that those students with a tendency to behave in a socially desirable manner are those who would vote if they knew about the voting.

The table below presents the main reasons for participating in the Student Organization. It shows clearly what reasons the students point to.

Table no.3 Beta value of how strongly the predictor variable influences the student’s perception of student’s participation

⁠¹ Starting from the data from Figure no.3, which clearly showed that the respondents are concentrated only in one corner of the coordinate system, and that is, they are grouped only in one of the four groups in relation to the motive for social justice, all further processing was done with the two individual scales (separately) which determine the motive: Moralism Preference and Moralism Evaluation (with one-predictor regression model).
The majority of students from UCM think that personal motivation is the main reason for their participation in the decision-making processes on issues important for student life, followed by the manner in which they are organized, as well as the party affiliation. Regarding whether the dimensions of the motive of social justice determine the perception of the reasons for participation in the Student Organization, it can be said that only the dimension of Moral Preference is related, and only when it comes to personal motivation as a reason for participation. Namely, as expected, those students who have not adopted the concept of social responsibility will more often emphasize personal motivation as the main reason for participation in the Student Organization.

**Obstacles, ways and opportunities for participation**

In this part concerning the perception of students about the ways, opportunities and obstacles for participation in the Student Organization, several questions were posed. The first concerned the students’ perception of the degree in which they view their participation in the decision-making process at the faculty/university. The second question was about the perception of what constitutes an obstacle for students to enter the decision-making process at the faculty/university level. And, the third question was about the students’ perception of the legal possibility of starting student initiatives, petitions and requests, regardless of the students’ representatives in SPF or SPUCM.

The following table demonstrates how the perception of obstacles, ways and opportunities for participation is related to both the Moral Preference and the Moral Evaluation dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4 Correlation coefficient for Moral Preference/Evaluation and student's perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The Moralism Preference dimension (which is an indicator of the acceptance of the social responsibility concept) is related to the perception of students about the legal possibility of starting student initiatives, petitions, requests independently from SPF or SPUCM representatives in direction that students more focused on themselves and not having adopted the concept of social responsibility are those who think they should have this legal possibility. The Moralism Preference dimension is also related to the perception of the degree in which students participate in the decision-making process at the faculty/university: socially responsible are those who consider that students do not participate at all in the decision-making process at the faculty/university. Furthermore, both dimensions that determine the motive for social justice are in relation to the perception of obstacles for students to enter the decision-making process at the University: non adoption of social responsibility concept, as well as the tendency to do what is socially desirable are related to the perception that ‘internal’ factors, such as the lack of interest by students and the not-knowing of the ways of acting, and not the ‘external’ ones (like revanchism of professors, lack of results, involvement of political parties) or ‘technical’ ones (like lack of time) being considered as obstacles for the participation in the decision-making processes at faculties/universities.

**Discussion**

The data show several important findings. The first general conclusion is that on the motivation scale for social justice, more precisely on two subscales Moralism Preference and Moralism Evaluation UCM students show tendency to behave in a socially desirable and moral manner, but they still do not have adopted the concept of social responsibility and do not realize that concrete socially desirable behavior does not concern only them. This can be discussed in terms of cognition and behavior, or cognitive and behavioral level. It can be assumed that Moralism Preference scale show how each person adopt the concept of social responsibility and mean knowing (on cognitive level) which behavior means social responsibility. Moralism Evaluation scale shows how, in what degree person think that should behave in social desirable manner, and it is more on behavioral level. For fully developed social justice motive probable would be necessary: adopted concept of social responsibility (on cognitive level) but also behavioral tendency for doing what is right and moral. The reasons for partially developed motive for social justice can be numerous, but they certainly need to be sought in the education system, the long-lasting and painful transition process, as well as the cultural patterns and codes.

Actually, each individual society represent a specific framework (in political, social and cultural terms) for perceiving mutual relations as just or unjust, and, each society has its own definition of what will be perceived, considers as just, how it will be measured, and how it will be discussed. (Social Justice in an Open Word, 2006). And, since the students, and we believe the youth in general in the Macedonian society have developed only one aspect of social justice motive - behavioral, and have not developed the conceptual aspect of social justice - understanding social responsibility, and because this undoubtedly has a connection primary with the national context and circumstances, all the efforts have to be in line with facts that social justice and social responsibility can be develop, teach, promote, advocate. Useful facts from numerous
research which can be helpful in this process are that social responsibility is related with voluntarism (Rodriguez and Gutierrez, 2010); awareness of social justice can be increased throughout: “the graduate training curriculum”, “reflective practice” (which means “critical examination of personal assumptions, values, and biases, and to challenge those that limit or impede our and others’ potential.”), critical analysis, integration of “multiculturalism in training program”, formal and informal opportunities to develop knowledge, awareness, and skills for social justice competency in the school settings (Brady-Amon et al, 2012); social responsibility can be developed “through reading and discussions” and “encouraging community service” (Zaleskienė et al, 2012), and more through “networking”, “social innovation didactics” (students’ engagement in a series of steps to locate, critique and raise awareness of good local case studies about sustainable living and stewardship of the social environment) and “active citizenship approaches” (Zaleskienė and Daly, 2014). We also have to be aware that social justice and social responsibility are not monolithic concepts and the main distinction between them is that social justice is anthropocentric (human-centered) and social responsibility is eco-centric (ecosystem-centered) (The Difference between Social Responsibility and Social Justice, 2014).

