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The *JOURNAL OF THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (JISTE)* is published as a service to those concerned with global teacher education. It serves as a forum for the exchange of information and ideas related to the improvement of teacher education. Articles focus upon concepts and research which have practical dimensions or implications and applicability for practitioners in teacher education. The Journal limits its articles to those in which ideas are applicable in multiple social settings.

JISTE is an official, refereed publication of ISTE. The goal of ISTE is to publish six to eight articles in each issue. Using the Seminar theme, articles in the first issue of each volume are based on papers presented at the previous seminar. Articles in the second issue are non-thematic. Points of view and opinions are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of ISTE. Published manuscripts are the property of JISTE. Permission to reproduce must be requested from the editor.

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Secretary General's Message

In May I will be participating in an international conference in Wuhan, China which is concerned with environmental issues and ecological sustainability, and includes particular sections dealing with economics and education. My own background as a geography teacher and teacher educator leads me to look forward to my participation with great interest.

The issues at Wuhan are clear enough and certainly they are gaining widespread international attention. The recent World Trade Conferences and the extraordinary protests in Seattle, Melbourne and Quebec, attest to the importance that people are attaching to these matters. The major topics of the conference are those dealing with population changes, resource depletion, energy sources, biodiversity and preservation of life forms, conservation of environments and international trade. I was pleased also to see topics on the agenda such as wetland protection, river basin perspectives, tourism, urban developments, ecological agriculture and rural concerns. The special place given to education is particularly gratifying and an acknowledgement that all teachers need to show a concerned and informed interest in environmental ethics and morals.

The current international debate about limiting emissions and global warming illustrates the failure of world governments and citizens generally to cooperate in a constructive way to deal with a serious environmental problem affecting everyone. The modest proposals in the Kyoto global warming treaty are virtually being frustrated by certain developed countries including U.S.A. and Australia.

The economics - education nexus evident in school curriculums in the last two decades in many countries has led to the expectation that the main purpose of schools is to prepare students to become productive units in a growth driven economy. Market forces have often been seen as the determinant not only of what

should be taught but also of the skills that are relevant and the values which should be inculcated.

The problem with this expectation is that the natural environment is sacrificed for short-term gains. Perhaps more seriously, financial benefits are seen to be the measure of desirable educational outcomes and educators are urged to encouraging their students to value such educational goals.

What is needed however is a radical reorientation in the environment-education-economics relationship that asserts the primacy of human life and care of the environment. Furthermore teacher educators are strategically placed to see that education, particularly in schools, contributes to this reorientation of purpose. Those ISTE members who were fortunate to participate in the 18th ISTE Seminar in South Africa, which was held at Skukuza in the Kruger National Park, will recall the amazing diversity and beauty of the life forms and environments we witnessed. I wrote in a welcome to the participants: "One of the great challenges of the new millennium for teacher educators is to nurture better care for our natural and built environments. We need to teach well *about* the environment, *in* the environment, but most important of all, *for* the environment so that future generations will also benefit as we do from nature's gifts and our own heritages".

Warren Halloway

Editor's Message

This issue of JISTE contains six articles by authors from Botswana, Kuwait, two from Brazil, United States, and a collaboration between authors from Canada and England. These articles provide a wide range of topics related to teacher education.

During the first four years of publishing JISTE, Corey Lock, Craig Kissock, and I work closely together in the editing of the journal. At ISTE 2000 in Annapolis, Maryland, Craig and I decided to step down as editor and Corey agreed to continue as editor. Joyce Castle became associate editor. Due to an unexpected increase in responsibilities at his university, Corey felt he must resign. I have agreed to serve as editor, with the continued assistance of Joyce, until another person is appointed.

You are an important part of JISTE. It is your journal. We share and learn from each other during the annual seminar and when we are in contact with each other on a personal basis. JISTE is another forum to share our ideas and thoughts. Please submit your articles, reviews, and recent publications for consideration. Your contributions to JISTE are necessary to keep this a viable publication.

To all colleagues who have submitted items for possible publication, Thank You! To the consulting editors who provided the assistance in deciding which articles to publish and who offered valuable suggestions to the authors, Thank You! To the Associate Editor, Joyce Castle, who assisted me in the final selection and editing of the articles, Thank You! To Corey Lock and Craig Kissock who helped me make JISTE successful in its formative years, Thank You! To Colin Mably who designed the cover and formatted the first issues of JISTE, Thank You! And finally, to Jenny Hand, who has taken over the duties of preparing the manuscript for publication, Thank You!

George A. Churukian

From Theory to Practice: Democratic Activities and Unity In Botswana Junior Secondary Schools

Augustus A. Adeyinka
Michael B. Adeyemi

In general, educational activities in Botswana today focus on the understanding, interpretation and implementation of government policy on education embodied in Education for Kagisano', First and Second Reports of the National Commission on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1977; 1993). Kagisano embodies the basic principles of democracy, development, self-reliance and unity, and covers, implicitly, the concepts of social harmony, social justice, mutual assistance and mutual responsibility. These are philosophical concepts that educational practitioners have to understand and interpret before strategies for implementation can be worked out and all stakeholders empowered to go ahead with the process of implementation.

The study reported in this paper was initiated to find out what teacher and pupil activities hinge on the practice or actualisation of two of the national principles, i.e., the concepts of democracy and unity, as defined in the Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1994). Ten schools were sampled for the study. In each school, the Head Teacher and two senior subject teachers in Religious Education and Social Studies were interviewed. The results show that in Botswana junior secondary schools, general administration, management of school curricular

activities (including classroom instruction), sports, and recreation, were based on the principles of democracy and unity in the overall running of the school system, with the pupils as the focus of attention. The expectation is that the concepts of democracy and unity practised at the junior secondary school would provide examples for pupils and teachers of what the situation should be at the national level.

Background Context

Botswana is a land-locked country in Central Africa. It has an estimated population of 1.5 million, and a landed area of 582,000 sq. km. Formerly the Protectorate of Bechuanaland, Botswana became independent in September 1966 and, like other newly independent nations, set out to establish a viable system of education.

From the late 1970s to the present time, educational activities in Botswana have centered around the Government document on education titled *Education for Kagisano: Report of the National Commission on Education* (Republic of Botswana, 1977). The Commission produced a second report in 1993 (Republic of Botswana, 1993). On the basis of these reports, the Government of Botswana produced a *Revised National Policy on Education* (Republic of Botswana, 1994), commonly referred to as the Government White Paper on Education. In this blueprint on education, the principal aim of education is stated as that of developing the individual. Yet the document goes further to emphasize the point that any system of education must relate to and reflect the values of the society of which it is a part. This is the standard expectation of the role of education in other African countries, for example Nigeria (Republic of Nigeria (1981) and Zambia (Republic of Zambia, 1996).

The four national principles, otherwise known as the Kagisano Principles, on which it is recommended that education in

Botswana be based, are: Democracy, Development, Unity and Self-reliance, with the addition of the present concept of botho in Vision 2016 (Republic of Botswana, 1997), meaning the development of a well-rounded person. In this paper, our emphasis is on only two of these national principles: democracy and unity.

In politics, democracy refers to "government of the people, by the people and for the people." This is in line with Carlos Torres' notion of democracy as the government of all citizens who enjoy the benefits of citizenship, as opposed to monarchy (the government of only one ruler, or a divine king) or aristocracy (the government of few rulers) (Torres, 1998, p. 145). In Collins English Dictionary, democracy is defined as "government by the people or their elected representatives" (Sinclair, 2000, p. 417). When applied to education, it becomes the "education of the people, by the people and for the people;" that is, an education provided, financed and managed by the people or some recognized authorities acting on behalf of the people. At the school level, it implies that all teachers, students and all support staff should have a say in the decision making process for the effective and efficient running of the school.

Unity refers to "oneness" or "a state or quality of being one" (Sinclair, 2000, p. 1667). With particular reference to Botswana, it implies that all citizens of Botswana, like citizens of other African countries, are aware of their national identity as a people, with pride in and loyalty to the sovereign nation (Republic of Botswana, 1977, p. 24). At the local level, it implies that the people share a common origin, common interests and some other common factors that bind them together. At the school level, unity implies that all elements in the school system, be they students, teachers, Ministry of Education officials, or members of the Board of Governors all co-operate in one way or the other to achieve the aims and objectives of the school. The two concepts of democracy and unity are two aspects of the Kagisano principles that are social harmony, social justice, mutual assistance and mutual responsibility.

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to examine the current curricular practice and related activities in Botswana junior secondary schools as they relate to the implementation of two of the Kagisano principles: democracy and unity. Specifically, the study set out to determine:

1) The teachers' role in the promotion of democracy and unity as entrenched in the Botswana National Policy on Education;

2) Whether the aims of two of the school subjects i.e. Religious Education and Social Studies (hereafter referred to as Kagisano subjects) have elements of democracy and unity inherent in them;

3) The school administrations' efforts in the promotion of the practice of democracy and unity in the school environment; and,

4) The students' involvement in the process of actualizing the principles of democracy and unity in the school.

Literature Review

In addition to the 1977 Report, there are other government papers that give details of what Education for Kagisano entails. These include the *Vision 2016* Presidential Task Force publication (Republic of Botswana 1997) and the two *National Commission on Education* Reports (Republic of Botswana, 1993; 1997). Aspects of Botswana education in general are covered in Abosi and Kandjii Murangi (1988), while Vanqa (1998) provides information on the role of teachers' organizations in the development of education in Botswana. The concept of philosophy of education and the need for a country to have its own philosophy of education are covered in Ozmon & Craver (1995).

Adeyemi and Asimeng-Boahene (1999), Adeyemi and Jeremiah (1998), and Adeyemi (1996) have provided some useful information on the role of social studies in nation building, with particular reference to the Botswana junior secondary school social

studies programme. Research on the visions and mission statements of junior secondary schools and the extent to which the goals have been perceived to have been met has also been carried out by Adeyemi and Adeyinka (2000). Adeyemi (1996) examines the elements of international education in the social studies curriculum of junior secondary schools in Botswana. Bowen and Hobson (1987), and Torres (1998) provide appropriate ideas and references on the concepts of freedom of choice and freedom of action (which democracy entails) and the progressive stages in the attainment of unity in a state. The concept and significance of unity at the national level are also contained in both the Nigerian and the Zambian *National Policy on Education* (Republic of Nigeria, 1981; Republic of Zambia, 1996).

