

Foreword about the Inclusive Education Part

Inclusion Education: a Burning Issue for Researchers around the World

On January 16 and 17, 2020 was held in Lebanon, the 1st edition of the international REACH conference organized in partnership between the NGO T.I.E.S (Together for Inclusive Educational Systems) and the American University of Beirut. Meeting under the acronym Research for Education Accessibility Challenges, 31 participants from Lebanon, Jordan, France and Canada wished to contribute to open wider the doors to education for all in an inclusive aim. The crisis prevailing in many countries, and amplified by the COVID-19 requires education systems to be rethought so that they no longer contribute to maintaining or even increasing the inequalities already present in our societies. In this context, scientific research on the implementation of inclusive education is crucial for the improvement of our education systems.

Thus, following the recommendations of the latest Guide to Ensuring Equity and Inclusion in Education (UNESCO, 2017), the objectives are to 1. clarify the concepts underlying inclusive education, 2. question the relevance of general policy declarations about it, 3. analyze the structures and systems implemented to support it, and 4. observe the practices that can contribute to promoting it. However, there cannot be only one way to develop inclusive education, and it cannot claim universalism, as its implementation is determined by the local realities in which it takes place. It is therefore essential to collect data related to the experiences and needs of education stakeholders in order to define a strategy specific to each country, each region and each local community.

Few scientific events in the Middle East contribute to the theme of inclusive education.. Through four working sessions, the participants in this conference were able to successively think about the Lebanese school and how to move from words to deeds, the diversity and the inclusive practices to respond to it based on field experiences in Lebanon, the challenge of moving from school to employment and finally, at the very basis of inclusion in Society, the schooling. Three of the five articles presented in this issue deal specifically with the reality of the Lebanese school and two deal with more general issues.

Asma Azar and Viviane Bou Sreih highlight the reality, challenges and issues involved in making the Lebanese school truly inclusive. This change requires a shift in the conceptual representations of inclusive education held by both teachers and principals, and it is on these that Basma Fangieh and Joumana Akiki are working. But inclusive education is not a mere recommendation that should fall on the heads of the school stakeholders, and it has a chance to develop only in a process of self-determination, which is the subject of the preliminary

investigation conducted by Shaza Ismail. The findings of these researchers are not, however, limited to this local context and can be applied more broadly to many education systems. Among these common reflections is also the question of formative evaluation, which could help teachers to adopt inclusive practices, especially in primary school, and which Nicole Monney ask. Whatever the issues and the challenges that arise in local realities, inclusive education must face institutional and conceptual resistance everywhere to take its place in education systems, as Hervé Benoit shows us.

The REACH Initiative was an opportunity for participants who were not familiar with it to discover the reality and complexity of the Lebanese school system, but also offered a great opportunity for all to reflect on inclusive practices and share success stories. By bringing together researchers, practitioners, education students and NGO leaders, this event put into perspective the many initiatives aimed at fostering the educational success of all students. It also gave rise to new collaborations between partners all working towards a common goal: inclusive education.

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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN THE FACE OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS: INSTITUTIONAL AND CONCEPTUAL RESISTANCES

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to analyze, using international literature on the subject, the different types of resistance on the part of educational systems today to implementing inclusive education. This study seeks to produce, with a view toward a subsequent research project, the initial elements for a renewed understanding of these resistances to the inclusion of students at every level of education. The methodological framework is that of an exploratory meta-synthesis referring to the “synthesis of the results of several qualitative studies to create a new interpretation” (Finfgeld, 2003). The following will be examined successively: first, the existence of analyzers of institutional resistances; then the robustness of conceptual tools to design and implement inclusive education; and finally the tendencies to distort the principle of inclusion. One form of such distortion can be the use of inclusive language to disguise the reproduction of prior practices of segregation.

Keywords: educational systems; inclusion; inclusive education; resistances; segregation.

1. Introduction

On the one hand, the paradigm of inclusive education has been discussed in many publications at the international level, which made it possible to identify major pedagogical and institutional challenges. Parallel to this research, the positions adopted by UNESCO in the *Statement of Salamanca*, the *World Education Forum* in Dakar, Senegal, and the *Policy Guidelines for Inclusion in Education* (1994, 2000, 2005, 2009) have drawn support from many countries in the world which now claim that they have integrated inclusivity as an objective in their public educational policies, even if changes remain varied, as they depend on the specific social and cultural context of each country. In 1996 the European Union created the *European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education*, which has now become *European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education*. As a result, inclusive education has been durably established at the heart of the European Union’s educational policy. A vast programme for training teachers in taking into account the diversity of students from the early stages of schooling (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011) was launched during the years following 2010. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that educational systems oppose resistance to adopting the new inclusive paradigm, in terms of pedagogical practices and institutional functioning as well as dominant social representations. The managerial habits based on a compartmentalized conception of functioning and responsibilities within educational systems indeed constitute a real danger: the principle of universality might be distorted. The objective of general

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accessibility to educational systems could lose its universal content if the principle of educational inclusion were to be practiced on the basis of purely pragmatic casuistry. This casuistic approach consists in judging, on a case-by-case basis, whether or not compensatory assistance is effective for a given student, and on these grounds deciding whether the disabled child's capacity for adaptation is sufficient for him to attend mainstream schools. For example, the conditional nature of admission of young disabled persons to mainstream schools, and the fact that admission is subordinated to compensation for disabilities, can become barriers to inclusion (Benoit, 2018, p. 91), and thus represent a step backward in the integrative process.

The objective of this article is to analyze, using international literature on the subject, the different types of resistance on the part of educational systems today to implementing inclusive education. This study seeks to produce, with a view toward a subsequent research project, the initial elements for a renewed understanding of these resistances to the inclusion of students at every level of education. The methodological framework is that of an exploratory meta-synthesis referring to the "synthesis of the results of several qualitative studies to create a new interpretation" (Finfgeld, 2003, quoted in Beaucher & Jutras, 2007, p. 62). Unlike the meta-synthesis undertaken by Rousseau, Point, Desmarais and Vienneau about conditions favorable and unfavorable to the development of inclusive practices in secondary education (2017), the present study is exploratory as it is not grounded on a systematic collection of research papers in a variety of databases, even though it has a research objective, namely to understand the resistances to educational inclusion on the part of educational systems.

The first question is the following: do the numerous studies in international literature on education and inclusive public policies provide us with reliable and relevant analyzers of what constitutes institutional resistance within educational systems? The second question concerns the robustness of the conceptual tools used to reflect upon, design and implement inclusive education in systems historically founded on norms of selection, guidance, or even exclusion, combined with widespread practices of categorization with respect to disability. The third question seeks to investigate and characterize the forces of distortion.

Such forces can appear in the use of inclusive language to disguise the reproduction of prior practices of segregation¹.

2. Defining Analyzers of Institutional Resistances in Educational Systems

In a *Thematic Publication* entitled *Special Needs Education in Europe*, published in 2003 in the framework of the *European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education*, the authors (Eds Meijer, Soriano & Watkins, p.7) devote the very beginning of the first chapter to the *Common characteristics of policies and practices*. There they present an initial typology, taken up by Champollion in 2007, which is useful as it lays the groundwork for a comparative approach to the European educational systems in the way they educate young disabled persons. This analysis allows us to characterize, in terms of structure, the varied and often multifaceted functioning of educational systems:

¹ This notion of "forces of distortion" is taken from the book of the jurist Georges Ripert, mentioned by Paul Roubier (1955) in *Les forces créatrices du droit*, in which are analyzed "economic or religious forces which work either in a conservative or a reforming direction", when laws are created, but also when they are put into practice.

- “Countries can be grouped into three categories according to their policy on including pupils with special educational needs:
 - The first category (one-track approach) includes countries that develop policy and practices geared towards the inclusion of almost all pupils within mainstream education.
 - The countries belonging to the second category (multi-track approach) have a multiplicity of approaches to inclusion. They offer a variety of services between the two systems (i.e. mainstream and special needs education systems).
 - In the third category (two-track approach), there are two distinct education systems. Pupils with special educational needs are usually placed in special schools or special classes. In general, a majority of pupils officially registered as having special educational needs do not follow the mainstream curriculum with their non-disabled peers”.

In addition to the distinction between three types of public educational policies, this approach highlights the fact that educational systems are most often affected by an internal binary opposition between two terms, (1) *mainstream* and (2) *special needs education systems*, which refers to what could be called educational dualism, in the sense that we speak of socioeconomic dualism (Benoit, 2008, p. 100), or legal dualism¹. Indeed, we can consider that the third category, the multitrack approach, does not exist as such, but represents one mode of functioning of the two track approach, in which separate structures are multiplied and specialized with a “cascading effect” (Gottlieb, 1981). This mode of functioning consists in offering young disabled persons a broad range of gradual measures and services as methods of structural rather than pedagogical differentiation (Pelgrims, 2019, p. 45).

This general context of educational dualism, based on the coexistence of special education classes and institutions on the one hand, and ordinary educational structures on the other, is the starting point for integrative bridges and collaborative structures between separate branches and the common curriculum. The purpose is to allow some young persons, to whom “sufficient” adaptive capacities are attributed, to join classmates temporarily in mainstream education cycles (Chauvière & Plaisance, 2008, p. 42) or to enable them, for example in Brazil, to meet their classmates in multifunctional spaces (Chacon & Oliveira, 2013). On the one hand, the special needs education system uses for its own purposes the mainstream path as a place for socialization in the framework of a specialized educational path. On the other hand, the possibility for integration is reserved to pupils who, at the end of a remedial or rehabilitation program, can prove they are able to adapt to a mainstream environment. The focus is thus on the pupil as a distinct individual with personal disorders. The functioning of the mainstream system is not directly called into question in terms of its capacity to consider the variety of individual needs of all pupils. This educational dualism can be modeled in the following way (Benoit, 2014a, p. 535).

¹ Legal dualism consists of a division of law, public and private law into two main branches. Some jurists question the validity of this distinction. Educational dualism entails a division between mainstream education and special education.

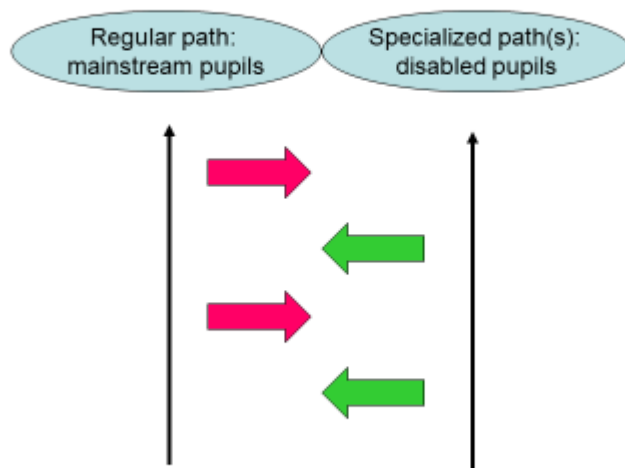


Figure 1: Pupils Moving Back and Forth between Specialized Path(s) and the Mainstream Path

The status of student integrated in a mainstream educational system may be described as educational insecurity (Benoit, 2012, p. 70; 2014c). This is because this status shows a double isomorphism¹ in the way it functions, comparable to that of a worker with insecure job (employed under fixed-term contract) and also to that of a foreign immigrant in a host country. The immigrant lives under the threat of being deported from the host country (in the case of the student, removed from a mainstream school) if he does not prove his capacity to adapt (for example, by speaking the language of the host country correctly). The young disabled person’s “native land” is the one that defines the borders of specialized institutions in France, special schools in Europe and the rest of the world, or integrated special classes in mainstream schools. All of these are reference places and true “home port” for the disabled student or student in difficulty. It is from these home bases that he begins an “integrative trip”, and where, in the event of a problem, he returns. Indeed, it is to these places that the system assigns to him his legal educational address, in other words the roots of his specific identity. The integrated young disabled person’s educational insecurity can lead to an insecure identity.

From the viewpoint of educational inclusion, the approach no longer consists of asking the young disabled person to meet mainstream standards or giving him access to “liminal” space (Murphy, 1988, 1990; Saint Martin, 2016). The approach is rather to challenge the educational system about its capacity to take into account the diversity of special needs of all students, in particular when those needs are linked to a deficiency, disorder or disease. Here we have the opposite perspective, in which the young disabled person acquires what could be called “mainstream citizenship”. This means he is no longer a visitor or guest foreigner, but a full-

¹ The term “isomorphism” (Benoit, 2005, p. 50; Curchod-Ruedi & Doudin, 2013, p. 236) is originally a mathematical concept meaning that each element of a set corresponds to an element of another set, each one of these elements respectively playing the same role in its original set. The transposition of this notion into linguistic or human systems emphasizes the correspondence of relations inside different systems.

fledged member of the educational community. Here we have a new rationality which seeks to find how to open the way to a mainstream curriculum. In other words, mainstream curricula are made accessible to the disabled student.

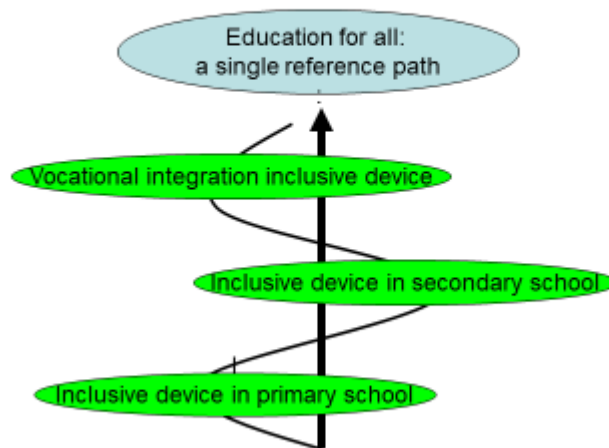


Figure 2: Organization of the Inclusive Educational Path in and with Reference to the Single Mainstream Educational Path

We can thus conclude this first part by identifying the conscious or unconscious reference to educational dualism as a major barrier to thinking about inclusive education. The organization of the two-track approach is, thus, internalized in the representations of all actors as the expression of an unavoidable dichotomy between the normal and the pathological (Canguilhem, 1966). This dichotomy is an “epistemological obstacle” as it constitutes a resistance to the progress of knowledge and in fact puts a brake on the development of new professional practices.

3. Evaluating the Robustness of the Conceptual Tools Mobilized to Reflect upon, Design and Implement Inclusive Education

3.1. The Notion of Special Educational Needs

The two French laws of July 8, 2013¹ (article 1) and July 26, 2019² state that the educational system “provides educational inclusion (2013) - inclusive schooling (2019) - to all children with no distinction”, i.e. the system ensures the right to education in a mainstream environment. Since the Statement of Salamanca (1994), the main method for putting these principles into practice has consisted in responding and adapting to the special education needs of the students concerned. To summarize, the current public educational policies in France, but

¹ Law n° 2013-595, July 8, guidance and programming for the re-foundation of the School of the Republic: Journal Officiel, n° 0157, July 9, 2013, p. 11379.

² Law n° 2019-791, July 26, 2019, for an Education of Confidence: Journal Officiel, n° 0174 July. 2019.

also in most countries of the OECD, define inclusive schooling as a goal and present the response to the special educational needs of disabled students (or non-disabled students) as the lever to make their action operational (Benoit, 2020).

Opinions are far from unanimous about the scientific relevance and social utility of the notion of special educational needs, and some researchers have pointed out that it is a pre-notion, in the sense used by Durkheim. In other words, it is a concept deriving from practice which arose “outside of science and for needs that have nothing scientific about them” (Durkheim, 1977, p. 40). Moreover, Ebersold and Detraux (2013), along with other researchers, in particular in Italy (D’Alessio, 2009; Medeghini et al., 2012; Vadalà et al., 2013; Ianes et Demo, 2013), believe that these needs are not part of the inclusive paradigm, as they focus on deficiencies to be compensated for and are based on a diagnostic approach to the student taken in isolation. In this sense, the evaluation of needs is paradoxically viewed as fostering educational dualism by isolating vulnerable groups in segregated educational places (Ebersold & Dupont, 2019 p. 68)

As of the 1980s, the classifications of diseases, influenced by the dominant medical discourse of repercussion/remediation of the ICIDH¹ (WHO, 1980) were established not only in the field of health but also in that of pedagogical and educational practices and even in the sciences of education, where the concept of (mental, physical,...) disorder took a significant place. These factors led to combining the notion of disorder with that of special educational needs, which resulted in a split and hybridization of the concept of needs. From then on, needs were most often considered to be inherent in the given student, as these needs were seen as a compensation for the repercussion of the student’s disorder. Such rationality based on “disorder” thus strengthened the idea that knowledge of the diagnosis and the invariants characterizing the student should in principle determine both the nature of the student’s needs and the choice of adapted measures. This very same rationality, moreover, tends to overlook the social determinants, as they are somehow blended into a discourse about needs viewed as inherent in the individual and stemming from his pathology. Needs are thus essentialized (Benoit, 2020, p. 74).

Over the past 10 years, however, we have witnessed the development of a new approach to “situated needs” (Benoit, 2014b, p. 197), developed in particular in the framework of the network of researchers of the OPHRIS² and the inclusion of didactic accessibility. It marked a return to the meaning that Warnock initially gave to educational needs in his report of 1978, and thus freed itself from medical rationality by moving away from the notion of compensatory response to presumed repercussions of a disorder (Plaisance, 2012). The idea is that “situated needs can thus be identified by the teachers, who can then adapt situations to these needs. To be sure, a priori analyses of the needs of disabled students and teaching situations are necessary, but the purpose is rather to set up a didactic process between the analysis of needs and the analysis of situations” (Assude, 2019, p. 17). This approach is based on the fact that the pathological and the normal have much in common. Besides, the skills lacked by an individual are always closely linked to specific areas of activity and experience (Vergnaud, 2004, p. 9), and linked much less to whatever we might know about the nature of the disorder and the individual characteristics of the person. A student encounters a barrier in learning or in his family or social life. The result is a need for mediation, which is precisely constitutive of a special educational need (Benoit, 2008, p. 102, 2012, p. 75). This educational need, which could be designated by the term “barrier-need”, is thus not considered as existing prior to the teaching-learning situation. It is rather the product of the interactions that characterize this situation, and

¹ International Classification of Impairments, disabilities and Handicaps, in force until 2001.

² Observatory of practices related to disability: research and educational action.

is not inherent in the student. For the teacher, therefore, the aim is to adjust accessibility to learning tasks on the basis of observing how these tasks actually develop in a concrete situation. An approach of this type is structured around the barriers encountered by the student in his learning environment, barriers that the teacher acts upon to make the environment more accessible. This approach thereby seeks to become a strong factor in non-discriminatory professional teaching practices. It is in fact in keeping with the universal design enshrined by the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006), as needs identified in a given situation, or situated needs, could function as an incubator for making learning accessible to all, thus eliminating any danger of stigmatization or segregation.

The same approach is developed by Thomazet (2012, p. 16) when he conditions “the change to schooling for all, called inclusive schooling” on the capacity of the educational system to “place the concept of special educational needs on the terrain of schooling”. Referring to the recommendations of the Warnock report, Thomazet recommends taking into account “the needs of the students in the school and not the origin of their difficulties” (*ibid.*, p.11). He adds that the concept of needs could constitute a powerful lever for change if applied no longer to students, but to schools themselves. In this, he states: “Moving from the needs of the child to the needs of the school requires going beyond the integrative paradigm (...) to question the organization of schools so as to make them able to meet the needs of all students who attend them” (*ibid.* p. 16).

This apparent contradiction between the two understandings of special needs in education does not in fact stem from an epistemological antagonism, but rather from the choice of perspective, partly determined by the scientific analytical framework. The sociological framework seeks to reveal the differentiating and discriminating aspect of the special educational needs in that they objectively favor mechanisms of social exclusion. On the contrary, the framework of the sciences of education focuses on the operational qualities of the other side of the same concept. That is, it allows teachers to reflect upon and create schools accessible to all, without recourse to medical categories and educational segregation, with an ecological and educationally situated conception of the learning difficulties encountered by students (Benoit, 2020, p. 78). Eliminating this ambiguity is one of the preconditions for a robust concept for researchers, and can help practitioners in the field to overcome the dilemmas they face when carrying out their inclusive mission.

3.2. *The Notion of Assessment*

In 2007 the European Agency examined the question of the assessment of needs in the context of inclusive education (Watkins, 2007). The expected results of this project were to determine, with experts from the 23 countries represented, the conditions under which educational systems could move “toward an inclusive method of assessment” (p. 49). One of the main conclusions of the Agency’s work on this was to show that the assessment practices with respect to young disabled persons most often consisted in identifying needs in terms of rehabilitation or therapeutic actions in a remedial or compensatory perspective. The aim of these actions was to remedy the disorders of these persons and to reduce them, at the expense of an assessment in the educational framework of needs from the point of view of learning. The Agency emphasized the risks of segregation, and the use of the rationality of educational dualism deriving from the medical origin of an approach centered on deficiencies or pathologies. The approach recommended by the Agency was, on the contrary, to take into account the pedagogical context in which the student’s difficulties arose. The actions in support of learning, combined with the assessment of the strengths and resources of the learner, were preferred to resorting to special measures, or even to directing the student toward segregated educational structures.

3.3. The Notion of Inclusion as Faced with the Dichotomy between Compensation and Accessibility: The Ever-Present Danger of Educational Dualism

The collective effort toward greater accessibility, which aims at the environment, and the attribution of compensations, which responds to the individual's specific incapacities, are not in a relationship of balance, like two trays on a scale. They are linked by an inversely proportional relationship. Indeed, a deficit of accessibility leads to more compensation, and to the danger of stigmatization. A deficit of compensation, on the other hand, gives more weight to general considerations and ignores the unique needs of each individual. The problem is therefore less to seek a possible balance between these two policies than to observe the hierarchical relationship between them (Benoit, 2014c, p. 186).

Despite the universal design enshrined by the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006), the widespread application of standards of selection and guidance in educational systems and the general categorization with respect to disability are combined in many countries. Thus, it may lead to overuse and excessive representation of compensatory practices, especially in technical and human assistance (educational assistants in France, support teachers in Italy, etc.). These assistance providers are generally presented as responses compensating for a personal deficiency, directly or indirectly, aiming at reintegrating the disabled child into the realm of normality. Thus, teaching habits and generally admitted educational standards are not challenged. The "contexts" are neutralized (Vadala, Medeghini, D'Alessio, 2013). The young disabled person's learning difficulties are viewed as the consequence of individual deficiencies impossible to remedy, and not as the result of barriers in the environment. This mechanically leads to the conclusion that "there is no room here for him/her", i.e. the deficiency requires schooling in a separate specialized structure in the framework of educational dualism.

Caught between these two notions, compensation and accessibility, the concept of (educational) inclusion undergoes a split/hybridization on three levels: (1) institutional; (2) terminological; and (3) ethical.

- The concept of inclusion, which implies "a process of transformation of educational systems and cultures" ensuring that all students without restriction receive mainstream schooling (D'Alessio, 2008, p. 36), is turned into a hybrid concept by reductionist discourses and practices. This is illustrated in particular by expressions like "inclusion time" and "partial inclusion" used to characterize moments when disabled students are included in mainstream classes, in contrast to "care time" or "special needs time" in a specialized group. The notion of inclusion is, thus, reduced to that of integration, and is dominated by a discourse on incapacities requiring compensation through supplementary assistance rather than through accessibility to a learning situation (Benoit, 2008, p. 100). The degree to which a student can be integrated and educated thus depends on individual compensation for incapacities, and allows placement of the disabled student in mainstream settings only for limited time and on contractual bases. In statutory terms, the student remains a "stranger" with respect to the mainstream environment.

- This hybridization is supported by the transposition of medical and psychological terms into the vocabulary of inclusive education. They become “talking points” (in the political sense) as far as they constitute a statutory positioning of the professional and a sign of power, a “title of cultural nobility” (Bourdieu, 1979) conferred upon them. Specialized European institutions have become resource centres for mainstream schools (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2003), and have imported vocabulary into the world of education related to diagnostic categories of pathologies (autism, psychosis, borderline states ...), behavioural symptoms (depression, frustration, hyperactivity, violence...), or malaise and suffering (Emery, 2014). The dominance of medical-psychological discourse has not only caused academic knowledge to be left out of the discussion, but has also led to a medicalization of the inclusive process at the expense of pedagogical and educational approaches. We have seen that the concept of assessment has become highly ambiguous in this context. As a result, acquired skills and academic progress are given less attention, and psychotherapeutic needs as well as care-providing services designed to meet these needs are privileged.
- From an ethical point of view, we can observe a dichotomy in perspective between two approaches. On the one hand, proponents of a “moral doctrine of total inclusion” - based on equal rights and non-discrimination; and on the other hand advocates of “an ethical approach”, believe that partial inclusion - allowing temporary accommodation of exceptional students in segregated settings - better meets their needs in terms of social-emotional development (Berg et Schneider, 2012). Caught as it were between a moral posture - grounded on the analogy between the common good represented by respect for the universal rights and living experience of the disabled student - and an ethical posture - recommending regulated coordination of specific compensatory care and education, the inclusive objective of accessibility for all to educational systems risks falling into a philosophical aporia, in which the concept of educational inclusion would be confused and deprived of its universal content. Fragmented in this way, the concept of educational inclusion would be updated based on pragmatic sophistry. This casuistic viewpoint would allow to judge, through a case-by-case ethical approach, whether this idea of inclusive education can be realized for all students, as Mary Warnock recently wrote, “under the same roof”, or on the contrary, partially or totally for a few in a specialized and segregated environment.

4. Discussion and Conclusion: The Forces of Distortion

In France it is the law 2005-102¹ of February 11, 2005, and more precisely the decree of application of December 30, 2005 “on the educational path of students with a disability”, which assigns to “adapted devices” (article 1) the role of supporting and facilitating mainstream schooling, these structures not taking the form of special classes constituting a parallel segregated path. Unlike the previous paradigm of educational dualism, the paradigm of inclusion refers to a conception of educational unity in which subjects are considered in their “individual singularities in terms of a continuum of diversity rather than in terms of differences and breaks” (Benoit, 2012, p. 71).

¹ Law of February 11, 2005 on equal rights and opportunities, participation and citizenship of disabled persons.

These adapted and inclusive devices can, on the one hand, be compared to the new definition of “device” in the social sciences as a set of means characterized by their “indeterminacy” (Tremblay, 2015, p. 53) and coordinated for action, i.e. as a way to “get things done” on a technically traced path (Barrère, 2013, p. 99). The devices can also be considered from the viewpoint of “the analysis of relations of power” proposed by Foucault (2001 p. 302). In this framework, the concept of “strategic device”, as forged by the present author as a “process of functional over-determination” (*Ibid.*, p. 299), is defined as a structure of heterogeneous elements characterized by “the prevalence of a strategic objective”, the function of which is to meet at a given moment an emergency of a social type, for example “the absorption of a floating population mass that a society with a basically mercantile economy finds inconvenient: here was a strategic imperative, acting as the matrix of the device, which gradually became the device of control-subjugation of madness, mental illness, neurosis” (*Ibidem*). In this perspective, the strategic objective in the beginning of the creation of adapted and inclusive devices (on institutional and discursive bases) could be the transfer of an educational population mass from medical institutions to schools (Blanc, 2011, p.12), regardless of the change in paradigm and deep transformation of the professional culture of teachers required by inclusive education in the functioning of the educational system. The danger here would then be that the geographical transfer of these young persons from a segregated environment to a mainstream environment might nonetheless create invisible barriers under the same educational roof. These would be barriers of language, representations and practices that could create segregation within, and distinct modes of social affiliation.

In the French school system, the approach to the education of students with special needs through a personalized path clearly focuses much more on the guidance of the student in a given educational circuit than on accessibility, even though the characteristics of this circuit can constitute barriers for all, especially for the most vulnerable ones. At each stage of education the question arises whether guidance on the basis of a so-called realistic approach to the capacities of the young person (educational dualism) should be privileged, or on the contrary the strategy of creating equity through the transformation of learning methods and assessment within a curriculum to make it more accessible in a view of educational unity.

The barrier represented by forms of educational assessment, mostly summative rather than formative, used in particular in the French educational system, is now clearly identified and constitutes a source of tension with respect to re-founding of schools in an inclusive perspective. It cannot be denied that quantified grades and calculation of averages, that mix together data and overlook many strengths and weaknesses of students, stem from the social dimension of evaluation. This method of grading essentially seeks to manage the student’s educational “career” and to guide him in a system divided into branches rather than to produce optimal pedagogical conditions for his progress in learning. Here we find a zone where micro-powers come into play and “Institute regimes of truth (...)”, and can generate phenomena of exclusion, impeding “access to common patrimony, by definition open to all, with no categorial privileges and no prohibitions” (Gardou, 2014, p. 16-17). This situation is probably not unrelated to the fact that the French educational system is rated only 27th out of the 34 countries of the OECD in terms of the impact of social inequalities on students’ chances of academic success (MEN, 2013).

As for disabled students in great difficulty, the question of the evaluation of their academic level has often depended on an admission fee to be paid, on the right to access to educational integration, symptomatic of the historically exclusivist practices of the French educational system (Benoit, 2014b, p. 193). The criterion of academic level, as imprecise and relative as it is, tends to block the educational path of young persons in a situation of disability or educational difficulty: “he/she could not continue, he/she did not have a sufficient level” (Benoit, 2012, p. 72). As of 2011, Paul Blanc, in his Report to the President of the Republic (p. 41), pointed out that the implementation by educational authorities of the condition of academic level applied to disabled students in order to receive the assistance of the new ULIS¹, devices created the previous year, constitutes “a restrictive interpretation of the ministerial circular of June 18, 2010 (...) restraining access of students who have not reached the academic level of the class”. Consequently, there was

an infringement on the principle of unconditional right to education.

Lastly, persons working in institutions and specialized services as well as special schools often express reservations about the objectives of inclusive education, which they perceive as “ideological” (Camberlein, 2011, p. 92). The implementation of adapted and inclusive devices or projects for students, like the Personalized Education Plan (projet personnalisé de scolarisation – PPS), overturn the references and subvert the history of a “self-referenced” specialized institution (Benoit, 2013, p. 58), structured by the internal rationality of the diptych of the educational and the therapeutical. These adapted and inclusive devices represent a de-institutionalized landscape in which medical-social structures are called upon to function as an “externally referenced” center of resources (*Ibid.*), and to serve people in their own living environments, and even to help make accessible the social and educational environment. The change in paradigm of the organization of action also leads to a transfer of the responsibility for management and supervision, now in the hands of external bodies (in France the MDPH²), all located outside of the medical-social institutional scope, and especially and more concretely, outside of the reassuring in-house symbolic space.

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¹ Unité localisée pour l'inclusion scolaire - Local unit for educational inclusion

² Centers in each département for disabled persons, created in application of the law 2005- 102 of February 11, 2005.

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CONCEPTUAL REPRESENTATIONS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AMONG TEACHERS AND SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Abstract

The interventions and supports offered for students with special educational needs (SEN) in schools considered to be inclusive in Lebanon are not similar in nature and reflect a disparity in practices, which seems to be related to a varied conceptual representation, hence the usefulness of developing a clear conceptual framework to harmonize the interpretation of the implementation of inclusive schools. In the present research, we propose to analyze and discuss the conceptual representations of inclusive schools made by school principals and teachers in the public and/or private sector, our target population. A questionnaire was completed by 157 participants, followed by a content analysis. The results indicate that the conceptualization of inclusive education in Lebanon is far from being well defined. It is only partial and mostly reduced to a simple physical integration of SEN in schools. We emphasize confusion about the terms used to designate the fundamental dimensions of inclusive education. Clarification of the representations of professionals will promote an evolution in their conception and greater effectiveness in their educational practice.