The second general conclusion was about student activism, participation on University level. In this research, several levels of participation were envisaged according to the degree of student involvement in their formal organization. The data showed that highest percentage of student participates on the first level, and the lowest percentage is on fourth level (level with a highest degree of involvement): participation in the work of some of the bodies/organ of the SPF/SPUCIM. It means that students if there are active they are so only as a student which sick for answers from student organization, but not as member of that organization: they are “out” of organization not “in” organization. Even these levels would not been constructed the general conclusion is the same: student activism at university level is very low- the majority of student very rarely engage in their representative bodies and Governments. This fact is proven wider actually (Klemenčić, 2014, p. 399). The reasons are sought in “heterogeneity of the student body” in terms of diversity in social background, age, and ethnicity. This contemporary trends and processes can lead to passivity of student organization and “inability to establish a single collective student identity” (Klemenčić, 2014, p. 399). “Students have only formal decision-making power but lack effective influence on the decision-making process important for them” (Klemenčić, 2014, p. 406).

Obviously, in Macedonia there must be “democratization of universities - reconstructing the decision making process in the universities by involving students as real constituent elements” (Luescher-Mamashela, 2013, p.1443). Students must be active and participative member of educational community and Universities must grow in “sites of democratic citizenship” (Luescher-Mamashela, 2013, p.1446-1451), true temples of democracy because Universities are important institutions not only for the education but also as a institutions which prepare young people for participation in decision making processes so they can grow up in agent of positive social change who will fight for social justice (Ropers-Huilman, Carwile, Lee, Barnett, 2003; Jacoby, 2017).

And, although there are reasonable differences in student activism in developed and less developed countries (Altbach, 1984), the type of relationship between student leaders and political parties influences the type and manner of representing student interests in higher education (Luescher-Mamashela and Taabo Mugume, 2014, p. 510), and students in Macedonia as well as in all other Third World countries are expected to be the “conscience” of educated people in society (Altbach, 1992, p. 142), yet our obligation as professors is to “help students to see themselves not only as problem identifiers but also as problem solvers” (Jacoby, 2017, p. 4), not only to build Universities as “safe spaces” but Universities as “brave spaces for expression of conflicting views” (Jacoby, 2017, p. 5) and they should serve as “participative spaces where students learn, through example and practice, democratic principles and how these principles can be applied to different real-life situations” (Planas, Soler, Fullana, Palliserà, Vila, 2011). “We should embrace student activism along with service-learning and other forms of civic engagement as means to develop our students’ civic agency and to encourage their lifelong democratic engagement” (Jacoby, 2017, p. 7). Only in democratic societies educational institutions are the ones that help youth to learn the necessary knowledge, but also the values and skills for active participation in social processes (Macgillivray, 2005, p. 320).

The third conclusion considered the relation and the predictability of the motive for social justice in terms of student activism at university level: students who understand the concept of social responsibility at the cognitive level in comparison with those who do not understand the same concept will be more participative at all levels of involvement, whether it means involvement as “out-of-group”, or involvement as part of the working bodies; they will not want to vote if they know that they will not change anything which probably mean that they understand and refuse “formal participation” (to vote just to vote); and they are aware that most students do not really participate in decision-making processes. Those who have the
tendency to do socially desirable and moral acts will be active only in terms of "real" participation (high level of involvement), primarily at the "local level" - within their faculty; They will vote if they are informed about that; they will not reject "formal participation" and will see the "internal factors" as the main obstacles to non-participation.

And, above all not to forget the cyclical nature of this process: we can develop social justice and social responsibility, developing social justice and social responsibility will increase student activism (data from this research) and developed universal values together with sense of coherence and social responsibility will have impact on civic action and civic efficacy (Lewensohn, 2016). But engagement in civic and social action will enhance feelings of 'social justice' and responsibility respectively (Youniss et al., 1997 in Lewensohn, 2016). So, all our steps in this direction must be well prepared so University could became "a geographic and socio-cultural milieu that promotes the inclusion of diverse perspectives and social justice" (Brady-Amon et al, 2012, p. 92).