Banks (1997) recognizes the gaps between theory and practice as related to democratic ideals and realities. To him, it is important to fill the gaps between democratic ideals and practices in schools. One of his recommendations is to allow students to obtain the necessary skills to live in a modern democratic society. From the standpoint of unity, the Government of Botswana has put efforts into encouraging unity in the country. A typical example is the idea of the National Service Scheme that has recently been abolished. It required individuals leaving secondary school (Form 5) to, among other things, teach or work in the rural areas and be available for other community activities thereby enhancing unity in the community (Republic of Botswana, 1977). The extent to which the two concepts of democracy and unity are practiced in the school setting is not known. However, an examination of both the Religious Education and Social Studies syllabuses indicate that contents dealing with democracy and unity are widespread. Taking just a few examples from the Kagisano subjects are contents linked to these objectives: An understanding of society, appreciation of culture and a sense of citizenship; critical thinking, problem solving ability, individual initiatives and interpersonal skills, and the appreciation and tolerance for different religious viewpoints (Republic of Botswana, 1993).

Methodology

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This research involved planned study visits to a number of junior secondary schools in Botswana. This was done during the Year 2000 Teaching Practice Exercise. Due to the constraints of time and financial resources, the schools visited were limited to the ones located in the teaching practice areas to which the researchers were assigned by the Faculty of Education, University of Botswana. The teaching practice took place from 22 May to 30 June 2000, and the schools were visited during this time span.

Ten junior secondary schools were visited. In each school, the head teacher, one Religious Education teacher and one Social Studies teacher (the Kagisano subject teachers) were interviewed, using a structured interview format. The interview questions were related to aspects of the subjects' teaching and interaction with pupils and the practicalisation of the concepts of democracy and unity in the school. The purpose of the interview was multifold: to determine the teachers' role in the promotion of the principles of democracy and unity; to determine whether the aims concerning the two principles were inherent in the two subjects and in the strategies adopted by administration to enhance the principles; and to determine the extent of students' involvement in actualizing the two principles. Altogether, 10 head teachers and 20 school teachers (10 teachers of Religious Education and 10 teachers of Social Studies) were interviewed. There was also an examination of the aims and objectives of teaching Religious Education and Social Studies at the junior secondary level from the syllabuses.

Results

Findings from this study revealed an almost perfect match in terms of the responses to the research questions. The responses of the overall subjects were found to agree with each other with negligible differences. The results as reported here in each sub-heading represent the totality of the responses of the 10 head teachers and the 20 kagisano teachers.

Subject Aims and Objectives in Relation to Democracy and Unity

Individual subjects were found to have their own aims and objectives, which in most cases were philosophical and usually in line with the basic principles of Kagisano. The subject objectives were usually part of the curriculum package for each subject. The objectives of the Social Studies Education curriculum at the junior secondary school level, for example, emphasized introducing children to their heritage, illustrating the distinctive roles of the family, the peers and the community in the socialization of the children, and preparing students for participation in the democratic process at the classroom, school, community, regional, national and international level.

Two examples of such aims in Social Studies come from the Three-Year Junior Secondary Syllabus (Republic of Botswana, 1996) and illustrate the connection to ideals of democracy and unity. One aim is: to understand the concept of governance and the structure of their government, while another is: to practice concepts of justice and good citizenship and choose to participate in the growth and development of society. Two examples of aims from the Three Year Junior Secondary Syllabus in Religious Education that have implications for democratic participation and unity in Religious Education are: to embrace morality and belief in God; and to appreciate the concepts of tolerance and decent life (Republic of Botswana, 1996).

Findings revealed that the respondents all felt that the aims of the subjects, although theoretical, were being put in practice not only in the classroom environment, but also through speeches and all activities that take place within the school walls.

The Role of Subject Teachers in Promoting Democracy and Unity

The findings related to the role of teachers indicate that apart from the selection of relevant contents to reinforce the ideas on democracy and unity, teaching methods were carefully selected to promote the idea of democracy and unity among the junior secondary school pupils. For example, to give students the freedom of speech and action, teachers asked leading questions at the

beginning of each lesson so that teacher and pupils could exchange ideas in a democratic manner.

Responses from the Head Teachers and the teachers suggest that teachers handled the teaching/learning situation in a democratic manner to the extent that students were given the freedom to express their comments without repression. Students' contributions formed an integral part of the teaching/learning process. It was not a situation where the teachers' words were always taken as the "gospel truth." Rather, the students were given the opportunity to critically involve themselves in the pedagogical tasks.

Unity was found to be further enhanced by the way students sat in the classroom. Because of the multicultural diversity of the country, students from all ethnic groups were made to mingle together so that there was no basis for division on ethnic line in the classroom. Group assignments that tended to promote the tenets of democracy and unity were also being used by the teachers to actualize some of the kagisano principles.

As well, excursions were occasionally organized by subject teachers, and students were free to go or not go on such excursions. The parents were also involved. Letters were normally written to parents, informing them of such excursions. Students' decisions were therefore usually based on parental advice. This is a clear indication of parents' involvement in the activities of the school, which also relate to democracy and unity of purpose. Other aspects of students' voluntary activities were fund-raising through sponsored walk, annual brail party, drama, membership of clubs and societies, and sports, just to mention a few.

The Role of School Administration in Promoting Democracy and Unity

For any system to work effectively and efficiently, some administrative machinery must in place. The administration of each junior secondary school in Botswana consists of the Head Teacher, the Deputy Head and the Senior Teachers, all of whom constitute

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the Senior Management Team for each school. Apart from representing the unity of the school administration, they also served as a focal point for democratic activities in the schools. They meet regularly as a team, and hold meetings with the teachers at least twice a term: at the beginning and close to the end of each term. They also hold briefing sessions with teachers once a week, ten minutes before the Monday morning general assemblies. Decisions relating to student discipline and welfare are only taken after due consultation with student leaders and teachers. The management team also encourages democratic practices by not imposing its own choice of student leaders, such as prefects, club presidents and class monitors. The students are normally allowed to nominate the leaders. Administration discusses the names submitted, advises the students and then appoints. The Student Representative Council (SRC) meets regularly with administration, to dialogue on matters relating to their academic programmes and general welfare. The SRC then reports to their fellow-students the outcomes of their deliberations with administration. The channel of communication is clearly set out in each school.

For academic issues, students were required first to consult with their teachers. If the problem could not be solved at that level, they move on to the Year head teacher, and from him/her to the Senior Teacher. It is only when these have failed that student academic problems are brought to the attention of the

Head teacher or the Management Team. Students discuss their problems with their class teachers in the first instance, and could move to the School counselor or the Head Teacher as a last resort.

Further, we found that unity was maintained through regular meetings of the Board of Governors, Parents/Teachers' Association, annual inter-house sports, annual speech and prize-giving days, variety shows, drama, exhibition of special skills by interested students, and end-of-year parties, among others. There seemed to be a consensus among all the respondents that all these activities were steps in the right direction and that the activities

actually helped in the promotion of democracy and unity in schools.

Students' Involvement in Actualizing Tenets of Democracy and Unity

Findings revealed that the students were also free to select the group with which they could carry out specific assignments. They were also free to select their class monitors and prefects, with minimum intervention by school administration. As stated earlier, students suggested the names of their colleagues whom they would like to be appointed as their class monitors or prefects, or representatives on particular committees. The teachers then deliberated on the names and advised the students accordingly. The final selection of the monitors and prefects was a joint effort of both administration and students. On many occasions, students were involved in staff meetings as well, particularly when issues pertaining to the welfare of the students were being discussed. The element of unity was further noticeable when a school emerged as a winner in a sporting competition. The support of every student in the school was paramount and when a game was won, the entire student body organized a celebration to mark the event.

Conclusion

The Kagisano principles are the national principles or philosophy embodying the whole ideas of democracy, development, unity and self-reliance and, more recently, the concept of botho. As such, education for Kagisano refers to the practicalization of these principles. When these principles are fully put into practice, social justice, social harmony and mutual responsibility are attained, as in Plato's Republic, where the three classes in the city-state have to live in harmony before justice in the state can be attained. Today, all educational activities in Botswana are based on the practicalization of the Kagisano principles for the benefit of all Botswana. These educational activities include the present-day school curricular practice, particularly the method of teaching and the use of school subjects

to teach two of those principles – democracy and unity - in preparing children for future responsibilities, especially in their service to the nation in various capacities.

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Augustus A. Adeyinka teaches philosophy of education in the Department of Educational Foundations at the University of Botswana. His areas of specialization are History/Philosophy of Education, Comparative Education and Curriculum Studies.

Michael B. Adeyemi teaches social studies education in the Department of Languages & Social Sciences Education at the Univeristy of Botswana. His areas of specialization are foundations and research in social studies education.

Sources of Stress in the Teaching Profession in Kuwait

Hanna Al-Almari

This paper reports on a study designed to assess the perceptions of high school teachers in Kuwait City regarding their sources of stress in relation to teaching. The findings from a questionnaire administered to 60 male and female teachers showed that high sources of stress were attributed to several factors. Role conflict and an increasing range of demands related to excessive teaching and organizational duties emerged as the main categories of teacher stress. Specific sources of stress identified within these categories included excessive low professional recognition, undeserved public criticism, poor promotional opportunities, class sizes, and student factors like discipline problems and pupils disruptive behavior. These findings are discussed in this paper and several recommendations are offered for researchers/administrators and educational program planners to take into consideration in the future.

Review of the Literature

In the past few years, the incidence of stress among teachers has received a considerable amount of attention. In an international review of teacher stress and burnout, Kyriacou and Roe (1988) refer to the occurrence and consequences of stress in the teaching profession in countries as widespread as Great Britain, the United States, Israel, Canada, and New Zealand. Due to the findings from this and other studies, as well as increasing public displays by teachers and their unions in countries around the world,

teaching has recently become characterized as being among the league of high-stress occupations.

While teacher stress has been defined in various ways, a widely accepted definition is the one offered by Kyriacou and Roe (1988). They refer to teacher stress as a subjective, negative reaction to aspects of the job that threatens self-esteem or well being.

Over the years, several sources of stress for both primary and secondary school teachers have been identified in the literature. These include: 1) work overload, which includes role overload and extra duties (Bridges, 1992; Manthei and Solman, 1988); 2) pupil misbehavior, which includes difficult teacher-child interactions (Manthei and Solman, 1988); 3) children's progress in the classroom, which includes problems of motivating children and not having sufficient time to perform necessary teaching tasks (McGee, Keown and Oliver, 1993); 4) school administration and conditions of employment, which include insufficient pay (Keown, McGee and Oliver, 1992); and 5) lack of support and recognition from parents and society at large and inadequate resources and physical conditions, including excessive class size, (Manthei and Solman, 1988; McConnell and Jeffries, 1991).

On a broader and more general level, a review of the literature by Evans (1998) estimated that between eight and ten percent of the working population experiences high levels of stress, and that this stress may be both outside and inside work. Regardless of the source or type of stress, however, it takes a toll and has an effect on the individual and the whole family.