Keywords: conceptual representations, differentiated instruction, diversity, education for all, inclusive education, school principals, teachers, SEN.

1. The Concept of “Inclusive Education”

For more than two decades, many countries have been using international recommendations (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2009, 2016) as a basis for developing their education policies and are trying to move towards a more inclusive school system.

The current discourse on education places the issue of inclusion at the heart of educational issues (Akkari & Barry, 2018). The word “inclusion” is associated with several other terms, namely “school inclusion”, “inclusive pedagogy”, “inclusive school”, “inclusive education”, the last two being frequently used as synonyms for school inclusion (Rousseau & Bergeron, 2013).

Fundamentally, the concept of inclusive education is based on “an ethical principle giving every child the unconditional right to attend ordinary school on an equal basis with others” (Noël, 2019, p. 227)³. “Inclusive education is based on the principle that everyone has the right to accede quality education that meets the basic learning needs of learners and that their life. It strives to develop the potential of everyone. It is about taking into account all learners and not meeting the needs of one child at the expense of another” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], cited by Manço & Gouverneur, 2015, p. 84). It consists of “reducing all barriers in the education of all students” (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, p. 4). Inclusive education “is an approach that focuses on how to transform education systems and improve the quality of education at all levels and in all contexts, in order to adapt to the diversity of learners and to promote educational success” (cited by Le Prévost,

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³ The quotations that appear in the "Concept of Inclusive Education" part are translated from French.

2010, p. 55). This is in order to achieve a more just society and an ‘equality of opportunity’, with the goal of ending ‘indifference to differences’, following the expression attributed to Bourdieu (cited by Le Prévost, 2010, p. 55). On the other hand, international texts use the concept of inclusive education, “moving from the individual problem of including each child in an education system to a collective problem of changing that system so that all children benefit from quality education, regardless of their needs” (Reverdy, 2019, p. 1). Such education is “a process, not an end”, and results from a vision of a world based on equity, justice and impartiality (UNESCO, 2018). It breaks with the principle of inclusive education in which students with special needs were previously “perceived as visitors” (Armstrong, 2006, p. 73) required to adapt to the regular school system. It necessitates adapting the school to the diversity of students, whether or not they have a “disability”. Inclusive education then implies a twofold transformation: “schools to become communities open to all without restriction and practices, to enable learning for all in diversity” (Armstrong, 2006, p. 73). This diversity must be seen as a resource that can enrich the education of all students rather than as a problem to be solved (Lipsky & Gartner, 1989). The school's project must be part of a strong commitment to education for all students (Prud'homme & Ramel, 2016). The inclusive approach therefore deposits the simple educational ambitions of institutions and corresponds to a systemic approach to society (Gardou, 2012) that aspires to become “a society of individuals requiring the involvement of everyone in the collective well-being and the incorporation of all in the various dimensions that underpin it” (Ebersold, 2009, p. 73).

The actors of the educational community, like the rest of society, are culturally heterogeneous and socially unequal. However, the functioning of the school and the models it disseminates are monolithic, in most cases, representing only part of society or often being closer to each other's standards than to those of others (Manço & Gouverneur, 2015). Inclusive school would therefore be “a project for the school which, through structural, organizational and pedagogical adaptations, aims to make it possible for all pupils, whatever their needs, to achieve optimal schooling in an ordinary environment” (Thomazet, Mérini, & Gaime, 2014, p. 70). “More broadly, inclusive school is the micro scale of an inclusive society, of a global investment by all for everyone” (Akkari & Barry, 2018, p. 38). Without going so far as to consider inclusion as a “utopia” (Gillig, 2006, as cited in Rousseau & Bergeron, 2013), we could conceive it “as a movement and not as a destination” (Booth & al., 2013, as cited in Rousseau & Bergeron, 2013).

Inclusive education as described is still poorly applied in school systems. In this study, we were interested in understanding the representations, concerns and practices of teachers and school principals in Lebanon that they associate with the notion of inclusive education. This concept began to be institutionalized in Lebanon with Law 220/2000, which lays down the principles and law for the participation of persons with special needs in society and stipulates that every person with disabilities has the right to education, and guarantees equal educational opportunities to all persons with disabilities, children and adults, in all educational institutions, in regular or special classes (article 59).

It is not enough to have a legal and constitutional obligation to change social representations and practices. Several dimensions are necessary for the development of inclusion in a school: developing inclusive education policies, developing inclusive education practices; and creating a culture of inclusive education that can bring about changes in both policy and practice (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, p. 9). In addition, in any approach to inclusive education, it is necessary to first clarify the basic concepts that will guide these educational policies, the functioning of structures and systems, and therefore practices. “Inclusive education has often been criticized for its lack of conceptual focus. Some observers argue that expanding this concept to include all students goes too far, making the issue too vague” (UNESCO, 2018). Bélanger, Frangieh, Graziani, Mérini and Thomazet (2018) highlight the “absence of consensus definitions” and “growing gaps in the way the issue of inclusive schooling is positioned”. Their

study shows “a virtual absence of an explicit definition of inclusive school (or integration)”. Reverdy (2019) notes that the notions of integration, inclusion and inclusive school depend largely on national contexts and on different political, societal, historical and pedagogical considerations, hence the lack of unanimity in the definition of inclusive school. However, the transition from an integrative to an inclusive model cannot take place without a clear and operational definition of the concept of inclusive education. This is a difficult and complex task, given the variations in definitions and terminology used.

We are aware that in the field of inclusive education, there are many uncertainties, disagreements and contradictions. That is why one of the objectives of this paper is to understand more clearly what is meant by this concept, which is so widely used today. Our research is therefore first and foremost descriptive and comprehensive, but also critical of the conceptual representation of teachers and school principals in the concept of inclusive education.

2. Background and Aims of the Research

Access to our research site was a crucial first step. Faced with some of the mainstreamed practices considered inclusive in Lebanon, T.I.E.S¹'s researchers were asked by the Center for Educational Research and Development (CERD) - Beirut to lead a seminar on “Inclusive education in the Lebanese education system” in six regional centers of CERD: Baalbeck, Sin El Fil, Saida, Tripoli, Aley and Jounieh. They were addressed to the school principals and teachers.

The objectives of the seminar were to:

- clarify concepts and principles related to inclusive education;
- analyse the legal and regulatory framework related to inclusive education;
- present the transition from separate to inclusive education;
- develop an understanding of the challenges of inclusive practice.

Since one of the objectives of T.I.E.S is to conduct research related to inclusive education, we submitted a questionnaire for participants² before conducting the seminar in order to identify and assess practices and equity in the Lebanese school.

This article is part of an ongoing research project that is looking more broadly on “Understanding equitable and inclusive education in Lebanon”. This analysis focuses on some of the results, especially those related to the conceptual representations of professionals in inclusive education schools.

2.1. Research Tools

Although the research focus is primarily comprehensive and descriptive, “research can enrich the prescriptive enterprise and indirectly contribute to the renewal of practices” (Crahay, 2002, p. 257). It is on this basis that we developed the questionnaire.

The content is organized into three main sections: concepts, practices and equity. It deals with different points related to inclusive education: the meaning of inclusive education, the key ingredients of inclusive education system, the challenges and difficulties faced when working with students with additional support needs, as well as the challenges for providing equity in education.

The questionnaire provides both qualitative and quantitative data. The different types of data collected provide representations of different points of view on inclusive education and equity and come from different professionals in various roles in the Lebanese school.

¹ Together for Inclusive Educational Systems, is a non-profit, non-governmental organization active in the field of inclusive education (<http://ties-education.org/>)

²Further to the participants' request, the questionnaire was not distributed at CERD-Jounieh.

2.2. The Participants

The sampling was designed according to the participants who attended the above-mentioned seminar (n=267). We collected a total of 196 replies (73.4%). Table 1 shows the number of participants sampled by occupation/profession.

Table 1

Number of Participants and their Positions within the Education System

Current position	N	%
School principal	37	18.9
Teacher	119	60.7
Teacher trainer	3	1.5
Special educator	6	3.1
Supervisor	13	6.6
2 positions¹	8	4.1
Other²	10	5.1
Total	196	100

Basically, the training was intended for principals and teachers, the other participants attended on an informal level, the reason why we selected for this study the questionnaires completed by teachers and principals. A total of 157 have been analyzed. The table below presents the personal data of the sample.

¹This category includes teachers who have another position in the school (e. g. support teacher, special educator, coordinator, supervisor, etc.).

²In this category, we group the functions that do not fit into the previous categories, such as librarian, guidance counsellor, health counsellor, teacher training school principal, etc.

Table 2*Personal Data of the Survey*

Sample	Categories	N	%
Age	21-30	26	16.6
	31-40	52	33.1
	41-50	46	29.3
	51-64	33	21.0
Gender	Male	16	10.2
	Female	141	89.8
Degree	Secondary	17	10.8
	Vocational education (BT – TS)	8	5.1
	BA	103	65.6
	Master	24	15.3
	PhD	1	0.6
	Other	3	1.9
	No answer	1	0.6
Position	Principal	37	23.6
	Teacher	120	76.4
Work place (Sector)	Public	140	89.2
	Private	15	9.6
	Both	2	1.3
CERD centers regional	Baalbeck	21	13.4
	Beirut	27	17.2
	Aley	42	26.8
	Saida	39	24.8
	Tripoli	28	17.8
Total		157	100

Our sample includes principals and teachers, most of them female (89.8%). 62.4% of the participants range between the age of 31 and 50; 81.5% have a university degree. They work primarily in the public sector, in 5 regional centers of the CERD in Lebanon.

Table 3*Years of Experience in the Educational Field*

		Current position				Total	
		School principal		Teacher			
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Years of teaching experience	≤ 3	1	0.6	14	8.9	15	9.6
	< 3-5 >	0	0.0	14	8.9	14	8.9
	< 5-10 >	0	0.0	14	8.9	14	8.9
	>						
	≥ 10	36	22.9	77	49.0	113	72.0
	No answer	0	0.0	1	0.6	1	0.6
Total		37	23.6	120	76.4	157	100

Most of the participants have professional experience of more than 10 years (72%), of which 22.9% of principals and 49% of teachers.

Table 4*Years of Experience in Inclusion*

		Current position				Total	
		School principal		Teacher			
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Years of experience in inclusion	≤ 3	7	4.5	49	31.2	56	35.7
	< 3-5 >	2	1.3	4	2.5	6	3.8
	< 5-10 >	2	1.3	4	2.5	6	3.8
	≥ 10	4	2.5	3	1.9	7	4.5
	No experience	22	14.0	60	38.2	82	52.2
Total		37	23.6	120	76.4	157	100

52.2% of the participants have no experience in the field of inclusion, of which 14% are principals compared to 38.2% of teachers. Whereas 35.7% have less than 3 years experience in inclusion, including 31.2% of teachers.

3. Results*3.1. Definition of Inclusive Education from Principals and Teachers' Point of View*

The first open question item in our questionnaire was to define inclusive education. Further to the content analysis, the responses of the subjects of the sample (principals and teachers) were distributed according to the themes covered; 23 themes were identified. A second selection grouped the categories and limited them to eight: collaboration, education for all, integration with peers, diversity, differentiated instruction, social integration, varied responses not related to any category, and no response. Many definitions seemed confusing, not clear, having used concepts independently of a deep understanding of their meaning, sometimes even containing syntactic errors, making them incomprehensible. In this case, the classification in the various categories was based on the keywords used by the participants. Responses are as follows:

Table 5*Distribution of Thematic Categories in the Responses*

Categories	N	%
Collaboration	6	2.7
Education for all	43	19.1
Integration with peers	99	44
Diversity	27	12
Differentiated instruction	29	12.9
Social integration	9	4
Other	2	0.9
NR	10	4.4
Total responses¹	225	100

The table above highlights in particular four categories of definitions: inclusive education consists first of integrating all students with special educational needs (SEN) with their peers in regular schools (44%), ensuring them an education for all (19.1%) and, above all, accepting their diversity (12%) by using differentiated instruction (12.9%).

3.2. *Integration with Peers*

In this research, the word “integration” (دمج in Arabic) appears in 83% of the responses in this category (n=99). They are oriented towards the integration of SEN with their peers. The words used to refer to SEN are quite varied: “special needs”, “different needs”, “special cases”, “case that need special care”, “the student suffering from a particular problem” “student suffering from a specific problem”, “abnormal”, “learning difficulties” “mental disabilities, physical disabilities, different disabilities, deaf and blind, paralyzed”, “developmental difficulties”, “abnormal student”, “solid will”, “those who have iron will”, “behavioural disorder”, “children with difficulties”, “students with special educational needs”.

The words used for the other students are “ordinary child”, “normal and healthy students”, “students not suffering any learning problem”, “normal”², “equal”, “normal categories”, “other pupils”, “other learners”.

The schooling of the students mentioned above is carried out in the following places: “same class”, “one center, “one regular class”, “one normal school”, “one building”, “one environment”, “one institution”, “the schools”.

To conclude on the above, inclusive education is then synonymous to integrating students with SEN in regular classes with other students: “Inclusive education is about unifying the place of study for all students so that they are together in the same classes...”, and this “in a single school”, “in an environment adapted for all”, which can accommodate “several cases in one class”. It is also “an education based on the abilities and skills of children or learners with special needs, in order to integrate them with other learners”; it is “working to help them”, in particular “to integrate them into the education system”. It “means to bring together and accommodate a particular student who has a problem with the other student in general”. This integration in the school system would be “educational, pedagogical and social”.

¹ One definition can be classified into several categories.

²The verbatim were translated from Arabic. Some of them are not clear in Arabic and contain syntax errors, we were faithful to the original sentence in the translated version. That is why some translated ideas are not very comprehensible.

3.3. Education for all

This category includes responses related to Education for All, with three key words frequently repeated in the definitions. The first one is the right to education (n=9) “every child has the right to be a pupil in a place and program appropriate to his or her mental and physical abilities”; “every individual has the right to learn, regardless of his or her abilities and skills”, “the right of the student to learn and acquire skills within his or her physical, mental, social and psychological capacities”.

The second key word is the equity (n=17) “disseminate the concept of equity in education”, “equity between ordinary learners and people with special needs and learning disabilities”, “integrating learners according to their differences and their various levels”, “inclusive education means equity between the average child and children with special needs, and through inclusive education we can develop the child's capacities to be equal to the ordinary child”.

The third one is the equality (n=7) “equality among students”, “inclusive education is equality for all learners”, “consideration of individual differences and adoption of the principle of equal treatment”, “inclusive education means equality between the average child and children with special needs”. It seems important to note that the three key words are used without making clear the difference between them.

This category covers responses relating to the right to education for all without discrimination, as well as the notions of equity and equality among students.

3.4. Diversity

At this level 12% of the responses imply the concept of diversity. Inclusive education is seen as the acceptance of the other person who is different within the school, while eliminating the discrimination, marginalization and exclusion manifested towards SEN students. The 'other' is thus recognized in his or her difference. Difference is not “something shameful and society needs to understand and accept the different cases”. It is therefore a matter of “implementing the concept of acceptance of the other by the community and helping him or her”, “without any discrimination”. The aim is to “eliminate differences and disparities between students and to accept their difference”. This implies “the presence of different levels within the classroom”, as well as cases of pupils with very special needs. This inclusive education is “a holistic educational approach that ensures the non-exclusion of children, especially children with disabilities, and to change misconceptions about them”, such as “to consider them to be inferior or as a failing and marginalized part of society”.

3.5. Differentiated Instruction/Pedagogy

This category emphasizes the importance of providing an education for all adapted to SEN students. The responses cover several aspects (12.9%): the programs and curricula, tools, methods, sources or other means of support that the teacher can use to reduce inter individual differences and meet the needs of students.

This education is defined as “a sound policy that works to place the learner (with special needs) at the center of the educational circle and to provide for the modification of certain programs for the benefit of the learner”. The curriculum would then be “adapted to a welcoming and supportive environment of the problem of inclusion”.

In other words, “it is a learning process that follows a differentiated curriculum”, with students “of different levels present in a single class”, and which would be “commensurate with their mental and physical abilities”. It takes into account “individual differences”, as well as “their diverse needs”. It involves “the use of new teaching methods to ensure that all students understand the idea in a variety of ways (auditory, visual or motor)”. It also plans to select and simplify the tools to adapt them to the different abilities of the students.

3.6. Collaboration

Despite the importance of collaboration in the implementation of inclusive education, it appears in only 2.7% of the responses. This requires collaboration between specialists “for helping the teaching staff”, parents, teachers, “normal” and SEN students. It is a collaboration between “all parties involved - programs adapted to all special needs”.

3.7. Social Integration

At this level, inclusive education goes beyond the school framework (3.98% of responses). It is seen as synonymous with “integration of specific cases into society without discrimination”. It allows “the other person to lead his or her school and later professional life naturally”. It is a “social integration”, an “integration, even if minimal, in order to achieve the construction of a personality”, “adequate and effective in society”. It also represents “the right to exercise a profession”. Rehabilitation and integration into society motivate thus the individual to become “a productive, efficient and effective member with a role at the social level”.

4. Discussion

The fact that inclusive schooling appears to be the subject of an apparent societal consensus and no longer gives rise to a lively political debate (Baudot, Borelle, & Revillard, 2013) could suggest that there is agreement on the definitions underlying the issue under consideration. The results of our research as well as a reading of recent scientific literature shows that this is not the case, and the lack of common definitions has been identified as a problem, promoting ideologies and hindering the development of scientific work (Bélanger, Frangieh, Graziani, Mérini, & Thomazet, 2018). The usefulness of conceptual knowledge has been noted in several research studies, such as that of Piasta, Connor, Fishman, & Morrison (2009). Theoretical knowledge will complement the know-how of teachers and school principals. However, in order to implement inclusive education, it is important to rely on a set of elements that allow the concepts concerned to be developed. Conceptualization is inseparable from putting it into words; hence our objective through this research is to elucidate the representations of inclusive education to teachers and school principals in Lebanon.

The definitions put forward by the participants regarding inclusive education reflect a partial conceptual approach based rather on the academic integration of learners, designated by a set of terms focused on individual impairments (students with academic difficulties, behavioral problems, physical, mental, sensory disabilities, etc.). Moreover, they do not address systems that include students with SEN. However, limiting inclusion to a simple social integration of learners with special needs into mainstream schools reflects a vision that is nevertheless too simplistic. It is still far from being that of an inclusive school which “ensures in its objectives the educational inclusion of all children, without any discrimination, offers the same opportunities to all and takes into account the diversity of pupils” (Akkary & Barry, 2018, p. 37), and which advocates, still in principal, more radically the conditions of access to teaching and learning in the ordinary classroom (Pelgrims, 2016). It is the process by which “all students with special educational needs are educated together with their peers of the same age in regular classes, while receiving the special pedagogical measures they need” (Pelgrims, 2016, p. 11). Implementing an inclusive school involves assessing the special educational needs of students and allocating the measures or implementing the teaching strategies and pedagogical and didactic conditions capable of meeting those needs (Pelgrims, 2016). It aims to provide quality education for all learners.

In order to achieve an inclusive school, support is needed from the entire community: from decision-makers to end-users (learners and their families). Another point that caught our attention during the analysis of responses is that basic concepts such as diversity, equality, equity, non-discrimination, justice, special educational needs, etc., are used but they do not

seem to reflect a comprehensive conceptual approach, and may be used independently of a clear definition of their content. However, the concept of equity in education goes beyond that of equality of opportunity; it moves away from equal treatment to differentiated treatment, aimed at redressing inequalities unfairly affecting certain students or other members of the educational community with a view to achieving real equality (Larochelle-Audet, Magnan, Doré, Potvin, St-Vincent, Gélinas-Proulx, & Amboulé-Abath, 2020, p. 6). The Lebanese education system is most often part of a simple equality, where the curriculum is not adapted for students who need it. This principle is also often applied in SEN student assessments, under the pretext that the teacher must not give them favors at the expense of their peers. The consequence is that the ratio of SEN learners who drop out is higher (Frangieh & Ramel, 2019).

As for the concept of diversity, it is not used as such by the participants. Rather, the terms included in the proposed definitions are acceptance of others and differences, non-discrimination, and non-exclusion. However, the notions of “heterogeneity” and “diversity” are very often present and even fundamental in the literature promoting differentiated pedagogy (Le Prévost, 2010). The latter is retained by teachers and principals as an inevitable intermediary for adapting to inter-individual differences and to the various educational needs of pupils integrated into regular classrooms. Pedagogical differentiation thus provides situations that are sufficiently flexible and varied to enable all students to progress, and at the same time it stimulates the creation of “a climate of interdependence and inter-comprehension in which it becomes legitimate to recognize, value and take advantage of diversity in order to learn” (Prud’homme, Leblanc, Paré, Fillion, & Chapdelaine, 2015, p. 76).

Diversity is recognized “as ‘natural’ in any group of learners and inclusive education can be seen as a means of raising achievement through the presence (access to education), participation (quality of the learning experience) and achievement (learning processes and outcomes) of all learners” (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2014, p. 11). This diversity should be thought of as a resource that can enhance the education of all students rather than as a problem to be solved (Lipsky & Gartner, 1989). In order to respond to the heterogeneity of groups of students, the school advocates differentiated pedagogy as a means of combating academic failure and meeting the special educational needs of all (Pelgrims, 2016).

The aspect least raised by the principals and teachers interviewed in their definition of an inclusive school is collaboration. The success of creating inclusive education as a key to establishing inclusive societies depends on agreement among all relevant partners on a common vision supported by a number of specific steps to be taken to put this vision into practice. The move towards inclusion is a gradual one that should be based on clearly articulated principles that address system-wide development and multisectoral approaches involving all levels of society. The barriers to inclusion can be reduced through active collaboration between policy-makers, education personnel and other stakeholders, including the active involvement of members of the local community, such as political and religious leaders, local education officials and the media (UNESCO, 2009, p. 14). In this research, the responses focus on the question of the inclusion of pupils with SEN in regular school classes, without however identifying effective practices to facilitate their inclusion in schools (Giroux, 2013), or the ambition to think about the principles likely to guide action towards an ideally inclusive school (Gardou, 2014).

5. Conclusion

This study thus attempted to explore the conceptual representations of inclusive education used by teachers and school principals. The results indicate that they have a great deal of knowledge in line with the theoretical ones, but they represent only part of it and they sometimes contradict each other. This lack of a consensus definition leads to misunderstandings about the very idea of an inclusive education and more specifically an inclusive school, both in

terms of practices and the analysis of phenomena (Bélanger & al., 2018). In order to enhance this knowledge, training on concepts related to inclusive education seems to us to be an effective way to achieve this goal. Training mobilizes the entire scope of knowledge and enables the professionals concerned to gain a good grasp of the fundamental notions in order to be able to implement specific approaches. Finally, it seems important to highlight the need for research in the educational sciences, thus contributing to a deeper reflection on teachers' professional practices and their relationship to underlying conceptual representations. This promotes the creation of conditions conducive to the success of an inclusive education project.

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PROMOTING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION PRACTICES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL THROUGH FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

Abstract

Following the 2003 curricular reform, assessment in Quebec has been governed by three overarching values: justice, equality, and equity (MEQ, 2003). Those values find their origin in inclusive education, which promotes a competency-based assessment and the success of all students (Akkari and Barry, 2018). However, with the return to numerical results, research has shown that teachers still favoured a summative assessment approach thus failing to uphold the core values of the programme (Hadji, 2015; Issaieva and Crahay, 2010). Consequently, teachers' evaluation practices still classify students as "good" or "bad" depending on their results. How can this situation be modified? In order to find answers to this problem, collaborative research (Desgagné, 2001) with seven elementary school teachers was realized from 2016 to 2018. The results of the focus-groups identified avenues to develop a more inclusive form of assessment. This article offers a reflection on the importance of teachers' understanding of disciplinary epistemology as the key to gaining greater freedom in assessment practices and thus promoting a more inclusive form of assessment.

Keywords: assessment, assessment practices, inclusive assessment, inclusive education.

Introduction

1. Inclusive Education: Teaching and Assessment Practices

Education is considered a human right by numerous countries in the world (UNESCO, 2019). In the Canadian province of Quebec, *Le Conseil Supérieur de l'Éducation* published in 2017 a report in which it states that education should aim at including all children and support them whoever they are and whatever their needs be (Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, 2017). The overall objective is to ensure that the education system becomes more inclusive meaning that all children learn together in the same schools (UNICEF, 2017) as requested by UNESCO:

All students can access and fully participate in learning, supported by reasonable accommodation and teaching strategies tailored to meet their individual needs. The concept of inclusion is part of all aspects of school life and supported by culture and policies (UNESCO, 2019, p. 6).

In inclusive education, no child should be excluded and teachers should accommodate individual needs so that all have an equal chance to succeed. But, in reality, this intent is a challenge for teachers who work every day with increasingly diverse classrooms. This is particularly evident when teachers are tasked with assessing their students. Following the 2003

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curricular reform, assessment in Quebec¹ has been governed by three overarching values: Justice, equality, and equity (MEQ, 2003). These values underline the right for a student to appeal any assessment which would appear unfair, to have equal opportunities to demonstrate their learning and to expect assessment practices that respect the differences found between students. These values find their origin in inclusive education and aim for a differentiated approach to assessment ensuring that all students might achieve their rightful educational success (Akkari & Barry, 2018). Since the 1960's, research in education has promoted a form of assessment that supports student by providing them with information on their learning progression (Scriven, 1967). The idea behind this is that assessment must, above all, collect information on students' learning progression in order to identify their strengths and weaknesses and adapt consequently the instruction offered. Students, thus informed, are able to regulate their own cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Allal & Mottier Lopez, 2007; Morrissette, 2009; Scallon, 1986). This type of assessment considers students' mistakes as an opportunity for them to better understand their difficulties and a way for teachers to better support their pupils. The marking scheme was conceived in a way that respected this orientation and students' report cards noted whether students had exceeded expectation, reached an appropriate level of understanding, were in the process of developing their understanding or had difficulty reaching the appropriate level of understanding.

However, this new assessment scheme was met with considerable resistance and critique from politicians, educators and parents, who wished for a more traditional evaluation form. The pressure was such that in 2011, the Ministry of Education of Quebec changed the framework of assessment so that teachers have now the obligation to provide a numeral grade to describe their students' learning and to formally communicate it in the provincial report card. Thus, although the curriculum is competency based and build on inclusive education, the Ministry of Education imposes a summative assessment approach that compares students' learning with preconceived levels of achievement (Hadji, 2015; Issaieva and Crahay, 2010). Consequently, teachers' evaluation practices still classify students as "good" or "bad" depending on their results. Teachers are required to evaluate their students' performance rather than assess their learning progression. In this context, it is important to differentiate what is meant by assessment and evaluation (Allal & Mottier Lopez, 2007; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Morrissette, 2009; Scallon, 1986). Evaluation means to focus on grades to judge students' achievement while assessment refers to the process of documenting students' work and using the empirical data collected to provide feedback on their learning progression. The function of evaluation is to certify the level of learning reached while the function of assessment is to improve learning (De Ketele, 2010). In inclusive education, assessment practices are more appropriate to observe the values of equality, justice and equity. Yet, is it possible, in a system that favors a summative approach, to develop assessment practices that aim at helping students, whatever their needs be, move forward in their schooling?

Developing teaching strategies that foster a more inclusive assessment model appears to be fundamental if we wish to improve learning for all children and ensure that children with disabilities have equal chances to become active citizens in their communities. If we want to work towards inclusion, we need to reassess our assessment practices.

This paper presents the results emerging from a collaborative research project (Desgagné, 1997) conducted with seven elementary school teachers. The aims of the project were to (1) identify potential assessment strategies allowing teachers to assess their students without resorting to examination and (2) to develop strategies to provide a more inclusive form of assessment.

¹ Quebec is a Canadian province. In Canada, Education fall within provincial jurisdiction and thus provinces all have unique education systems.

2. Review of Literature: Towards a Joint Model of Learning and Assessment

All children can achieve a learning objective if they know what the objective is (Stiggins, 2008). This paper focuses on a particular form of assessment, namely formative assessment. Assessment is part of a learning dynamic and provides information to adjust both teaching and learning (Laurier, 2014). The role of formative assessment is to support learning by providing regular feedback to the student on his or her progress (Black, 2016; De Ketele, 2010; Dirksen, 2013; Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009; Harlen, 2016; Scallon, 2008; Stiggins, 2009). The goal is to help students connect what they know with the new knowledge they are building (Scallon, 2008). Formative assessment is different from an evaluative approach because it doesn't assess learning at the end of a teaching sequence. Instead, it supports students' learning throughout the entire teaching sequence by enabling both teachers and students to identify the content that still needs to be mastered (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009). Thus, formative assessment is conducted throughout the learning activities proposed in class (Black, 2016). Our research team has thus elaborated a theoretical model to explain the relationship between the planification of learning activities, the teaching activities and the role of formative assessment throughout this process. Figure 1 illustrates this model inspired by the available literature. The project has specifically focused on the teaching of history and science and thus, the teaching activities found in Figure 1 are representative of the pedagogical approaches favoured by both disciplines. 1 are representative of the pedagogical approaches favoured by both disciplines.

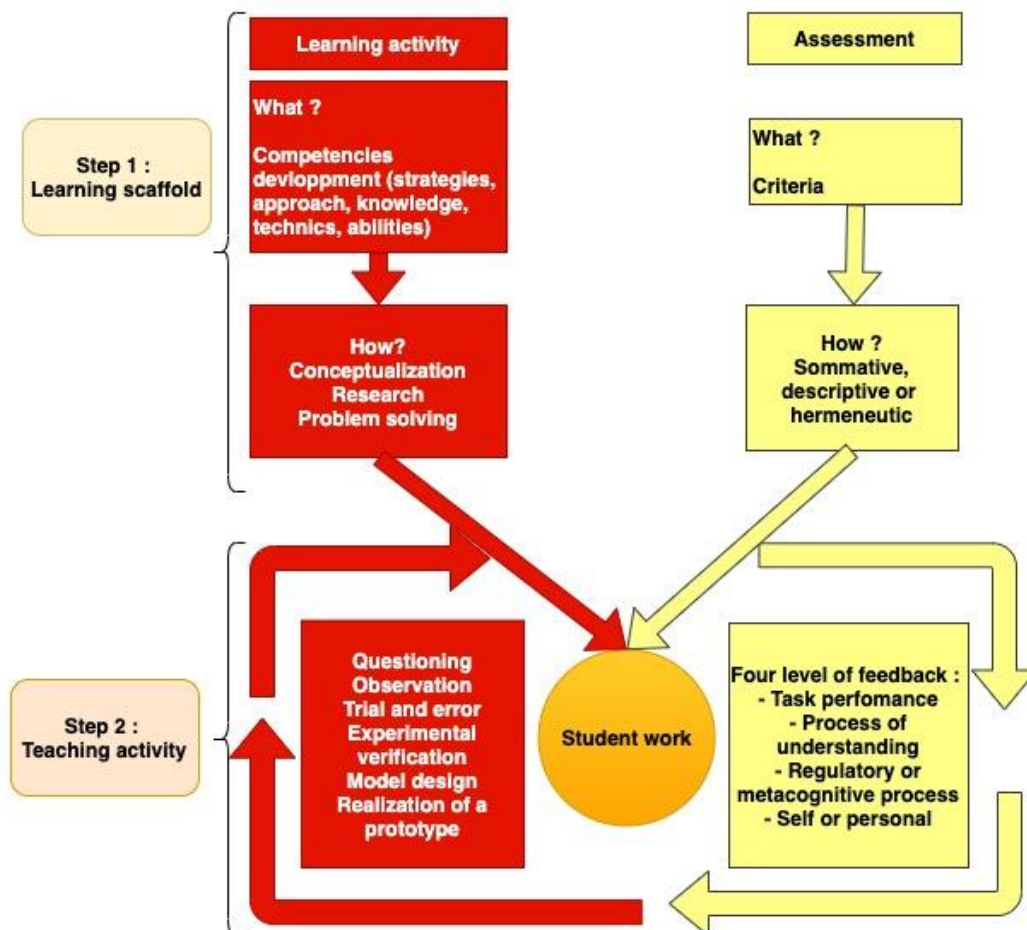


Figure 1: A Joint Model of Learning and Assessment

This model was used to analyse the data emerging from the collaborative research. Its design illustrates the relationship between learning and assessment and allows to deconstruct the steps in which teachers plan their lessons. The first step of this model is to scaffold the desired learning objectives by answering the following questions: what should be learned and assessed and how will students develop this new knowledge. By identifying the learning objectives related to the discipline taught, it is possible, at the same time, to identify the assessment criteria that will be used to support students in their learning (Smith, 2014; Stiggins, 2008). Content knowledge is prescribed by the Quebec curriculum (QEP) (MEQ, 2001), which focuses on the development of competencies. Competency here refers to the acquisition and mobilization by students of multiple resources that include strategies, knowledge, techniques, and abilities. When it comes to assessment, the first step of the model identifies what criteria should be used. In Quebec, the framework for evaluation of learning published by the Ministry of Education provides a list of official criteria to be used (MELS, 2011) but teachers can select the ones which match best their desired learning outcomes.