References


[56] Youth Educational Forum. (2016). The work and functionality of student parliaments at the Faculties of the University of St. Cyril and Methodius. (original: Младински Образовен Форум. Работата и функционирането на студентските парламенти на Факултетите на Универзитетот Св.Кирил и Методиј). https://issuu.com/youtheducationalforum/docs/analiza_publikacija2_6_1


---

**Tables**

Table no.1 Percentage and predictors for participation of students in the Student Organization-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of participation</th>
<th>Student’s specific behaviors</th>
<th>Percent of respondents who said “Yes”</th>
<th>Morality Preference as predictor</th>
<th>Morality Evaluation as predictor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First level:</td>
<td>Addressing to SPF/SPUCIM</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>B=-0.036**</td>
<td>B=-0.023*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

184
| Second level: Inclusion activities | Inclusion in some activities organized by SPF and/or SPUCIM | 10.3 | Non significance | Non significance |
| Third level: Voting | Voting for representatives in SPF | 9.1 | Non significance | B=0.050** |
| | Voting for SPF president | 6.7 | Non significance | Non significance |
| | Voting for SPUCIM President | 6.0 | Non significance | Non significance |
| Forth level: Participation in the work of some of the bodies/ organs of the SPF/SPUCIM | Participation in the work of some of the bodies/ organs of the SPF | 2.8 | B=-0.090* | Non significance |
| | Participation in the work of one of the bodies/ organs of SPUCIM | 0.7 | Non significance | Non significance |
| Special level: Membership in other formal/informal domestic/ international/ Organization/association besides SPUCIM | Membership in other formal domestic student organizations | 4.5 | Non significance | B=0.067* |
| | Membership in other formal international student organizations | 6.3 | Non significance | Non significance |
| | Membership in domestic informal associations of students | 12.9 | B=-0.038* | Non significance |

**p<0.05  
**p<0.01

Table no.2 Beta value of how strongly each predictor variable influences the student’s reasons for non-participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for non-voting</th>
<th>Percentage of students who say YES for voting for SPF representatives (1)</th>
<th>Percentage of students who say YES for voting for SPF President (2)</th>
<th>Percentage of students who say YES for voting for SPUCM President (3)</th>
<th>Moralism Preference as predictor for three voting (1,2,3)</th>
<th>Moralism Evaluation as predictor three voting (1,2,3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was not a student then, otherwise I would have voted</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if I were a student when there was voting, I would not have voted</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not want to vote since I won’t change anything</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>B(1)=0.057** B(2)=0.039* B(3)=0.054*</td>
<td>B (1)=0.046* B (2)=0.060* B (3)=0.051*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to vote, but I know that I will not change anything</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not know that there was a vote, but even if I knew I would not vote</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>B (1)=0.059** B (2)=0.046* B (3)=0.049*</td>
<td>B (1)= -0.029* B (2)= -0.025* B (3)= -0.028*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I knew when the voting was, I would have voted</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I did not vote for other reasons  | 7.1 | 6.9 | 7.5 | Non significance
Total  | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0

*p<0.05
**p<0.01

Table no.3 Beta value of how strongly the predictor variable influences the student's perception of student's participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question: Students' participation in decision-making processes on issues important for student life mainly depends on which of the following?</th>
<th>Percent of respondents who say YES</th>
<th>Moralism Preference as predictor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On the personal motivation of the students</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>B=-0.059**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the way they are organized</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the party affiliation of the students</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the unity of students when presenting something</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the argumentation and clarity of students' demands</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the level of communication with professors</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05
**p<0.01

Table no.4 Correlation coefficient for Moral Preference/Evaluation and student's perception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students perception for Degree to which students participate in the decision making process of the faculty/university</th>
<th>Percentage of students to answers</th>
<th>Moral Preference</th>
<th>Moral evaluation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For all questions</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For large number of questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For small number of questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For none of the questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Levels of participations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstacles</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Revanchisme by the professors</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r=-0.120**</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinterest by most students</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of results</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r=-0.119**</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of time</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r=-0.222**</td>
<td>Non significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not knowing of the possibilities and ways of acting</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overwhelming involvement of political parties</td>
<td>83.6</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Obstacles
Figure no.1: 2 x 2 Model of moral motivation

```
MODEL OF MORAL MOTIVATION

Realm of Responsibility
  - Personal responsibility
  - Social responsibility

Self-Regulation
  - Tendency for avoidance
  - Tendency for approaching

Self-Restraint
  - Social Order

Self-Reliance
  - Social Justice
```

(Source: Shaikh, 2014, p. 32 Figure 1)

Figure no.2: Frequencies and percentages of respondents in the Social Justice coordinate system

- There is a tendency to do what is good and socially desirable/there is understanding of social responsibility:
  - Middle Zone: 3.1%
  - Both zones: 3%

- There is no tendency to do what is good and socially desirable/there is NO understanding of social responsibility:
  - Middle Zone: 3.0%
  - Both zones: 3%

- There is tendency to do what is good and socially desirable/there is NO understanding of social responsibility:
  - Middle Zone: 29.3%

**p<0.01

r=-0.131**

Non significance

51

7
The Ins and Outs of Teamworking: When University Teachers, in-Service Secondary Teachers and Pre-Service Teachers Collaborate to Transform Learning

Dolors Masats
Paula Guerrero
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

Abstract

Initiatives for teachers' professional development should rely on the epistemology of practice, that is, be founded on the premise that reflective teachers construct professional knowledge and develop professional skills through practice and through planning, observing or analysing practice. Reflection about teaching action and reflection in teaching action triggers innovation, especially when teachers work together to create the necessary conditions to transform learning. This paper advocates in favour of collaborative action research and innovation as a methodology to promote change in classroom practices. To illustrate this proposal, it presents a case study in which a secondary English teacher from a school which hosts adolescents at risk opens her classrooms to a researcher and a group of pre-service teachers with the objective to reflect upon her own practices and to become an agent of change. Our corpus is made of natural audio-recorded data from the discussions emerging during focus-group sessions held to evaluate the ongoing innovation and interviews to participating secondary students and trainee teachers. The analysis of those interactions will first lead us to reflect upon the challenges of promoting change in the classrooms. Then it will allow us to understand the impact of the experience and argue in favour of a model of teacher education based on team work as a tool to acquire professional skills and guarantee students' learning success.