Stresses Intrinsic to the Job

Research indicates that there is a set of unique factors for every job that employees identify as being sources of pressure for them. Yet there are several major reoccurring themes and these are concerned with physical working conditions, role ambiguity, and relationships with others, including colleagues, administrators, and pupils.

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Physical Working Conditions. Esteve (1989) reports that a large number of teachers in today's society find themselves faced by circumstances which they believe force them to do their job badly. In particular, poor physical working conditions are noted. Aspects of working conditions that have received attention include such things as class sizes, unsuitable buildings, noise levels and inadequate resources. In a study of stress and depressive symptoms in 255 newly appointed female teachers in the US, Schonfield (1992) found that the teachers who worked in the most adverse school environments showed the most depressive symptoms, while those in the best conditions showed the fewest symptoms of depression. Another study by Cooper and Payne (1988) concluded that work overload and work under load, resulting from the employee being given too many or too few tasks to complete in a given time, also related to the experience of worker stress. An aspect of the teaching profession connected to work overload relates to the wide range of pupil abilities that can exist in one class. Evans (1998) found that this may require more lesson planning and more detailed and lengthy assessment work overload and this in turn links to time pressures in terms of long working hours during the day and the amount they have to take home at night, intruding into their personal life.

Teachers' Roles in the School. Research evidence suggests that structural factors such as role conflict (conflicting demands) and role ambiguity (lack of clarity about the task) can be potential causes of stress. On a more general point, change itself may lead to stress as it can introduce conflict or ambiguity into what was originally perceived as a stable situation. Also, problems connected with role underload can contribute to stress. In such cases, too little time is available to devote the teaching functions, as more and more time is required to spend on administrative and pastoral tasks and responsibilities. Problems connected with role may include constant interactions with pupils, which allow little time for relaxation, and the problem of being physically and emotionally drained (Schonfield 1992).

Relationships at Work. A review of the research literature by Boyle and Woods (1996) with regard to teachers' stress reveals that teachers also experience stress from their relationships at work with a range of individuals and groups. These include fellow teachers, administrators and head teachers, and pupils. With regard the pupils, the stress emanates from the pupils' attitudes and behaviors.

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to extend the existing data on teacher stress by obtaining data on the main sources of stress among teachers working in Kuwait high schools. This study is an effort to find suggestions and solutions for this problem that affects teachers' health and performance, where negative reaction to aspects of the job may threaten a teacher's self esteem or well being.

Method

Subjects

The subjects in this study were 60 teachers in four public high schools representing different areas in Kuwait City. The participants included 38 female and 22 male teachers, all of whom were selected at random. The ages of the teachers ranged from 26 to 55 years.

Tests and Procedure

This study measured teachers' stress by using a questionnaire originally used by Mathei and Solman (1988). The introductory letter to the subjects stressed that the questionnaire findings would remain confidential. The first section of the questionnaire requested biographical data which included sex, age, social status, and length of teaching experience. The second section defined stress for teachers as the degree of tension anxiety and/or pressure experienced by a teacher: stress could be related to apprehension, irritation, annoyance, fear, mental discomfort,

nervous upset, inability to cope, frustration, unhappiness, etc. This second section contained 27 items regarded as possible sources of stress, and the teachers were asked to rate their response to each item, following this direction: "As a teacher, how great a source of stress are these factors to you?" The options for response included: "no stress, mild stress, moderate stress, much stress, and extreme stress.' The third section contained an open-ended question that asked teachers to comment on any other stresses they felt were affecting their lives.

The responses to the potential sources of stress (stresses) were examined under four main factors: working environment; time demands; pupil/teacher interaction; and low professional recognition. Percentages, mean scores and standard deviation were recorded for all responses from section two.

Results

The results revealed how the teachers responded to the different factors listed as sources of stress. A measure of "much stress" or "extreme stress" for the different stress sources was used. Items in each factor were obtained by summing the recorded stresses.

Response to the Factor "Poor Working Environment"

The percentages, means and standard deviations of scores of different types of stresses resulting from working environment are reported in this section. A rating of 1 equaled high stress, while a rating of 5 equaled no stress. The standard deviation was found to range from .72 to 1.30. The order from most to least stressful sources emerged as follows:

1. Excessive class size (mean score of 1.32 and 91.7 percent).

2. Academic pressure within the school from head teachers and supervisors (mean score of 1.67 and 85.0 percent).

3. Increasing pressures from school administration (mean score of 1.57 and 85.0 percent).

4. Disenchantment with school administration and/or staff members (mean score of 1.74 and 81.1 percent).

5. Having to cover for absent colleagues and staff shortages (mean score of 1.75 and 76.7 percent).

6. Lack of consensus among staff on matter of discipline (mean score of 1.78 and 73.7 percent).

7. Lack of support from the head teacher (mean score of 2.00 and 70.7 percent).

8. Lack of direction in curriculum change (mean score of 2.14 and 67.2 percent)

1. Shortage of equipment (mean score of 2.08 and 66.6 percent).

Response to the factor "Time Demand"

With regard to these teachers' responses to the factor of time demand, the standard deviations ranged from .89 - 1.23. The order from most stressful to least stressful sources was as follows:

1. Increasing range of demands of excessive teaching and organizational duties (mean score of 1.75 and 92.2 percent).

2. Academic pressure within the school (mean score of 1.45 and 88.3 percent).

1. Lack of time to assist with individual pupil difficulties (mean score of 1.54 and 88.1 percent).

2. Lack of time for preparation, marking and/or organizations (mean score of 1.77 and 80 percent).

3.   Demands to cover staff shortages and deal with unfamiliar areas of the curriculum (mean score of 1.75 and 76.7 percent).

4.   Duration of the school day (mean score of 2.15 and 69.5 percent).

Response to the Factor "Pupil/Teacher Interaction"

        Teachers responded to the factor "pupil/teacher interaction" with a standard deviation ranging from .97 to 1.34. The perceived order of stress from most to least stressful was as follows:

1.   Pupils' impolite and disruptive behavior (mean score 1.78 and 82.7 percent).

2.   Pupils' low academic level and ability to understand (mean score 1.97 and 75.8 percent).

3.   Pupils' poor motivation (mean score 1.87 and 73.3 percent).

4.   Maintaining class discipline with difficult cases (mean score 2.12 and 69.5 percent).

5.   Individual pupils who continually misbehave (mean score 2.18 and 65.0 percent).

6.   Verbal aggression from pupils (mean score 2.31 and 64.4 percent).

Response to the Factor "Low Professional Recognition"

        Teachers responded to the factor: "low professional recognition" revealed a standard deviation range from .65 to 1.22. Responses from most to least stressful sources were:

•   Undeserved public criticism for teachers and the education system (mean score 1.48 and 91.7 percent).

- Poor promotional opportunities (mean score of 1.42 and 90 percent).

- Lack of encouragement to be involved in decision making (mean score 1.78 and 85 percent).

- Lack of recognition for contributions in teaching and/or organization (mean score 1.58 and 85 percent).

- Salary not keeping up with rate of inflation (mean score 1.92 and 78.0 percent).

- Lack of respect in society for teachers (mean score 2.59 and 50.8 percent).

Response to the open question

The open-ended question in Part 3 asked teachers to comment on the questionnaire and/or other stresses (e.g. environmental factors, outside factors, life changes or job structure changes) that may have affected their work. The three most frequently mentioned stresses were, in order:

- Excessive demands on teacher's time and insufficient time to do all that was necessary, including numerous duties extra to classroom teaching.

- Student factors like discipline problems and poor pupil motivation.

- Academic pressure within the school from the head teachers, supervisors, and administration.

Other stresses mentioned with moderate frequency were the worry associated with a lack of job security and the combined factor of poor promotion prospects and inadequate remuneration.

Discussion

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Findings from this study revealed that the teachers perceived an increasing range of demands related to teaching and organizational duties to be their greatest source of stress. Their perception of these demands and their perceived inability to meet them confirm previous findings (Cooper and Payne, 1988; Shonfield, 1992). Such role conflict and self-perception have been found to result in lower job satisfaction and higher job tension, and make the role of teaching more difficult overall. The multiplicity of roles that a teacher may have to fulfill can include guidance, counselor, remediator, parent, record keeper, evaluator and finally teacher. Teachers may also have to spend a considerable amount of time controlling pupils and dealing with discipline problems at the cost of time spent on actual teaching.

As well, excessive class size was found in this study to be related to teacher stress, and this was also similar to previous findings (Manthei and Solman, 1988). This factor deals with the issue of overcrowding in school and the resulting class sizes. The problem resulting from having too many pupils in a class is far too great for some teachers. Class sizes can lead to subsequent problems with teaching a wide range of abilities in one class and also some feelings of guilt at having to neglect those children with the greatest needs. Class reduction was mentioned frequently as a remedy for reducing stress.

Teacher stress was also found in this study to be co-related with low professional recognition. This factor was also described as a source of stress for teachers in previous findings (Manthei and Solman, 1988). It appears that teachers do invariably continue to get bad press (Desouky, 1998; Ebraheem, 1993). Comments in the media are seldom complimentary and serve to undermine a teacher's confidence, as well as his/her standing in the community and among pupils. Teachers are constantly being undervalued.

Another problem identified within this study was one related to status and the lack of promotional opportunities. This may contribute to creating barriers between head teachers, staff members, and teachers. Many believe in the unfairness of

promotion and feel many of these problems arise from the fact that education itself is not given sufficient credibility.

Pupil/teacher interaction was also found in this study to be related to teacher stress. This factor is not surprising when we examine previous findings (Manthei and Solman, 1988). The difficulty of physical aggression from pupils is one of the factors that appears to be increasingly evident in schools. Teachers are found to be experiencing problems from all aspects of pupil behavior (i.e. verbal and physical aggression). The teachers are also witnessing increased aggression between pupils themselves and this may be one of the results of the Gulf War and the Iraqi invasion on Kuwait in 1990 (Rashed, 1993). In addition, teachers have to deal with the lack of parental back up (for example, with respect to discipline problems). Several aspects of pupil attitude and behavior were identified in this study as causing teacher stress. Teachers have to deal with disinterest in education, with aggression, and with many other aspects, all of which may have a particular effect on their job satisfaction (Ebraheem, 1993).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Taking responsibility for the education of the young within our society will always be a demanding task, so it is likely that particular pressures and stresses in teaching will always be present. A point of optimism is the recent emphasis upon the need to intervene at the organizational level. Prior to this, the teaching profession has tended to see stress primarily as an individual problem, suggesting coping mechanisms for dealing with stress (i.e. that an individual needs to adapt and change). Consequently very little attention has been paid to organizational strategies for decreasing the effect of potentially stressful situations.