Once teachers have identified what is to be taught and what should be assessed, they can consider how they will accomplish this with their students. On the disciplinary side, teachers reflect on the sequence of teaching and the activities that will structure students' learning. Research in history education shows the importance of focusing on active learning strategies in order to respect the epistemology of the discipline that is being taught (Sears, 2014). Students should "do" history or science rather than just consume pre-established narratives or simply read about scientific results. Thus, inquiry based learning (Martineau, 2010) or conceptual learning strategies (Jadoulle, 2018) are two examples of approaches that promote active learning. In these approaches, students are required to engage in a research process that enables them to construct, deconstruct and reconstruct their knowledge (Duquette et al., 2017; Seixas, 2015). When it comes to thinking about how students will be assessed, teachers have, according to De Ketele (2010), three possible approaches: summative, descriptive, and hermeneutic. Depending on the chosen approach, the teacher will use the resources at his or her disposal differently to offer feedback. Resources include assessment instruments, observations and student work collected during class as well as many other possibilities (Fontaine et al., 2013). The summative approach includes assessment activities such as drills, tests, written activities, and others (Craig, 2010; Ghiatau et al., 2011). Based on these activities, the teacher grades student work by adding up the correct answers. Although this approach is often used in the Quebec school system, it does not provide an account of students' competency (Hadji, 2015). The descriptive approach consists of assessing using descriptive grids or scales (Roegiers, 2004). As for the hermeneutic approach, it is carried out by collecting a set of proofs from the students' work (written or not), classroom activities, and observations and seeing how students' learning has evolved through time (De Ketele, 2010).

The second step of the joint model is directed towards the actual lesson planning which consists of setting up teaching activities and feedbacks to promote learning. Teaching activities in history and science are based on a common research methodology that involves questioning, "trial and error", experimentation, model design or realization of a prototype (MELS, 2001). These procedures take place while students complete the tasks imposed by the teacher. Stiggins (2009) suggests a set of potential assessing possibilities while students work, such as: sharing learning goals with the class, providing formal and informal feedback on student work, offering suggestions for improvement and supplying students with self-assessment tools or strategies. Feedback should help the regulation of the student's cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Allal & Lopez, 2007). Consequently, assessments must rely on the objects and learning approaches targeted within an activity (Mottier Lopez, 2015). In order to ensure consistency, the teacher's feedback should be based on the assessment criteria previously decided. To be effective, feedback must be qualitative in nature or in other words, it must describe the student's shortcomings and strengths and suggest remedial strategies when necessary (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Thus, a student grade should not be considered as a form of feedback, which

can be done in a more informal manner through oral comments or formally through written comments based on the assessment instrument (evaluation grid, comments in a student production, etc.) (Diedhiou, 2013; Jorro & Mercier-Brunel, 2011; Talbot & Arrieu-Mutel, 2012).

Feedback can be divided into four categories: the task performance, the process of understanding how to do a task, the regulatory or metacognitive process, and the self or personal feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Task performance involves giving the student feedback to ensure that they have a correct understanding of the task they must complete. In science education, a teacher could ask students to explain their understanding of an experiment or scientific model in relation to the studied concepts. Process of understanding feedback is offered during the task and involves feedback that relates to the flow of the activity and the inquiry approaches used. For example, a teacher could take time to reflect with his or her students on the development or implementation of a research protocol or on the possible choice students have when designing a model or a prototype. Feedback on regulatory or metacognitive process is intended to make the student aware of the strategies he has used during the learning process. A teacher could ask students to review their approach, compare it with another student, and adjust it, if necessary. Finally, feedback on self or personal level consists of congratulating the student on his personal qualities or identifying their particular challenges in hope that they can overcome them. This type of feedback does not focus on the learning objects per se, but rather on the person him or herself.

In our joint model, assessment is integrated into daily teaching and learning activities. Thus, assessment is not limited to formal testing. On the contrary, it is associated with in-class observations, questioning and student feedback (Diedhiou, 2013; Mottier-Lopez, 2015). It focuses on students' understanding and requires teachers to structure activities to be more inclusive so that all students have an equal chance of success. To achieve this, teachers should not only adapt the assessment offered at the end of the learning process, but also take every opportunity offered to them to help students progress through the use of appropriate feedback. Assessment plays the role of a sentinel by monitoring students' progress on a daily basis and thus, it provides early warning signs to the teacher of any difficulties that might arise. This allows, in turn, teachers to provide activities that support students' individual needs (Garel, 2010).

3. Methodology

3.1 Collaborative Research

Our research group has completed a collaborative research project (Desgagné, 2001) with seven elementary school teachers from 2016 to 2018. Collaborative research is a bottom-to-top approach where all members of the team provide their different expertise and subsequently, all benefit from the results. New knowledge on current and developing practices is co-constructed by the researchers and the practitioners together (Desgagné, 1997). Teachers' role in this research was to describe and analyze a wide variety of classroom dynamics to help researchers and other teachers in the interpretation of the emerging data (Ward & Tikunoff, 1982). Collaborative research requires that researchers take into account the teachers' point of view by promoting the importance of a network of expertise (Bednarz, 2013). This approach also involves three essential steps: co-contextualization of the research problem, cooperation during the project and co-production of both teaching material and academic publication (Desgagné, 1997). Researchers must therefore, at the various steps of research, respect the logic of both research and teacher practices (Barry & Saboya, 2015). This paper will mainly focus on the third step of the research and present examples of co-productions.

3.2 Participants

For this project, the research team was composed of three academic researchers with different expertise namely: in assessment and evaluation, in history education and in science education. Two pedagogical advisors with backgrounds in history or science education and seven elementary school teachers completed the group. More specifically, the group of teachers was composed of two grade 6 teachers, three grade 5 teachers and two grade 2 teachers. The selected teachers were on their second participation having previously realized another collaborative research project with the team (FUQAC-2015-2017). The collaboration among the team members was therefore already well established at the beginning of the project.

3.3 Data Collection

The research project began in December 2017 and lasted two years. To achieve a network of expertise, the research methodology was built using the three essential steps of a collective research approach and data was collected during focus groups and semi-structured interviews. Table 1 presents how the methodology helped organize the research design.

Table 1

Research Design

Steps	Date	Data collect
Contextualize	December 2017	Focus group (6 hours)
Cooperation	February 2018	Semi-structured interview (60 – 75 min.)
Cooperation	March 2018	Focus group (6 hours)
Cooperation	April 2018	Semi-structured interview (60-75 min.)
Coproduction	October 2018	Focus group (6 hours)
Coproduction	December 2018	Focus group (6 hours)
Coproduction	May 2019	Focus group (6 hours)

Semi-structured interviews were used to better understand participants' teaching practices. In the case of this research, one of the goals was to report on the participant's growing expertise. Thus, the semi-directed interviews were understood within a constructivist perspective that aims at helping participants become self-aware of their own practice, to better understand it so that they may improve or adapt it when confronted with similar tasks or situations (Forget, 2013). The interview framework and the data obtained were both presented in a previously published article (Author, 2020). The analysis of the interviews helped structure the focus groups which were held in October 2018, in December 2018 and in May 2019. As mentioned previously, this article mainly focuses on the third step of the collaborative research approach: the coproduction of teaching material that provided examples of inclusive assessment.

The results of the first year of the project raised three challenges: 1) How to teach and to assess the intellectual skills identified in the history curriculum; 2) Which criteria should be used to assess students' description of scientific problems; 3) How to assess students without a numerical mark while making sure that appropriate feedback could be given to the students and their parents. Thus, during the first meeting in October, teachers and researchers reflected on the epistemology of the discipline of history and the objectives behind learning history in school. Learning history should not be limited to the memorization of dates and events. It should help students develop their ability to think historically through a set of intellectual skills. Team members reflected on their personal understanding of the discipline and how it influenced their own teaching and assessment practices. The meeting then focused on the question of providing adequate feedback to students (task performance, process of understanding, regulatory or metacognitive, self or personal). Team members had the opportunity to consider different forms of feedback they might use in their upcoming teaching activities. The topics of the first focus

group were identified within our joint model as belonging to the learning activity in history (what and how) category and the four levels of feedback category.

In December 2018, the team met to review feedback practices in history. Teachers discussed how different learning activities fostered different types of feedback. Also, the researchers felt the need to revisit the types of feedback one could offer but this time, turning their attention towards the teaching of science. The teachers were invited to comment a grid presenting different types of feedback they themselves had mentioned during the second interview. They also tried to identify relevant questions that could be asked to students to help guide their progress in science. The team reflected on criteria for assessing the description of a scientific problem. The topics of the second focus group were identified within our joint model as belonging to the categories of learning activity in science (what and how), assessment (what and how) and feedback.

During the last meeting in May 2019, teachers shared the assessment tools and practices they had developed in science and history throughout the project. They also shared how their participation had changed their teaching and assessment practices in both science and history. Finally, they discussed how the change in their teaching and assessment practices affected their students. A video clip was created to present a synthesized version of the information shared during the last meeting¹.

The focus group were analysed using a qualitative approach. Thus, the first step was to transcribe the recording of the focus group and integrated the transcription into the NVivo software. We followed Van der Maren's (2009) and Miles and Huberman's (2002) methodology concerning the analysis of written content which is composed of four steps : 1) selection of relevant data for each interview, 2) identification of the units of meaning, 3) classification of the units of meaning in each category of mobilized knowledge, and 4) grouping of the units of meaning according to common themes. An inductive logic that consists of using the theoretical framework as a guide to the analysis process (Savoie-Zajc, 2004) has been favoured by the team. The methodological approach of this project made it possible to answer to several types of triangulation (Denzin, 1970): Data (interviews, documents and, meeting), collectivity and interactive (teacher validation), investigator (multiple observers) and theory (evaluation and didactics).

4. Results and Discussion

During the focus groups, the team members discussed different assessment strategies that would allow them to be more inclusive while still adhering to the discipline's epistemology. Among these strategies the one that felt most appropriate was student interviews. Two examples of the use of the interview in history class are presented here. The first one is related with the creation of an in-class museum and the second with the construction of a lapbook that promotes a comparison of two societies.

4.1. In-class Museum Depicting Quebec in the 1980s

Quebec's grade 6 history curriculum states that students must know the characteristics of the society in the 1980's. One of the project participant decided to plan and realize a teaching activity consisting in the creation of an in-class museum composed of artifacts dating back to the 1980s. Students were tasked with finding ten objects originating from those years. The objects could come from their home but also could be found online. For each of them, students had to write an information sheet and pinpoint the creation of the artefact on a timeline. They also had to link the apparition of the artefact with the historical context and explain what consequences the artefact had on the society. Finally, student had to state if the artefact was still present in today's society and whether or not it had undergone transformation. For example, students could say that the Walkman is still found today but their technology has changed.

¹ Link to the video clip: <https://youtu.be/Ea9O4NOMDz4>

Figure 2 illustrates how items from the grade 6 history program can be included in our joint model.

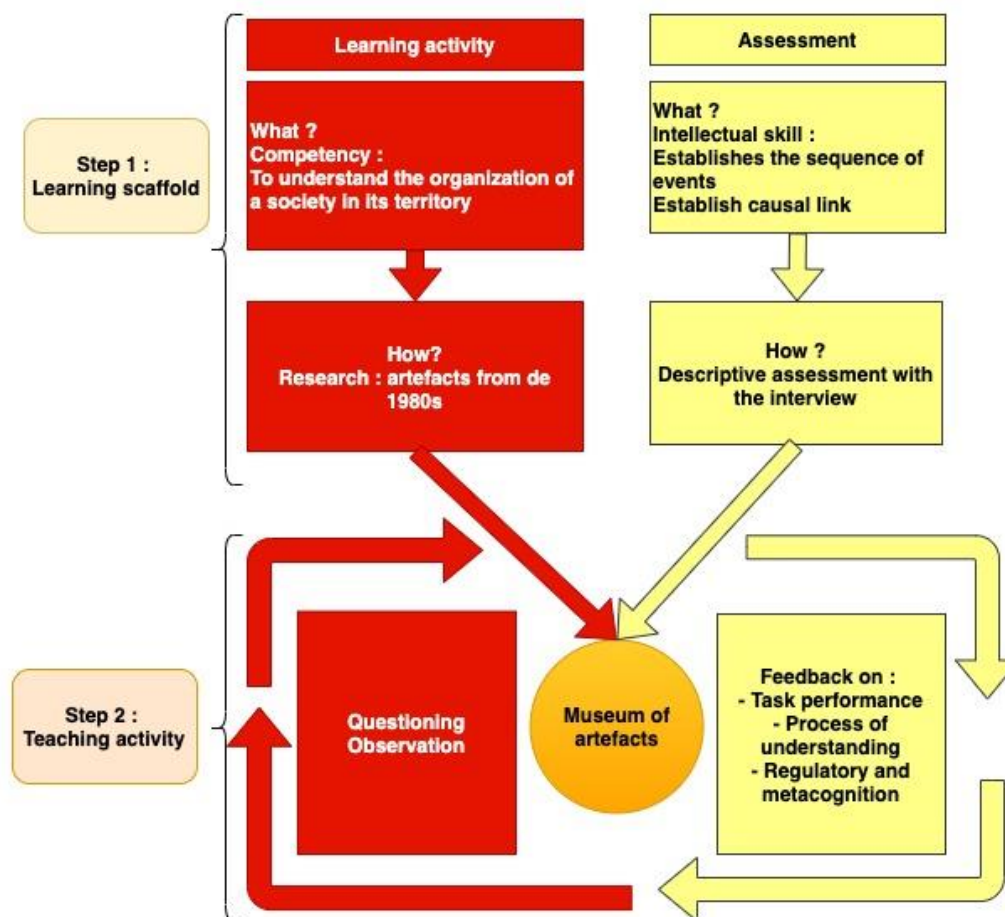


Figure 2: Interview to Assess History

Thus, to assess the student’s competency to “understand the organization of a society in its territory”, the teacher chose to target two intellectual skills namely to situate in time and space and to establish causal connections between events. During the teaching activity, she questioned students and observed their work in order to assess both intellectual skills. She first used design teaching to help students understand the activity:

“I first used design teaching to introduce the objects. For example, I asked why it [the creation of the object] happened, how things used to be before that, what's happening now[...] I would explain the cause behind the invention, why this change happened at that moment in time, etc. For those students who didn’t have an object from home, I told them they could also use pictures of events or objects found on the Web.” (E2: free translation)

The teacher was able to assess her student throughout the teaching activity. To do so, she created a grid describing how students should progress in their understanding of the studied society and in their ability to establish causal connexions between events. She used the assessment strategy of student interviews to establish whether or not students were developing their intellectual skills.

In the focus group, the teacher explained how she dealt with a student who brought an object that didn’t fulfill the criteria to complete the task: "When the student couldn't do it [the task], I couldn't penalize him. So, I would ask: "Your game, why couldn't we play it before? It wasn't invented... What did people do instead? "[...] I help them question themselves. " In other

words, the teacher used a problem-solving strategy that allowed her to assist her students and help them develop their understanding of the historical context as well as their ability to establish causality. In this case, the feedback focused on self-regulation and self-assessment. This example reveals strong ties between the nature of the learning activity and the assessment strategy favored by the teacher. Moreover, these strong ties make it possible to highlight the diversity of students' needs. The teacher was able to tailor her expectations to the student's needs and promote self-assessment. This activity is inclusive since all the students were able to develop the targeted intellectual skills at their own rhythm supported by the teacher's continuous feedback.

4.2. A Lapbook to Compare Two Societies

This second example features the creation of a lapbook. As depicted in Figure 3, a lapbook is a folded piece of cardboard which has two ledges on the top. Each ledge presents the characteristics of a society. When the lapbook is opened, the interior provides space to compare different aspects of both societies. In her teaching activity, the second teacher asked her students to compare Quebec in the 1980's and South Africa around 1980. The goal of the project was to help students "be open to the diversity of societies and their territories". To achieve this, students began by reading about South Africa. Then, they were asked to fill in summary sheets on what they had learned. Once the research phase was completed, students created a lapbook that compared both societies. Figure 4 shows how these new items from the grade 6 history program can be included in our joint model.

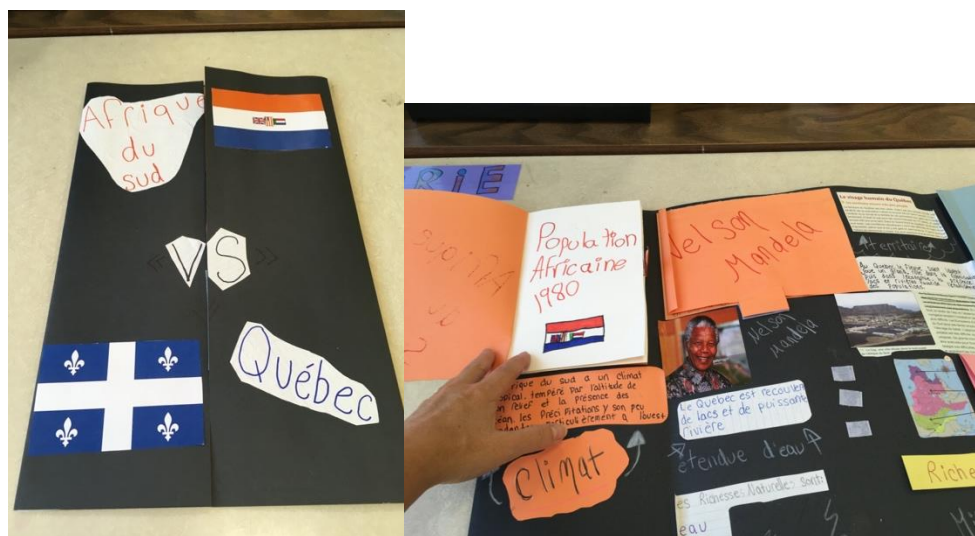


Figure 3 : Example of a LapBook comparing South Africa and Quebec in the 1980's

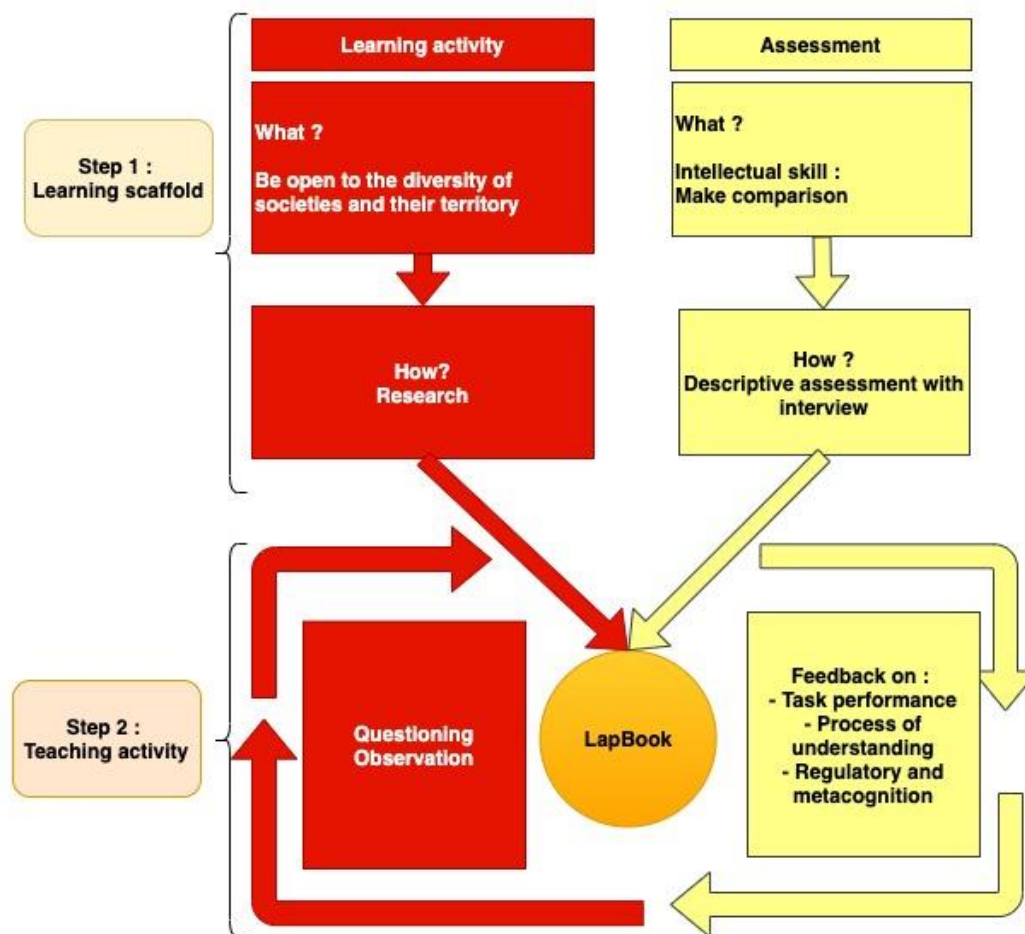


Figure 4: Questioning to Assess History

During the creation of the lapbook, the teacher questioned her students as a mean to give feedback on the task and on the process as well as a way to promote self-regulation. Here are some examples of questions asked during the creation of the lapbooks:

- Have you looked at the territory of each society?
- What kind of climates are there in South Africa and in Quebec?
- What is natural wealth and resources?
- Where can you get the information you need?

To assess her students, the teacher opted for the interview during which, students used their lapbook to compare both societies. The teacher adapted her questions according to the students' needs, using therefore a descriptive approach to assessment (De Ketele, 2010). The lapbook activity also offered students the opportunity to express themselves according to their needs and personalities. Each student could develop his or her ability to make comparisons and the versatile structure of the lapbook gave them freedom to express this ability in different ways. We see here the emergence of an inclusive approach.

4.3. Some examples of inclusive assessment strategies in science and technology

When teaching science, one teacher chose an experimental approach to learning. This choice influenced her assessment strategy making her favor observations and questioning approaches.

The first activity was aimed at discovering how electrical circuits function. Students had to create an electrical circuit but the challenge was to come up with solutions to save electricity. The competency developed by the activity was to help students propose explanations or solutions to scientific or technological problems. Figure 5 presents our joint models with the criteria found in the science and technology curriculum.

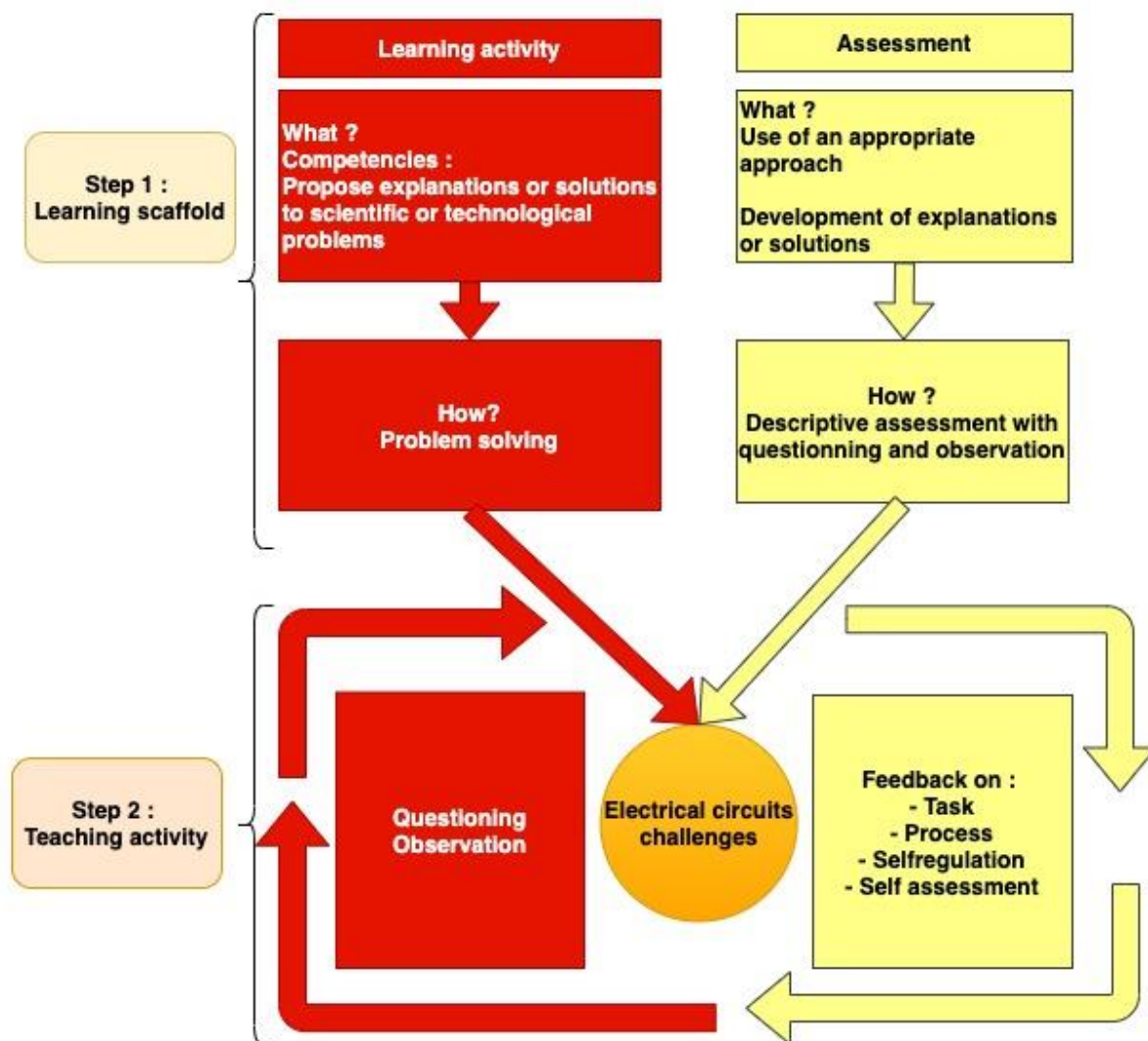


Figure 5: Assessing Science through Query

During the activity, the teacher walked around the classroom and observed her students as they completed the challenge. She took this moment as an opportunity to question them, asking them to explain their solutions and she was giving them feedback in return. The teacher realized that her questioning helped students self-regulate which resulted in them gaining greater autonomy in their problem-solving strategies. While analyzing the focus group data, researchers found that teachers were no longer looking for the right answer when questioning their students, but rather they were trying to assess the approaches students used to complete the task at hand.

The second activity developed to teach science was to compare the quality of plasters bought at the pharmacy. Through this activity, the teacher could assess students' competency to propose explanations or solutions to scientific problems. Students had to implement an experimental approach to verify the quality of different brands of plasters. The goal was to identify the best brand. Each team was assigned a specific property to check. For example, one team had to check for durability, while the other the waterproofness. To do this, students elaborated their own experimental methodology, which they needed to test and adjust if necessary. For example, for adherence, students would put the plasters on their knees and rub them with their jeans. The teacher observed her students in action and used questions to assess them. She had created a descriptive grid build around two criteria, namely: The use of an appropriate scientific approach and the ability to develop explanations or solutions. Her

feedback mainly focused on the realization of the task and how students self-regulated and self-assessed themselves.

The two science examples show that the assessment approach chosen by the teachers allows them to tailor their interventions to the needs and knowledge of their students. The aim is no longer to find the right answer but rather to help student learn a scientific method. When teachers have a better grasp of the epistemology of the discipline and start focusing on criteria to guide coaching, they start to provide feedback that facilitates student success and therefore helps to make assessment more inclusive.

4.4. Believe in the educability of the student by opting for assessment practices that regulates learning.

An inclusive approach requires that teachers believe in the educability of their students (Prud'homme et al., 2011). It means that teachers must be convinced that any student can succeed in the correct learning environment. When assessment assumes a regulatory function, it makes it possible to improve support for the pupils and allows the teacher to reflect on the learning situations he or she has put in place. However, to properly guide students' learning and meet their individual needs, it is imperative to carefully choose the learning target. This cannot be achieved without an in-depth understanding of the epistemology of the discipline being taught.

The goal of school history is not to memorize a set of dates and events but to develop students' historical thinking through the learning of intellectual operations (Seixas and Morton, 2013). When too much emphasis is placed on memorization, students who have a harder time remembering dates are placed at a disadvantaged which can result in failure. Historical thinking, on the other hand, evolves through the development of intellectual operations which can be observed in multiple ways by the teachers. For example, establishing facts can be done using images for students with reading difficulties and historical texts for students with greater reading skills. However, if a teacher lacks the proper epistemological understanding of the discipline, they might refrain from an assessment based on students' historical thinking skills and limit themselves with tests and quizzes that rewards a single type of learner. Thus an inclusive approach can only be attained through epistemological understanding that influences in turn both the learning strategies and the assessment approached favored by a teacher.

A similar observation can be made in science education. As in history, the goal of science education is not to learn encyclopedic knowledge recognized as scientific knowledge, but to develop reasoning through investigation. Students build their own knowledge through observation, trial and error and reflection. This knowledge is negotiated and argued in the same way scientific knowledge is negotiated and argued. It follows the same process of elaboration and validation. Science learning thus provides both procedural as well as factual knowledge. Feedback and assessment should be concerned with both types of knowledge which can be expressed in different forms such as explanations, solutions, models, drawings, oral presentations, etc. The challenge is, therefore, to provide feedback during the learning process, but also to reflect on the learning targeted by this feedback in a broader perspective that includes as well the concepts, approaches, tools, processes, language modes, and reasoning involved. When offering activities that allow the student to be actively involved in the demonstration of his or her competencies, an inclusive approach becomes possible. The teacher will readjust the material as he or she observes students, adding or removing information according to their needs.