Keywords: innovation, professional development, teacher empowerment, teamworking, secondary education

1. Introduction

Studies conducted by EU policy makers (see for example, Council of Europe, 2015), among others, relate competences in foreign language with good rates of youth employability at both national and international levels. Research also highlights that there is a wide achievement gap in educational outcomes between affluent and low-income students (see, for example, Reardon, 2011). The confluence of these results indicates that, to make a significant contribution towards a more socially just education, efforts need to be made to favour the development of foreign language communication skills of socioeconomically underprivileged youth to guarantee they have more equitable job opportunities in the future.

In Catalonia, English competency evaluations of secondary students administered by national educational authorities at the end of the compulsory education period (students aged 15-16) provide reliable information about how well-prepared young people are to participate successfully in communicative situations conducted in this language. Results confirm the existence of an achievement gap between students in schools sited in rich areas and students from schools in poor areas. Tests scores should undoubtedly serve to orient both policy makers and educators towards the kind of actions they need to take to maintain positive scores in those educational establishments in which students outperformed the country's overall performances; however, they should also trigger all educational stakeholders to act to improve (and reverse) low scores, especially in poor areas.

The students in the two high schools of a socioeconomically underprivileged town sited in the outskirts of the city of Barcelona (Catalonia) tend to obtain significant low performance scores in all school areas in this annual national test. Consequently, the school governing bodies in those two institutions feel there is an evident need for revision of their teaching approaches. With this in mind, they are currently working in collaboration with social and educational professionals from a nearby university to innovate. The research project presented here departs from the groundwork established through
this joint work and is founded on the belief that significant teaching innovation necessary to improve the students results in English is only possible through initiatives that empower in-service teachers and helps them become true agents of transformative language education practices. Thus, the research project will serve as a means to trigger changes in classroom practices through the creation of collaborative teaching teams formed by members of the research group, teachers already exercising their profession in the two high schools involved and student-teachers. Thus, by combining the principles of ‘collaborative research’ and of ‘action research’, they will all work together in the design of technology-based innovative language teaching projects. Data collected during the focus groups devoted to the design of those interdisciplinary projects or to the evaluation of their implementation will serve to examine the whole process.

In this paper we want to explore how participants (in-service and pre-service teachers, researchers and secondary students) reflect upon classroom practice and if their views on what they do indicate that they see change as a positive methodology to empower the agents (and the receivers) of changes. First, we will present and discuss, from a theoretical point of view, the principles of what we refer to as ‘collaborative action research and innovation’ (Masats et al, in process). Then we will contextualise our study and analyse natural oral data obtained during team meetings. We want to see how reflection in a collaborative context can transform thinking and one’s own teaching practices. By doing so, we expect to contribute to the development of a model of teacher education that nourishes the joint work of researchers, in-service teachers and pre-service teachers to promote reflective practice and to ensure the development of professional skills as a tool to guarantee students’ learning success, in this case, in English.

2. Collaborative action research and innovation

Burnard, Apelgren and Cabaroglu (2015) argue that the knowledge generated by teachers when involved in activities of reflective practice improves their students’ degree of learning. Consequently, to improve students’ performance, it is essential to promote the empowerment of teachers. Empowerment is ‘a core value and developmental process that includes building skills through repetitive cycles of action and reflection that evoke new skills and understandings which, in turn, provoke new and more effective actions (Kieffer, 1984, cited in Cohen, Chávez & Chehimi, 2007). It is also a social action that promotes participation to gain control over one’s lives through acting with others to generate change (Wallenstern and Bernstein, 1988). In the field of education, the notion of empowerment relates to the concept of awareness as described by Freire (1973); that is, empowerment brings together three dimensions: (1) the personal (self-confidence and consciousness of own capabilities); (2) the relational (ability to negotiate the nature of a relationship and modify it) and (3) the collective (ability to collaborate to multiply the effectiveness of initiatives (Rowlands, 1997)).