In light of previous research and the findings from this study, the following suggestions are offered to teachers and administrators:

- In-service educational programs dealing with stress coping techniques should be made available to teachers; these must be

designed to emphasize teachers' personal development and assist them to deal more effectively with stress.

- Social support systems of peers and principals should be available to help teachers in their performance in the role of teacher.

- Increased salaries should be considered for teachers to enable them to cope more effectively with job stress.

- Pre-service training should be provided for beginning teachers to help them learn stress management techniques, interpersonal relationships, classroom management techniques, and self-control strategies.

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Hanaa Al-Amari is an instructor in College of Education, Kuwait University. Her area of specialization is in Health Education.

Teacher Education and Research in a Private University: Perspectives for a New Millennium

Maria Emilia Amaral Engers

This paper reflects on Brazilian Higher Education past and present context as well as in the results of a case study research carried out in a private confessional university located in the south of Brazil. The study aimed at learning the perceptions of this institution's community, regarding research-related issues. In addition, it discusses the needs of research to improve teacher education for a new millennium.

Introduction

Higher Education in Brazil emerged from dominance by the upper classes after political changes that took place at the end of the colonial period in the 19th Century. At that time teaching levels were organized into a single faculty in the most developed regions of the country. The emphasis was on teaching and professional formation and featured high centralization and control by the State. In the thirties, with the political revolution, university research was linked to teaching following a design inspired by Humbold University. Despite the efforts, this new model did not succeed because research was not interesting to the dominant elite. In the sixties, the student movement on seeking access to the university caused the reform in which the undetachability of research and teaching was reassured. In 1976 the Ministry of Education created CAPES, Coordenação e Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Ensino Superior, an agency for the improvement of academic level personnel, which provides guidelines to post-graduation courses. The agency' First National Plan for Post-Graduation, PNPG, pushed research, which started to be developed in the country.

Even though research has not yet been sufficiently developed, the scientific spirit became part of the university with the best scientific production found inside the post-graduation courses.

Review of Present Knowledge

Turning the attention to undergraduate teaching, some educators defend the need to rethink university functions by better defining its roles, once quality teaching and scientific research are requirements without a definition by the government of rules and guidelines with desirable quality criteria. Some authors, as Schwartzman (1999), referred to a renewed university revealing that it has become competitive concerning immediate results and the formation of professionals for the working market, thus neglecting one of its functions that is the construction of knowledge. He also point at the existence of a high number of private institutions in the country, the majority being located in the south and the southeastern regions presenting heterogeneous research activities and stated that these institutions mostly rely on the income provided by student fees, approximately 90%.

Building on such consideration, Schwartzman asked, how can professors in private institutions do research? Such problems create the expectations for university professors to conduct research to meet the requirements set forth by Law of Guidelines and Bases for Education (LDB). The author suggests that administrators need to thoroughly assess the choice between keeping the institution as a university or turning it into a higher education center that would no longer ask for research, but rather for quality teaching, as it is the case of the American College. In this respect, the author compares the validity of university research work to teaching quality, as based on research results in other countries, and states that research does not guarantee quality teaching. Such statements bring about new inquiries. It seems relevant to consider the differences between universities in developed countries versus the young universities in developing countries, which hold great part of the knowledge produced in their countries. So, if young universities do not develop research, as it is

the case for Brazil, where shall knowledge be produced? How will professors suit their teaching practice to country culture?

Orozco (1999) provides some reflections on the future vision of Latin American universities. He says that there is a need to think a new university for the new millennium with regards to the updated production of knowledge, to the organization of a common market of knowledge among institutions that is attentive to the effects of globalization and the new fields of knowledge and, at the same time, constructs its own identity.

The reality of Latin American universities confirms the previous comments. It is evident that, despite the fact that research results in developed countries do not highly correlate research development to high quality higher education, it has not yet been proved that, in Brazil or in Latin America, it would be desirable to make research optional because this might cause a considerable decrease in knowledge production.

UNESCO (1998) calls attention to the existing discrepancy between developed and developing countries especially regarding the access to resources for higher education and research. In this respect, it was stated that no country, especially developing countries, might achieve its development without seeking to reach high level in higher education and adequate research institutions.

Research design

Based on the author's reflections and the review of the literature presented, it may be said that research is relevant to the production of the university's scientific knowledge, this requirement, however, not fully met in Latin American universities. Given the present situation, what are the positions of university professors and administrators regarding these conditions and the importance and the needs for research?

The study was conducted at a private university located in the south of Brazil. The university offers 60 undergraduate, 40

specialization, 16 master degree, and 8 Ph.D. courses. There are approximately 24,000 students, 1,720 professors and teachers, 1,113 technical staff, and 2,451 hospital workers on both the Central Campus and Campus II.

The Referential Milestone of Pontificia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul (PUCRS) expresses its commitment to the development of knowledge, quality teaching, and to the formation of its students in accordance to their needs as well as their professors. The Institution has a long-term and solid tradition in teaching, and has demonstrated leadership in the state. Nevertheless, it has not yet succeeded in fully developing its research programs as it is defined in its mission. This statement is based on the data presented in the PUCRS 1998 Yearbook. It is possible to see that despite institutional efforts concerning ranking goals, the faculty consists of 16.8% with a pH degree, 35.2% with master degrees, 36.8% specialists, and still 11.2% undergraduates. There has been great headway, for 52% of professors have a post-graduate degree thus giving the university good status when compared to similar institutions.

The faculty's working regimen[2] is beyond expectations because only 5.9% of professors have a full time working schedule (DE) and 8.4% have 40 h/week (T40), 5.5% have 30 hours (T30), 6.5% have 20 hours (T20) and 73.7% are paid per hour (H). It is evident that, regarding working regimens, there is a need for an effort on the university's part to improve on this aspect for there is a high concentration of hourly professors that will hardly be able to do research as opposed to only to 14.3% full-time professors who would have time for research.

The above two variables are very important for research development, but require great institutional effort in order to achieve ranking goals and changes to working schedules. For these

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[2] Working regimen is classified in time work (T40, T30, T20 and H the number of hour teaching in the institution. DE is exclusive dedicacion to institution. The "T" regimen is part of the career plan T40 is about to be extinguished with the teacher's gradual shift to DE.

variables imply higher funding in the budget for this purpose which is not easy for an institution that receives its main income from student fees. Despite the difficulties, PUCRS has been developing goals in this direction. With the intent to reach these goals, it has assigned scholarships for its teachers, it has increased title holding professors working hours, granted salary raises of 10% and 25% for faculty with masters and Ph.D. degrees, and more recently, has increased the number of DE professors by 10%. Nevertheless, we need to continue in this direction for the Institution to go beyond its goals and fully achieve its mission.

The Research Question

Based on the discussions promoted so far, it may be conclude that determining how those in charge of the administrative policy and research professors perceived their needs and availability to achieve these goals. It is important to know the positive aspects that favor teaching practice drawing on research results as well as the development of scientific research. The weak points that make these aspects difficult are also worth considering. With the intent of better knowing this reality, the following research problem has been raised: What is the perception of PUCRS´s top administration, the post-graduation program coordinators, and professors of research development under required conditions?

Research Method and Participants

The present investigation is of constructivist nature (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), featuring a case studying in an attempt to understand the perceptions of PUCRS' eighteen participants regarding the needs to enhance research in the institution. They are research professors having pH degree, mostly senior professors working in different field of knowledge in the university for many years. Participants were four top administration members, five post-graduation course coordinators, and nine research professors that work in these programs.

Research Instrument and Analysis of Data

Data were collected through semi-structured interview to the sample. After the interviews were transcribed they were returned to the interviewees to be sure of accuracy. This data was studied by using content analysis based on Bardin as adapted by Engers (1994). The results of the different interview sets, the institution official documents, and those available about research made in course were triangled.

The analysis of data showed that since there were no differences between the perceptions from the interviews with the post-graduation program coordinators and those from professors, it was possible to integrate the results of these two groups. Thus from the analysis of data emerged four categories and sub-categories, which is discussed with two sets of participants.

Results Discussion in Light of Present Knowledge

Concerning the way research is regarded in the university, the two groups of participants showed similar perceptions, classifying it as extremely relevant. These characteristics allow for the inference that the participants in the investigation assign research a privileged place among academic activities independently from their positions in university.

There are countless strong and weak points, pointed out by the two groups. The needs as well as the strong and the weak points for the development of institutional research interlace in the different categories that emerged from the participants' perceptions.

The Institutions Policy and Philosophy. In the administration group, two different positions were found concerning the research range sub-category. Some were favorable to research development, especially in post-graduate programs, while others believe that research needs to have sound presence also in undergraduate programs thus keeping teaching activities

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updated. It is worth pointing out that the manager's opinion shows up both in the needs and in the weak points to be revised by the university in order to strengthen research. Professors and coordinators groups point out the necessity of research development in undergraduate as well as in graduate programs.

One variable given special attention was culture research in the university. This sub-category was in emphatically stressed by both the groups of participants as being a weak point that deserves to be developed further for the university to become strong. It was especially clear that the participants' perception in relation to the tradition of teaching that exists in the institution as well as the recent development of research in the university that has brought in a new image for the institution.

Other issue that appears to be linked to culture research brought about another sub-category, editing policy, which in the professors and coordinators' view is regarded as a constraint to the development of research once publishing criteria are unknown. According to some interviewees, it gave preference to some areas of knowledge and neglects other areas.

Another area for development discussed was the partnership with public institutions and private enterprises. The intra/inter- institutional exchange was recommended for the development of research, creating a sub-category of the policy category to be explored by both the faculty and the top administration.

Human Resources Qualification and Development of Personnel. This category encompasses professor's degrees was pointed out by the majority of members in both groups as being one of the outstanding factors for the development of research. It was considered a strong point to help in the development of research attained by the university in the last decade with the creation and expansion of post-graduation programs as well as the effort by the administration to assign its professors with degrees in its own courses as well as in courses abroad. The hiring of post-

graduated professors also deserved compliments. On the other hand, this was also considered a development point among the two groups as one of the factors that still need further work.

Another sub-category that was thoroughly discussed in both segments was teachers, working regimen. The administrators identified the problem as one for them to solve, especially because this is a private institution that involves both political and financial aspects. The professor-coordinator group felt that it was very important to take a stand in this respect and decrease the number of hour teachers by increasing the number of full time ones according to assessment criteria.

Within the category, assessment was one of the sub-categories deserving importance. Some members of the two groups suggest that this modality shall be used to decide on the entering of professors and changes to be made to hire professors. They also stress the importance of assessment as a selection instrument for the publishing and the presentation of scientific work in professional conferences and congresses, being it a weak point to be better defined.