5. Conclusion

This paper wished to offer a reflection on the importance of teachers' understanding of disciplinary epistemology as the key to gaining greater freedom in assessment practices and thus promoting a more inclusive form of assessment. Data emerging from the collaborative research made it possible to observe concrete learning activities that answered the criteria to inclusive education. And, with the teachers acting as co-researchers, examples of assessment practices such as interviews and questions embedded in the learning activities were created. At the end of this project, the research team noticed that when teachers change their understanding of the discipline, automatically the activities take on a different form and become grounded in inclusive education. In assessing students, teachers modify their strategies and move towards a descriptive approach to assessment. In this way, the activities and the assessment become much more coherent and inclusive. If the goal is to move towards more inclusive assessment practices, with a regulatory function and a descriptive approach, it is important to reflect on assessment from a discipline perspective, to work closely with teachers to ensure that their understanding of the subject (what and why) is grounded in their disciplinary knowledge and to foster multidisciplinary research teams that include education specialists and learning assessment specialists.

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THE INCLUSIVE LEBANESE SCHOOL: REALITY, CHALLENGES AND ISSUES

Abstract

Universal and equitable access to ordinary school is governed by numerous international texts and declarations. The rights of all children to education should ensure not only a physical presence but also a greater participation in learning and in cultural and community life. For a quarter of a century, a growing number of Lebanese schools have been moving towards welcoming a diverse public of students, despite the absence of a clear educational policy and specific official guidelines governing the education of students with special educational needs (SSEN). The aim of this research is to identify the challenges facing the Lebanese school through the detection of factors favorable and unfavorable to the success of inclusive education. A meta-synthesis of research carried out in Lebanon between 2000 and 2017 on the subject of school inclusion / integration of students with special educational needs contributed to the identification of 42 studies. Fourteen were selected according to the eligibility criteria. The main challenges relate to attitudes, school organization and consideration of the diversity of students' needs. Other mainly unfavorable factors are linked to the role of the Lebanese state, the education system and the high cost of inclusion.

Keywords: Challenges, inclusive education, inclusive school, Lebanon, challenges, unfavorable factors, special educational needs.

1. Introduction

Ensuring inclusive, equitable and quality education (SDG 2019) is currently a challenging objective that places great responsibilities on the education system and school. Universal access to education in ordinary schools requires redefining its mission and ensuring means to educate all children, in particular those who have been so far excluded because of a disability or disorder. This injunction sheds light on inclusive education defined as a process involving the fundamental transformation of education systems allowing the school to provide quality education for every student (UNESCO, 2019).

The orientation towards inclusion thus requires a transformation of education system and ordinary school in terms of policies, structures, programs and practices. This undertaking presupposes the genuine commitment of all stakeholders in a continuous development process. It implies the adoption of a value system advocating equity and recognition of potential for success for everyone (Rousseau & Bélanger, 2004). Inclusive education therefore requires intensive planning and action and shall constitute an end in itself.

To guarantee access and success for students with special educational needs (SSEN) in ordinary schools, certain conditions shall be met. Among these conditions cited are those related to the adoption of positive attitudes (Bélanger, 2015; Parent, 2004), taking into account the diversity of students' needs (Rousseau & Bélanger, 2004; (Paré & Trépanier, 2015), effective collaboration, partnership with parents (Deslandes, 2015) and management leadership (Thibodeau, & al., 2016).

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Despite a global orientation to make ordinary school available for all as clearly stipulated in international declarations and charters and despite the adoption of inclusive aim in several, effective collaboration, partnership with parents (Deslandes, 2015) and management leadership (Thibodeau, & al., 2016).

Despite a global orientation to make ordinary school available for all as clearly stipulated in international declarations and charters and despite the adoption of inclusive aim in several countries of the world, the fact remains that inclusion experiences are diverse, not generalized to all schools in the same country. Indeed, the inclusive school presents different realities within the same country, or even within the same school (Booth, 1996; Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Dyson & Millward, 2000, cited by Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

Although Lebanon is a signatory to international conventions, charters and recommendations guaranteeing the rights of SSEN, we underline the inexistence of ministerial directives in favor of inclusive education despite the promulgation of law 220/2000 “relating to the rights of disabled persons”. This Law recognizes the right to education for people with disabilities and considers that their disability should in no way constitute an obstacle to their participation in the admission tests recommended by educational institutions. However, it does not require the need to make changes or modifications to the school or educational system in order to promote learning for all. This law is still awaiting decrees allowing its operationalization.

The first experiences of school integration were mainly initiated by parents and were spontaneous. Some private schools, that have a margin of autonomy, began to welcome SSEN in the 1990s. These initiatives were carried out despite the absence of clear educational policies governing these students’ education both in special education institution and ordinary school. The experiences carried out at that time were part of a school integration approach allowing access to school for some SSEN by providing them with educational and rehabilitation services to facilitate their adaptation to the school system.

Currently, more schools are teaching SSEN by developing structures, taking measures to develop integration / inclusion¹ and by recruiting specialized and qualified staff (Center for Educational Research and Development; British Council; SKILD, 2014). However, the presence of SSEN in school remains largely conditioned by their adapted behavior, academic results, technical support provided by non-governmental organizations and especially financial support of parents (Mjaes Azar, 2019). Consequently, thirty years later, the situation has unfortunately not changed significantly. These schools have thus far been left free to decide whether to be transformed into inclusive schools in the absence of coercive regulations and clear guidelines governing inclusion at the national level (Bou Sreih, 2014; Mjaes Azar, 2014).

The described situation clearly shows that Lebanon has not yet adopted the orientation towards inclusion with regard to SSEN schooling. As a result, Lebanese schools welcoming these students are faced with major challenges. In the absence of legislation guaranteeing access for ALL to ordinary school, and in the absence of a reform of education system ensuring that the diversified needs of learners are taken into account, Lebanese schools have to meet alone the challenge to be transformed into inclusive schools. This should lead them to engage in a development enterprise both in terms of their educational project and their structures, practices and roles of various stakeholders. Consequently, they should make a multidimensional change concerning the organization (transformation of the school vision, mission, and structure...), the pedagogy (pedagogical differentiation, pedagogical innovation...), the attitudes (adoption of positive and favorable attitudes...) and the environment (accessibility of places...). On the other hand, this transformation of the school into an inclusive school could only take place if

¹ The term “integration / inclusion” is adopted in this research since stakeholders and schools use the two concepts in an interchangeable way, and since in Arabic language the two concepts are designated by the same term “الدمج” and due to the absence of an official and generalized definition.

decision-makers and stakeholders adhere to the principles of inclusive education on a clear conceptual basis.

In this case, the school may reserve the right to refuse the enrollment of SSEN, suspend it, or limit it to some form of conditional or physical integration. These students will then be excluded from the ordinary education system and deprived of their right to education as well as educational opportunities essential to their development and their social participation.

These findings lead us to formulate the following research question: What are the challenges facing the Lebanese school to become more inclusive? Identifying these challenges would make it possible to understand the reality of the inclusive Lebanese school and its various issues and would constitute the aim of this research.

To this end, four specific objectives are formulated:

- 1) Identify favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to the attitudes of stakeholders.
- 2) Identify favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to school organization.
- 3) Identify favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to consideration of the diversity of students' needs.
- 4) Identify other favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion in Lebanon.

2. Review of Literature

The concepts of inclusion and inclusive school are key concepts underlying this study. They will be presented while highlighting the conditions to be met, the measures to be taken as well as the challenges to be faced by the school to become an inclusive school.

The SSEN's education has evolved all over the world: from segregation to inclusion through partial integration conditioned by the academic success and the adapted behavior of the student. In fact, school integration is considered as partial placement in a regular class of a student with difficulties but deemed able to learn (Bélanger, 2006). It "presupposes the implementation of support and rehabilitation services to adapt the child or adolescent to ordinary school, but he is removed from class when he's considered unable to benefit from the provided education" (Thomazet, 2006, p.19). In this approach, a selection is essential, only SSEN capable of meeting school requirements will be enrolled. The questioning of the effectiveness of this model supported by international charters and conventions has given rise to the model of inclusion which ensures that all children, regardless of their difficulties, have the right to attend ordinary schools.

Thus, the inclusive school is a place of reception and education for all children regardless of their impairment, disorder or difficulty. Everyone has their rightful place there and attends the ordinary class corresponding to their real age where they live experiences allowing them to develop their full potential in terms of learning and socialization (Rousseau, Prud'homme, & Vienneau, 2015; Thomazet, 2006). By adopting the "zeroreject" philosophy (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), USA, 1975), the inclusive school takes into account the specific needs of each student and organizes itself to best meet them by finding innovative and adapted solutions.

To acquire the status of an inclusive school, any school should make changes and adaptations on several levels.

In terms of school organization, the inclusive school revises its educational project and its policies by putting in place strategies to succeed in its mission with all students. This would only be possible through strong leadership from school administration, effective collaboration between different stakeholders and an established partnership with parents. For this purpose,

planning, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms will have to be set up to ensure physical and educational accessibility for all students and permanent professional development for all stakeholders. Likewise, human resources management plays an essential role in this process involving the recruitment and retention of qualified and competent professionals.

In terms of attitudes, the inclusive school brings the stakeholders to become aware of their beliefs and their dispositions towards the difference and SSEN education in ordinary school and classroom. It aims to clarify the concepts of inclusion, otherness and to work for the establishment of a favorable climate to value diversity.

Finally, on educational level, the inclusive school shall be adapted to the specific needs of students by increasing the effectiveness of teaching-learning process and by planning individualized intervention. This is done through the adequate assessment of the needs of students with difficulties, the use of educational differentiation and the establishment of a support system for the learner.

It is certain that several factors come into play for the establishment of an inclusive school. Only the presence of certain essential conditions seems decisive for the success of inclusive education. They can be grouped into five main categories (Mjaes Azar, 2014):

- Adopting favorable attitudes towards children with special educational needs (Smith & Leonard, 2005; Parent, 2004).
- Effective collaboration between different stakeholders (Smith & Leonard, 2005).
- Adequate assessment of the child's needs (Parent, 2004) taking into account his best interest (Ainscow, 2007).
- Partnership with parents (French, Kozleski, & Sands, 2000; Bélanger, 2006; Lombardi & Woodrum, 1999) considered to be part of the inclusion team.
- The leadership of the school principal (Riehl, 2000; Ducharme, 2008; French, Kozleski, & Sands, 2000; Kose, 2009; Kochhar-Bryant, West, & Taymans, 2000; Lombardi & Woodrum, 1999).

Inclusion, as a challenge is questioning school and social system rather than questioning students (Bou Sreih, 2014). Vienneau (2002) highlights the presence of three major challenges raised by the orientation towards inclusion.

The resource challenge highlights four types of resources necessary for the establishment of an inclusive school, namely human resources, resources for learning, physical resources and administrative resources (Laundry & Robichaud, 1985, cited by Vienneau, 2002).

The pedagogical challenge concerns the use of "up to date " practices(*pratiques actualisantes*) (Vienneau, 2002; Gauthier & Poulain, 2006) allowing adaptation to the individual characteristics of each learner with or without difficulty. These practices are therefore likely to improve the learning conditions for all students and to better manage individual differences within regular classrooms.

Finally, the attitude challenge is related to the beliefs and attitudes of actors, in particular teachers, as to the principles and foundations of inclusive education towards students with special educational needs.

3. Method

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, we opted for the secondary analysis approach: The Meta-synthesis. "The meta-synthesis, or qualitative review, consists in critically analyzing qualitative studies and synthesizing the results in a new frame of reference on a subject of interest"(Whittemore, 2005 in Fortin, 2010, p. 155). This choice was guided by the desire to explore and recognize the value of all the research work carried out in the Lebanese territory about school integration / inclusion. This review allowed to have access to the greatest number of results, treat them in an efficient manner from a broad angle of analysis (Guoulez &

Tétreault, 2014) and thus reach a new interpretation and a better in-depth understanding of this phenomenon. The meta-synthesis is a five-step process (see Figure 1) (Guoulez & Tétreault, 2014; Beaucher & Jutras, 2007; Rousseau, Point, & Vienneau, 2014).

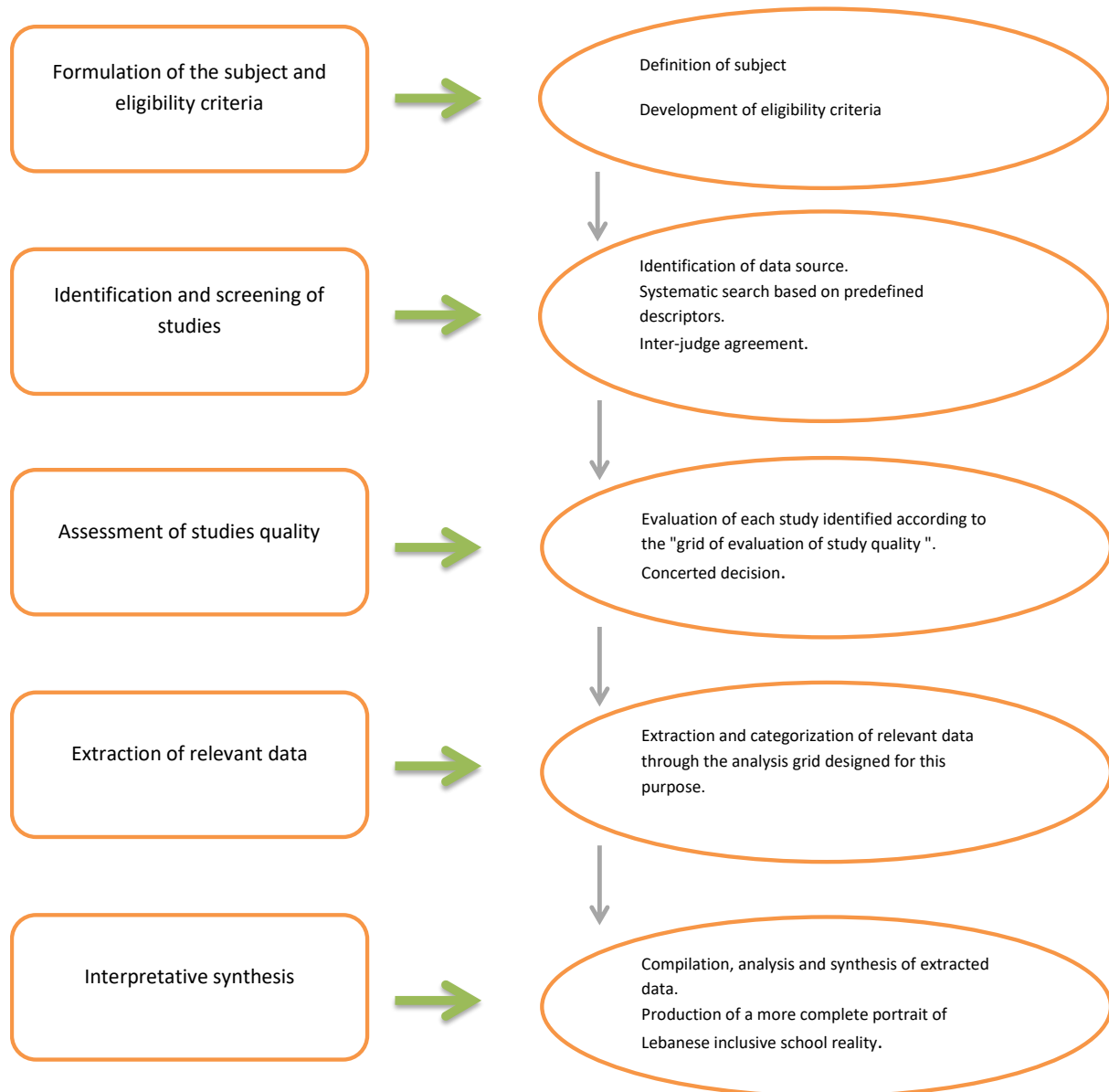


Figure 1: Stages of the Meta-Synthesis

3.1-Formulation of Subject and Eligibility Criteria

Once the subject was defined, eligibility criteria were established according to the objectives. They were formulated beforehand in terms of inclusion and exclusion criteria in order to avoid arbitrary selection of studies. They also allow specifying spatiotemporal context, populations, protocols and results to be retained.

The inclusion criteria defined allowed selecting the studies:

- Studying the Lebanese context.
- Concerning: 1) knowledge of stakeholders; 2) attitudes of stakeholders; 3) favorable and unfavorable factors for school inclusion/integration; 4) establishment and management of inclusive education; 5) services provided to SSEN; 6) implemented procedures and mechanisms.
- Concerning school enrollment in different cycles: preschool, primary, complementary, and secondary.
- Relating to the entire SSEN population.
- Outcome of scientific research adopting a qualitative or mixed methodology.
- Outcome of scientific research for obtaining a diploma (Master or Doctorate) and identifiable in the catalog of the library of university of origin.
- Published in indexed scientific journals.
- Carried out between 2000 and 2017.
- Written in Arabic, French or English.

Two defined exclusion criteria allowed excluding:

- Researches carried out to obtain a diploma (Masters or Doctorate) appearing in a database but not listed in the catalog of the library of university of origin.
- Quantitative research.

3.2- Identification and screening of studies

First, the data sources were identified among catalogs of libraries of local universities and local and international digital databases. Then a systematic examination of each database was carried out using predefined descriptors in Arabic and French languages. However, the latter have been adjusted and formulated in English, given the particularity of Lebanon, a country where research is carried out in three languages.

3.3- Assessment of studies quality

The approach adopted for the evaluation of the studies quality was carried out using a grid and resulted in a concerted decision in order to select or not the study in question.

The "study quality evaluation grid" developed for this purpose consisted of three parts:

- Identification of the study.
- Assessment of items relating to the method (presentation of the protocol, definition of the sample, presentation of the study course), to the results (credibility, contribution to the advancement of knowledge, consistency with the research objectives and goals, possibility of generalization, data analysis) and discussion (clarity and consistency of the presentation of results, neutrality, verifiability, ethical considerations) (Rousseau, Point, & Vienneau, 2014). The assessment of different items was made on a scale comprising 4 points: "does not apply", "not satisfactory", "moderately satisfactory", "satisfactory".
- The concerted decision as to whether retain or not the study in question.

3.4- Extraction of relevant data

An in-depth reading of each selected study was carried out through an analysis grid allowing to identify the relevant data and to categorize them into favorable and unfavorable factors.

The analysis grid developed is made up of five parts:

- Identification of the study.
- Extraction of data reflecting the attitudes of stakeholders, namely director, teachers, parents, specialists and students. These attitudes are presented in two respective tables in terms of favorable or unfavorable factors. They are broken down into five indicators: knowledge relating to the concept of school integration, knowledge relating to the concept of school inclusion, knowledge relating to impairments / disorders / difficulties of SSEN, dispositions regarding SSEN schooling in regular schools and the will of teachers for the welcoming of SSEN in their class. Note that this last indicator is reserved exclusively for teachers.
- Identification of favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to school organization. The indicators relating to this dimension are effective collaboration, partnership with parents, management leadership, presence of required human and material resources, professional development, teacher support systems, accessibility to places as well as valuing the inclusive teacher.
- Identification of favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to consideration of the diversity of students' needs, five indicators have been defined, namely: pedagogical innovation, adaptation of teaching / program, adequate assessment of SSEN needs, planning of individualized intervention and support systems for students with special educational needs.
- Identification of other favorable and unfavorable factors noted in the reviewed study.

3.5- Interpretative synthesis

The data extracted from selected studies were compiled, analyzed, and then synthesized. The study of the recurrence of each identified factor allowed pointing out the most salient and most problematic factors. A new interpretation of the favorable and unfavorable factors has thus been developed in terms of challenges facing the inclusive school in Lebanon.

4. Results

4.1 Presentation of the studies identified

A total of 42 studies were identified according to predefined descriptors in various consulted databases (see Figure 2). The examination of these studies highlights an increasingly large number of studies on school integration / inclusion from 2013. Indeed, 12/42 researches were carried out between 2002 and 2012 against 30 / 42 between 2013 and 2017. This shows a growing interest in this topic, probably coinciding with the development of postgraduate training programs in education sciences at certain universities in Lebanon. Thus, the majority of studies (33/42) are the result of research carried out to obtain university diplomas (Masters, Doctorates) with a prevalence of thesis (30/42) and a minority of doctoral dissertations (3/42). These studies are distributed as follows: 6 in Arabic, 14 in English and 22 in French.

An initial filtering was established according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria, thus reducing the number to 29 studies eligible for this research. A second filtering with regard to the quality criteria allowed to retain 14 studies and to exclude 13. The two remaining studies were not available.

The 14 selected studies consist of 9 thesis, 3 articles and 2 dissertations with prevalence for English language. It reveals the trends in the interests of Lebanese researchers which are presented as follows: attitudes of actors (5), educational services / settings / approaches (4), feasibility / conditions of inclusion (3) and roles (director / counselor) (2).

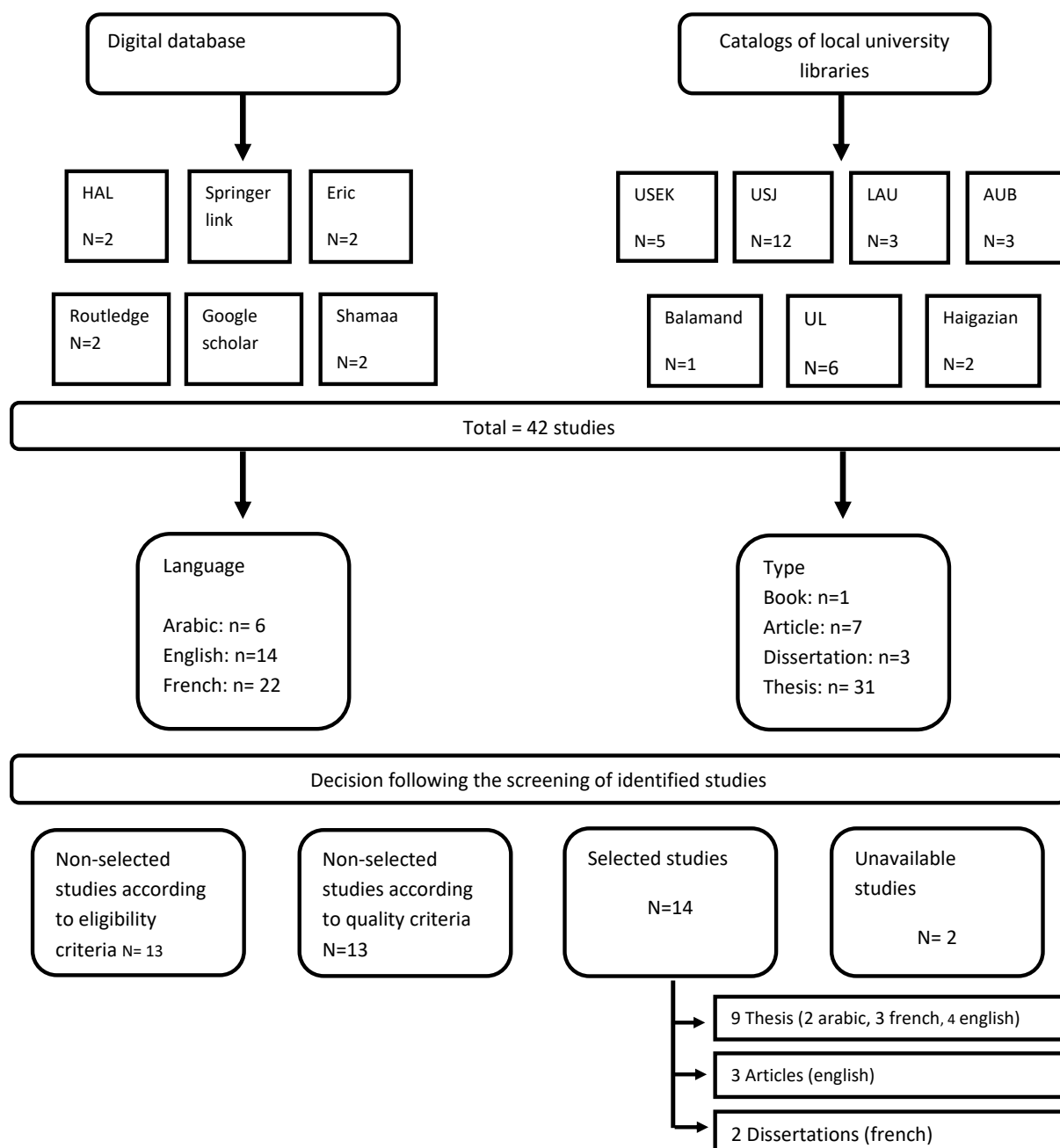


Figure 2: Presentation of Identified Studies

4.2 Favorable and unfavorable factors related to attitudes, school organization and inclusive pedagogical practices

We will present hereinafter the results obtained in relation to each of this research objectives.

The identification of favorable factors (22 FF) and unfavorable factors (52 UF) to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to the attitudes of stakeholders (objective 1) emphasizes on attitudes, which were generally negative. They are mainly due to gaps at the level of cognitive attitude dimension. Indeed, the “knowledge relating to the concept of inclusive education” (1 FF against 15 UF) and the “knowledge relating to impairments / disorders / difficulties” (0 FF against 8 UF) are incomplete among actors responsible for school inclusion, namely directors, parents, specialists, students and especially teachers. This

negatively affects the “dispositions regarding the enrollment of SSEN in regular school”, which is underlined by the results obtained (18 FF against 24 UF) and influenced mainly by the type and degree of impairment / disorders / difficulties. Consequently, it seems that the attitudes and dispositions of school actors should be modified to ensure that one of the conditions for successful school inclusion relates to the presence of favorable attitudes (Shapiro, 1999; Vienneau, 2002).

As for the identification of favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to school organization (objective 2), the results also show a prevalence of unfavorable factors (59 UF versus 18 FF). The unfavorable factors mentioned affect several fundamental aspects related to the characteristics of an inclusive school, including the "presence of the required human and material resources" (12 times); “professional development” (10 times); "effective collaboration" (7 times) ; "teacher support systems" and "class composition" (6 times each). Similarly, other factors are also identified: "partnership with parents" (5 times); "director's leadership" and "accessibility to the premises" (4 times each); "valuing the inclusive teacher" and "evaluation and monitoring system" (2 times each) and finally the "SSEN referral system to the specialized department or specialist" (1 time).

Favorable factors, on the other hand, are relatively rarely cited, reflecting the existing gaps in school organization in the inclusive Lebanese school. They concern the following aspects: "effective collaboration" and "professional development" (4 times each); “partnership with parents”, "management leadership", "presence of required human and material resources", "teacher support" and "class composition" (twice each).

These results relating to school organization show a clear concern regarding, as a priority, the satisfaction of the most basic conditions for the establishment of an inclusive school, namely the layout of the premises and the assurance of human and material resources. Whereas the factors that allow to institutionalize and govern inclusive education, such as "director's leadership", "valuing the inclusive teacher" and "reference, evaluation and monitoring systems" are less mentioned despite their importance. This highlights a concept of change at the school level that would be transformed to a mechanical process while it should induce deep transformations and changes at both system and structure levels (Ainscow, 2005; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010).

On another level, the identification of favorable and unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion with regard to considering the diversity of students' needs (objective 3) allowed to identify in selected studies the presence of 22 unfavorable factors against 5 favorable factors. Thus, the unfavorable factors identified concern in particular the "teaching / program adaptation" (7 times); "individualized intervention planning" (6 times); "support systems for SSEN" (4 times) ; "adequate assessment of SSEN needs" (3 times) and "pedagogical differentiation / pedagogical innovation" (2 times). In return, the favorable factors are reduced to only two: "support systems for students with SEN" (3 times) and "individualized intervention planning" (2 times).

These results highlight the gaps in inclusive teaching practices and in planning of individualized intervention preventing students with SEN from fully benefiting from their education. Thus their participation, learning and success are compromised since they are obliged to follow the regular program without taking their particular educational needs into account. This suggests an orientation towards conditional integration which requires the student to adapt to the context and meet the school requirements.

4.3 Other favorable and unfavorable factors

Furthermore, the results highlighted other favorable or unfavorable factors to the success of school integration / inclusion in Lebanon (objective 4) including 2 FF against 35 UF.

In order to process these data, we proceeded with a thematic categorization that allowed defining 4 categories: "Lebanese State", "Lebanese educational system", "Teacher initial training" and "Empowerment of families and SSEN".

As a result, we identified the following two favorable factors: the "Lebanese State" and "teacher initial training" (1 time each). On the other hand, we noted a clear prevalence of unfavorable factors linked to "Lebanese educational system" (20 times); "teacher initial training" and "Lebanese State" (7 times each) as well as to "empowerment of families and SSEN" (1 time). These results are detailed in the following table.

Table 1

Other Unfavorable Factors

"Lebanese educational system" (20 times)	"Lebanese State" (7 times)	"Initial teachers training" (7 times)	"Families and SSEN empowerment" (1 time)
<p>"Authority of the private school to accept the enrollment of SSEN or to suspend it"</p> <p>"Limited capacity of the private school to accommodate SSEN"</p> <p>"High cost of inclusion mainly provided by parents"</p> <p>"Working conditions of teachers and special education teachers"</p> <p>"Professional constraints and pressures"</p> <p>"Teachers and special education teachers turnover"</p> <p>"Low income of teachers"</p> <p>"Lack of qualification of teachers and special education teachers" (no qualification requirement for hiring)</p>	<p>"Role in inclusion (Absence of laws and regulations relating to inclusion, accountability of schools with regard to inclusive education, monitoring, etc.)"</p> <p>"Role in the setting up of SEN diagnostic, referral, information and guidance systems for parents"</p> <p>"Lack of an educational policy on inclusion"</p> <p>" Political instability "</p>	<p>"Insufficient skills of teachers to teach inclusive classes"</p>	<p>"Lack of training or support for parents in claiming their children's rights"</p> <p>"Absence of training of SSEN to assert and claim their rights (self-advocacy)"</p>

In sum, these results show a failure in the role of the Lebanese state in the organization, control and promotion of inclusive education. They also underline the role of the educational system and the impact of its characteristics on the current situation of inclusive school. In fact, in this system where the private sector is particularly developed and which has hosted SEN since 1990s, the education of the latter remains dependent on the limited reception capacity of private school. Similarly, another major obstacle is the high cost of inclusive education, which is mainly provided by parents. This reveals the virtual absence of active public sector involvement in the education of SEN. As a result, most of them are excluded from school for lack of financial means and an inclusive education policy.

On the other hand, the working conditions of teachers and special education teachers expose them during integration / inclusion to significant professional constraints and pressures which, combined with the low income of teachers, encourage the turnover of qualified and experienced professionals.

Finally, as the educational system does not require qualification for hiring teachers and special education teachers, it thus ends up with staff in such positions without having had any qualifying training. In addition, the initial training of teachers shows a lack of preparation for teaching inclusive classes and managing diversity.

5. Discussion

In the light of the above, it is clear that the Lebanese inclusive school faces alone several challenges since it simultaneously assumes the roles of "initiator", "promoter" and "manager" of school inclusion. As a result, it must meet three major challenges: those of attitudes, school organization and considering the diverse needs of students.

The shortcomings in the cognitive dimension of attitude are due to three complementary factors relating to school, initial teacher training and the State. At school level, the preparation of various actors, an essential condition for the success of inclusive education (Beaupré, Bédard, Courchesne, Pomerleau, & Tétréault, 2004), would seem insufficient. This would explain the absence of a clear conceptual basis for adhering to the principles of inclusion and acting accordingly (Rousseau & Bélanger, 2004). Furthermore, the initial training of teachers does not empower them enough to master the essential knowledge relating to inclusive education or impairments / disorders / difficulties (Bou Sreih, 2014). In the absence of formal and official standards and guidelines governing inclusive education in Lebanon (Mjaes Azar, 2019), the acquisition of this knowledge would not be considered a priority in teacher training. Consequently, the school should be concerned with ensuring the prior and continuous preparation of stakeholders, with a view to providing them with the necessary knowledge enabling them to actively engage in its inclusive aim (Beaupré, Bédard, Courchesne, Pomerleau, & Tétréault, 2004; Rousseau & Bélanger, 2004).