Initiatives for teachers’ professional development should promote interaction to be effective (Wenger, McDermott & Snyder, 2002) as change can only stem from knowledge inherent to practice through processes of reflection on teaching practice and about teaching action (Engeström, 2001; Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Critical reflection “blends learning through experiences with theoretical and technical learning to form new knowledge constructions and new behaviours or insights” (Shandomo, 2010, p. 101). The adoption of this perspective places research on the interactionist paradigm, derived from Vygotskian’s views on the socio-cultural theory which argue that interaction and cognition are indissolubly linked through socially located verbal activity. Consequently, competencies, in general, are context sensitive, and, therefore, adaptable (Mondada and Pekarek Doehler, 2004; Nusbaum, Escobar and Unamuno 2006). In this context, the development of professional competences does not only relate to what teachers do in their classrooms but on how they view what they do. Collaborative research, related to Freire’s collective dimension of awareness plays a key role along this process.

Collaborative research in the field of education as described by Nussbaum (2017) is framed within the principles of action-research (Lewin, 1946) and understood as a process of reflecting upon teaching practices with the objective of improving them. This process is cyclic and develops through different stages. First, teaching teams observe classroom dynamics or examine their own practices and identify challenges. Then they seek answers to resolve those challenges by designing collaborative classroom projects and educational activities which they will later implement together. Finally, they will analyse and discuss their intervention, and identify new challenges. Innovation is inherent to the adoption of this type of collaborative research, which we will refer to as ‘collaborative action research and innovation’ (Masats et al, in process). Both innovation and research that innovative action is carried out by teams composed by in-service teachers and researchers, whose members co-plan, co-implement and co-evaluate an educational innovative intervention to improve classroom practices and co-construct new knowledge on how learning takes places. This process often entails other actions such as co-collecting, and co-interpreting data obtained during the processes of planning, implementing and evaluating change; and co-authoring texts to disseminate the results of their intervention.
This model of introducing change in schools has, according to Nussbaum (2017), two key advantages. On the one hand, researchers can, along with in-service teachers, acquire teaching experience, contrast theory and practice and obtain ideas for new research. On the other hand, teaching teams can, together with researchers, share concerns and reflections about classroom practices. Consequently, in-service teachers and researcher are both expert members of the same community of practice. The notion of community of practice, of anthropological origin, explains the success and failure as a process of exclusion/inclusion in a group. Success in collaborative action research and innovation is guaranteed because teachers and researchers have the same rights within the community of practice they jointly create, which avoid traditional hierarchical processes of conducting research at schools not well-accepted by teachers (Unamuno, 2004). Likewise, this collaborative model of knowledge construction has also benefits for the training of pre-service teachers.

Research shows that the paradigm Schön (1983) refers to as ‘technical rationality’, based on a process of knowledge transmission rather than on a process of knowledge building does not result in sustained improvements in educational practice. To be effective, pre-service teacher training proposals should depart from the need to include them in existing collaborative community of practices. In this case pre-service teachers are ‘newcomers’ who, through a process of socialization, acquire expertise to participate in community-based practices. The mission of the expert is to provide the ‘newcomer’ with legitimate access to the community practices (Lave, 1991). But learning is not hierarchical as the participation of teams formed by expert teachers and researchers is also modified thanks to the presence of non-expert teachers, as the former learn new ways of teaching and new ways of participating during the process of adapting their mediating role to the needs of the latter (Mondada and Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Wilhem, Baker and Dube, 2001).

Collaborative action research and innovation puts forward the collaborative model between schools and educational faculties proposed by Tsui (2009). The authors described the practices of collaborative practicum centres, called Professional Development Schools in their study, characterised by the fact that trainee teachers were welcome to participate in the school research and innovation projects. Collaborative action research in teacher training programs (see Masats et al., 2007; Dooly and Masats, 2007; González et al., 2008, among others) has also had an impact on transforming classroom practices, on constructing know-how knowledge and on the development of participants’ professional competences. On the one hand, future teachers learn through practice ‘to become a teacher’, on the other hand, in-service teachers can, through the processes of planning, implementing and evaluation classroom projects, improve their performance in the task of ‘being a teacher’ and, lastly, researchers, by getting closer to the reality of the schools and the needs of students, they learn how to conduct research that can contribute to innovate in schools. Figure 1 illustrates this idea:

![Figure 1. The collaborative action research model (Nussbaum, 2013)](image)

3.- The study

As we have argued, collaborative action research and innovation has a two-folded objective. On the one hand, it seeks to contribute to innovation in schools and, on the other hand, it examines the viability of those innovation proposals, which as we said earlier, developed from the joint work between the different groups that make up the research team. In this paper, innovation is targeted to the development of the interactive competence in English of secondary students in a socioeconomically underprivileged milieu. In-service teachers, researchers and pre-service teachers collaboratively design, implement and evaluate authentic and interdisciplinary teaching projects that involve the use of digital tools. Research is
related to the evaluation of the innovation proposal and wants to analyse to what extend collaborative action research contributes to the co-construction of know-how knowledge and the development of professional teaching skills.