In the same category, there is a crucial matter that assumes the conditions of a sub-category with a strong tendency in both groups. In the administrators' group the time variable appears as an important need linked to the success of researches, which needs to be better managed. However, time was regarded by professors and coordinators as a financial factor, an institutional kind of investment, as well as the professionals rights and duties, but, above all, this was analyzed as an aspect that seem to be disconnected from researchers. As regarding time, there is the pH professors' activities and their class hours.

Variable time for work, distribution of activities into charts and class hours (12 per week), if analyzed in a set by their interactive aspect, could be considered as one of the major frustrating factors for professors and coordinators. The members of this group say they have fought to defeat such blind development

that hinders production.

Infrastructure. This category and its sub-categories received high positive points in both groups, recognizing that the institution has been invested in these aspects, providing the researcher with good physical resources. Many indicated the supplementary support institutions available to researchers such as the Museum of Science and Technology, modern labs that meet the needs of research lines in different areas, and the library.

Organizational Climate. This category is very important and needs to be better developed according to the perceptions of some professors and coordinators. They feel a lack of encouragement and regard for their work and believe that the top administrations, and even immediate heads, have neglected such aspect. Professors who have known PUCRS for some years felt the organizational climate to be outstanding. In their opinion, the Institution has grown much and some values have been forgotten and "we need to get these values back."

Conclusion

The literature clearly shows that, in general, Brazilian Universities have not yet been able to meet the legal requirements referring to higher education teaching institutions, to universities and especially to private institutions. The legal aspect that has established the indissociability of teaching and research in the university had not been observed because only 140 are organized as universities among the 900 institutions for higher education existing in the country. Of these, only one-quarter offer *strictu sensu* graduates programs and are busy with research. The others are organized into isolated institutions (Silva, Jr. & Sguissardi, 1999).

The effort done by PUCRS to develop research and meet legal aspects as determined by LDB is undeniable. This Law gives universities 8-years from December 1996, to at least have less than one third of their faculties holding masters and pH degree in a full-

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time working schedule, as well as an institutionalized intellectual production. PUCRS undoubtedly meets legal aspects but it needs to evolve further concerning the ranking of its faculty and the improvement of their working regimens. It shall work out its leadership in the society and thus needs to cultivate its values, its philosophy and improve its functions. The relevance of research, in this context, as an activity that is inherent to university, is reinforced and need to consolidate.

In reflective teaching it is relevant to know about the reality of students and school. Thus, the research plays an important role in the field of teacher education. So, it is very important to take into account research findings and take it back into the classroom in order to discuss it with the students. This is the best way to connect higher education to elementary and secondary schools, as well as to related community and university realities. This is the way to relate theory and practice. University students must know and evaluate the schools' cultures, needs, curriculum, possibilities and teacher' performance. The new millennium is claiming for a new vision for the improvement of education and the best way to do that is improving research within the university.

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Maria Emilia Amaral Engers is senior professor in the Graduate School of Education at the Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul.Porto Alegre, Brazil.

The Utility of Vygotskian Constructs for Teacher Education

Richard Riggle

Lev Vygotsky's sociogenitic theory emerged in the 1960s as a practical alternative to Jean Piaget's biogenetic approach. As an alternate theory of cognitive development, Vygotsky's work should have had high appeal for teacher educators, and yet it remained, and remains, in relative obscurity. In an effort to communicate the relevance of Vygotsky's theory, I focus in this paper on the utility of his constructs for universal teacher education.

The similarities and differences in the constructs of Piaget and Vygotsky have been fully described and discussed elsewhere in the literature (see Tudge and Rogoff, 1989). For purposes of this paper, the message conveyed to teacher educators and their students is that while there are similarities in the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky (most notably in the use of constructivist methods for conducting research), the distinctive and frequently oppositional substance of their constructs is far more pronounced. The distinctions between biogenetic and sociogenitic interpretations of human development (which can be roughly equated with the long-standing nature/nurture controversy in child development) represent more than an academic exercise. Each orientation leads to a corresponding differentiation in the roles of teachers and students. The key aspects of Vygotsky's views are summarized in the following

*sections, along with some of the educational
implications of these views.*

Thought and Language (Speech)

In the opening pages of *Thought and Language*, Vygotsky
(1962) praised Piaget's pioneering efforts, especially his
constructivist approach to the study of children, but then
systematically exposed what he considered to be flaws in Piaget's
thinking. Vygotsky's key challenge related to Piaget's contention
that egocentric speech did not fulfill any realistically useful
function in a child's behavior or development. When Vygotsky had
presented young children with Piagetian type tasks, and
deliberately added a series of frustrations and difficulties to the
tasks, the results of these experiments had revealed that the
coefficient of egocentric speech almost doubled those of Piaget's
findings. Vygotsky concluded that the disruption of an activity
stimulated egocentric speech, and under certain conditions took on
a directing, planning function that raised the child's actions to the
level of purposeful behavior (p. 17). When Vygotsky's experiment
was repeated with older children, they examined the situation in
silence and then found a solution to the problem, but when asked
what they were thinking, the older students' responses were similar
to the thinking-aloud of the pre-schoolers. To Vygotsky, such
response patterns indicated a persistent relationship among social
interaction, egocentric speech and subvocalization (inner speech),
and led him to conclude that, "the whole conception of speech
development differs profoundly in accordance with the
interpretation given to the role of egocentric speech" (p. 19).

In short, Vygotsky argued that the acquisition of language
(speech) was the most significant period in the course of children's
cognitive development. He believed not only that speech was the
vehicle that allows humans to think, but that when language begins
to serve as a tool of mediation, "...perception changes radically,
new varieties of memory are formed, and new thought processes
are created" (Blanck, 1990, p. 47).

Social Mediation and the Construction of Reality

The interrelatedness of external stimuli with mental activity was a key concern of Vygotsky. His emphasis was on process rather than content, and on how an individual thinks, rather than on what he/she thinks. This orientation was one shared with Piaget. Yet Vygotsky sought to understand the means by which humans determine right from wrong, significant from insignificant, related from unrelated, and so on. He believed that the key to understanding such a capacity could be found in the process of social mediation, that is, the mental activity by which we try to make sense of experience by interpreting and applying the socially derived signs and tools of a particular culture. According to Vygotsky (1978), the signs and tools are the means of cognition while mediation is the process. Vygtotsky specified that there were not many similarities between the features of signs and tools other than the mediating function characterizing each of them. This distinction has become somewhat blurred in recent years with a merging of the two concepts under the rubric of "artifacts" (Cole & Wertsch, URL). Yet regardless of whether the focus is on signs, tools, or collective artifacts, what is important to note is Vygotsky's emphasis on the transformative nature of external factors and his belief that human development progresses from the social to the individual.

In face-to-face communication, the transformation to which Vygotsky refers is dialectical and accomplished with socially constructed words, kinesic markers, suprasegmentals and the meanings attached to each. In the broader context of information processing, concrete social experience must be mediated with existing personal constructs (Kelly, 1955) before it can be utilized in a productive manner.

Although both Piaget and Vygotsky concluded that children "reconstruct" experience to form their own reality, the generalization is misleading to teacher education students and needs to be qualified. The "transformation" tends to be interpreted as a complete dismantling of input to form a new and different

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idea, when in reality most cognitive reconstruction is a matter of degree. There are even conditions in which children seem to internalize unaltered input. As Tudge and Rogoff (1989) note, "Words that already have meaning for the mature members of a community come to have the same meanings for the young in the process of social interaction" (p. 21). Nelson (1974; 1983) points out further that although children can put a unique twist on the meaning of signs, they also internalize socially generated stereotypes and adopt existing life scripts. These and other issues regarding the relationships between tools, mediation and subsequent behavior need to be addressed if teacher educators are to adapt to social change.

Educational Implications

Vygotsky's goal was to explain the cause and effect relationships that exist between experience and cognitive development. Yet Vygotsky himself did not directly formulate teaching models or strategies. His theories do relate to pedagogy, however, and as a consequence they are responsible for a host of classroom applications. An example of transfer from Vygotsky's research to instructional implementation occurred for me personally as a result of my having read the previously mentioned experiments that assessed egocentric speech. I surmised that students who encounter decoding difficulties during silent reading probably experience cognitive responses similar to those of the students in Vygotsky's experiments. Support for such a relationship can be found in oscilloscopic read-outs from electrodes attached to the larynx of students while they read both silently and aloud. There is a high correlation between sine wave patterns that occur during the two forms of reading. Such findings indicate that most students subvocalize during silent reading and that inner speech increases when they encounter obstacles. Consequently, if teachers can elicit think-out-loud behaviors from students when they encounter learning difficulties, the resulting verbalizations could enable teachers to pinpoint and treat specific problems. It should be noted that the think-out-loud strategy does not call for students to describe their thought processes (Vygotsky viewed children as

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incapable of metacognition), but simply to vocalize their thoughts as they progress through a task. Weisberg (1986) points out that experimental evidence shows that thinking aloud does not greatly change the way a person attacks a problem, and therefore verbal protocols can provide insight to the processes ordinarily involved in problem solving. Miscues identified through thinking-aloud commentaries can be recorded, analyzed, categorized and examined for recurring patterns (Goodman, 1976). Such a strategy can provide the teacher with access to student thinking in the presence of an obstacle, and serve as a marker for corrective instruction. Moreover, the potential utility of a think-aloud strategy is not limited to particular age groups or subject matter fields; in fact, the strategy is a common technique used in the business world to test the usability of a product or procedure (Hom, 1996). The thinking-aloud protocol provides the evaluator with knowledge of the user's mind set and the nature of interaction with a product . Perhaps the most limiting feature of the protocol for classroom use is that it is a one-on-one procedure.

Dialectic Materialism

Dialectic methodology is central to Vygotsky's study and interpretation of higher psychological functions and provides a framework for understanding his constructs (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 6). Although Vygotsky extended the dialectic as it was utilized by Marx and Engels, its origin can be traced to the ancient Greeks, where Heraclitus described the process as a "logic of contradiction". This explains change, motion, and development by critically analyzing contradictory facts and opinions in relation to some complex whole.

The dialectic process should focus on interrelationships that exist within and between phenomena because, in the view of Engels (1892), everything is fluid, is constantly changing, is constantly coming into being, and constantly passing away. A dialectical perspective, then, forces one to think in relative terms rather than absolutes. The fluidity of change to which Engels refers has enough stability, however, so that it is possible to identify a

best, most appropriate, choice given the time, place and conditions in which the phenomena occurs. As Engels argued, one does not need to accept the dialectic a priori as the necessary scheme of development, but rather, one must discover it where it does occur. Just as Engels did, then, Vygotsky used the dialectic as an available "tool" rather than an absolute.