In addition, this inclusive aim requires the adoption of a concept of change allowing a real evolution of the school at the organizational and structural level (Ainscow, 2005; Gather Thurler, 2000). Apart from the need to ensure the required human and material resources, this transformation requires defining a philosophy of equity, integrating it into the school's educational project and ensuring its adoption by the stakeholders. Management leadership is found throughout this process to inspire, guide and influence the implementation of inclusive practices, on both individual and collective levels (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). These practices have essentially two aspects: collaborative and educational. In fact, collaboration, at the heart of inclusive education, encourages actors to organize themselves in learning communities, plan and act in complementarity, evaluate and regulate action. This goes hand in hand with the establishment of support systems, in particular for both teacher and student, and means to enhance efforts and celebrate successes. As a result, the school should reorganize for deeper and more lasting change to become more inclusive.

As for teaching practices, they should be inclusive. In this context, educational differentiation and adaptation are essential in order to bring each student towards academic or educational success, using, if necessary, individualized planning and intervention procedures (Vienneau, 2002). Consequently, the school must make its choices and acquire the means enabling it to ensure pedagogical accessibility to all students regardless of their characteristics and needs. In this way, it would be able to assume its full responsibility towards everyone.

Furthermore, the transformation of the Lebanese school into an inclusive school would be largely facilitated and encouraged by the existence of a legislative, axiological and praxeological framework governing inclusive education (Kozleski & Smith, 2009; Halinen & Jarvinen, 2008). Following the results, it appears that the Lebanese educational system shows weaknesses in terms of its positioning as a promoter and instigator (*ownership*) and its role vis-à-vis the school as a control and *accountability* for results.

Therefore, it will have to develop a reference model for inclusive education in Lebanon including the conceptual and practical framework as well as the arrangements and monitoring, evaluation and control methods. At the same time, two major changes need to be made to meet the requirements of inclusive school practices: the teachers' work regulations and the criteria for hiring teachers and special education teachers. These various measures would optimize the alignment of Lebanese public and private schools with the inclusive education principles.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this research provides an overview of the school receiving SSEN in Lebanon on the basis of selected scientific research, emphasizing its orientation towards conditional integration. It denounces the existence of major challenges facing the school at different levels of school system. Finally, it generates development and evolution paths in favor of inclusive education for schools and decision-makers.

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A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION OF SELF-DETERMINATION IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: A LEBANESE MODEL

Abstract

Promoting self-determination for students with a learning disability is a fundamental aspect of inclusive education. During the last decades, the emphasis on self-determination emerged from the self-advocacy movement and empowerment for students with a learning disability. Self-determination is to teach students to act as the causal agents of their own lives, and to function independently. This preliminary study, examined the association between self-determination skills and students' feelings about their disability, perception of the school and family attributes, and capability in goal setting and formulating an action plan to attain goals. This is an innovative study since no information is available about the significance of self-determination in inclusive schools in the Lebanese context. The sample comprised 122 students ranging from the third to the twelfth grades. The study employed a mixed methodology using qualitative and quantitative design. The results of the semi-structured interviews indicated increased awareness of rights, and low level of learned helplessness. Implementation will proceed with pretest-posttest research design to measure further impact on the aforementioned skills and attainment of academic goals. Implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Keywords: causal agents, inclusive education, learned helplessness, self-advocacy, self-determination.

1. Introduction

The construct of self-determination has emerged in the last few decades as an impetus for students with disabilities to become empowered to advocate for themselves and to plan for productive lives in society. There has been substantial progress towards promoting self-determination as the movement to inclusive education gains momentum after the amendments of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004. The modifications accentuated the application of individualized education programs (IEPs) in the general education classroom under the section [Sec.602 (a) (19), 1414(d)] (Palmer, Wehmeyer, Gipson, & Agran, 2004; Lee et al., 2008; Wehmeyer et al, 2017). Furthermore, specific decrees of the law entailed the integration of self-determination skills in the general education curriculum (Konrad et al., 2008). The emphasis is that educators make concerted effort to deliver instructions in self-determination to facilitate students' post-secondary education, transition planning, and independent living (Shorgen, & Ward, 2018; Shogren, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Rifenshark, & Little, T. D. 2015). The law required development of measurable goals to document post-school performance, thereby strengthening the relation between transition planning and after school success. This mandate will enable students to request for accommodations to facilitate this transition process.

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Self-determination is considered a fundamental aspect of the curriculum in order to prepare students with learning disabilities to assume responsibility for their own learning, to play a major role in planning their future, and to function independently (Shogren, & Ward, 2018; Wehmyer & Palmer, 2003; Powers et al, 2012; Shorgen et al, 2015). Substantial research has implicated a relationship between self-determination and post-school outcomes, and quality of life (Lachapelle et al., 2005, McDougall, Evans, & Baldwin, 2010; Wehmyer & Palmer, 2003).

Students with learning disabilities lack understanding for their problems, and exhibit learned helplessness because of low internal locus of control (Woodcock, and Vialle, 2010) although they are usually cognizant of type of their difficulty. Conversely, students who exhibit self-determination tend to accept their learning difficulty, they are able to explain it, as well as understand how it influences them. They are willing during and after high school to seek support services that are required to achieve success, and demonstrate determination to overcome barriers that will certainly come along their learning process and future (Getzel, & Thoma, 2008). It is important to examine the effectiveness of self-determination instruction to create self-directed learners capable of pursuing future goals, in order to enhance self-efficacy of students with learning disabilities.

Since Al-Kawthar High School adopts inclusive education to offer services for students with learning disabilities, the purpose of this study is to examine the effectiveness of self-determination instruction on the ability of students to articulate how they perceive their abilities, and how others do, and what are their needs to achieve better results?

The results will add new information to literature related to self-determination in inclusive settings, and would help to improve pedagogical practices in our endeavor to provide research based interventions to increase students' self-image and self-efficacy.

2. Review of Literature

The field of special education has witnessed the enactment of more than one law since its inception in 1960. The most influential of all is the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1997 and 2004. (Lee, Wehmyer, Palmer, Soukup, & Little, 2008). New provisions have been added so students with learning disabilities have access to the general education curriculum. The law mandated that students with learning difficulties have long term goals and short term objectives, and curricular and instructional adaptations to make progress towards general education curriculum to insure optimal participation in the teaching learning process (Denny & Daviso, 2012; Wehmyer, Field, Doren, Jones, & Mason, 2004).

A plethora of research has documented that students with learning disabilities will most probably have access to the general education curriculum through inclusive education (Lee et al., 2008; Soukup, Wehmyer, Bashinski, & Bovaird, 2007; Wehmyer, Lattin, Lapp Rincker, & Agran, 2003). Also in the reauthorization, there is emphasis on providing transition services exemplified by both academics and functional curricula [Sec.602 (34) (A)].

Self-determination is one discipline of popular practice in inclusive education to improve academic performance and to address transition services (Burke, Shogren, Wehmyer, Antosh, & LaPlante, 2019; Trainor, 2002; Wehmyer & Schalock, 2005). Evidence-based practices have shown that self-determined students with learning disabilities achieve academic goals (Burke, Raley, Shogren, Adam-Mumbardó, Uyanik, Hagiwara, & Behrens, 2018; Raley, Shogren, & McDonald, 2018; Shogren, Palmer, Wehmyer, Williams-Diehm, & Little, 2012), and continue to perform positively in afterschool outcomes such as in employment and community integration (Shogren, Wehmyer, Palmer, Rifenshark, & Little, 2015).

2.1 Self-Determination and Students with Learning Disabilities

Self-determination is a psychological concept that has been in literature since the nineteenth century. Five principles constitute the underlying foundation for self-determination competency, relatedness, freedom, support, responsibility, and autonomy (Deci, & Ryan, 2000; Pennell, 2001). The emphasis on these principles developed from the genuine desire of individuals with disabilities to be perceived as human beings first.

Concurrently, proponents and researchers of disability self-advocates moved the self-determination movement forward (Wood et al., 2005). As such, self-advocacy became a component of self-determination. Self-advocacy comprises knowledge of one's learning disability, awareness of rights, responsibilities, and accommodations. Likewise, it includes the ability to speak up for needs and accommodations (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2018).

Several conceptualizations have been formulated to define the construct of self-determination because of underlying theories (Wehmeyer, 2003 as cited in Palmer, 2010). All definitions endorse the conception as the element indispensable to make responsible decisions regarding one's own life. Wehmeyer (1992) surveyed the psychological and educational literature to propose an initial definition of self-determination for use in special education, suggesting that self-determination: "refers to the attitudes and abilities required to act as the primary causal agent in one's life and to make choices regarding one's actions free from undue external influence or interference" (Wehmeyer 1992, p. 305). Field, Martin, Miller, Ward, and Wehmeyer (1998) summarized several of those definitions in the following comprehensive definition:

Self-determination is a combination of skills, knowledge, and beliefs that enable a person to engage in goal-directed, self-regulated, autonomous behavior. An understanding of one's strengths and limitations together with a belief in oneself as capable and effective are essential to self-determination. When acting on the basis of these skills and attitudes, individuals have greater ability to take control of their lives and assume the role of successful adults (Field et al., 1998, p. 2).

Afterwards, Shogren et al (2015), proposed the "Casual Agency Theory," to be the reconceptualization of self-determination. Self-determination is defined as a:

"....dispositional characteristic manifested as acting as the causal agent in one's life. Self-determined *people* (i.e., causal agents) act in service to freely chosen goals. Self-determined *actions* function to enable a person to be the causal agent in his or her life" (Shogren et al., 2015, p. 258).

A "dispositional Characteristic" is a permanent propensity used to illustrate differences between people when they act or think in a specific manner, but postulates effect of contextual variables. Depicting the dispositional descriptive aspect of self-determination renders it observable and measurable across and within individuals as the ecological factors change.

Within this context, research outlined self-determined behaviors that contribute to better understanding of students' ability to understand and accept their difficulties, to decide for themselves, and to direct their own lives. The fundamental components include the following: (1) Choice-making skills, (2) Decision-making skills, (3) Problem-solving skills, (4) Goal-setting and attainment skills, (5) self-management, (6) self-advocacy, (7) self-awareness, and (8) self-knowledge (Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000; Denny & Daviso, 2012).

Fostering these self-determination skills hypothetically can, promote accessibility to the general education curriculum in more than one way. For instance, goal setting, problem solving, decision making, and self-management can serve as curriculum enhancement to improve academic achievement (Champers et al, 2007; Lane et al, 2008; Shogren, Palmer, Wehmeyer, Williams-Diehm, & Little, 2012; Raley et al, 2018), as well as participation in IEP meetings (Martin et al, 2006).

A meta-analysis conducted by Algozzine, Browder, Karvonen, Test, and Wood (2001) of 22 studies across 100 group interventions comparisons. Results revealed a median size effect of 1.38 for increase in self-determined behavior. In comparison, results of 18 single subject interventions yielded a median percentage of “non-overlapping data, PND” of 95% with range of 64% to 100%. Seven of the interventions had a PND of 100%, suggesting strong effects.

The study by Shogren and his associates (2014) used a cluster or group-randomized trial control group design with switching replication to examine the effect of SDLMI on achievement of academic goals and access to the general education program. The sample consisted of 312 high school students with learning disabilities. Results indicated a significant difference between control and treatment group on the Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS) for academic success. The least square means of the control and experimental groups was 44.78 and 50.51 respectively at the $p < .05$ level. Observation results of access to the general education program indicated a significant gain from score intercept and slopes from baseline (3.6, 0.35), and at the end of year (5.1, 0.37) at the $p < .05$ level.

Lee, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Williams-Diehm, Davies, and Stock (2012) examined the impact of the components of self-determination using the “Whose Future Is It Anyway?” program on self-determined behavior and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy denotes the “conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce a given outcome” (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Students completed a questionnaire that included items such as knowledge of rights, ability to participate in IEP meetings, specifically if their rights at the IEP meeting will be acknowledged when given the opportunity to speak up. Standard multiple regression analyses for the AIR Self-Determination Scale and efficacy questionnaire revealed positive effect on self-determined skills and self-efficacy over other variables as intelligence quotient, and the Whose Future Is It Anyway-Knowledge Test. The unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr_i) and R , and adjusted R . R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(8,159) = 8.775, p < .001$.

A study by Wehmeyer, Palmer, Agran, Mithaug, and Martin (2000), indicated significant differences between pre and post intervention using the Self-Determination Learning Model of Instruction. Results of the paired-sample T-tests on two scales of self-determination were ($p=.046$), and ($p=.029$) on the Arc’s Self-Determination Scale, and the Nowicki-Stricklan locus of control scale respectively. Analysis of variance for the Goal Attainment Scale revealed a mean score of 49.13. This showed that 25% of the standardized GAS scores equaled 50, while 30% of the scores were more than 50, indicating that teachers rated 25% of the objectives as have being achieved as expected. More than 30% of teachers’ ratings of progress indicated that students had exceeded expectations in their goal achievement. Overall, slightly over 80% of students made at least some progress toward their goal, and 55% achieved their goal or exceeded it.

Wehmeyer, Palmer, Shogren, Williams-Diehm, and Soukup, (2012) examined the effect of self-determination intervention using different programs among which is SDLMI on improvement of self-determination scores of students with learning disabilities. They employed a randomized trial, control and experimental group study of 371 students from 14years old through 20years. Data analyses utilizing ML-LGM to report results. Results on the AIR-Student form was used to measure self-determination skills revealed a remarkable increase on the AIR-

S scores across time ($F(1, 446) = 32.10; p < .0001$), significant intervention group effect ($F(1, 365) = 8.62; p < .005$), and a significant intervention group by time interaction ($F(1, 446) = 6.70; p = .01$). The intervention group showed an increase that is substantially more positive on the AIR-S over time considering primary status and slope.

Multiple regression analyses (Shogren et al., 2013), examined the effect of personal and ecological factors on self-determination. The ecological factors included time inside the regular classroom, goal for the future, goal setting experiences. For the concern of this study, result of goal setting is portrayed. The multiple regression coefficients (b), adjusted R^2 and model fit statistics (F) were all significant at $p < .001$ for 8.846, .222, and 15.307 respectively.

Despite of emerging evidence on self-determination and inclusive education, most research examined secondary students and post-secondary effects of self-determination. In an attempt to address this dearth, this study examined the effect of self-determination intervention on students' feelings about their disability, perception of school and family attributes, and capability in goal setting and formulating an action plan to attain goals.

3. Methodology

A mixed model of quantitative and qualitative research design was used because it in accordance with the framework of this research. As referred to earlier, self-determination is a construct within the families and society at large to empower children with learning disabilities to advocate for their rights and to take actions to lead autonomous life. Thus, scrutinizing one entity either from the family or the school, would not have led to full understanding of how these entities contribute to enhance self-determination. Besides, quantitative data from the AIR scale alone would not meet the foremost goal of self-determination of giving the students the chance to express about strengths and limitations, and challenges that obstruct their plans for attainment of goals.

3.1 Participants

The sample included 122 students ranging from third grade to 12th grade receiving special education services and instruction in the general education classroom. The pool constitutes 81% (122/150) of the total number of students. They receive support sessions outside the regular classroom for three hours of thirty two hours per week ($9\% = 3/32$). The results of standardized testing reveal that students from third through seventh grade reveal language and reading problems. The pool of participants did not include all 150 students because of recurrent absenteeism due to different medical reasons. Middle school level students were the largest group (36.9%, $n=45$). Table 1 provides descriptive information and describes the distribution of students across grades.

Table 1
Descriptive Information of the Participating Students

Characteristic	N	%	Age
Gender			
Males	73	59.9	
Females	49	40.1	
Grade			
3	12	9.8	8years, 10months
4	14	11.4	9years, 7months
5	10	8.1	10years, 5months
6	8	6.5	10years, 9months
7	10	8.1	12years, 5months
8	13	10.6	13years, 8months
9	22	18	14years, 7months
10	12	9.8	15years, 6months
11	11	9.0	16years, 8months
12	10	8.1	17years, 3months

3.2 Procedures

This study is the first step in an attempt to examine the role of self-determination skills in inclusive classrooms at Al-Kawthar High School as one of the 15 schools of Al-Mabarrat Association. Hence, to ensure fidelity of implementation, special education coordinators and teachers were trained on self-advocacy and self-determination skills. Training covered theoretical background about the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (SDLMI) model and the American Institutes for Research (AIR) - Student Form, and activities during each phase of the SDLMI model before the intervention phase.

Intervention was implemented in successive phases from September to February 2019. The first phase was a training period for students on self-advocacy skills which are other important feature pertinent to self-determination. Next, training targeted self-determination skills. Sessions were conducted in groups of four to eight students contingent on students' characteristics.

The second phase aimed to fill the AIR Self-Determination Scale as a pre-test to determine the level of perceptions and awareness to personal and environmental factors that impact self-determined behavior. It was supposed to be administered as a post-test to measure effect of self-determination training on students' awareness and actions. However, it was not possible to complete this stage due to school closure as a consequence of COVID-19 outbreak.

The third phase included training on the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (SDLMI). It was embedded in the daily program for a fifty minute session. Teachers applied activities and worksheets adapted from The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction- Teacher's Guide (2019) for two to four sessions for each student. For example, worksheets included questions pertaining to "what is my goal," "what do I want to learn or improve," and "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?" "What can I do to make this happen? 'What can I do to remove these barriers?" and then activities on revision of plan as self-evaluation.

Throughout the process, teachers employed strategies such as brainstorming, self-talk, and think aloud so students express their feelings and thoughts, and discuss steps of their plans. Teachers mainly took the role of facilitators, and advocates during each phase of the SDLMI. For example, they guided students to express their feelings by using open ended questions, simulations, and reflective writing.

The fourth phase encompassed individual sessions for each student for the semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted by the coordinators of the special education program. It is necessary to mention that interviews were conducted in parallel to application of activities.

Moreover, a workshop was conducted to introduce parents to self-determination and its importance in fostering self-confidence and self-efficacy. In addition, individual parent conferencing was going on when issues emerge pending students' responses during different activities.

3.3 The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

The model is an empirical validated program to promote self-determination for students with learning and intellectual disabilities as well as students without learning disability (Agran, Blanchard, & Wehmeyer, 2000; Palmer & Wehmeyer, 2003; Shogren et al., 2014; Palmer et al 2004; Shogren et al, 2019, Wehmeyer et al, 2012). It is implemented in three instructional phases where the student poses a question and teachers lead the discussion through problem-solving. Questions in each phase aim to teach students to set goals, put an action plan, and evaluate and modify their plans by identifying barriers and facilitators. The ultimate goal is to train students how to self-regulate and self-direct the learning process.

During the process, teacher's role is to provide a road map to assist students solve the problem asked in each phase. Teachers apply strategies to train students on self-awareness, goal-setting, choice-making, prioritization of goals and time scheduling, decision making, self-advocacy and goal attainment. The ultimate aim is to teach students to make choices and decisions, to develop an action plan, and to modify and evaluate progress towards intended goals.

3.4 Instrumentation

The AIR Self-Determination Scale (Wolman, Campeau, Dubois, Mithaug, & Stolarski, 1994) was used to assess self-determination. It includes student, teacher, and parent forms. The AIR-Student Scale (AIR-S) has 24 questions that measure capacity and opportunity scores to yield the level of self-determination. The capacity component includes questions about "Things I do," and "How I Feel," to answer questions about how they feel to perform a self-determined behavior. The opportunity component includes items about "What Happens at School," and "What happens at Home," to achieve self-determined behavior at school and home. The AIR- Educator and AIR-Parent contains 30 questions and 18 questions, respectively. All the scales are rated on a scale of 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). The AIR-S and AIR-E were normed on 450 students with and without learning disability. The psychometric properties revealed acceptable reliability and validity in the measurement of self-determination for students with and without disabilities.

3.5 Data Collection

Data was collected from two sources. The quantitative questionnaire aimed to investigate the extent to which students perceive themselves and their relationships within family and school on the AIR scale. The questionnaire was given to all 122 students. The introduction session primarily aimed to build rapport with the students and explain the aim of answering the questionnaire. Most importantly, it was vital to ensure them that it is not a test, and there are no wrong or right answers and it is not graded.

The AIR scale was administered in the resource room. Students were instructed to ask about any difficult vocabulary words to ensure the validity of testing due to their reading difficulties.

The second source is the semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews are those where respondents answer open-ended questions about research topic. It was selected to be used with students with learning disabilities since it provides a vehicle to use their own language to obtain insights about how they perceive their abilities regarding self-determination skills. It also gives them the opportunity to be active participants in the research process. In the same vein, semi-structured interviews are situations that hold a potential to hear students' "voices," which is the main core aspect of self-advocacy skills. This is an opportunity for students to speak up about strength and weakness points, rights, needs, and perception of significant others about their ability. This would facilitate planning for the road map that guides students to achieve better outcomes (Roberts, et al., 2014).

The semi-structured interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis by the five coordinators of the special education program. The advantages are that they allow teachers to explain difficult vocabulary terms, and to query more responses and feelings through open-ended questions. In addition, nonverbal cues such as facial expressions and gestures fortify the qualitative features of the data (Jupp, 2006). However, the main disadvantage is the time and effort required from the teachers. Each interview with a student lasted from thirty minutes to one hour. Each interview entailed questions that originated from the AIR Student-Form. Questions covered components of "How I Feel," "What Happens at School," and "What Happens at Home." In addition, students answered open-ended questions in relation to goals they want to work on, and what is the plan and actions to achieve these goals.

3.6 Data Analyses

Interview data for students from third through 6th grades were derived from verbal responses of students. Coordinators of special education department documented answers after training from the first author. Students from seventh through 12th grades wrote down the answers on separate sheets. The process of text analysis included some of the steps presented by Creswell (2014). It involved classification of text to reflect key features of self-determination, and clustered into themes. The quantitative analysis is not detailed in this paper because intervention was interrupted due to the school closure because of the COVID-19 outbreak.

4. Results

The results of the semi-structured interviews revealed a number of personal feelings, and school, and family obstacles and facilitators related to plans and ambitions. Five main themes were identified: (1) personal feelings related to strength and weakness points, (2) what happens at school, (3) what happens at home, (4) present and future goals, and (5) plans and actions to achieve goals.

4.1 Capacity- Personal Feelings

Negative expectations and beliefs with some positive ones emerged from students' answers. The ideas that mostly transpired reflected low self-esteem, low self-regulation of emotions, and external locus of control. One interesting quote was: *"I like to be in a place such as the moon since there is nobody there."*

"Whatever I work, I will not succeed."

"I cannot self-regulate my emotions sometimes, so I unintentionally bother my friends."

"I am not proud with my grades."

"I trust myself."

4.2 Opportunity- School

Certain barriers and facilitators were evident from most responses. The emphasis was on peers. On the other side, positive features appeared with respect to teachers and school in general. Negative feelings were obvious when two students cried when speaking about their friends.

"I am lucky because my teachers love me and help me to succeed."

"I do not have friends and nobody loves one."

"Some of my peers do not like me."

"My teachers encourage me and not my peers."

"It is good that I attend school so there will be someone to listen to me."

"I like coming to school; the teachers laughs to me and cares for me."

"The teacher helps me and I started to participate in class."

"I want to take the same examinations as my peers, and not adapted ones."

"I want to change some my objectives in the individualized education program."

4.3 Opportunity- Home

The most pertinent barriers that surfaced in relation to home were being unloved and unaccepted by family members, and about disbelief in their abilities.

"My parents do not love me as my siblings, and abandon me if asked to."

"I stay alone at home, and do not speak to anyone."

"My mother says that I will not achieve anything in the future, whereas my siblings will be successful in the future."

"I feel like a stranger, and I am forbidden to express my opinion. My mother makes all decisions for me."

"My parents do not listen to me."

"My parents ask for chores from my siblings and not me because they think that I cannot."

"My father does not like me and he wants me to drop out of school and work with him."

"I like my mother to teach me how to reach my goals."

"I am no more afraid to tell my parents what I would like to become in the future."

4.5 What is my Goal?

Most students at secondary level wrote that their goal is successfully pass the Baccalaureate Official Examinations, the wish that principals grant scholarship to continue university studies, and mentioned what they want to become in the future. They want to be doctors, judges, and pilots. One wants to study business administration. The following are examples from their own comments:

"I want to pass the Official Examinations, and succeed in life, and take actions for foster my self-esteem."

"I want to pass the Official Examinations, and integrate in society so I will learn to act, and plan for employment."

“I wish to increase my self-esteem, and more community integration.”

Responses from middle school students were in the same line with secondary students. Ninth grade students (n=22) wanted to succeed in Intermediate Official Examinations, to improve reading and writing, to get good grades, and financial aid to continue learning abroad. Six students hoped to discontinue receiving special education services. One student cited that she does not have any goal. The careers they cited included a football player, an engineer, an architect, and bank manager. Answers from third, fourth, 5th, and 6th graders did not differ from that of middle school students.

“I want to improve my English language, achieve all objectives, and so succeed all lifelong.”

“Get financial aid to continue my learning abroad.”

4.6 Action Plan

Analysis of their words revealed different perspectives to achieve goals. More than concept emerged such as, plan for time schedules and organization, effort, hard work, perseverance, patience, frequent practice, ask for help, do not give up, try to study and memorize, concentrate during the lesson, be conscious, and study for the exams. However, responses from third, fourth, fifth, and sixth graders indicated that they did not understand what action plan is. This was evident from their answers. For instance, answers were “study well for the scientific topics” “to have friends like my brother,” and “sit quietly.”

5. Discussion

The aim of the study was that promoting self-determination can be used as an instructional strategy to foster self-realization of students with learning disabilities to their weakness and strength points, and to identify their needs to become more independent learners. The study provides important, though certainly initial, information about importance of considering students’ personal characteristics and ecological factors (teachers and parents) to foster self-determined behavior for students with learning disabilities. It extends the research on self-determination beyond middle school, high school, and adulthood to lower elementary.

Another contribution of this study is that it might provide evidence about importance of self-determination in inclusive education in the Lebanese context, especially that contextual variables differ with school characteristics (Rubie-Davies, Flint, & McDonald, 2011).

5.1 Personal Feelings

The personal feelings delineated are in relation with learned helplessness that is one characteristic of students with learning disabilities. Learned helplessness stems from attribution theory, which states that individuals attribute their successes and failures to external and internal factors. It stresses the importance of the belief that persons are the causal agents to achieve expected outcomes (Koles, and Boyle, 2013). Pertaining to students with learning disabilities, learned helplessness is the result of external locus of control because they credit success to external factors such as easy tests or kind teachers. For example, students with reading difficulty believe that this disability cannot be enhanced with practice and effort (Koles & Boyle, 2013).

The answers on personal feelings were the same across all grade levels. For example, the responses *“Whatever I work, I will not succeed,”* and *“I am not proud with my grades,”* reflect learned helplessness, and resonates with research about low persistence level on tasks compared to students without learning disabilities (Bear, Minke, & Manning, 2002; Zisimopoulos & Galanaki, 2009), little chances for good achievement, and low academic self-concept (Tabassam and Grainger, 2002; Nunez, Gonzalez-Pienda, Gonzalez-Pumariiega, Rocés, Alvarez, Gonzalez, 2005).

Given that personal perceptions affect academic performance, the results suggest that by promoting self-determination we can foster academic performance and self-efficacy.

5.2 Opportunity Component

Findings from the opportunity component in relation to school and home revealed that contextual variables of school and home as environmental factors are important to address in inclusive education. This elucidates the functional underpinning of self-determination which states that environment and experiences impact opportunity for learning. (Wehmeyer, & Abery, 2013). Students' responses implicate negative experiences that affect self-determination.

These results point to previous studies, which indicated positive correlations between school support, self-determination, and engagement with self-determination being the strongest predictor of school engagement for students with learning disabilities (Yang, Chiu, Sin, and Lui, 2020). A growing body of research has established a positive relationship between self-determination, inclusion, and access to the general education curriculum (Lee, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Soukup, & Little, 2008; Shogren et al., 2007; Shogren, et al 2013; Raley, Shogren, & McDonald, 2018).

In the same vein, students' responses about the regular education teachers reveal negative attitudes towards their disability. This reflects that they might not be encouraged to teach self-determination skills because they think that students lack the capacity to acquire skills leading to self-determination. The attitudinal factor of low expectations will not facilitate implementation of the SDLMI as students will believe that they have few opportunities to exercise self-determination (Shogren et. al, 2007; Zhang, 2001).

The most astounding results were those recounted in the perceptions of students of family attitudes towards their disability. Answers demonstrated deepening feelings of solitude, hope for acknowledgment, appreciation, and love. Hence, these emotions will be an obstacle to foster self-determined behaviors since the family is a main element of the functional theory of self-determination (Shogren, et al 2013; Shogren & Turnbull, 2006; Wehmeyer et al., 2003). Another perspective that supports the role of families emanates from the area of development as parents are at the forefront to teach self-determination skills such as problem solving, self-advocacy, decision making, and goal setting and attainment (Cho, Wehmeyer & Kingston, 2013; Palmer, 2010). As self-determination is a lifelong standpoint, it is vital to develop these skills from the earliest ages until adulthood to project transition goals (Wehmeyer, 2014). Hence, it is essential to examine family attitudes and plan for family-centered awareness programs within the context of self-determination (Hurley, 2010; Morningstar & Wehmeyer, 2008).

Accordingly, this clarifies why individual conferring was conducted with parents to raise awareness on the impact of their attitudes on the child's acceptance of his/her disability, and that they are the primary advocates for the rights of their children in order to ensure a better quality of life.

5.3 What is my Goal and Action Plan?

As shown by the results of "What is my Goal and Action Plan, an outcome that strongly transpired for all students reflects the students' aspirations to continue university studies like their peers. However, anecdotes from third, fourth, and fifth graders indicate the need for more training on the concept of goal setting, and actions required for achieving goals. This reflects the difference between students with and without learning disabilities because Palmer and Wehmeyer (2003) indicated that young children without learning disabilities can set goals. We believe that this has to do with age group, and the fact that the students are not trained before on goal setting, and action plans. Furthermore, both special and regular education teachers ought to engage more in student-centered instruction to improve comprehension of goal setting and attainment. Whereas, answers of the secondary students are in accordance with academic

goal attainment as evidenced in the study by Shogren et al (2012), and are related to the developmental trajectory of self-determination (Palmer, 2010). Another possible reason is that teachers in the regular classroom put more focus on preparation for university, and the belief of the students that they are entitled to this right as well.

Generally, this study added relatively new information different from existing research because we started the investigation from the students' beliefs to prove the importance of implementing self-determination in inclusive education rather than it is preexisting in our regular classrooms to improve academic performance and self-efficacy. Work will perpetuate with the quantitative study to validate the impact of the SDLMI through pre-posttest design on academic performance and self-efficacy once school reopens after remission from COVID-19.

6. Implications for Future Research and Practice

Promoting self-determination is a multifaceted process that requires concerted effort from the school's administration, teachers, and family. As this study is the first endeavor ever to teach self-determined skills in Lebanese context, several implications can be drawn for future research.

Research studies involving single-case design or quasi-experimental studies, and randomized trial control group studies corroborate the efficacy of involvement of students in educational planning on self-determination (Palmer et al., 2012; Wehmeyer, Palmer, Lee, Williams-Diehm, & Shogren, 2011). This actually elucidates the significance for active participation of students in designing of individualized education programs to include self-determined skills. This would entail planning for systematic instruction in self-determination skills (decision-making, goal setting, action plans, etc.). The answers by more than one student to change objectives in their individualized education program and to have examinations like their counterparts support this idea.