Data is obtained in the classrooms, during teacher training seminars and in focus group sessions to either create innovation projects or discuss the ins and outs of their implementation. Alternatively, we also conducted interviews to collect the perceptions of students about what we do. Likewise, two years later, we contacted pre-service teachers to see how, now that they are in-service teachers, perceive the experience they had lived. In this paper, we will apply the principles of Conversational Analysis (CA) to analyse the data collected during a focus group planned at the end of the first school year in which collaborative action research and innovation was part of school practices and the response given to us by one of the pre-service teachers in the study and co-author. CA defends two main ideas, on the one hand, the importance of collecting natural data (data of students and teachers performing educational tasks in the classroom, data on the interactions between teachers during the planning processes of class sessions, interview data, etc.) and, on the other hand, the need to analyse the phenomena as they emerge during the interaction. This means that the analysis cannot depart from hypotheses built by researchers, instead, it must be constructed from the observation of what participants do while they reflect upon their teaching actions and how they perceive what they do. This model is, thus, based on the premise that “reality and meaning are built in social interactions and that it is in the interaction itself where you have to look for the keys to their interpretation” (Nussbaum and Unamuno, 2006 p.16, own translation). This premise is basic in qualitative research in general, and in ethno-methodological studies in particular (Sacks, 1992). The validity of this type of research relies on three basic principles: the principle of observability, the principle of availability and the principle of symmetry.

The principle of observability was proposed by Garfinkel (1967) and, according to Mondada (2003), is related to the notion of descriptivity (accountability) of phenomena. Researchers need to explain how the speakers create their discourse. This implies observing which issues become relevant during the interaction. The principle of availability, by this author, has to do with accurately collecting, observing and analysing natural data. Finally, the principle of symmetry argues that those who analyse the data collected (Mondada, 1998) are also part of the corpus and, therefore, their actions need also to be observed.

4. The findings

4.1. Students’ voices

Before analysing how pre-service and in-service teachers reflect upon their practices, we thought it relevant to hear students’ voices on what they have done. In extract 1, the researcher (also a teacher in the group) interviews one student with a good command of English, who, as we will see below, compare various learning contexts: learning English in primary, in secondary and in language schools.

Extract 1. Interview with an advanced student at the end of his first high school year (aged 13)

Researcher: ok\ e:m:\(_{-}\) are the classes here in the high school very different from the classes in primary/  
Izan: yes\(\) of course\(\) in primary the level was\_ very very easy with basical wo:\(\)rds\_ and very easy\_ and now in the high school is a little bit\_ next more hard\_ we next we work the things more funny like the ipads\_ with\_ with\_ our mobile phones\_ and\_ I think that is a good site\_ because\_ e:\(\)m:\_ English site to learn it’s more good\/

Researcher: ok and is it different from\_ learning English in: a school/ outside/ you said you go to a language academy/  
Izan: yes\(\) e:\(\)m:\_ comparing\_ the high school with the English academy\_ the high school is very easy\_ because\_ in the:\_ English academy\_ next our teachers\_ next the: level it’s more hard\_ the teachers of here\_ have a good e:\(\) level of English\_ but\_ with the level of of the other partners they\_ can’t\_ e:\_ do\_ th- things more hard because\_ e the: the: students than we know English\_ very good\_ and there are a very: small group\_ in my class\.

In this extract, we can see that this student has observed there’s been a methodological shift between how English was taught in primary and now in secondary. The fact that he values the use of ICT tools as learning instruments to access English validates, somehow, the effort made by teachers to create technology-enhance multidisciplinary projects. Izan is, though, critical with the fact that in the secondary school, unlike what he observes in the language school he attends as an out of school activity, he is in a mixed-ability class. We can observe the various levels of English in extract 2, in which the researcher needs to use Spanish and Catalan in the interview.
Extract 2. Interview with a beginner student at the end of his first high school year (aged 13)

Researcher: y las clases eran diferentes/
Fran: sí/
Researcher: por qué/ xxx
Fran: porque no hacíamos lo mismo/ hacíamos_ un cuadernito y ya estaba/
Researcher:mm
té gustan las clases de aquí/
Fran: sí/
Researcher:por qué/
Fran: porque son divertidas y: aprendo más que: en primaria/
Researcher:mm qué has aprendido de inglés/
Fran: pues lo de reciclar_ lo de: las- eh- lo del árbol /
Researcher:mm/
Fran: m: a hacer proyectos mejor_ porque no s- porque me salían tan bien_ y no sé/ muchas cosas/
Researcher: i qué afgradaria aprender/
Fran: de inglés/
Researcher:si en català contesta en català/ 
Fran: parlar millor/
Researcher:parlar millor i: com pots aprendre a parlar millor/
Fran: eh: como se dice/ esperar eh: practicant/

Again, the student in extract 2 values positively the methodology used by the teacher. In this case he stressed the use of project-based learning and he feels he is better at that than at doing exercises in a workbook. He also mentions he would like to improve his speaking skills, which is significant because he did not accept to (be recorded and) speak in English during the interview although he admits that learning is only possible through practice.

4.2. The voices of in-service teachers

As collaborative action research and innovation relies on teamwork, during the lessons children are in contact with different teachers at the same time. Fieldwork observation revealed that the present of many adults was not always easy because there was not always time to include pre-service teachers or volunteers in the planning process. The researcher inquired one of the in-service teachers in the team about that.