A discussion of dialect necessarily includes consideration of the basis of the dialect. With regard to Vygotsky's work, the dialect is based on materialism. While the concept of materialism is multidimensional and subject to a wide variety of interpretations, it was the analysis of social phenomena by Marx and Engels that was a prime in Vygotsky's sociocultural approach to human development. Vygotsky believed that higher mental functions were the consequence of internalizing socially constructed institutions. Because "socially organized activities change over time and space, it becomes difficult to maintain the belief that higher psychological activities have identical characteristics in different cultures" (Rosa & Montero, 1990, p. 61). Consequently, to Vygotsky, the structure of educational institutions is bound by the local culture and local material conditions.

Educational Implications

The process of making an instructional choice is a dialectical process and gives rise to such questions as, "What should be the ratio between: breadth and depth of instruction, quantitative and qualitative research, phonics and whole language instruction, inductive and deductive teaching?" The issues seem to be endless. Rather than making choices based on an ideal that was established by an 'expert' in a faraway place, Vygotsky would address human needs, desires, and abilities based on the time, place and conditions under which an individual is currently operating.

What follows as an educational implication is the notion that students need to realize, at a young age, that the likelihood of finding a perfect solution to a problem is quite remote. It is more probable that any solution will include the contradictory qualities

of "good news" and "bad news". For example, "The doctor said she could stop the pain in my arm." "That's good news." "She said she'll have to amputate." "That's bad news." Contrasting pairs of qualities occur at a high rate of frequency within most societies and can be readily identified. Here is a case where scaffolding can be used to increase the degree of student competence in identifying and evaluating the positive and negative consequences of human activity. In Vygotskian terms, mediation should involve more than one perspective.

Scientific and Everyday Concepts

Vygotsky made a distinction between the structure and transfer of concepts that are formed "spontaneously" in the flow of everyday experience, and concepts that are "unspontaneous" or "scientific" and are formed through systematic school based instruction. Vygotsky believed that the two forms of concepts were interrelated and constantly influencing each other.

Knowledge and learning are considered to be situated in particular physical and social settings, challenging the view that knowledge exists in the mind of the individual, independent of its contexts of acquisition and use. Dissatisfied with overly individualistic accounts of learning and knowing, scholars are arguing for the importance of social and cultural factors in determining what and how we know and learn (Borko and Putman, 1999). As such, planned didactic interaction must consider the context of instruction. The teacher needs to adapt his/her expectations and actions to the constraints and enablers of the situation.

The Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) originated as a means of assessing learning potential rather than as an instructional model. Vygotsky reasoned that a person's performance with the assistance of a more knowledgeable person might be a more accurate marker of emerging mental functioning than the person's independent performance.

Structurally, the ZPD identifies three levels of functional behavior: 1) independent, 2) the range of emergent development, and 3) potential. According to Vygotsky, these referents provide an observer with a more comprehensive image of the student than do scores from standardized achievement tests. Knowledge of a student's entering behavior, range of instructional needs, and realistic terminal goals allow for the creation of a more individually focused instructional plan.

It is worth noting that Vygotsky worked extensively with "special needs" children. He was a founder of the Institute of Defectology in Moscow and was associated with the institution until the end of his productive life. Many of his early manuscripts described problems associated with teaching the mentally and physically challenged. In such medical problems as congenital blindness, aphasia and severe mental retardation, Vygotsky saw opportunities both for understanding the mental processes of all people and for establishing programs of treatment and remediation. Kozulin (1990) noted that it was Vygotsky's intent to rehabilitate the "handicapped" in an effort to make them fully functional individuals. Kozulin also clarified that it was Vygotsky's intent to use the ZPD as a means of integrating scientific and everyday concepts rather that creating an opportunity for social sharing.

Educational Implications

Before an instructional scheme based on the ZPD can be implemented, there needs to be a clear description of the roles played by the participants, as well as their relationships to each other. Although Vygotsky included adults and more competent others in his definition of the ZPD, the issue of "the other's" competence is fundamental. The individual who is directing the flow of communication within a learning dyad must be someone who can adjust dialogue by knowing such things as which teaching strategies to use, when to use them, what time frames to use, when to stop and change the activity, and when to provide cues and reinforcement. Trained adults are more likely than children to have the breadth of knowledge and experience needed in making such

critically adaptive decisions. The primary issue under consideration is not adulthood per se, but competence. Vygotsky recognized that the consequences of social interaction are not always unilateral but can result in developmental delays, or even regression. Therefore, a student in need may be better off interacting with a peer than with an incompetent adult. Tudge and Rogoff (1989) recognized that "... social interaction facilitates development under certain circumstances that need more specification" (p. 17). It should not be assumed, then, that participation in a potentially productive activity between a student and a 'competent other' will yield the desired results. Interaction needs to be followed by an assessment of accomplishment.

Vygotsky (1962) maintained that "the only good kind of instruction is that which marches ahead of development and leads it" (p. 104). The directive to teach beyond the student's independent level is achieved through the use of imitation and modeling. By "using imitation, children are capable of doing much more in collective activity or under the guidance of adults" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 88) than they can do independently. Once a student has demonstrated that he/she is capable of imitating a behavior, it remains for the teacher to fade out modeling and cueing systems so that the target behavior can be performed by the child independently on demand.

Conclusion

The constructs used by Vygotsky are not bound by time, place, or material conditions, and are adaptable to any social or cultural setting that is not restricted by local political agendas. Vygotsky emphasized the practical consequences of the learning process and based his theory on the premise that the development of thinking progresses from the social to the individual. From Vygotsky's perspective, speech drives development while assessment and instruction must be contextually based.

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Richard Riggle is Professor Emeritus of Teacher Education at Coe College. He was an elementary and middle school teacher prior to entering higher education. His area of specialization is corrective teaching.

International Scholar Dollars Wasted or Well Spent? Canadian Student Teachers' Experiences of a British PGCE Course[*]

Douglas Smith
Cathie Holden

As more universities seek students from abroad, educators need to evaluate the experiences of these students. Do students from abroad get value for their money or are they merely contributing to the coffers of cash-starved universities? Is the training they receive relevant and appropriate to their work? Canadian graduates from the British University told us that the course was relevant and appropriate to their work in Canadian and British schools. However, during training and work in Britain, they experienced problems with social acceptance, the English idiom, and high costs. Upon returning to Canada they discovered professional and personal growth. The findings indicate a continuing need for international education and programs that teach cultural diversity at all levels of education so that all students will be enabled for teaching in the 21st century.

Introduction

Education is now a commodity and universities around the world vie for students. For example, the export of education to

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Asian markets is seen as the cornerstone to maintaining operation of Australian universities in a time of depleted government funding (Danaher, Gale & Erben, 2000). Are the student-consumers of such experiences well served? Canadian patrons of a UK program provide a case study.

Since 1995, one fifth of the student teachers in the Exeter, Primary Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) program have been Canadians. They come to the UK, convinced that the program will offer them quality training, a cultural experience, personal growth, and better job prospects. But do they get 'value for money' or are they merely contributing to the coffers of cash-starved universities? British universities charge international students more tuition than national students. These fees have become an important source of revenue for universities globally (Danaher, Gale & Erben, 2000) and this increases pressure to recruit from abroad. The British rationale maintains that education abroad is a 'good thing' per se and that it is of benefit to UK students if campuses are internationalized (Callan, 1993). The question raised here is whether the training foreign students receive in other countries is relevant and appropriate for teaching in their home countries. This case study of Canadian students in the Exeter program explores these questions and contributes to the current literature on international student experiences.

Research in the Field

A range of studies monitoring the European community's ERASMUS program provide a good deal of data on student exchanges between institutions in different countries. This literature takes a variety of formats: personal accounts of the experiences of student exchange within Europe (Robson, 1992; Hudson, 1992); discussion papers on the obstacles to successful mobility (Soptrajanov, 1991); and factual reports on the number of exchanges in respective countries (Bruce, 1989). Yet the literature describing the relevance of the students' experiences to their personal and professional development is sparse.

In international student exchange research, there is also a range of literature available. Zikopoulos (1993) provides a quantitative account of foreign students in the United States and US students abroad. Stachowski & Mahan (1995) explain US student self-discovery in overseas field experience. Yeoman (1997) discusses collegiality in transatlantic Canadian cohorts. Tillman (1988) provides comparative analyses of student flows and suggestions for the fostering of student mobility between British Commonwealth members. Pickert (1992) discusses the federal spending on international student mobility in the United States, evaluates organizational structures which help or hinder international activities, and considers ways in which the latter may be more effectively promoted within academic institutions.

Our research adds to the knowledge on organizational structures that help or hinder international activities. It also augments the international student research, providing information on the experiences of Canadian students in Europe as well as qualitative data on student flow between Commonwealth countries.

Internationalism and Teacher Training

Callan (1993) provides a three level framework for analyzing the notion of internationalism in relation to teacher education: first, internationalism of the campus as a mini-society; second, internationalism of the curriculum; and third, internationalism of the individual as product and participant in the educational process. The Canadian students in this study contributed to the first of these aims, while the tutors achieved the second aim by ensuring a global dimension in the curriculum, and finally, we as the researchers examine the third level by means of this study.

Annually, about 10 Canadians from Ontario spend their year in Exeter, England, to increase their knowledge. They choose to study in an education system other than their own, and to immerse themselves in another culture. But such experiences do not automatically benefit students. Williams (1994), and Taylor

and Peacock (1996) all found that graduates from abroad were not enabled to teach in their home country upon return. Consequently, they question the cultural framework and the educational system to which teachers trained abroad return. Can students transfer skills learnt in one setting to another? Is the course followed appropriate for the country to which they will return?

When considering a question of this nature, Williams (1994) draws on Prabhu's distinction between equipping and enabling: "Equipping means providing the student with knowledge for immediate use. Enabling, however, assumes that the demands in the future will be varied and unpredictable, and that the teacher will need to meet these demands" (p. 216). From this perspective, a key issue in this study is then whether or not Exeter's program provides the Canadians merely with immediate teaching skills for the classroom, or whether it prepares them for their long-term needs as enabled teachers?

The Exeter Program

The Exeter Primary Post-Graduate Certificate in Education Program provided to the Canadian students is a 38 week program. Students receive methods instruction in English, mathematics, science, history, geography, design, information technology, and the arts. The students also undertake teaching tasks, and relate these to child learning theory. Half of the 38-week program is spent in schools, and this time in schools includes an assessed twelve-week teaching practicum.

The Case Study

Participants

Ten Canadian graduates of the Exeter program were involved in this study. All were interviewed individually about their experiences in the Exeter program during the years from 1995 to 1997. Interviews were conducted in these graduates' second month of beginning teaching. The Canadian researcher interviewed three graduates from the 1995 year who had remained in England

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to teach. The British researcher interviewed three students from the 1996 year who had returned to Canada and were supply teaching, and also four students from the third year (1997), three of whom had found teaching posts in Canada and one of whom was still looking for a teaching position.