Continued work also is going to be in place to train and empower special education teachers to better promote self-determination. Supporting teachers to have high expectations regarding self-determination skills, and equipping them with strategies to foster self-awareness, and all self-determination skills accomplish this. Research suggests that the insufficient training of teachers affect promotion of self-determination (Cho et al., 2012; Wehmeyer, Agran, et al., 2000). In addition, start training regular education teachers because, this would affect perceptions of students about their disability, promote self-determination, and engage more in the learning process. A study by Shogren, Plotner, Palmer, Wehmeyer, and Paek (2014) indicated significant interaction using analysis of variance (ANOVA) between teacher training on SDLMI and perception of student ability and opportunity for self-determination to happen. Thus, practice of self-determination will be infused in all subject areas with involvement of regular education teachers. Further, data suggest strong relationship between self-determination and hours in regular classroom rather than outside the classroom (Lee et al, 2008; Shogren et al 2013). In addition, Zhang (2001) discussed the likelihood that it might be more difficult for students with learning disabilities to show self-determined behavior in general education classrooms because teachers could be less informed to support articulation of such behaviors. In addition, there is a need to implement strategies to foster student self-awareness, and to reinforce the importance of having high expectations from teachers regarding self-determination skills.

Finally, continuous effort is required to support parents to accept their children, and to train them on strategies to enhance self-determination skills. Further, research also suggests an important role for siblings since they are often the best advocates at home and school (Wehmeyer, 2014). Thus, intervention will aim to include siblings in the SDLMI training as it also targets students without learning disability.

Although intervention was implemented for 6 months, promising results emerged regarding implementation of self-determination. In addition, with the advent of inclusive education, disability is not perceived from the “student-deficit” stance, rather from a disparity between the student’s personal characteristics and the requirements of the context (Shogren, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Forber-Pratt, Little, & Lopez, 2014). Thus, this study contributes to introduce self-determination instruction to reduce the gap between personal ability and environment.

7. Conclusion

The present study extends the research on self-determination for students with learning disabilities in middle and high school classes. However, it expands to shed light on the pertinence of self-determination for lower and upper elementary levels. The findings suggest that self-determination intervention is a gateway for students to communicate their feelings, explain the factors that impede their yearning for acceptance. For example, teachers can address problems mentioned such as difficulty to self-regulate emotions, and include skills mentioned in “Action Plan” in the individualized education program. In addition, as this study showed promising results with students with learning disabilities, we can expand the work to include students with intellectual disabilities and find the differences between these populations.

Furthermore, use of the AIR-teacher and AIR-Parent forms will provide more data on the perception of teachers and parents of the students’ abilities. The AIR-teacher form would provide a deeper insight on teachers’ attitudes and beliefs towards students with learning disabilities. In turn, allow for planning of training on self-determination to cover all component elements. For example, teachers will teach goal attainment from characters of a story, or problem-solving by predicting solutions for the plot. Similarly, training will empower regular education teachers to implement self-determination with all students as a facet of personalized learning where students are held accountable for their own learning.

Results from the AIR-parent form would help to know a variety of family variables that might affect the development of self-determination, and provide the parents with information to be involved in transition planning, especially for secondary students. Also, parent training helps to guide family members to reinforce elements of self-determined behaviour, such as problem-solving or making choices, which could provide direction for adequate parenting.

Nevertheless, completion of the quantitative part would have allowed for further validation of the effect of self-determination instructions. In turn, this might lead to consider self-determination as an educational outcome (Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001). The ultimate aim is to make informed decisions about curricular and instructional adaptations in inclusive settings to optimize the offered services for students with learning disabilities, which is the epitome of inclusive education.

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INVESTIGATING THE POTENTIAL OF THE FLIPPED CLASS IN FOSTERING STUDENTS' CONTENT UNDERSTANDING AND FACILITATING DIFFERENTIATION

Abstract

Academic communities in many parts of the world have adopted various digital innovations as educational, pedagogical tools to remove the barriers that have characterized the traditional way of teaching and learning. The flipped class is an exemplary outgrowth of this attraction for teaching assisted by technology, which the Algerian higher education system can exploit. In essence, flipping the classroom is the model in which the lectures are moved from the usual institutional environment to a web-based platform where learners can access them at home. This study seeks to explore the potential of the model to advance students' content understanding, elevate engagement, and allow the use of differentiation strategies. To achieve these objectives, a mixed-methods research design, including qualitative and quantitative methods, was employed to collect relevant data for this research study. The research tools used were: an observation, an experiment, and a questionnaire for the students. The findings revealed that inverting a classroom improves understanding of concepts and encourages learners' engagement. The results showed that it is possible to differentiate the instruction through reversing the classroom.

Keywords: content understanding, differentiated strategies, engagement, the flipped class.

1. Introduction

With the escalating prevalence of diverse technologies, teachers, educators and concerned scholars are offered seismic waves of new affordances for their ongoing pursuit for better teaching practices and, consequently, optimal learning experiences. In several corners of the globe, practitioners are experimenting with a range of digital innovations that facilitate the realization of existing learning theories and paradigms that used to be incredibly challenging without current advancements. An increasingly renowned manifestation of this is the flipped classroom model of instruction. It refers to the practice in which the traditional instruction of a course is inverted; this means that lecturing is shifted to a virtual space where it can be accessed, or "attended", by students using the electronic medium of videos in advance of the physical classroom session. In this manner, the totality of class time is redesigned for more active learning practices to accomplish desirable educational outcomes such as content understanding and facilitate engagement as well as accommodate students' needs in the learning process.

In theoretical terms, these ideals associated with the flipped classroom represent a promise for the present educational system to remedy the pronounced cleavage between what we know and what we do in practice. Our knowledge of how generally learning occurs and how teaching must conform to it is as up-to-date as that of most others operating within a different system. The theories that account for learning abound on myriad philosophical, cognitive, and psychological fronts. In addition, we are familiar with them. We recognise how to achieve deep understanding of concepts; we are aware of how to create immersive environments; and we are

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acquainted with students' differences that inevitably affect their learning trajectories. Yet, most of the teaching methodologies in the Algerian context are nowhere near effective enough to enable the application of our knowledge of these three instances. Unfortunately, the ambitions of many teachers to accomplish them are stifled or pressured into suppression by the traditional demand to primarily complete curriculum objectives of imparting all content which consumes the better part of any session. Indeed, the grip of out-dated instructional customs still holds firm on to our pedagogical activity. To investigate what is mentioned above and how the flipped classroom can bridge the gaps between learning and teaching, we have formulated the following questions:

1. To what extent is the flipped class beneficial in fostering students' content understanding?
2. To what extent is the flipped class beneficial in promoting students' engagement?
3. How possible is it for the flipped class model to enable differentiated instruction?

Answering the above research questions, we hypothesize that students understand better in a flipped classroom. Furthermore, we conjecture that the majority of them will be engaged in the in-class part of the model. The teacher's focus within the classroom can, to some extent, be directed not only towards assigning activities and orchestrating discussions grounded on what students were exposed to in pre-class lectures but also to guide learners through the intricate process of applying what they learnt, eliminating different ambiguities in understanding, providing feedback as well as suggesting strategies appropriate for most individuals.

In consistence with these questions and hypotheses, this research aims to disclose the effectiveness of the model in promoting content understanding and persistent engagement. This study is a revelation of the model's potential in facilitating the incorporation of strategies to differentiate instruction.

2. Theoretical Overview

2.1 . The Flipped Classroom

The flipped classroom is a student-centred paradigm of instruction wherein the teacher's part of lecturing is moved from the usual brick-and-mortar environment to an online space whereby the lecture content can be accessed by learners before coming to class; class time is, hence, allocated for discussions and hands-on activities for advanced application of the new concepts in a monitored arrangement (Tucker, 2012). The fundamental premise of this model is to harness the electronic medium of videos so that frontal instruction no longer dominates the better part of the classroom session (Horn, 2013; Johnson, 2013). In fact, a flipped classroom is "a combination of two established elements of education: the lecture and active learning" (Tétreault, 2013, p. 3).

The flipped classroom comes with some advantages that warrant experimentation, adoption and partial or complete integration of the model. Perhaps the most frequently acknowledged tenet of the flipped classroom is increasing and consistent student engagement. Pertinent research attests that learners are more involved in the flipped classroom environment in comparison to the traditional one. Additionally, active participation is more evenly shared across the entirety of the classroom attendants (Millard, 2012 as cited in Basal, 2015). It is conceded that a decisive contributor to this is pre-class preparation and timely familiarity with the subject of interaction. Furthermore, the literature in this respect is replete with associations to Benjamin Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, particularly the cognitive domain. The taxonomy is a framework of viewing a student's progress in the learning process that goes beyond the mere achievement of amassing an influx of information towards the development of what is conventionally termed as "higher order thinking skills".

2.2. Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction is a framework of a set of generic strategies the teacher incorporates to address students' individual differences that inevitably shape and regulate their learning processes (Blaz, 2016). The teacher who differentiates his or her classroom intends to generate a wealth of inclusive and adaptive learning experiences that are far removed from the unitary "one-size-fits-all" instructional practices typical of traditional education (Anderson, 2016; Tomlinson, 2001).

According to Carol Tomlinson, a prominent advocate of this teaching philosophy, differentiated instruction brings together substantial perspectives from the fields of neural science and cognitive psychology on the nature of learning (McCarty, Crow, Mims, Potthoff and Harvey, 2016). Learners' readiness is concerned with his or her "proximity to the desired educational outcome based on background foundational knowledge, past experiences, opportunities for learning, and skill level" (Dosch & Zidon, 2014, p. 344). Intrinsically oriented motivation, "a natural wellspring of learning and achievement" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 55), is ultimately dependent on whether or not students are interested in a particular subject (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Lastly, a student's learning profile encompasses the preferred learning style and the predisposition to certain intelligences as postulated by Sternberg and Spear-Swerling (1996) or set forth by Gardner (1993) in his Multiple Intelligences theory (Dosch & Zidon, 2014).

2.3. Differentiated Instruction and Flipped Classroom

Differentiation of classrooms is as undeniably necessary as it is overwhelmingly challenging. The large scope of demands that it entails, in theory, is enough to inhibit teachers from putting into practice in any typical classroom setting. Two intertwined factors to this exist in the forms of time and class size, especially at tertiary levels (Dosch & Zidon, 2014).

A recognized solution for this rests in the affordances that the flipped classroom offers. As elaborated earlier, by offloading the dominant part of traditional teaching outside of the classroom, i.e., lecturing, instruction is rearranged to "best maximize the scarcest learning resource—time" (Tucker, 2012, p. 82). In this way, the flipped classroom is consistent with the conditions for integrating differentiation strategies (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Tétreault, 2013; Doubet & Carbaugh, 2015).

3. Methodology

In the quest to obtain reliable and relevant data, a mixed-methods approach was adopted in this study, encompassing questionnaire and experiment in concomitance with observation.

3.1. Context

The investigation was carried out at the University of Abdelhamid Ibn Badis, in the department of English language. The gaps that motivated the demand for this enquiry were pinpointed and distinguished through periodic observations of higher education experiences within the same setting; thus, it was only reasonable for it to be the sole context of our scrutiny all along the fulfilment of this research.

3.2. Procedure

We experimented with first-year master students of language and communication at the department of English language, Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University. The experiment, which took place during the second semester, lasted two weeks and was followed through with a two-session observation. In due course, a questionnaire was distributed to the participants as a concluding phase.

3.3. Participants

As previously presented, the selected sample is first-year master students of language and communication belonging to the department of English language, Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University. Only 14 students did agree to formally sign their consent to participate in this study and help to provide us with accurate data. This purposefulness in targeting this group lies in our knowledge with the fact they have not been exposed, explicitly or practically, to the educational model in question.

4. Data Analysis

In this section, we analyze content understanding and the questionnaire addressed to students.

4.1. Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

We attempted to cover all areas of the students' experience in the two sessions of the intervention in order to gain an all-around insight into their perspectives. To this end, we have decided to approach the analysis of the assortment of their responses by categorizing them into the targeted aspects of our hypotheses: content understanding, engagement, and the differentiation of instruction.

- Content understanding

Having gone through an experiment in which both lessons were given through the use of that digital medium, students were asked to compare between attending a video lecture and having the teacher give it face-to-face in class. The aim of this open-ended question was to discover whether the participants could notice and make use of the particularities of vodcasts and how that assisted them in reaching full comprehension. Some of the revelations are as follows:

“In contrast to classroom lectures, in videos, you can repeat the presentation as often as you like. If you do not catch it the first time, you rewind the video to the beginning.”

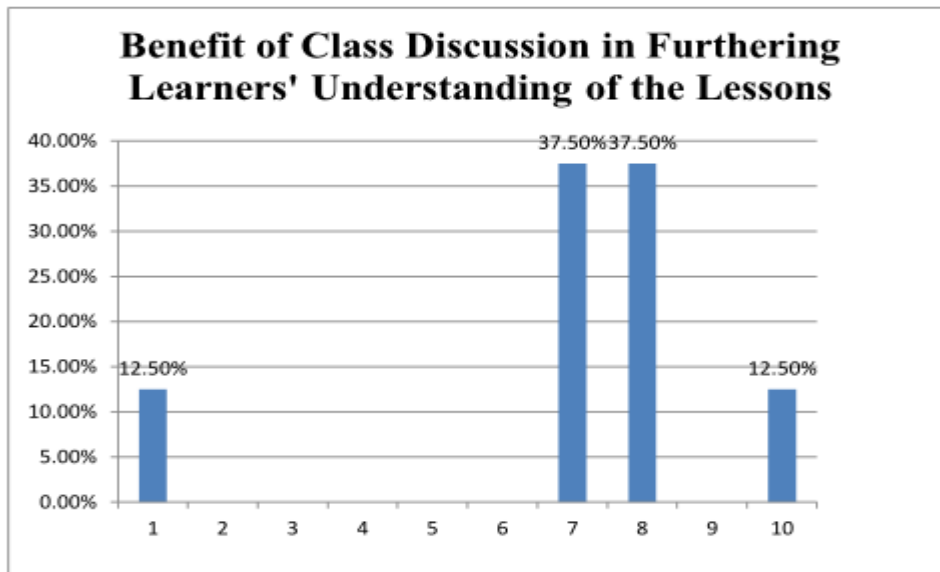
“Learning a lesson through a video gives more access to information. There is also the fact that visualizing the input contribute to a better learning process.”

“In a way, videos are beneficial in the fact that you can repeat the parts that may be unclear until it they become clear. However, the major shortcoming lies in the fact that you cannot ask questions directly to the teacher for more clarifications.”

“Students will have more opportunities to discuss the content of the lesson in class afterwards. The teacher is no longer the only knowledge provider; thus, students can take part in controlling their learning process.”

These comments show that the distinctive conveniences of video technology that affords us the ability to pause at any given moment, rewind an entire segment or skip certain parts of the electronic lecture do indeed help students in achieving the required assimilation of the content. From a different dimension, videos incorporate multi-sensory modalities of processing information which, as illustrated by one of the answers in the visualisation of content, evidently reinforces reception.

Next, the graph below is a numerical presentation of the responses we obtained from question. Participants were asked to scale the extent to which in-class discussion of the lesson learned before the classroom session increased and deepened their understanding of it.



Graph 3: Benefit of Class Discussion in Furthering Learners' Understanding of the Lessons

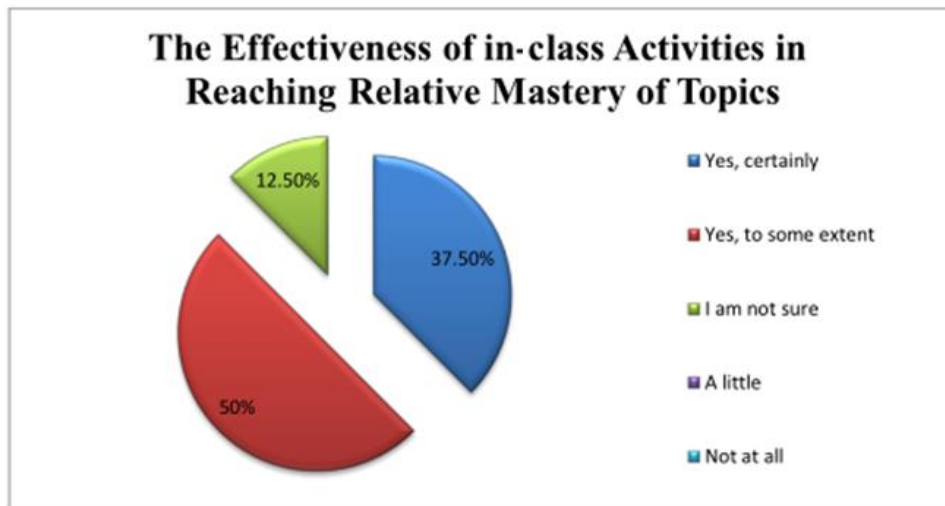
Clearly, we noticed that the majority of the ratings (87.5%) are variably on behalf of the belief that class discussion is an effective strategy to advance students' understanding. In the process of reading the graph, one's attention can be drawn to the two equal percentages of 12.50% that stand on completely opposite extremes; one side of this spectrum has considered the strategy to be utterly efficacious, whereas the other side has given it the lowest rating. Students have elaborated on their choices of ratings in the upcoming terms:

"Discussing a subject in the classroom helps a lot to advance my learning and mastery of a particular topic since everyone gives his or her opinion about the topic in the classroom. At the end of the discussion, I choose what is beneficial for me to fill any existing gaps in my learning of concepts."

"Discussions, in this case, involves more of the essential peer-instruction which I reckon helps me assimilate the lesson much better, this is certainly elevated the easier student-to-student communication becomes."

"Discussion may open my mind to different points that will surely diversify my perspectives of viewing the studied concepts."

The last findings to analyse about this hypothesis concern the concluding phase of the flipped classroom, i.e. activities. We sought to know through question 10 whether the tasks – carried out individually or collectively- that followed the discussions could aid the students in accomplishing relatively sufficient mastery of the addressed topics. The figure below depicts their ensuing responses:



Graph 4: The Effectiveness of in-Class Activities in Reaching Relative Mastery of Topics

The gathered data showed that 37.5% of the informants are in favour of the idea that in-class activities boost their ability to climb the ladder of Bloom’s Taxonomy in no specific order, this includes enhanced content understanding. 50% are, to a lesser extent, in agreement with the formers while the minority (12.5%) could not translate their impressions into certain words. Some of them have justified their answers in the following lines:

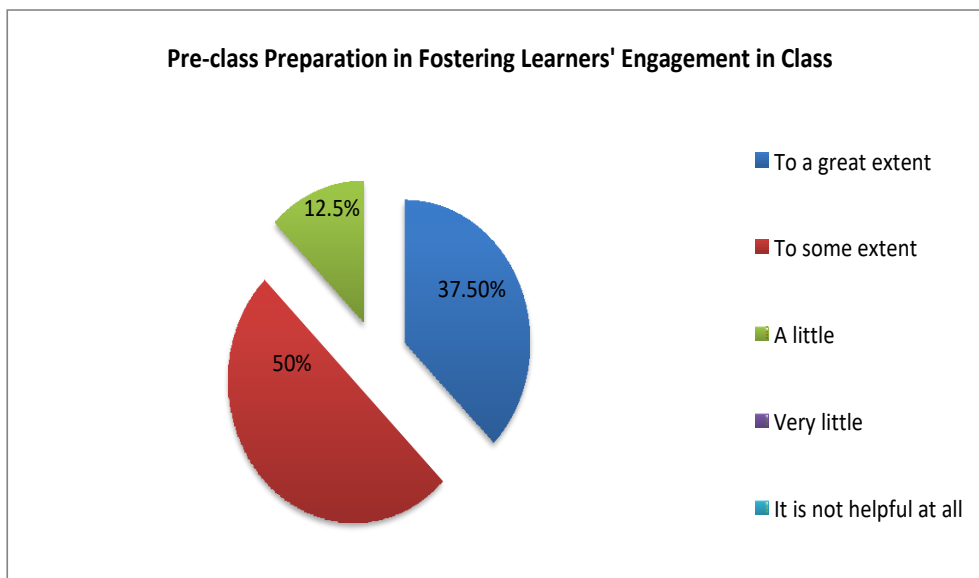
“I think initiatory vocalized contemplations and knowledge sharing are a theoretical side of the tackled topic, the understanding of which or lack thereof manifests concretely through authentic tasks. It is easy to put in practice the previously learned concepts.”

“I suppose that without the follow-up activities, it is difficult to check whether we fulfilled the objective of grasping concepts and ideas.”

These qualitative reflections denote that our respondents deem in-class activities that succeed discussions are effective in demonstrating and, consequently, consolidating their understanding.

- Engagement

Persistent learning engagement was empirically attested to be exceedingly induced in a flipped classroom environment in large part due to pre-class preparation before the session. We reformulated this fact in the form of an enquiry to explore whether this applied to the case of our participants. Students’ answers to that question are portrayed in the following graph:

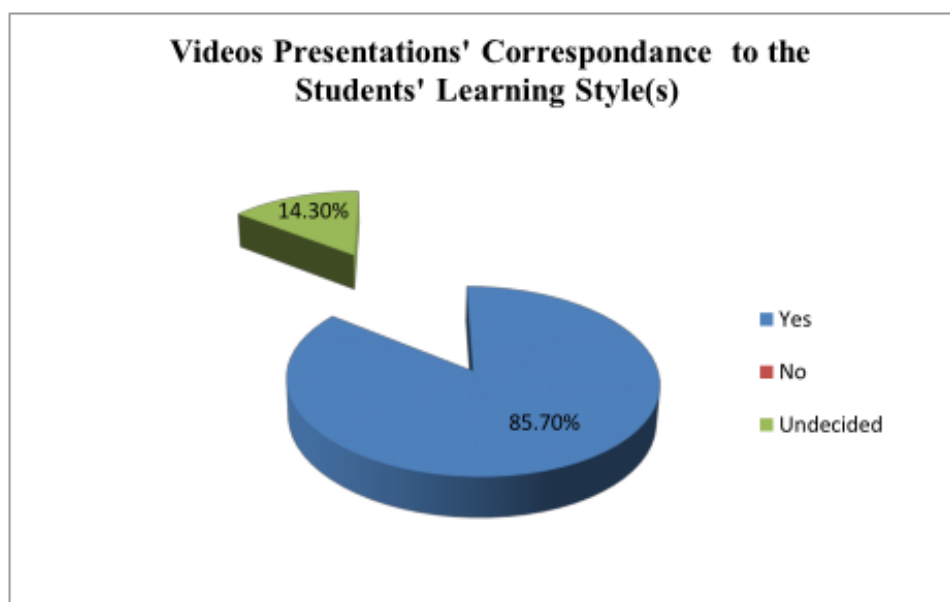


Graph 5: Pre-class Preparation in Fostering Learners' Engagement in Class

As it is noticed, 87.5% of the responses indicate that the learning environment during the experiment was more or less in line with the established belief that the flipped classroom encourages learners to be more engaged in class. However, we remarked that 12.5% of the participants do not attribute the stimulation of active engagement as a particular tenet to the model in light of the experiment.

- Differentiated instruction

In the figure below, are presented the participants' views on whether the presentation of the content in the video suited their learning style(s).



Graph 6: Videos Presentations' Correspondance to the Students' Learning Style(s)

The data gleaned and analysed lean heavily towards positive results. In more details, 85.70% of the respondents have stated that the lecturers in the vodcasts catered to their preferred style(s), but 14.30% of them claim that they were not on the receiving end of this advantage.

Lastly, we listed several formulaic sentences to describe one's individual needs in his or her learning process. These basic statements fit into the subjectivity categories of students in terms of readiness, interest and learning profile, as shown in the overview. Informants were

allowed to check off all of the lines that resonated with them. Next, they were asked to evaluate whether the flipped classroom environment allows for proper differentiation. To put it differently, we have investigated if they believed in the teacher’s ability to respond to those needs under this arrangement. The graph below represents their stances

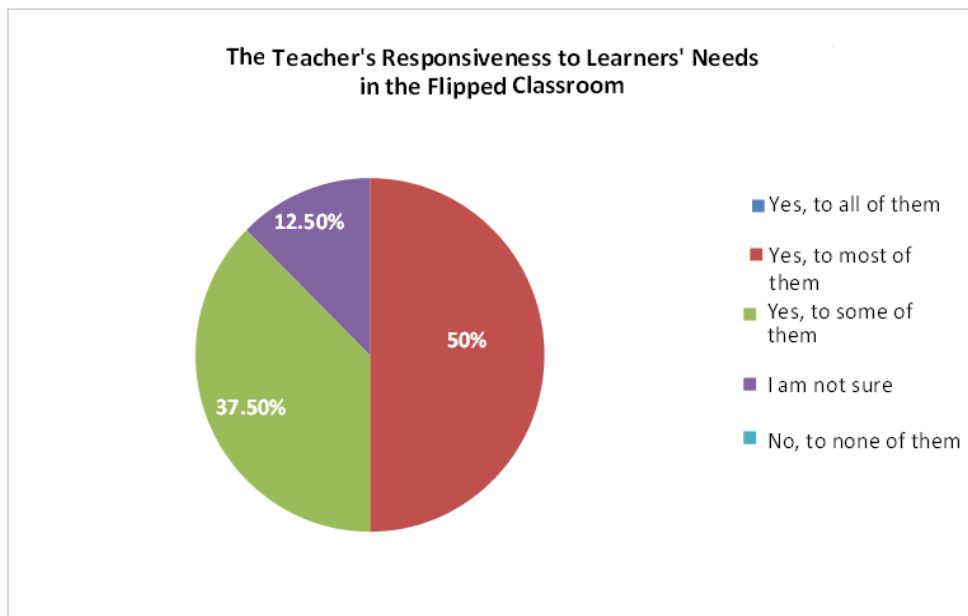


Figure 7: The Teacher’s Responsiveness to Learners’ Needs in the Flipped Classroom

According to this figure, the dominant percentage (50%) of the participants contend that the flipped classroom furnishes the necessary arrangement for differentiation endeavours to accomplish; 37.5% maintain that the teacher can only meet a limited number of their needs working with this model. Nevertheless, the recurrent percentage of 12.5% of the respondents has declared their skepticism regarding the position of differentiation in the flipped classroom paradigm.

4.2. Analysis of the During-experiment Observation

The angles of the during-experiment observation were in conjunction with the same three dimensions of investigation that we followed in the questionnaire. The purpose of analysing the remarks we made in the two sessions of our experiment is to add a qualitative value to the results presented above. Thus, we have put into explicit terms qualitative answers to our research questions of content understanding, engagement and differentiated instruction.

4.2.1. Session One

- Content understanding

An expected, though unfortunate, occurrence that the flipped classroom practitioners characterize as the most conspicuous challenge is students coming to class without having watched the video lecture. This was the case of our participants as a number of them did not attend the frontal instruction at home. Nonetheless, with the enriching contribution of those who did their “homework”, we could successfully facilitate a discussion wherein all elements articulated their thoughts. Those who retained firm ideas of the components of the vodcast vocalised their restatements and comprehension of the content while the others reflected on their peers’ words to somehow constitute ones of their own. The experimenter asked questions to elicit critical examinations of the content throughout this phase. We put their seeming knowledge construction and assimilation to the test in a group work activity. The end products, as well as one-on-one interactions with the learners, showed that the majority were able to reach the objective of absorbing the lesson and applying it.

- *Engagement*

In this session, we dealt with lesson planning which is a topic not at all foreign to the student's academic ear, at least not on a surface level. We reiterate that although not every learner saw the video lecture, the whole classroom could participate and engage in the follow-up task. Students exhibited eagerness to actively share and debate with their peers. The suggested reasoning for this is their existing familiarity with the subject of interaction. It means that they had solid ideas they could use to open zones for involvement in the acts of

communication. Hence, we conclude that structured pre-class preparation which is converted into immediate prior knowledge and sufficient familiarity is conducive to learners' engagement.

- *Differentiated instruction*

The experimenter sought to differentiate the three areas of instruction: content, process and product in no specific order. The versatility and proliferation of videos extant on multiple websites afford the teacher with a plethora of means to customise the presentation of a given content as well as the input itself. We could find vodcasts in which the recorder(s) present in textual, audio and visual forms to meet the requirements of as many learning styles as we were allowed. Videos also were diversified in terms of complexity, intelligibility, simplicity of input; hence, we could find means of information transition that suited the overall readiness of our participants. This particular area was also effectively attended to when needed through mini-lectures during the in-class stage. We interacted personally with each individual to assess their "proximity" and help them achieve it. As for the product, students were permitted to decide whether to work alone in isolation or with groups of their own choice. We circulated constantly to provide feedback on each member's progress and final products. On these bases, we infer that differentiation is, to variable extents, possible to carry out in the flipped classroom.

4.2.2. *Session Two*

- *Content understanding*

As opposed to the practice of planning a lesson, the Revised Bloom's taxonomy was a completely new topic. Before the exposure to it, learners were on an identical level of readiness in the sense that they had no pre-existing knowledge about Bloom or his concepts. In this situation, we could not improvise to include those who had not accessed the video lecture in advance of the session. As a consequence, the discussion was mostly within the intellectual grips of those who had realised their pre-class preparation. A few of the others started making occasional attempts at participation as the phase matured, and they were slowly clued into the content. Notwithstanding, we have chosen to support or disprove the hypothesis that concerns content understanding specifically on the grounds of what the former group demonstrated. When asked to summarize the content of the material, we observed that they had sufficient rudimentary grasp through which they can build knowledge. We answered their questions for clarifications and rectified misconceptions. We also kept evoking original thoughts related to all the facets of Bloom's prepositions. After that, we went along the same procedures of assigning an activity and circulating around the place for individual interactions to gain concrete insight into their level of comprehension. In a short period, most of them were able to successfully complete their assignment.

- *Engagement*

Except those who watched the video, the majority of the others were more or less absent from the interaction. Logically, they could not possibly join a discussion revolving around concepts without minimal acquaintance. By contrast, those who had viewed the lecture were invigorated to take part in arguing, commenting and explaining their opinions on the scholar's perspectives of the learning process.

- *Differentiated instruction*

The strategies that we incorporated to customise the three educational areas of content, process and product to address the disparate needs of the students were not different from those of the past session. However, doing so under the highlighted circumstances of this session was immensely challenging, if not impossible. The lack of commitment or interest in the experiment on the part of some students created a cleavage between them and those who had watched the video. Consequently, the classroom in this situation consisted of two groups of learners who were on strikingly contrasting ends of proximity. Bridging this vast gap signified that we had to teach them the topic from the very outset. Given the unattainability of this implication, we are led to conclude that differentiation in the flipped classroom can only occur if the students do commit to the imperative of attending the virtual lesson.

5. Discussion

The findings reveal in confirmatory terms that this model is, to a large extent, beneficial in promoting content understanding, learners' engagement as well as facilitating differentiation. Through moving didactic teaching to their personal space, students are handed the "remote control" to manipulate the procedure of information reception. In this way, they can control the pace of learning an inverted lesson in a manner that proved satisfactory for a number of our participants. Class time is redesigned for students to enquire for clarifications, profoundly discuss the concepts they retained from the lecture, connect the ideas they built with others and arrive at full understanding. The optimal quality of students' palpable involvement in the course of the in-class stage is a direct outcome of the pre-class phase. When students have prior knowledge they perceive to be valid enough, they are encouraged to take part in the intellectual interaction. The reality of this was visibly evident in the first session of the experiment.