Extract 3. Team focus-group at the end of the first school year: two team members talking

Researcher: pero:_ pero claro_ també ha de ser difícil no/ m: tens més mans_ però tamp- també: gestionar això ha de ser complicat [no]/
Teacher 1: bueno_ a-t- comencament va ser complicat_ de cara als nens_ perquè acostumés a tenir més gent a l'aula:_ i aviam i era_ y éste quién es/ y este quién es/ no/ pero una vez ya saben els noms/ ya els conocen/ saben que reaime:nt_ hi han_ no hi ha hagut cap problema_ de fet ara_ hem tingut un parell d'incorporacions noves_ i només han dit_ com se diu_ i ja està i ha quedat aquí no/ excepte la Juna_ i: jo creo que en general_ ells tenen la sensación_ també:_ el hie he fet veure_ que tenen_ una oportunidad que no han tingut a la vida/ l'han d'aprofitar i jo creo que sí que ho fan/

Researcher: and the classes were different/
Fran: yes/
Researcher: why/ xxx
Fran: because we did not do the same/ we did_ a workbook and that was it/
Researcher:mm do you like the classes here/
Fran: yes/
Researcher: why/
Fran: because they are fun and: I learn more than: in primary/
Researcher:mm what have you learnt of English/
Fran: well that about recycling_ about: those- eh- that about the tree/
Researcher:mm/
Fran: m: to do projects better_ because they did not- I did not do good ones_ and don't know_ many things/
Researcher: and what would you like to learn/
Fran: of English/
Researcher:yes/ in Catalan/ answer in Catalan/
Fran: speak better/
Researcher:speak better and: how can you learn to speak better/
Fran: eh: how do you say it/ wait eh: practising/

Researcher: but: but of course! it has to be more difficult right/ m: you have more hands_ but al also: managing this must be: complex [right/]
Teacher 1: well a-t- the beginning it was complex_ for the kids/ because you have more people in the classroom_ and: well and it was_ and who's this/ and who's that/ no/ but once they learnt their names/ they know them/ they really know_ there is- there's been no problem! in fact now_ we have had two new assistants_ and they have only said_ what's her name/ and that's it/ and that was all right/ except for Juna_ and: I believe that in general_ they have the perception_ and I have also: made them see_ they have_ an opportunity unique in their life/ and must take profit from it/ and I feel they are doing it!
As we can observe in extract 3, the teacher does not mention any drawback related to the planning phase when she values the presence of other adults (pre-service teachers and volunteers) in her lesson. Her agenda is different from that of the researcher, and she analyses the role of adults from the students' perspective and from what they can gain from it. It has to be mentioned that volunteers were international students from the nearby university with no command of Catalan or Spanish and therefore students were 'obliged' to address them in English, something they did not always do when addressing the teachers.

The collaborative action research and innovation project was carried out only in year one classrooms and therefore only the English teachers who taught in one of those classes could participate. In the last focus group carried out at the end of year one, team members invited all the teachers in the English department to exchanges glances on what had been done that year. Extract 4 presents the views of one of the teachers in year 4.

Extract 4: Team focus-group at the end of the first school year. One team member talking to a teacher not participating directly in the innovation.

### Extract 4

| Teacher 2: no sé jo també: ho valoro molt_ sobretot això\, la oportunitat de: que se'ns va donar de poguer introduir\, noves metodologies i: i treballar d'una altra manera que també s'estava: els alumnes també {d'alguna manera (rìu)} m'ho demanaven_ veus que no:\,  
Researcher: però tu per exemple_ que has estat com una mica a fora perquè com que hem decidit començar a 1r\,  
Teacher 2: sí\,  
Researcher: i tu estàs a 4t no/ com has viscut això de: estar a dintre com fora (riu)\,  
Teacher 2: e:h_ pues això estic dintre però estic fora\, (riuen) bueno\, n:o\, bé bè\, perquè vull dir_ el recolzament que he tingut de vosaltres i: en concret de tu:\, es-vam\, vull dir ha sigut: encara que fos a la cantina: parlant de: no sé què\, vull dir: l'assessorament i: la formació\, abans no sé amb qui ho començava\, n'hi ha hagut una de formal\, però també n'hi ha una d'informal\, perquè\, m: parlem molt i: intercanvim moltes coses\, vull dir\, sí n: no he estat a 1r de la ESO però\, bueno\, he pogut aplicar coses a\, 4t\, sí\, sí\, que sí que sí que m'ha servit\, i moltíssim\, a més la disposició que heu tingut vosaltres és que:\,  
Teacher 2: I don't know\, I also: appreciate it a lot_ specially this\, the opportunity of: we were given of introducing\, new methodologies and\, and working\, differently which was also\, students were also\, {somehow (laughs)} asking me that\, I was aware it was not\,  
Researcher: but you for example\, has been left out a little bit_ because we decided to start with year 1\,  
Teacher 2: yes\,  
Researcher: and you are in year 4_ right\, how did you live this: being in and out_ (laughs)\,  
Teacher 2: e:h_ well that's it\, I am in but I am out\, (laughs) well\, n:o\, well\, because I mean_ the suport I got from you all and: specially from you: is- wow\, I mean it's been even that it was in the canteen: talking about: don't know what\, I mean_ the advice and: the training\, I can't remember who I was saying this earlier_ there's been formal training\, but also informal\, because\, m: we talk a lot and_ exchange many things\ I mean_ yes\, I have n: not been in year 1 but_ well_ I have been able to apply things in year 4\, yes\, yes\, sure yes yes they were useful for me\, very much so\ and then your eagerness was wow:\, |
role in the project (be in and out) and makes an interesting point by acknowledging the fact that reflection on teaching did also occur in casual conversations at the canteen and to her, that was like a springboard that move her to make changes in her lessons, partially also because she felt her students were indirectly also ‘demanding’ change.