Data Collection and Analysis

Using semi-structured interviews, the 10 students were asked to assess their experiences both personally and professionally, and to relate their learning from the British PGCE program to their first year of teaching. The interviews were conducted both by a Canadian academic outside the program and a British university tutor who knew the program well. Involvement by both a Canadian and British researcher ensured that both nationalities were represented. After ethical clearance, interviews were tape recorded, transcribed, checked with respondents, analyzed, and subsumed under categories derived from the data.

The graduates' responses ranged from first impressions on arrival in Britain to particular examples of positive experiences and negative experiences in both educational and cultural contexts. The students expressed feelings of initial frustration and culture shock, as well as positive learning experiences achieved by the end of the course. In our analysis of the data, we evaluated the responses of the students to the program in terms of both their professional and personal development. This article identifies the challenging issues emerging from the study in order to guide future international programs.

Findings

Findings from the study are reported here in two sections. Part one focuses on the experiences of the students during the PGCE university course, and then relates the experiences of the three graduates who obtained jobs in UK schools. Part two summarizes the students' assessment of the PGCE program, and then relates the experiences of the beginning teachers who had returned to Canada.

<u>Part One: University and Teaching Experience in the UK</u>

The Canadians appreciated that the British tutors "went out of their way to be helpful and explain our situation to British peers who thought we might be taking English positions at the university." But some students found that the "international" label bothered them; as one said: "I wanted to blend in...not look like we were getting...special treatment." The Canadians had anticipated that because they "looked and spoke the same" there would not be many differences. They had felt that social acceptance would be easy, and that the only challenges to them would be completing assignments and acquiring the skills of teaching. Instead, they experienced "culture shock" related to social acceptance, language, and high costs.

Social Acceptance. To assist social integration, Canadians were placed in university accommodation with British students on the same course. However, social acceptance did not come easily. One admitted that in the first few weeks "there was some animosity between them and us." Another found her attempts to integrate through sports ineffective: "Unlike Canada, where as coxswain, I had been a vital member of the team, in Exeter, I was treated as baggage in the boat, not as a team member. I spent weekends in pouring rain.... I wasn't needed...until after I quit."

Problems of social acceptance intensified in their school placements. One student's comments summarized all the experiences: "Accent...nationality sticks out...You felt alone."

Problems around social acceptance became more acute for the three graduates who remained in Britain and were working in British schools. The personalized staff attention and collegiality of other Canadians during the PGCE year contrasted sharply with the social realities of being the sole Canadian on an English school staff. One beginning teacher found ambivalent responses from his school colleagues; some were "bitter," giving him the "cold shoulder" and seeing him as "taking money out of the country," while others saw the benefits of having a "colleague from abroad."

Another Canadian recounted broken promises from her new colleagues. The staff had told her they would help her get settled when she arrived. When she appeared, the Head was not at the school as promised, no accommodation had been arranged, and no one provided promised temporary housing. During her two months as a teacher she felt "socially uncertain, lacking in friends" and restricted to a Canadian exchange couple and her own pupils for personal contact. Stevens (2000) describes similar feelings of "otherness" expressed by international students who felt like outsiders in the host country.

English Idiom. These graduates felt that language created culture shock. They had anticipated adjusting to a different accent but they had not expected to hit a "vocabulary barrier" during PGCE and beginning teaching experiences. For example, one student preparing a bulletin board asked for Bristol board, a glue stick and an exacto knife (card, prit stick, and scalpel) and recounted the ensuing difficulty: "No one understood. I was frustrated. I needed to translate all my words."

One of the beginning teachers explained that when teaching British children he was "constantly checking myself on language usage" such as using "full-stop" in place of a Canadian "period". As a verbal model for students, he felt obliged to meet parents' expectations for English.

Economic Shock. Students found themselves overwhelmed by the costs in England. They were charged the same numerical values as in Canada but in Canadian currency it amounted to more than twice the outlay. Even though the university learned from this experience and tried to warn the following students, high costs shocked and made life difficult for some.

Although not much can be done about the expenses, the problems of social acceptance and the language barrier can be addressed. Host institutions need to make a particular effort to integrate students socially. Also students could be forewarned about language differences. Videos of British children could

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introduce international students to the idiom of the playground and classroom.

The experiences of the Canadians also say much about the attitude of some British teachers to "foreigners." The cultural shocks of the Canadians mirror the exclusion felt by black and Asian British students (Crozier and Menter 1993; Ghuman 1995). Teacher familiarity with Canadian students in British schools may play a part in improving this.

Part Two: The Exeter Program and Returning to Teach in Canada

This section reports on the long-term benefits to the Canadian students in terms of professional learning and personal development. These interviews took place in Canada with the seven students who had returned to teach and had found either full time or supply teaching positions.

Professional Development. Students anxious about how prospective principals would view their British qualifications were pleasantly surprised upon returning to Canada. One commented that: "Your world experience ...stands out on your resume." Others stated that the university course had prepared them well for teaching in Canada. Even the experience of the British National Curriculum was seen as a "good thing" with the advent of the Ontario Common Curriculum. As one graduate reported: "I've been asked to show how the Common Curriculum can be adapted through math and science because I've done it in England." Another student reflected that nearly all of the courses taught in the Exeter program had been directly transferable: "Everything we did in math I've used...I've used the writing frames...teachers (here) have asked for these."

These graduates claimed overall that their teaching practice in British primary schools had prepared them for teaching in Canadian schools, particularly in Ontario. As one stated: "I learnt how to structure and be adaptable--how to work with several different ages in the classroom." There was one area, however, in which these students felt less prepared, and this was "special

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needs" instruction: "Our inclusive system here means so many children with problems: autism, Downs syndrome...under medication...What happens? How do you assess?" Yet despite feeling the need for special needs professional development, these students concluded that they had transferred learning. "Kids are kids," they said, "and it's a similar educational system". Graduates stated that the British program was highly appropriate to Ontario schools. Transfer to other Canadian provinces was not examined.

Taylor and Peacock (1996) caution that students often need to be "diplomatic" when returning home because they may have changed their attitudes and beliefs and, as a result, find it hard to adapt to the conventional methodologies of the home country. Canadian students may have changed but the education systems were sufficiently matched to accommodate this. Taylor and Peacock's concern was that international students may return to fewer resources, restrictive politics, and inability to use their training. Again this was not the case with these students: Ontario students were returning to similar resources, politics, and debates about education.

Personal Development. No graduates reported that the year had been a negative experience or a waste of money. While acknowledging that it had been "harder than I thought," all regarded the year as something which had affected them in three areas.

First, some saw their experience as directly of use in the classroom, making them a more culturally aware teacher: "It's international experience you can take into the classroom." Second, students whose parents or grandparents were from Europe had a chance to strengthen family ties and learn more about their cultural background. One Canadian with parents of Slovenian extraction explained:

It makes you see your own culture differently.
Actually it brought you closer to your parents. I felt
I could relate to their culture shock (when they first

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came to Canada). I kept thinking on teaching
practice...this is me as my parents.

Finally, some students saw the whole year as one of
personal growth. One stated it this way: "I'm confident,
stronger...not afraid to jump in. It validated for me that this is what
I wanted to do."

Conclusion

Findings from this study reveal that these 10 Canadian
students felt that the British PGCE course was relevant and
appropriate. Furthermore their ability to adapt their training to the
Ontario classroom suggests that they had been both equipped and
enabled as beginning teachers. The distinction between wasted and
well-spent dollars is less clear. These students felt they had learned
to teach, but they had also suffered "economic shock." Although
none felt exploited, they commented on the unfairness of their
higher fees compared to those of the British students.

British universities attract international students because of
the high fees they bring. However, if the two education systems are
close, there is great potential within student exchange programs for
both personal and professional development. In a more borderless
world, we need programs teaching the value of cultural diversity at
all levels of education. Tuition fees for overseas students need to
be revised. Students need help, not hindrances, to study abroad, for
the experiences gained on international campuses truly benefit all.

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Douglas Smith is an Associate Professor, Department of Curriculum Studies, University of Saskatchewan with interests in indigenous education, staff development, and student teaching.

Cathie Holden is Senior Lecturer, School of Education, University of Exeter with interests in pre-service teacher education, gender equity, parent-teacher cooperation, and educational change.

Professor Reports on Students Requiring Special
Education:
Elements for a Curricular Reform

Claus Dieter Stobaäs

This study discusses elements from a qualitative research in the field of Special Education Needs (SEN), obtained at our Post-doctorate course. The subjects were twelve Faculty of Psychology professors interviewed from Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain, between 1999 and 2000. A content analysis of the transcripts from the interviews produced six categories: Term Use, Teacher Formation, Satisfaction/Insatisfaction, Difficulty/Problems, Education, and Learning. The results indicate that it is necessary for more coherence while using concepts and conceptions; Special Education needs prepared multi-interdisciplinary and multi-professional teams; basic and special formation, also monitoring of on-service training and other modalities are required; there are problems with timing and rhythm in actuating Students with Special Educational Needs (SSEN); in teaching may stress on personal and student particular manner of learning, care about their job; in learning to attempt on slight changes and make individual evaluation.

Introduction

Our interest in Special Education and, currently, in Inclusive Education derives from our activity as a doctor, our teaching practice as a professor in under-graduate and graduate courses, contact with students having Special Educational Needs

(SEN), as well as the participation in meetings and debates about feasible reforms in educational courses.

Review of the Literature

Marchesi, Coll and Palacios (1990) emphasize that the professor must be predisposed and have a positive attitude towards the student especially to the one having Special Educational Needs (SEN). This kind of thought leads us to a reality in which professors have a preponderant role in their work on Students with Special Educational Needs (SSEN). Thus, we must know how the teaching staff thinks and behaves, in direction to a possible Education for All. In order to deepen our reasoning and knowledge, we have to take the long historical path of exclusion, prejudice and rejection, constantly called for and present, until we reach what we now wish and propose, inclusion. There is a relationship between normal and pathological, what may be considered normal and very similar within a group will be so for that group only, whereas what is considered abnormal, pathological or very different within another group, will be so for that group likewise.

In terms of historical evolution, Correia (1997) calls our attention to the fact that, at the time of the Greeks and the Romans, ideas and acts concerning the exclusion of those who were different were evident. They would be withdrawn and hidden due to their differences from what that societies would expected and this happened continuously until the 19th century, when the so called masters began to understand and turn their attention to the deficient. The fast development of sciences from de middle of the 19th century on, provided an understanding of the nature of alteration leading diseases.