For those who are inhibited by several factors, pushed to fall back in the collective learning process, and are permanently overshadowed by their higher-achieving peers, the reversal of a class put them in the appropriate arrangement in which their teacher can attend to them. In the likely case when certain students are still struggling to grasp some conceptual points or acquire competencies that hinder their process of attaining mastery, the tutor can redirect his or her attention to them for harmonious customisation. The core of differentiation, rendered less challenging through this temporal allotment, is to bring the teacher closer to his or her students on an individual level in order to eliminate all ambiguities that cloud their areas of strengths and weaknesses. By filling the abstract columns of each learner's profile, the intuitive professional will be able to figure out how to devise inclusive paths for coveted progression within a given course. A significant effect to this intensive one-on-one personalisation that should not be overlooked is the highly humanised essence of the teacher- student rapport. Learning and studying become more than a pragmatist task of amassing information and passing exams to gain semestrial hooks to the next grade; learning and studying become a deeper sort of immersion in which students are weekly attempting to exhibit signs of valuable advancement and intellectual maturity for their source of inspiration, i.e. the mentor.

Despite this favourable picture of inverting a classroom, objective reasoning of the low fluctuations in the results lead us to concede that the model is not the answer to not even most of the academic deficiencies. Some informants have pointed out well-founded disadvantageous aspects that might lessen its appeal to varying extents. It is, nevertheless, the majority's positive attitudes that do tint it with the green light of sufficient validation. The flipped classroom represents a welcome change for which the necessity cannot be stressed enough. It can indeed be the solution that dispels a few of the negatives for which outdated teaching is denigrated. Didactic teaching and direct focus on dissemination objectives consumes teachers' awareness and vitiates it from addressing every element that constitutes his or her classroom. To this end, many students barely wade their way through the curriculum, yet

still manage to advance to the next academic grade with alarming gaps in their knowledge and defects in their skills.

The flipped classroom is an innovation away from the deeply rooted clutches of traditional education. Its feasibility exists in the fact that it is not so far away a trend so as to suggest a dramatic overhauling of our Algerian academic contexts for which many teachers are not ready. Across many other parts of the developed world, educators are experimenting with technologized practices that realises all theoretically established teaching ideals. In an instructional system wherein digitalised pedagogy has yet to be made a reality, the flipped classroom as a widely legitimized model, can be our step towards the new culture of learning that leverages humanity's greatest achievement: the internet. In addition to this, what makes it easily attainable is the fact it does not nullify the lecture as a method of instruction to which our system is still tightly wedded; it merely relegates it to a subordinate position in favour of active learning practices and more productive use of time -the currency of education.

6. Conclusion

This research investigated the potential of the flipped classroom in the Algerian context. The research concentration was centred on three main areas. The first one was content understanding without which one cannot be said to have progressed in a given course. This was followed by the element of active engagement in the course of this progress in the classroom. We have ended up with the considerably broader scope of differentiation. The aim herein was as to put forward solutions for learner-inclusive environments and study their incorporation within the scrutinized model.

In a nutshell, we disclosed the model's effectiveness in deepening learners' understanding of their courses that is ideally transferable to authentic situations of knowledge application. We also unveiled how active engagement is induced through the strategy of preparing students before the classroom session and equipping them with ideas to facilitate learners' involvement. This research revealed the existence of sufficient coherence between the structure of the flipped classroom and strategies of customisation in the time granted from the reversal gives way to more teacher-to-student interactions. The latter allows the teacher to build deep insights into the learning styles of a large number of students compared to traditional lecture-based learning. As they progress through the teaching process, these ideas encourage the teacher to interact proactively and productively with learners to get incrementally constructive feedback.

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COVID-19 Pandemic Goes Endemic: Social Distancing Measures and Use of Different Digital Platforms in Higher Education

Abstract

In these difficult times of the COVID-19 pandemic and of the implemented social distancing measures, it is not clear how this affects university teachers and whether the digital turn contributes in shaping their affective makeup. The present study aims to investigate the relation between the use of technology and teachers' affective makeup together with their social and professional connectedness. For this to obtain, three research questions were raised: (1) Is the proportion of teachers who have regular access to the Net the same as the proportion of those whose access is not regular? (2) Are social media platforms users more likely to feel satisfied with what technology offers to stay *socially* connected than other digital platforms users (namely, blogs, websites, wikis, file sharing sites, etc.)? (3) Is teachers' satisfaction with what technology offers to stay *professionally* connected related to type of digital platform used? A questionnaire was administered via email to 161 teachers; only 26 responded. The raw data were submitted to a *Chi-square Goodness of Fit test* and a *Chi-square of Independence test* using SPSS. While the results were statistically significant for the former test, they were not so for the latter. Implications and recommendations are thereby discussed.

Keywords: Closures, COVID-19, digital platforms, education, social distancing.

1. Introduction

The World Health Organisation declared the coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak a pandemic on March 12, 2020 (Viner et al., 2020). It is the latest of the terrifying unseen forces that mankind have faced to date. The outbreak was identified in Wuhan City, China, in December 2019. This pandemic is now endemic worldwide. Algeria is no exception; on February 25th, 2020, its first case of the coronavirus – an Italian entering Algeria on February 17th – was confirmed.

The virus spreads during close contact between people. Preventive measures are being implemented everywhere across the world. These include social distancing policies, facility closures and lockdowns, travel and business restrictions, to name but a few. As such, this has induced several affective, socioeconomic harms, of which the educational is a crucial part. Surrounded by the spectre of the coronavirus pandemic, that is, people might well feel being kept hostage, or being socially and/or professionally disconnected.

Educational institutions, like several other sectors, have been affected by COVID-19 worldwide. If the truth were told, notwithstanding the harms, social distancing measures have *not suspended* teaching/learning activities thanks to what digital platforms offer. As educational institutions and workplaces mandated that work should be done from home, universities have shifted to tele-teaching/learning and online work. The world is witnessing an unprecedented transformation to the digital in the history of mankind. Never before has it faced such a situation, and one wonders whether in the wake of the digital one should look to the brighter side (e.g., virtual connectedness), or instead to the darker side (e.g., both the digital and the physical/social divide) the pandemic is uncovering.

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2. Literature Review

2.1 Social Distancing Measures in Response to COVID-19 Pandemic

With the rapidly evolving COVID-19 pandemic, governments worldwide have endeavoured to control the epidemic and make it a top priority. They have mandated social distancing, but no doubt, we are all aware that non-respect of distancing measures, in some areas, resulted in the further spread of the pandemic.

Social distancing measures have been adopted to make the epidemic less endemic. Distancing measures are actions taken to minimise close contact between individuals and thus the spread of COVID-19. Measures range from quarantines to closures of schools, workplaces, and shopping centres. Individuals are, therefore, said to be socially distanced by staying at home, limiting travel, avoiding crowded areas, and physically distancing themselves from others, hopefully one to two meters of physical distance (see Nussbaumer-Streit, 2020). The European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC, 2020, p. 2) put it as follows:

The term ‘social distancing’ refers to efforts that aim, through a variety of means, to decrease or interrupt transmission of COVID-19 in a population (sub)group by minimising physical contact between potentially infected individuals and healthy individuals, or between population groups with high rates of transmission and population groups with no or a low level of transmission.

The following is an account of several different types of social distancing measures and their rationale, at individual and group level (see ECDC, 2020, p. 3-4). Social distancing measures range from *individual social distancing measures* to *group social distancing measures* affecting multiple persons. They can be voluntary or mandatory. It is commonsensical that the earlier the implementation of social distancing measures, the more effective will they prove in slowing the spread of the pandemic. It is the author’s contention that, when mandatory, such measures might develop in people the feeling of being kept hostage to the pandemic; that is, social distancing might bring a range of psychological harms, not to mention the economic harms which are also high. Some elaboration seems to be in order.

2.1.1. Individual social distancing

From the name of it, *individual social distancing measures* concern the individual. There are such measures as isolation of cases, quarantine of contacts, stay-at-home recommendations, and the like (see ECDC, 2020).

2.1.1.1. Isolation of cases

Isolation of cases has been recommended for those diagnosed with COVID-19 and those who are suspected of having been infected. Cases, which are confirmed or suspected of COVID-19, are isolated in one of two ways: they are either hospitalised to receive care, or put in dedicated isolation facilities/homes. While the former, hospitalisation, usually concerns moderate or severe cases, the latter option is dedicated to mild cases. Of note, case isolation can be either voluntary or mandatory. The rationale behind separating the sick from the healthy is obviously to avoid transmission.

2.1.1.2. Quarantine of contacts

Depending on contact investigations, healthy persons who prove to have had a high- or low-risk contact with a confirmed COVID-19 case are put to quarantine. Here also, quarantine of cases can be either voluntary or mandatory. Usually, these suspected cases are recommended to self-quarantine in a safe area or at home; once symptoms are detected, a test is immediately carried out for surety reasons. If the disease manifests and develops, separation from other healthy persons is taken as a measure to avoid transmission.

2.1.1.3. Stay-at-home recommendations

Transmission of COVID-19 depends on many factors, most obviously physical distance. The public is recommended to stay at home, remain distant, and avoid close contacts with people or mass gatherings; avoiding close contacts is especially true when this concerns known high-risk groups. Recommendations for voluntary social distancing of persons are meant to reduce transmission and thereby decrease the pressure to hospitals.

2.1.2. Social distancing affecting multiple persons

According to ECDC (2020), *social distancing measures* affect as well multiple persons. Such measures are manifold; they include closure of educational institutions, workplace closures, mass gathering cancellations, etc.

2.1.2.1. Closure of educational institutions

Are school closure measures effective in response to coronavirus outbreaks? If the truth be told, the pandemic is endemic where gatherings are commonplace and educational institutions are no exception. School closure includes day-care centres, kindergartens, and schools; this is not a novel phenomenon given that preventing contact among children was used repeatedly as a prevention measure in influenza outbreaks and pandemics to interrupt the transmission (Jackson et al., 2016). Closure of higher educational institutions includes universities, research institutes, and the like; in fact, in such institutions large numbers of people assemble in confined spaces.

In answer to our question, then, school closures during coronavirus outbreaks are likely to contribute to the control of the epidemic; in fact, during epidemics, unofficial student and staff absenteeism, whether due to illness or to precaution, can be very high regardless of official school closure or other distancing policies (Viner et al., 2020). In Algeria, like in the rest of the world, closure of educational institutions was deemed necessary to face the spectre of the Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic and reduce it to a minimum. By March 18, 2020, the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation declared that 107 countries put into effect national school closures, affecting in total 862 million children and young people, a number that is roughly half the global student population; strikingly, this had quickly rocketed from 29 countries with school closures a week before (Viner et al., 2020).

Inherent in universities closure is, it goes without saying, the cancellation/postponement of such mass gathering events as conferences, workshops, project meetings, research trips and field work, visiting students and teaching staff from other countries who may have specific visas, etc. This, doubtless, is not without concomitant incurring loss of funds. Research is, therefore, urgently needed both on the effect of school/university closures and on their effectiveness to inform policies related to pandemics.

2.1.2.2. Workplace closures

These relate to the closure of offices, factories, restaurants, supermarkets, cafes, sports clubs, transport, etc. Reducing work-related contacts is aimed at avoiding transmission among medium-to-large numbers of people in confined spaces over extended periods. Be that as it may, the process may allow flexible working schedules/shifts for employees (i.e. ensuring that essential services are maintained, even if they can only be manned by skeleton staff: take, for instance, healthcare, fire services, law enforcement, pharmacies, grocery shops, internet providers, and such utilities as water, gas and electricity). This is likely to encourage physical distancing measures within the workspace, not to mention reducing contact among employees and between employees and customers. This does not exclude promoting the use of other personal protective countermeasures.

2.1.2.4. Mass gathering cancellations

Mass gatherings are a sure vehicle of epidemics. There are such mass gatherings as cultural events (e.g., theatres, cinemas, etc.), sporting events (e.g., football matches, indoor and outdoor athletic games, and other competitions), festivals, religious events, conferences, meetings, exhibitions, and gatherings of the like. Such gatherings are prone to transmission of the coronavirus among large numbers of people in confined spaces (attendees may be in close contact on public transportation, at the entrance and exit, etc.) and their avoidance becomes, thus, a necessity.

2.2. Closures and Digital Platforms in Education

The coronavirus lockdown is having an unprecedented impact on education worldwide. As aforementioned, most governments around the world have implemented social distancing measures via closures of educational institutions (e.g., schools, colleges, universities) in an attempt to contain the spread of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic. Closures of educational institutions, in Algeria, were initiated nationally by mid-March, 2020, as part of a broader series of stringent control and social distancing measures during the COVID-19 epidemic. These closures were later extended to April, May, then to June. Viner et al. (2020) cited a 2018 review of 31 studies investigating whether or not school closure had a quantifiable effect on influenza transmission indicating that such a measure “*reduced the peak of the related outbreak by a mean of 29.7% and delayed the peak by a median of 11 days*” (p.397). They also reported on a 2020 systematic review of school closures together with other social distancing measures during influenza outbreaks providing compelling evidence that closures reduced transmission, provided schools did not reopen.

A great many countries are currently implementing nationwide closures, affecting most if not all of the world's student population. No wonder, international and official exams, like Baccalaureate exams, have been wisely postponed (e.g., Algeria). This way, social distancing policies are likely to prove effective, provided they are coupled with other distancing measures.

The use of the term *social distancing* gave rise to false implications that individuals should engage in utter social isolation. Of course, people can stay in contact with others while pursuing alternative and safer means. It cannot be denied that it is *physical distancing* that we are after, not *social distancing* as such, implying the intent of *reducing physical contact while maintaining social connections*; social connections can, actually, be pursued either *virtually* or *at a distance*. As put by ECDC (2020, p. 3), in trying to reduce physical contact so as to interrupt the transmission of the epidemic,

social distancing measures that are implemented over an extended period require that people maintain social contact – from a distance – with friends, family and colleagues i.e. social and professional life should in no way stop. Internet-based communications are therefore a key tool for ensuring a successful social distancing strategy.

To push further on these lines, and with regard to school closures, UNESCO (2020) urged the use of *distance teaching/learning* via open educational platforms and applications, the thing that has enabled both schools and teachers to reach learners remotely, teach at distance, and make the enterprise of education less disrupted. In the midst of scientific uncertainty concerning COVID-19, educators and policy-makers could in no way wait for an indefinite outlet; many started working already to make the transition to a virtual classroom environment a reality, trying different ways to engage with their students online and ensure they have the resources they need to pursue their studies. If the truth be told, during this challenging and unprecedented period, remote access to educational resources and platforms has become essential. Clearly then, in a time when the coronavirus lockdown is putting particular strain on teachers and their students, the digital/virtual tools have eased the mind of their users and, as such, reduced the

accompanying terrifying pressure. This way, they are not likely to feel kept *hostages* to the pandemic, nor will they feel *professionally* or *socially distanced*.

A good case in point may be the case of the University of Mila, whose teachers connect pedagogically with students and administratively with their respective departments using a variety of digital tools. They use emails, Moodle e-learning platform, Google Meet, the social media and their like. In the English Department, teachers created a Facebook page and all of teachers, students, and the administrative staff can join the group to keep abreast of the latest news. This way, they hardly if ever feel professionally disconnected.

2.2.1. Does tele-work work?

What is happening today due to the pandemic is, clearly, a huge and unprecedented digital transformation that is already well underway. The pandemic is especially making this more visible, more challenging, more glaring by adding an increasingly important feature to the digital world: *virtual work* or working from home. Tele-working is not only possible, but often also necessary, and for many even preferable. In these difficult times, tele-working, through the use of video-conferencing tools for meetings, as a good case in point (think of tele-teaching enabling remote teacher/learner interaction), is no longer an option. We are witnessing what might be the future of work in general, and teaching in particular.

Since COVID-19 began spreading in Algeria, and obviously through the rest of the world, the number of people working from home has increased dramatically. It seems that the pandemic is forcing institutions to use new ways to do their jobs, ways that are gaining increasing popularity. While hundreds of millions of students are distanced from school, teachers are using different digital platforms for remote teaching/learning purposes; to illustrate, they are using emails, social media, Moodle e-learning platforms, Google tools, and any other tool at hand. This is likely to induce the feeling of being more connected, at least professionally. Let us elaborate on two examples of Google tools, namely Google Meet and Google Classroom.

2.2.2. Google Tools

Google tools include such applications as Google Meet, Google Classroom, Gmail, Hangouts, Google Drive, Google Docs, Google Forms, Google Calendar and the like. Google Meet and Google Classroom are especially relevant for educational concerns, and need to be made use of now more than ever before.

2.2.2.1. Google meet

In this time of pandemic, and exactly in March, 2020, Google extended free availability of its advanced Google Meet video-conferencing features for everyone, including education and non-profit customers, to ensure individuals, groups and teams, businesses and organisations, and especially schools and higher educational institutions continue their work during this crisis (blog.google, 2020). Now, anyone with a Gmail address can sign up for Meet and use Google Calendar for scheduling to easily start a virtual meeting.

Google aspires behind launching such technology to help us connect, both socially and professionally, in a time when we are apart; this is true whether we are tele-teaching/learning, tele-working with teammates, or else. More importantly, it helps us stay safe and be productive. For example, in the University of Mila, teachers, students and other pedagogical staff have been able to log on repeatedly at the scheduled time and take part in video pedagogical or scientific meetings, discussions and chats with the participants. This has, certainly, prevented us from feeling professionally or pedagogically distanced. Now, the same is true for social meetings.

2.2.2.2. *Google classroom*

Google Classroom is an online educational platform developed by Google for schools. It is designed for teacher-student communication, distribution and collection of digital work, which helps to implement a digital or blended learning classroom. It was officially released in August, 2014 (Keeler & Miller, 2015). It allows teachers to go digital with their students, connecting with them, sharing teaching/learning resources, creating and organising assignments in a paperless, digital environment, providing feedback, and building creative projects into their daily lessons.

Google Classroom is integrated in Google Apps for Education that is a suite of productivity tools including Gmail, Drive and Docs. As such, and as indicated by Keeler and Miller, users can have recourse to Gmail for communication, Google Calendar for scheduling, and Google Drive for providing online storage for digital documents: Google Docs for text documents, Google Slides for presentations, Google Sheets for spreadsheets, Google Drawing and Google Forms. The surprise is that there is no need for hardware to be installed on students/teachers' devices because the foregoing productivity tools help create documents from the cloud. By now, it should be understood that only an Internet connection is required.

Google Classroom is available free to anyone and can be accessed using a computer or a smartphone. In creating a class within Google Classroom, teachers can provide their students with a private code to join a class (unless automatically importing a list from a school domain) or send an invitation using email, the thing that enables participants to start discussions whose concern is class information, assignments, and other pedagogical matters. For each class, a separate folder is created in the respective user's Drive, where the student can submit work to the teacher. The teacher, then, can monitor each student's progress, grade each student's work, and return the work along with comments.

Now, educational institutions can go digital to a paperless system thanks to what Google Classroom offers. Besides, it is possible for any Google user to create a class and start teaching virtually.

2.2.3 *Is the coronavirus (divide) widening the digital divide?*

The metaphor of the *digital divide* refers to either having or not having access to the Internet – the two sides of the divide being the underserved and the over-privileged (Monroe, 2004; Warschauer, 2003). Putting some learners at a disadvantage when using technology might well widen the digital divide (Huang, et al., 2019) and in this way, it violates their basic rights.

What adds to the situation is the fact that Covid-19 is uncovering and deepening differences across people with regard to internet access, in their attempt to virtualise work, particularly teaching, and to cope with the new situation and the imposed digital transformation. In other words, in this time of pandemic, many are caught in the digital divide separating those who have high-speed Internet access and those who do not. Granting that many Algerians are disconnected, it becomes justified to ask: does distant teaching/learning really work?

People, institutions, and countries alike cannot change overnight. The pandemic is uncovering the reality of a sudden digital divide, a divide that is to spread for sure and that deepens the gap within societies. In business, those that cannot change are likely to be left behind, with all this implies in terms of economic harms and hardships that will affect primarily the employees and their families. In education, at a fragile moment like this, school closures are leaving students without computers or Internet way behind because studying from home is a luxury that many cannot afford. There seems to be still, notably in Algeria, an online learning divide, and this is true of, not only students, but of a great many teachers as well. When it comes to rural areas and low-income families, the situation is worse off for they are left lagging behind. Then, what of the online courses and assignments?

3. Methodology

3.1. Context

In these difficult times of the COVID-19 pandemic and of the implemented social distancing measures, namely closures of educational institutions, it is not clear how this impacts university teachers; it is not equally clear whether or not the digital turn contributes in shaping their affective makeup. In light of the foregoing, the present study aims to investigate the relation, if at all, between the use of technology and teachers' affective makeup together with their social and professional connectedness. For this to obtain, three research questions were raised:

1. Is the proportion of teachers who have regular access to the Net the same as the proportion of those whose access is not regular?

2. Are social media platforms users more likely to feel satisfied with what technology offers to stay *socially* connected than other Web users (namely, blogs, websites, wikis, file sharing sites, etc.)?

3. Is teachers' satisfaction with what technology offers to stay *professionally* connected related to, or independent from, type of digital platform used?

These research questions convert into the following *alternative hypotheses*:

H_1 = The proportion of teachers who have regular access to the Net is different from the proportion of those whose access is not regular.

H_0 = The *null hypothesis* would be that the proportion of teachers who have regular access to the Net is the same as the proportion of those whose access is not regular.

H_2 = Facebook (and other social media platforms) users are more likely to feel satisfied with what technology offers to stay *socially* connected than other Web users (namely, blogs, websites, wikis, file sharing sites, etc.).

H_0 = Satisfaction with what technology offers to stay *socially* connected is independent of the type of digital environment used.

H_3 = Teachers' satisfaction with what technology offers to stay *professionally* connected is related to the type of digital platform used.

H_0 = Teachers' satisfaction with what technology offers to stay *professionally* connected is independent from the type of digital platform used.

3.2. Participants

The sample of this study consisted of 26 university teachers from different universities in Algeria – higher educational institutions from Mila, Batna, Jijel, Guelma, Bejaia, Skikda, Annaba, Wargla, Setif and Eulma. As can be noticed from *Table 1*, the total number divides into 7 male and 19 female teachers. The questionnaire was administered via email on two phases; on the first occasion, it was sent to 149 teachers or so, but because only few of them replied it was sent to some 12 more teachers – for three of these, it was just a reminder. In total, and as already mentioned, only 26 respondents were eventually involved.

Table 1.*Gender Frequencies*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	7	26.9	26.9	26.9
	Female	19	73.1	73.1	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

3.3. Procedure*3.3.1. Instrument*

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants. It may be worth our while to indicate that originally the administered questionnaire was constructed in such a way as to inform two separate research studies, having different types of research questions, with variables of a different nature, at different levels of measurement, and consisting of different item numbers. As such, only items that are relevant to the present study and its aims are included in the analysis and in the appendix (i.e. the questionnaire).

3.3.2. Coding the data

The variables are categorical. On the whole, each test item was dichotomously responded to as ‘yes’ or ‘no’, and the data were coded on a 0 to 1 point scale. Where there were missing data (e.g., failures to respond in terms of abstaining, forgetting, missing), it was coded as 5 so that SPSS would recognise it as being out of the range of the offered options.

3.3.3. Analysis

To answer our research questions and test our hypotheses, raw data were entered, coded, and computed for further use in the statistical analyses using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (**IBM SPSS**) software (version 21). The **Chi-square** is the appropriate hypothesis-testing tool given that the variables in our study are classified as nominal variables. The raw data were submitted to a **Chi-square test for Goodness of Fit** to compare the proportion of cases and test if there is a difference between the respective categories i.e. to determine if the counts are equal or unequal. They are, then, submitted to a **Chi-square test for Independence** to explore the relationship between our two categorical variables i.e. to compare the observed proportions of cases in each of the categories with those that would be expected if there was no association between the two variables being measured. That is, given that the study seeks to determine if the two variables are related, the **Chi-square test for Independence** is the one to be used.

4. Results and Discussion

Twenty-six university teachers took part in the present study by answering a structured questionnaire. When asked which type of device they use to connect to the Internet, 34.6% indicated that they do so more via Laptop whereas 65.4% happen to use Smartphone more (see Table 2a below). With regard to the type of digital platform used, 26.9% indicated they use many blogs, websites, wikis, file sharing sites, etc., while 73.1% tend to use much Facebook and other social media environments. When asked whether they feel hostage, 53.8% said they do and 46.2% indicated that they do not. It seems that our sample of teachers, on the whole, connect to the Internet using different devices and platforms, which means they do not suffer from the digital divide that might prevent them from connecting socially with other people and

pursuing their educational duties. Be that as it may, this does not help much when it comes to their affective side, namely the feeling of being kept hostage during the pandemic and the concomitant social distancing policies (see Tables 2a-c below).

Table 2.
Frequencies

a. Device Used		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Laptop	9	34.6	34.6	34.6
	Smartphone	17	65.4	65.4	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

b. Digital Platform Used		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Blogs, etc.	7	26.9	26.9	26.9
	Facebook, etc.	19	73.1	73.1	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

c. Hostage		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	12	46.2	46.2	46.2
	Yes	14	53.8	53.8	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

In an attempt to put the first hypothesis to the test and answer the respective research question (determining if the counts in the two categories are equal or unequal), a *Chi-square test for Goodness of Fit*, comparing the proportion of teachers who have regular access to the Internet, was used. The test indicated a significant difference between those who have (25 out of a total of 26) and those who do not (1 out of 26), $\chi^2(1, n = 26) = 22.15, p = .000$ (see Tables 3a&b below). The Sig. value of .000 is smaller than the alpha value of .05, so we can conclude that the result is significant i.e. there is statistical evidence for us to reject the null in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Table 3a.
Frequencies

	a. Net Access		
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
No	1	13.0	-12.0
Yes	25	13.0	12.0
Total	26		

Table 3b.
Chi-Square Test

	b. Test Statistics
Chi-Square	22.154 ^a
Df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 13.0.

To answer the second research question and obtain evidence for the concomitant hypothesis, our sample of university teachers were asked whether they were satisfied with what technology offers for them to stay *socially* connected. The *Chi-square test for Independence* (with Yates' Continuity Correction (see Field, 2009)) indicated no significant association between the type of digital platform used and the feeling of being socially connected (during the pandemic), $\chi^2(1, n = 25) = .41, p = .52$ (see Table 4c below). Stated otherwise, the two events appear to be independent of one another.

The Sig. value is .52 which is larger than the alpha value of .05, but because we have a 2 by 2 table that has two cells with an expected count less than 5, we should consider reporting Fisher's Exact Probability Test instead; this is .47, respectively. At any rate, we can conclude that our result is *not* significant, meaning that the proportion of Facebook-like platforms users is not significantly different from the proportion of teachers using blogs and their like.

Because the test is not statistically significant, we will not pursue analysing the difference between the observed and expected frequencies (counts) in the "Digital Platform*Social Connection Satisfaction Cross-tabulation table" to determine the strength of the relationship between the two variables. We will not either report phi coefficient.

Also of note, the Case Processing Summary table below displays the number of valid (and missing) cases for the data set. A quick glance will indicate that, with regard to this item of information, 25 participants had valid observations in the data set, but 1 out of 26 subjects is missing, meaning that no answer was recorded.

Table 4a.*Case Processing Summary*

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing			Total
		Percent		Percent		Percent
Digital Platform * Social Connection Satisfaction	5	96.2%		3.8%	6	100.0%

Table 4a.*Case Processing Summary*

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing			Total
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Digital Platform * Social Connection Satisfaction	25	96.2%	1	3.8%	26	100.0%

Table 4b.

*Digital Platform * Social Connection Satisfaction Cross-tabulation*

		Social Connection Satisfaction		Total	
		No	Yes		
Digital Platform	Blogs, etc.	Count	1	4	5
		Expected Count	1.6	3.4	5.0
		% within Digit. Platform	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%
		% within Soc. Con. Satis.	12.5%	23.5%	20.0%
		% of Total	4.0%	16.0%	20.0%
		Std. Residual	-.5	.3	
	Facebook, etc.	Count	7	13	20
		Expected Count	6.4	13.6	20.0
		% within Digit. Platform	35.0%	65.0%	100.0%
		% within Soc. Con. Satis.	87.5%	76.5%	80.0%
		% of Total	28.0%	52.0%	80.0%
		Std. Residual	.2	-.2	
Total	Count	8	17	25	
	Expected Count	8.0	17.0	25.0	
	% within Digit. Platform	32.0%	68.0%	100.0%	
	% within Soc. Con. Satis.	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	32.0%	68.0%	100.0%	

Table 4c*Chi-Square Tests*

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.414 ^a	1	.520		
Continuity Correction ^b	.011	1	.915		
Likelihood Ratio	.442	1	.506		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.475
Linear-by-Linear Association	.397	1	.529		
N of Valid Cases	25				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.60.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In order for us to answer the third research question and test the third hypothesis, this time the participants were asked whether they were satisfied with what technology offers for them to stay *professionally* connected. A *chi-square test for Independence* was computed to compare the proportions of satisfaction status, revealing no significant association to the type of digital platform used during the coronavirus pandemic, $\chi^2(1, n = 26) = 1.565, p = .21$ (see Table 5b below). Stated differently, there is no significant dependence of one variable on the other.

The Sig. value of .21 is larger than need be, and Fisher's Exact Test is .22, which means that our result is *not* significant and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This indicates that the proportion of teachers using mostly social media platforms is not significantly different from the proportion of users of blogs and the like.

Table 5a.

*Digital Platform * Professional Connection Satisfaction Crosstabulation*

			Professional Connection Satis.		Total
			No	Yes	
Digital Platform	Blogs, etc.	Count	1	5	6
		Expected Count	2.3	3.7	6.0
		% within Dig. Platform	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%
		% within Prof. Con. Satis.	10.0%	31.3%	23.1%
		% of Total	3.8%	19.2%	23.1%
		Std. Residual	-.9	.7	
		Facebook, etc.	Facebook, etc.	Count	9
Expected Count	7.7			12.3	20.0
% within Dig. Platform	45.0%			55.0%	100.0%
% within Prof. Con. Satis.	90.0%			68.8%	76.9%
% of Total	34.6%			42.3%	76.9%
Std. Residual	.5			-.4	
Total				Count	10
		Expected Count	10.0	16.0	26.0
		% within Dig. Platform	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%
		% within Prof. Con. Satis.	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%

Table 5b.*Chi-Square Tests*

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.565 ^a	1	.211		
Continuity Correction ^b	.597	1	.440		
Likelihood Ratio	1.714	1	.190		
Fisher's Exact Test				.352	.225
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.505	1	.220		
N of Valid Cases	26				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In summary, performing a *Chi-square Goodness of Fit test* in SPSS, the results turned out to be statistically significant, so we gain confidence in our hypothesis and reject the null. In running a *Group-Independence Chi-square test*, the analysis showed that there is no statistically significant difference, so we reject the hypothesis that the variables are related and gain confidence in the null that they are independent. Phi and Cramer's V measures of the strength of association between the two categorical variables are not necessary because there is no point in asking for the effect size if the results are not statistically significant.

In what follows, an attempt will be made to discuss some limitations, implications and recommendations generated from the study. Before anything, let us start with the limitations. For reminder purposes, the questionnaire was administered to more than 160 university teachers. Unfortunately, only a total of 26 participants responded. Of course, this is not without consequences on the effect size and statistical power. As known, one of the assumptions of the Chi-square test is that the sample size should be relatively large, such that the expected frequencies for each category are at least 1, and for 80% or more of the categories the expected frequencies are at least 5. In effect, all assumptions were met regarding the *Chi-square Goodness of Fit test*, which is not true of the *Chi-square of Independence test*. While the first assumption was luckily met, the second is unfortunately not – 2 cells (50%) have expected counts less than 5 – obviously, the only way out is to add more subjects to the sample; however, because this is beyond reach, it is important in this situation to consider using Fisher's exact test (Field, 2009) – this is exactly what we have opted for.