4.3. The voice of a pre-service (now in-service) teacher

Finally, we decided to ask one of the pre-service teachers to reflect, two years later, about what she felt she had learnt from the experience of taking part in a collaborative action research and innovation project. This is what she wrote:

Extract 5: Message from one of the pre-service teachers in year one to the researcher:

Two years later, what I can say is that being a member of the project allowed me to put into practice what I was learning at the university, but at the same time I was aware of what reality looked like. At the university we were often discussing or envisaging utopic situations far from what really happened at the host school. Probably children did not learn as much English as we expected but I think we changed their views on education and how they saw themselves in a formal learning environment. I think we contributed to help them create more positive expectations on their potential as learners. Similarly, the fact that I very often felt I was being a model for the students helped me gain self-confidence as a teacher.

Their reflections are interesting because indirectly, she is pinpointing one of the advantages of the collaborative action research and innovation model: it bridges the gap between theory and practice. Researchers make the results of research available to teachers; but teachers offer researchers real classroom situations in which to act and investigate. Pre-service teacher, as member of the collaborative teams who conduct research and innovation witness and can establish links between what they have learnt and what they are experiencing. Besides, being one of the members of the team helps them construct of a positive image of themselves as teachers, and, in turn, they contribute to help learners construct a better self-image as learners and as people able to learn and use a foreign language; a very positive side-effect, which is extremely necessary in a milieu such as the one in the study.

5.- Conclusions

In this paper we have claimed that significant teaching innovation is only possible through initiatives that empower teaching teams in schools and lead them to become true agents of transformation and improvement. Innovation, though, should stem from solid theoretical background foundations as well as from actual teaching experiences. Consequently, researchers should be committed to the educational community as research ought to bring to classrooms new educational practices to solve didactic challenges. Yet, doing research by applying hierarchical top-bottom processes of knowledge construction does not benefit innovation because teachers are sceptical with regards to the researchers’ intentions (Unamuno, 2004). ‘Collaborative action research and innovation’, on the contrary is a methodological proposal to promote change in teaching practice that departs from the belief that innovative teaching proposals should be designed and implemented together by teams composed of in-service teachers and researchers. Likewise, to guarantee innovation in school practices, innovation should be part of classroom educational practices in initial teacher training programmes. Teaching for innovation is the responsibility of professionals in Education Faculties; but cannot be achieved without in-service teachers. professionals from the secondary schools where student teachers are developed. ‘Collaborative action research and innovation’ also offers pre-service teachers to work, during their school internships, together with in-service teachers and researcher to transform learning.

In this paper we have heard the voices of all people involved in a ‘collaborative action research and innovation’ proposal carried out in the English class of a high school in a socially socioeconomically underprivileged town near the city of Barcelona (Catalonia). We have observed that secondary students, regardless their command of English, have experienced change in the classroom and value it positively. Yet, the advanced student feels that mixed competence levels in English is a problem for teachers and not so advance learner does not feel comfortable using English although he admits he needs to practice it to improve. In this sense, their English teacher values the presence of in-service teachers and international volunteers in the classroom as they create a real context in which students need to use English to communicate. The presence of so many adults in the classroom only occurs in year one classrooms as the research/innovative proposal is targeted at these groups. Yet, we have also observed that other teachers not directly involved with the experience, also benefit from it through the informal conversation with the researcher and her fellow teachers. This proves that when researchers establish non-hierarchical relationships with teams of teachers, learning takes place through symbiotic processes: in-service teachers receive support and expertise knowledge from researchers, who, in turn, benefit from
watching skilled professionals in action, who also orient them towards which phenomena/actions are worth investigating with the objective of improving classroom practices. Finally, we have seen that opening the research/teaching teams to pre-service teachers is another empowerment action that benefits the teams, who need to discuss and adapt their proposals to transform it into a training proposal for future teachers; it has a positive impact on future teachers as they gain self-confidence and whose support to secondary students guarantees more equal learning opportunities for all.

6.- Acknowledgments

This paper presents some of the results of a project entitled ‘Teachers as agents of transformation through their engagement in cross disciplinary innovative projects in the English classrooms (DATE)’ funded by Obra Social “la Caixa” through their RecerCaixa 2016 programme. Project reference number: 2016ACUP-001 (2017-2020).

Bibliography