This knowledge improved both treatment and service, firstly in the medical field, later in education and, more recently, in the psychological and social area, when the so called segregation period began and the so called special schools were created, in which the policies were to detach and isolate children from the

mainstream and major social group. World Wars I and II were followed by a time of transition with the humanistic revival of the 1960s and the great civil and social movements, until the famous legal claim by the Pennsylvania Association of Retarded Children in the United States opened the discussion about giving these children the right to be educated as any other pupil, on a regular basis, as integrated in a school. The term integration appeared in the 1980s and was much more applied in the sense of the SSEN, with the so-called normal, for academic and social purposes, in a least restrictive environment possible. From the 1980s on, after the Warnock Report, the term began to be applied rather in the sense of the school's integrating capability so as to meet special educational needs.

Concerning inclusion, Sassaki (1997) points out the following principles: celebration of differences, the right to belong, appraisal of human unlikeness, humanitarian solidarity, equal importance of minorities, and citizenship with life quality. The author and also Stainback and Stainback (1999) states inclusion as the process by which society adapts itself to include outsiders while they, on their side, get ready to take up their roles in society, in a bilateral process in which people, still excluded, and society gather around problem solving issues by accomplishing and equalizing opportunities for all. We may also clarify that integration and inclusion are still used as synonymous or in a very similar way by some authors and entities like UNO, UNESCO and WHO, pointing out Salamanca's Statement (UNESCO, 1994a, 1940b) settling the terminology: class inclusive, school inclusive, inclusive educational policies, inclusion in job and education, towards the School for All. These ideas of inclusion are in a way latent in studies and works by socio-culturally oriented psychologists, with special regards to Vygotsky, Luria and Leontiev in the 1920s and 1930s, who referred to it as Defectology, which today may be understood as the studies of educational and psychological aspects of the so called Carrier/Student with of Special Educational Needs.

Investigation

The research is of a qualitative nature at a descriptive level. It has detected, from the subjects' reports, how SSEN teachers think and act in the classroom within the thematic area of Teaching Students with Special Educational Needs, and questions about What teachers think and how they act concerning integration/inclusion in SSEN; Which rewards and problems teachers report as being more frequent in their classroom activities; What kind of teaching problems are mostly reported by teachers; and What kind of learning problems are most frequently reported by teachers?

Subjects were twelve professors working with research and knowledge and production in Special Education, Faculty of Psychology at UAM, Madrid, Spain. A semi-structured interview was used and content analysis (Bardin, 1995; Bogdan & Biklen, 1994) allowed us to ascertain the six following categories.

Term Use, with two sub-categories: as being synonymous or as having different meanings. In the first category we included teachers' speeches who consider the interchangeability of the terms Inclusion and Integration or Carrier/SSEN as equal terms, with examples, (S1) "... in the beginning of the Spanish reform, around 1980, SSEN students were named as Carrier of Special Educational Needs;" or (S2) "I mean, I agree with both the terms but not the languages. I like them, not only for the politically correct kind of language but also the idea of a subject with special needs that takes me back to the English word challenge," which reminds us of the meaning used by English authors for the word challenge as meaning opposition, objection and difference.

The second category, as having a different meaning, includes teachers' statements who consider these terms as being diverse, different and even opposite, antonymous, specially Carrier/Students or Integration/Inclusion, (S8) "it is not equal, for me ... these things are always dialectic, ... we are talking about distinct things" or (S5) "it seems to me that this is an interesting jump, a jump into social inclusion in the same way as it was with educational needs concerning Special Education. We talked about

the 2% when we mentioned Special Education. When referring to Special Education needs we talk about 18-20% of students who can have problems."

We observed that teachers and specialists are favorable to integration. The influence of two paradigms can be noticed from these answers: the rational medical doctor more plunged into practice and the humanist-educative within the academic world. More discussion concerning medical concepts are found in articles by the American Association on Mental Retardation (1997), or in SEN in García Pastor (1995), Grau Rubio (1998), Lou Royo & Lópes Urquízar (1998), and Huertas(1998).

Teacher Formation, in which there aspects concerning teacher graduation related either directly or indirectly with Special Education, (S5) "My interest in terms of special needs has to do with my initial work at the Education Ministry, in 1985, where I worked until 1996. Great part of the job regarded integration ... . It was an investigation, but we were all the time involved in the completion of the task. At the present time I teach at UAM;" (S11) "I began my doctorate here in the school of Psychology in the field of Learning and Integration. ... . I've been working in a guidance group since 1985, when integration was beginning to come up in Spain. My previous formation is in Pedagogy ..., where I attended some disciplines about Special Education. ... I also worked in a school that had students with special needs."

It is a very diverse formation, mainly in Psychology and Pedagogy and other areas, having all the present level as well as a Ph.D. degree and some kind of practice in SEN.

Satisfaction/Insatisfaction, positive and negative comments on the work developed among which speeches related to students, teachers, parents, the school and other people who work at the school and/or are members of the so called educational system, (S10) "... when many conditions are given ... , the cloister being compromised ... , it is necessary to have complementary resources so that the teacher does not feel alone in his task... , have adequate

material resources ... , a culture, we mean a culture in a company ... ; where all students would receive education about diversity and value ... ; it seems so much, but the teacher has to care about the students ...) , to want to connect ... ; there must be a close relationship with the family ... . When there are such situations, there is an adequate integration (... and teachers manifest their satisfaction and grades and speak enthusiastically about their children, which is a key-word indication that shows their interest in the child;" (S6) "There is nothing more authentic than the moment in which a teacher realizes that he reached his aim to make a child work adequately, according to some pre-established academic and social criteria, ... when the children seem to be pleased by the activities developed and happy with their classmates."

Teachers report their satisfaction when their students make any progress no matter how much it was. Huertas (1999) comments that it is important become more satisfaction in actuating in SEN, as teacher, to involve more in action with SSEN. They feel rewarded when they manage to carry out so called daily life tasks that are either diverse or repeated. They count on the support from their parents, classmates and the director of school in which they are integrating/including the student and, undoubtedly, on society as a whole.

Difficulty/Problems, are aspects raised concerning the problems they faced (and are still facing) in the field of Special Education; (S10) "Children with an autistic aspect, and here is one problem, have much more difficulty than the ones who are blind ... , that is, they are the ones to show more diversity, a qualitative disturbance;" (S12) "What I now consider to be tremendous problem is when I face parents of pre-adolescents who say now, 'what is happening here that I cannot communicate with him'? It is really terrifying when the adolescence crisis is added to communication problems on the control of interaction."

 One of the main problems sometimes hard to detect precisely concerning health-disease relationship is agreement with the treatment for which we have to consider aspects like

knowledge/non-acquaintance, pre-concepts/prejudice and undoubtedly, still, treatment interruption. It is worth raising the following point: To what extend does the curriculum (including the covert one) is made explicit? Problems must be solved at the moment, with repetition of behaviors, continuous adjustments, patience and knowledge of the field.

Education, towards a more positive or negative direction, (S4) "What we have to do is to be there and also demand from these children, because these children are also unwilling to change, if I know he/she will do everything for me then I prefer to be with him/her (student or teacher). Then, we should also know to what extent we can demand or not from the student, how much support we have to give him/her, be alert to everything;" (S6) "The theme formation is really important, we do not learn it theoretically in a few hours, the problems of a thumb child, for example, ... of situations with more difficulty ... . We can hardly control what is going on. Then, the closer is the relation, the coordination, the help and the collaboration with the teachers inside the classroom, the most benefit everybody will get. Children are the first to benefit from such practice."

Teachers comment on the needs of constant updating and aids, working with limits, and are even graded points by the teaching evaluating process considering their improved and continued assistance to their students along with a multidisciplinary and multi-professional group, as we says in our book (Mosquera and Stobäus, 1984), especially with SSEN. They emphasize attitudes concerning respect to diversity, assistance to the personal rhythm, care and attention in detecting the least behavioral and cognitive modifications in order to view and develop potentialities. According to Sassaki (1997), Stainback and Stainback (1999), and Pérez Cobacho and Prieto Sánchez (1999), there are important points to develop, specially comments about the fact that one learns better upon assistance, when there is oriented practice calls our attention. We shall remember, while revising the curriculum, to enhance and anticipate the practice.

Learning, (S7) "I was talking about nasty behaviors, overprotection and abandonment; which can also be called forgetfulness ... , to have a very realistic idea (about the SSEN individual and its capabilities, difficulties), not having an idea of a more friendly and pleasant person, except for a person one has to be careful about, if she seizes you, don't be weary ... ; and (S6) "For example, children I knew in some schools never misbehaved when the teacher's behavior was good. That is, I never saw the case of a child who rejected a classmate if the teacher treated this SSEN well. What I saw was even a positive discrimination."

They still point out the need to try in an effective and efficient, also affective, way to create conditions for the SSEN to improve their quality of life and, undoubtedly, taking into consideration their colleagues, teachers and professionals working at the school, as well as the whole society, remembering all head ways in the in language and behavioral control, specially increased in effective social interaction.

Final Comments and Advice

Curriculum revision, based on reality, needs to work better, on some, if not on all, points described below. These points have been drawn from our reflections about our reality in Porto Alegre, Brasil, and the data obtained in this research in Madrid, Spain.

2.   There is a need to work more thoroughly on concepts and conceptions, manifested and adopted by teachers, in order to promote practices that are coherent with the theories they say and use;

3.   Aids and help should be available all the time from multi and interdisciplinary as well as multi-professional teams;

4.   Basic formation is important and continued and specific formation is also required with the monitoring of on-service training and modalities that lead to deep reflections and behavioral changes, specially in the fields of Education, Psychology and Health, with the intent to carry out an

efficient (at the time, on the process) and effective (a posteriori on the outcome) teacher education, constantly updated, thoughtfully encompassing new paradigmatic conceptions and lines of investigation on themes as Inclusive Education itself, taking into account different contexts;

5. There are problems among which we highlight timing and rhythm which differ according to the place: school, home with parents, in an unprepared and inattentive society;

6. In teaching we may stress on personal rhythm, finding out individual problems and pay close attention to student rhythm learning;

7. In learning, we should take into account the slightest changes that are important for evaluation, evolution assessment and change proposals.

All these elements are worth taking into account and may raise second thoughts, revisions for future changes both to the curriculum and to teaching practice inside the classroom. At this point in time, we shall recommend this work as a starting point to future studies and considerations, especially concerning the differences that may be biological, educational, cultural, racial, or others that might be found, and with which we need to know how to deal, and finally, the gathering and the real merging of professionals from several areas around the discussion of teams such as Education for All, Health Education, Inclusive Education, Social Education and Cultural Education.

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Claus Dieter Stobäus area is in Education: Learning and Instruction. He is Postdoctor at Facultad de Psicología-Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, teaches at Post-Graduation Course, School of Education, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, Av. Ipiranga, 6681, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil E-mail.

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