As for the implications, a number of considerations are in order. The coronavirus has made socialising next to impossible. Nevertheless, socialising does not need to be in terms of physical closeness; it could well be virtual. In fact, connecting with other people has long been a human characteristic and this is true even for the introverted. Certainly, working/teaching from home may serve convenience, but this lacks eye contact experienced during a conversation; video-conferencing, e-learning platforms, and their like cannot make up for that. When teachers are face to face with their students, they are most likely to have their undivided attention.

Most pertinent to the present study are, of course, considerations of an educational nature. Luckily, what digital platforms we have at hand have prevented social distancing measures from suspending educational continuity. It is crucial to note that, given the present findings, the sample of teachers have access to the Net which has secured continuity of education; still, unequal access to digital education, among the remainder of the teacher population and their students, might be a challenge.

To push further on these lines, the *coronavirus divide* should not be a problem for education; the real problem is the *digital divide*. If it does not constitute a problem for the sample of teachers in the present study, one may of right question whether the sample in question is representative of the parent population. One may go even so far as to ask questions about students and the likelihood of their affordance of access to the Net. It is worth adding that the term ‘digital divide’ is equivocal: networked screens are distancing or dividing, but they are also not afforded by all people, the thing that might well make the digital divide even more glaring i.e. being both dividing physically and/or socially and dividing in terms of affordance of access. If so, because of the disparities, an important proportion of learners might avoid, or be deprived from, online learning. One may rightly ask, then, if in Algeria learners have the basic technology needed to access their virtual lessons. One may even be justified to conjecture that if distance learning is not available to all learners, it cannot be made available just for some. This is relevant because while some students are learning remotely, many may not be getting any instruction at all.

To bring this line of thought to a positive close, working/teaching from home may serve convenience, but even if the coronavirus goes away, tele-working, video-conferencing and e-learning are here to stay; they are even likely to take over. Humans have the potential to adjust to virtual communication, and teachers/learners need to adjust very quickly.

Insofar as recommendations are concerned, it is suggested that a similar, though not necessarily identical, study be made on students to uncover the harms it is causing for them. Likewise, concerns should be raised about whether distance learning deprives students with disabilities from their educational rights; they are very likely to be excluded from, instead of being included in, the educational continuity and online learning. It is, also, recommended that the same research or one with different variables be replicated with a larger sample size so as not to fall victim to the same trap signalled above.

Last but not least, the time the pandemic is under control and social distancing measures are lifted, particularly the closures, it is recommended to undertake an after-the-event evaluation of the pandemic situation so as to inform future policies, in the event of a possible resurgence.

5. Conclusion

University and school closures are obviously a common-sensical measure of reducing the spread of pandemics. Closures affect not only students and teachers, but have far-reaching effects. Of these, in the educational sector, internet services and digital learning, with a devastating impact on low-income households, come to the fore. In case social distancing measures last longer than expected, decision makers are urgently required to reflect on how students can return to their seats safely. In face of the current scientific uncertainties concerning the COVID-19 pandemic, the only wise outlet seems to be social distancing continuity at the national level and use of online teaching/learning at the educational level. What experience we have now accumulated as regards digital platforms use should be capitalised; it should ease our practice now and in the coming generalisation of the digitised world.

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Appendix

Coronavirus - Questionnaire for Teachers

*N.B.1. Note that you are required to choose one and only one answer to dichotomously asked questions; **underline/colour/(or else)** where appropriate.*

1. University

2. Gender: Male Female

3. Do you have a regular access to the Net? Yes No

4. Are you much of a:

- User of blogs, websites, wikis, file sharing sites, etc.?

- Or a user of Facebook and other social media environments?

5. Do you connect to the Internet more via: Laptop?

Or Smartphone?

6. Do you feel being kept hostage because of the spectre of Coronavirus Pandemic (COVID-19)?

Yes No

7. Are you satisfied with what technology offers for you to stay socially connected?

Yes No

8. Are you satisfied with what technology offers for you to stay professionally connected?

Yes No

Thank you very much for your Cooperation.

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THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND BEHAVIOURAL SIDE-EFFECTS OF CORONAVIRUS OUTBREAK (COVID-19) ON THE ALGERIAN RESEARCHERS' SCIENTIFIC WORK AND ACADEMIC PLANS: THE CASE OF MASTER TWO AND PHD STUDENTS

Abstract

To date, COVID-19 has affected all life aspects. The impact that it had on education was unprecedented and tremendous. This article sheds light on the psychological and behavioural side-effects of the Coronavirus outbreak on the scientific work and academic research carried by Algerian researchers. This study revolves around investigating thoughts, feelings and perspectives of 202 male and female Master Two and PhD students about how the lockdown impacted their research and on what levels. To achieve this aim, a qualitative method was followed in which an online questionnaire was administered. The questionnaire comes in three languages to cover all educational and cultural backgrounds of the targeted population. The analysis has shown that the majority of the participants (72.8%) believed that Coronavirus crisis and the quarantine have negative effects on their mood, spirits and psychological well-being which basically leads to procrastination and loss of motivation. On the same token, many female participants are occupied with the increased housework and their responsibilities towards their family members, their health and safety. The same sample will be surveyed soon in the future to investigate the longer term impacts of the crisis.

Keywords: Academic Research, Coronavirus, COVID-19, education, psychological and behavioural State.

1. Introduction

The novel coronavirus disease that emerged at the end of 2019 has achieved pandemic status. By the 28th May 2020, there are over 5,826,000 confirmed cases with more than 358,000 deaths worldwide. Pandemics are not just a medical phenomenon; they affect individuals and society on many levels. In other words, they do not bring only the risk of death from infection but also cause unbearable psychological side- and after-effects.

The outbreak of Coronavirus pandemic has several short and potentially long term side-effects on not only the affected, suspected or at risk individuals' psychological wellbeing and mental health; the whole general public who are staying quarantined during this tough period are concerned with these aforementioned shortcomings (Kang, Li & Hu, 2020). Almost every newspaper, radio, TV programme and social media platform is filled with scary statistics, advice or even memes about Coronavirus pandemic. Consequently, with this bombardment, it is normal for people to experience a wide range of negative thoughts, feelings and reactions such as feeling angry, helpless, stressed, anxious or overwhelmed; facing difficulties with concentration or sleeping; or even suffering from physical changes such as fatigue, stomach upset, or other uncomfortable symptoms. These in turn paralyse their production and willingness to carry on their work.

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As the situation develops, the crisis has affected even educational systems, leading to the widespread closures of schools and universities. As Leander (2020) wrote: “Psychological research is *essential* at the moment. In times of stability, we develop new theories and tools to test in our laboratories. In times of crisis, we must put those theories and tools to the test”. So, research does not know a pause.

Being motivated by Leander’s quotation, the prime aim of the present study is to explore the psychological and behavioural side-effects of Coronavirus outbreak on the Algerian researchers’ scientific work and academic plans along with their thoughts, feelings and worries regarding Coronavirus crisis and its consequences on their wellbeing as well as on their progress in the academic research plans and projects. Besides, the Algerian researchers’ coping strategies with the coronavirus lockdown to overcome their fear and anxiety and carry on their academic research are targeted.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 What is COVID-19?

By the end of 2019 a novel virus occurred in Wuhan, China, causing a severe acute respiratory syndrome, it was called COVID-19. In March 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the virus a global pandemic and announced that it is a new type of coronavirus family. Although most human coronavirus infections are mild, the epidemics of the two beta coronaviruses, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV), have caused more than 10,000 cumulative cases in the past two decades, with mortality rates of 10% for SARS-CoV and 37% for MERS-CoV (WHO, 2020).

The WHO (2020) has reported an incubation period for COVID-19 between 4 to 14 days. However, some literature (COVID-19 Educational Disruption and Response, 2020) suggests that the incubation period can last longer than two weeks and it is possible that a very long incubation period could reflect double exposure. There is no specific antiviral treatment recommended for COVID-19, and no vaccine is currently available; the treatment is symptomatic, and oxygen therapy represents the major treatment intervention for patients with severe infection (WHO, 2020). Mechanical ventilation may be necessary in cases of respiratory failure. Different strategies can be used depending on the severity of the patient. On this line of thought, WHO has recommended quarantine, which is a period of total or partial lockdown that depends on social distancing and preventative procedures.

The advent of Coronavirus (COVID-19) in Algeria has reinforced full lockdown in the district of Blida and partial lockdown on the other districts starting from the 13th of March, 2020. Algeria being a collectivistic culture highly dependent on socialization (social support and social connectedness) has been critical towards self-isolation, social-distancing and quarantine and are reluctantly dealing with emotional, psychological, behavioural and social impacts of this crisis’ uncertainty and unpredictability. On the same token, the official tally in Algeria has risen where a total of 140 new confirmed cases and 7 deaths were recorded as of 28th of May, 2020, bringing the total number of the confirmed cases to 8,997 and that of deaths to 630.

To stop the virus from further spreading the virus, the Algerian government gradually banned travel. What follow are the taken measures as published on ElBiled Journal official website.

- On March 12th, Algeria and Morocco agreed to temporarily suspend flights between the two countries as a precautionary action.
- On March 13th, Algerian Airlines decided to cancel flights to and from France towards 7 airports (Setif, Tlemcen, Batna, Annaba, Bejaia, Biskra, El Oued), and kept flights only at reduced rates from the airports of Algiers, Constantine and Oran with a permanent suspension of flights to and from Spain.
- On March 15, 2020, the Algerian Prime Minister Abdelaziz Jarrad, ordered a temporary suspension of all air and sea transportations between Algeria and France.

- On March 19, 2020, “Air Algerie” announced the suspension of all national flights. Additionally, Tassili Airlines announced the suspension of national flights starting from March 22, 2020.
- On March 17, 2020, all public and private transportation within cities and between states, as well as train traffic were suspended.
- On March 23, 2020, the President, Abdel Majid Taboun, decided the prevention of the transportation of taxis across all national territory.

2.2 The Effect of COVID-19 on Education

The lockdown has started almost all over the world, in over 100 countries from the beginning of February. The spread of COVID-19 has affected the global and local air travel which resulted in thousands of students evacuated to their respective countries or stuck in the country they were in. Nevertheless, the shutdown of schools and universities did not entail the stop of education. The efforts were made to continue teaching courses in virtual mode and teachers were asked to give online classes. However, the lack of experience and the unprecedented step have made it very hard for both teachers and students alike to make the whole process work (McCulloch, 2020).

While in some countries, it was argued that they lack the means to do so in the first place given the number of households with internet connection and the speed of the connection itself were considered as basic problems to achieve the virtual mode teaching. As of 24th May 2020, approximately 1.725 billion learners are currently affected due to school closures in response to the pandemic. According to UNICEF (2020) monitoring, 153 countries are currently implementing nationwide closures and 24 are implementing local closures, impacting about 98.6% of the world's student population. At the beginning, initial procedures taken by many governments have ranged from 15 to 30 days, but they were extended. In some countries such as the case in Spain and Italy where the decision was announced not to resume face to face classes for the rest of the academic course which normally ends in June, and extend the period of some universities lockdown till 2021 (COVID-19 Educational Disruption and Response, 2020). At the moment, there is no vaccine available and the best prevention is to avoid exposure to the virus.

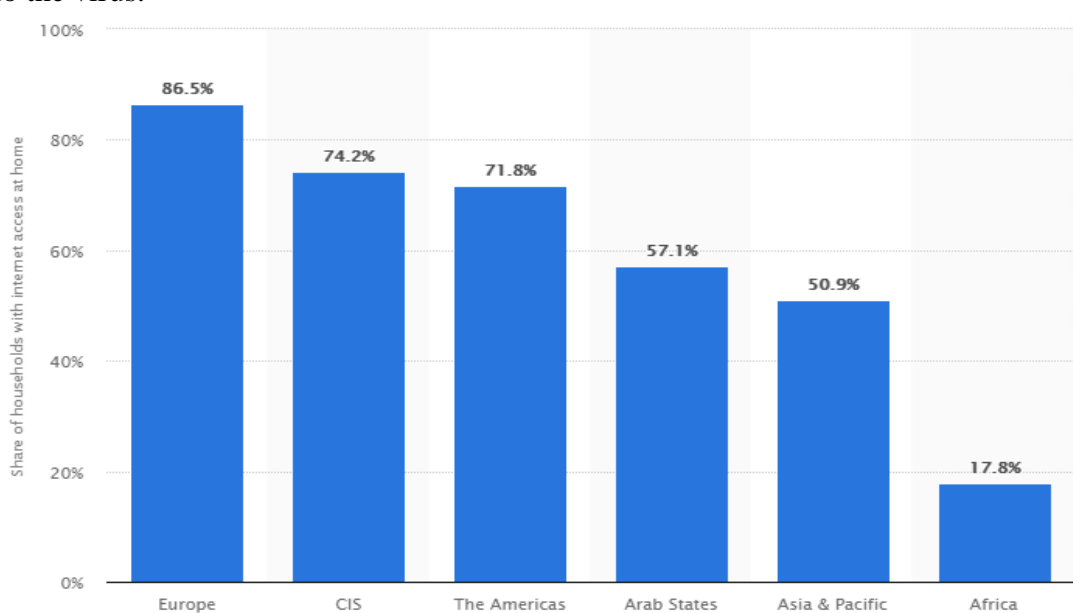


Figure 1: The Percentage of Households with Internet Connection Worldwide in 2019, by Region (Clement, 2020).

Higher education systems, as a whole, have reacted in a solidary manner and practically at a global level, have acted uniformly: they have continued teaching using pedagogical modalities that do not require physical attendance. While in some countries like Algeria, some policies regarding education have been made like postponing the baccalaureate exam and rescheduling the second semester of higher education in October while graduation and days of viva will take place either in June or in September (ElBilad, 2020).

2.3 The Effects of COVID-19 on Academic Research

In order to prevent the spread of the coronavirus, universities, laboratories and libraries all over the world have been shut down which entails moving education to the virtual world. Regardless of the advantages and disadvantages of the digital world, it became the only option to carry on academic research. Many researchers with scholarships or internships have returned to their home, losing access to the research laboratories and university libraries (McCulloch, 2020). Since COVID-19 has affected so many areas of our life, it is also more likely to affect our psychological state.

3. Methodology

3.1 Context

The spread of coronavirus pandemic worldwide has put governments under severe pressure. As the situation develops, the crisis has affected educational systems, leading to the widespread closures of schools and universities. The prime aim of the present study is to explore the psychological and behavioural side-effects of Coronavirus outbreak on the Algerian researchers' scientific work and academic plans. Participants in the study completed an online questionnaire, incorporating 24 open-ended and close-ended questions, about their thoughts, feelings and worries regarding Coronavirus crisis and its consequences on their wellbeing as well as on their progress in the academic research plans and projects. Besides, they indicate how they are coping with the coronavirus lockdown to overcome their fear and anxiety and carry on their academic research. In addition, it is important to mention that the questionnaire can be completed in three different languages: English, Arabic and French to allow participation from different intellectual backgrounds.

3.2 Participants

We adopted the snowball sampling method which is suitable in exceptional cases where it is difficult to get in touch with the sample and convince them to participate in the research. The participants in the current study are all living through the confinement of the coronavirus epidemic in Algeria. They are 202 Algerian male and female Master Two and PhD students of mixed ages and backgrounds. They are from 41 different districts and are registered in different fields of study (more than 33 scientific, technical and literal specialties, such as: Law, Literature and Foreign Languages, Human and Social Sciences, Islamic Sciences, Marketing, Biology, Anthropology, Architecture, Mathematics, Medicine, Agricultural science, etc.) at 39 universities or national high schools; and they are all in the process of preparing a scientific research paper. For the age variable, 36% of the respondents are aged between 21 and 25 years old; 38% of them are aged between 26 and 30 years old; 15% are aged between 31 and 36 years old; 10% of them are aged between 37 and 45 years old, and only 1% of the total number of participants are aged more than 45 years old. Therefore, the composition of this sample is representative of the concerned population by this research issue. (More details are shown in figure 2 below).

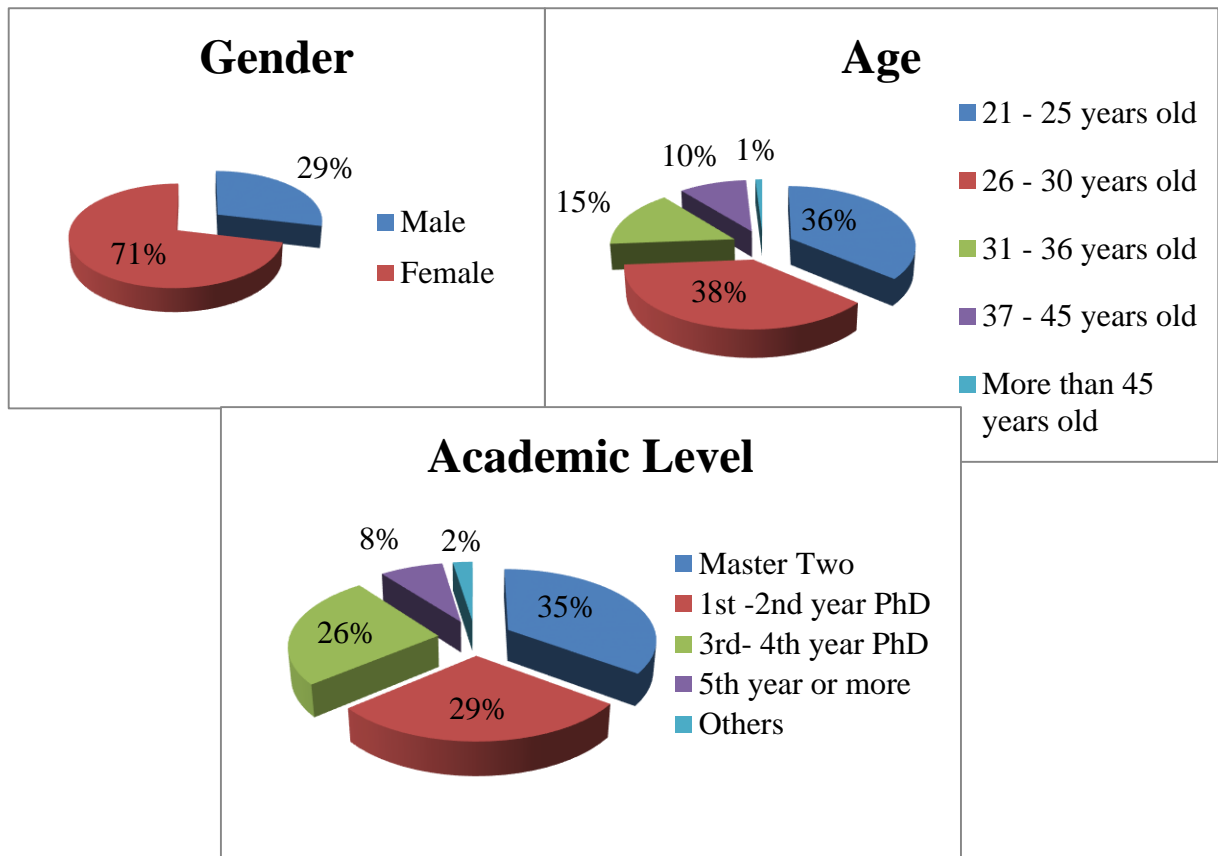


Figure 2: The Sample's Demographic Information

4. Results and Discussion

There are over 5,826,000 confirmed cases with more than 358,000 deaths worldwide. The official coronavirus tally in Algeria has risen where a total of 140 new confirmed cases and 7 deaths were recorded as of 28th of May, 2020, bringing the total number of the confirmed cases to 8,997 and that of deaths to 630. It is true that the situation in Algeria is fairly better compared to some European countries; yet this did not limit the negative side-effects of Coronavirus crisis and quarantine.

The advent of Coronavirus (COVID-19) in Algeria has reinforced full lockdown in the district of Blida and partial lockdown on the other districts starting from 03/13/2020. The outbreak of pandemic COVID-19 has several short and potentially long term detrimental side-effects on not only the affected, suspected or at risk individuals' psychological wellbeing and mental health; the whole general public who are staying quarantined during this tough period are concerned with these aforementioned shortcomings (Kang, Li & Hu, 2020).

The results of the statistical analysis of the obtained data showed that the majority of the participants (60.40%) are facing crucial effects of the crisis on their daily programmes to work on their academic research papers. Additionally, eventhough 56.93% of the participants believed that the crisis has no effect on their motivation; 72.8% believed that it has a negative effect on their mood, spirits and psychological well-being because of the negative feeling associated with the quarantine such as feeling worried, anxious, powerless or bored. Furthermore, 53.5% of the participants' surrounding conditions are affected negatively by the crisis. Consequently, 55% of them are procrastinating instead of finishing their papers (See table 1 below).

Table 1

The Participants Answers of the Questions N° 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 7, 8, 9 Respectively

	<i>Minor effects</i>	<i>Crucial effects</i>	<i>No effects at all</i>
To what extent does this crisis affect your daily programme to end your thesis / dissertation / article / research work?	40 participants	122 participants	40 participants
To what extent does this crisis affect your motivation for scientific production?	59 participants	28 participants	115 participants

	<i>Great positive effect</i>	<i>Minor positive effect</i>	<i>No effect at all</i>	<i>Minor negative effect</i>	<i>Great negative effect</i>
The effect of the crisis on the participants' surrounding conditions for working on their thesis/dissertation / article / academic research	10,90%	24,80%	10,80%	39,10%	14,40%
The effect of the crisis on the participants' procrastination to work on their thesis / dissertation / article / academic research	4%	15,80%	25,20%	32,70%	22,30%
The effect of the crisis on the participants' mood, spirits and psychological well-being	5,90%	9,40%	11,90%	51%	21,80%

	<i>Almost never</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Almost always</i>
Do you feel worried or anxious about the spread of this epidemic?	14 participants	99 participants	89 participants
Do you feel powerless due to the spread of this epidemic?	27 participants	96 participants	79 participants
Do you feel bored by the spread of this epidemic?	48 participants	81 participants	73 participants

Moreover, the participants were asked if they see the Coronavirus outbreak and quarantine as an opportunity to finish their academic research papers (dissertation, thesis, article, etc.). Unlike almost half of the participants (49.5%) who believe that this crisis *is not an opportunity at all*, 37.13% of the respondents think that *it is a good opportunity* in the sense that the researcher can focus all his/her effort on the research paper far from any other work that distracts him/her. One participant said: *“This extended holiday is a valuable opportunity for me, as I divided my time and planned what to do and the conditions help in terms of calm and quietness: there are no family visits, no weddings, or family events and I cancelled even my sporting activities. Now I have enough time to study; I have no excuse.”* Another participant added: *“We must look at the crisis positively. Although it poses a threat to the people and the country, researchers must have/take advantage of this period of time at home to advance in writing their various scientific works.”* In the same vein, a third respondent stated: *“Praise to God, Corona helped me a lot, I’m a father and responsible for my family, and before Corona I had several obligatory occasions which waste my time such as weddings, family visits, excursions, etc. Now, thanks to God, I devoted myself to finish my scientific research, and I found valuable information and references related to my topic, because I gave it enough time.”*

Importantly, 7.43% of the participants believe that the coronavirus crisis *might be a good opportunity* to finish their academic research papers *if there are good conditions at home*. Namely, closing libraries, cyber and information centres resulted in the lack of a suitable research environment for many students and researchers. Also, many female participants are occupied with the increased housework and their responsibilities towards their family members and their health and safety. One of the participants said: *“As an Algerian girl, staying at home means daily responsibilities and housework... which means insufficient time for research.”* Another added: *“I am one of the students who cannot study at home due to the special circumstances in my house. I planned to go every day to the university and work on my research paper in the library which allows me to contact the supervisor continuously and receive his feedback.”* Besides, *“... the house is small and overcrowding, all the family members are at home all the day, meaning that the atmosphere is not suitable to concentrate and study...”*. Moreover, *“family problems and difficult surrounding circumstances make things worse for me... I can never do research or edit data and ideas at home!”* In addition, *“...The type of Algerian family relations, and for me as a girl staying at home means doing housework!”* These constraints affected them psychologically and reduced their desire and motivation to study, which in turn influenced their daily studying programme.

Finally, the minority of the participants (%5.94) stated that *at the beginning they thought that this crisis would be a good opportunity, but in reality, things are different*. What follow are quoted from the participants’ responses:

“It can be considered as an opportunity if it was a normal spring holidays but with this epidemic I do not think so!”

“The spread of this epidemic has paralyzed my determination to finish my research. I have not been able to focus on the thesis. I have not even been able to set a daily programme to start writing. Also, isolating the city of Blida and closing everything is for me a crucial research limitation. Libraries and universities are closed and we cannot contact the supervisors...”

“I’m unable to concentrate due to negative psychological factors, anxiety and permanent fear ... I cannot focus, nor write, all my thinking and focus are on this epidemic and especially on myself for not being able to finish my thesis on time.”

“The most affected aspect is the psychological one because we do not know what will happen tomorrow and thus we cannot focus on what needs to be done today, we cannot continue working as if nothing had happened and at the same time we cannot stop doing our research work! I’m really confused!”

To be more precise, we asked the next four questions which are related to specific parts or procedures in academic research. 65.8% of the participants stated that the Coronavirus crisis has a negative effect on their supervising sessions with the research directors. Concerning the effect of Coronavirus crisis on the participants’ willingness to work on the theoretical part of their academic research, 41.6% of the respondents stated that it has negative effect whereas 37.1% of them believed that the crisis has positive effect. Clearly, the practical part of the research paper seems the most affected part by the coronavirus crisis. The majority of the participants (68.9%) stated that the crisis has negative effect (either great or minor effect) on their willingness to conduct the practical part of their research mainly due to the closure of the university laboratories or because the institutions from where the data should be collected do not receive trainees during the quarantine. Another indirect reason for this delay is the temporary suspension of national and international, public and private travel (Algerian Airlines, Tassili Airlines, sea transportation, train traffic and taxis) which started gradually since the 12th March, 2020. One participant wrote: *“I did not finish my training abroad and I cannot take advantage of the university library or visit the other universities to collect references; I cannot complete national and international scientific conferences and study days I was preparing for*

months ago! I feel disappointed!” In the same way, a female participant said: *“I went to France for a professional practical training which lasted a month and when it was time to go back home, they cancelled my trip and I am now stuck, with no enough money, for almost a week. There is no solution despite the several attempts with the embassy and the university!”* Another participant wrote: *“I am stuck in Turkey. I went there for the professional training and couldn't return back home!”*

(N.B. These two last answers were collected before the Algerian government took steps to bring them back to the homeland)

Without a doubt, the participants have different opinions about the effect of the crisis on their presupposed day of the viva. The majority of them (127 participants) predicted a delay of their day of the viva; 10 of them are happy with this postponement. Additionally, 31 participants have confirmed the delay of their viva. 66 participants believe that the crisis has no effect on their presupposed day of the viva. Finally, 31 participants have no idea whether it will be postponed or not.

Table 2

The Participants Answers of the Questions N° 17, 18, 19 Respectively

	<i>Great positive effect</i>	<i>Minor positive effect</i>	<i>No effect at all</i>	<i>Minor negative effect</i>	<i>Great negative effect</i>
The effect of the crisis on the participants' willingness to work on the theoretical part of their academic research	17,80%	19,30%	21,30%	16,80%	24,80%
The effect of the crisis on the participants' willingness to conduct the practical part of your research	4,40%	5,90%	20,80%	14,40%	54,50%
The effect of the crisis on the supervision sessions with the participants' research directors	0,50%	0,50%	33,20%	15,30%	50,50%

The participants in the current study were then asked whether they have received any advice or guidance - to focus their attention on their research plans and continue their daily programme to finish their scientific research - from their supervisors in particular (or the university in which they are studying in general). 168 participants (83.17%) stated that they received nothing supposing that *“many supervisors, especially the elderly, most of the time do not prefer distance learning or E-learning despite its great importance in this period which is characterized by unknown future.”*

After this, they were asked to state the steps they follow to get rid of the permanent thinking in the crisis and to get out of the negative impact of this difficult period on their studies. Almost all the participants focus on spiritual practices (Patience, Prayers, Reading the Quran and seeking forgiveness from Allah), meditation and positive self-talk to stay optimistic and spread positivity to their relatives and neighbours. Yet, based on their answers, the participants can be divided into 4 major categories: (i) those who lost hope and gave up their research, (ii) those who are affected negatively but they are doing good habits far from their research, (iii) participants who are affected negatively by the crisis but kept working on other scientific research paper, and (iv) those who are not affected at all.

To be more precise, 47.5% of the participants stated that they do nothing to overcome their anxiety. The majority of the females keep sterilizing everything and everybody who goes out and follows the latest news and statistics. Males are trying to escape from reality by spending most of the day sleeping believing that it is a good opportunity to have a break and to continue their research and studies after the quarantine.

The second group of the participants gave up on their studies for this period, but they are filling their time with building new beneficial habits such as improving hygiene, healthy diet, reading books, watching movies, motivational or comic videos, practicing sports and exercising, and learning new languages, and so on.

More, only 2.5% of the participants are attempting to prepare other scientific productions that are not related to their theses/dissertations and need less effort and concentration. They also try to take advantage of the free opening opportunity of many electronic libraries.

Finally, a few participants who said that their programmes are not affected by the crisis believed that there is no need to think about the epidemic, as it has specialists who care about it. They prefer paying attention to their field of research and study and stay away from social media that spread rumours and false news. Importantly, some participants stated that they did thorough research about the virus and its prevention; this made them become familiar with it, increased their awareness, and decreased their fear and anxiety.

5. Conclusion

The present piece of work focused on the psychological and behavioural side-effects of Coronavirus outbreak on the Algerian researchers' scientific work and academic plans. This study investigated 202 male and female Master two and PhD students' thoughts, feelings and worries regarding Coronavirus crisis and its consequences on their wellbeing as well as on their progress in the academic research plans and projects along with their coping strategies to overcome their fear and anxiety and carry on their academic research. The participants in the current study reacted differently to the coronavirus crisis as a stressful and a strange situation. How they respond to the outbreak depends on their psychological, emotional and cultural backgrounds as well as their surrounding conditions and the community they are living in. The majority of the participants (72.8%) believed that Coronavirus crisis and the quarantine have negative effects on their mood, spirits and psychological well-being because of the negative feeling associated with the quarantine such as feeling worried, anxious, powerless or bored. Furthermore, the participants' surrounding conditions are affected negatively by the crisis. Namely, the temporary suspension of national and international, public and private travel, in addition to closing libraries, cyber and information centres resulted in the lack of a suitable research environment for many students and researchers.

Also, many female participants are occupied with the increased housework and their responsibilities towards their family members and their health and safety. Consequently, the majority of them are procrastinating instead of finishing their research papers. Moreover, the crisis does not affect only the researchers' daily programmes to work on their academic papers, but also their supervising sessions with the research directors; their motivation and willingness to work on the theoretical as well as the practical part of their theses and dissertation. Additionally, the day of the viva, the date of receiving graduation certificates and diplomas and also the employment entry competitions are postponed. Fortunately, regardless of all these shortcomings associated with the Coronavirus crisis, people in general and researchers in specific are trying to be optimistic and see the situation as an opportunity to build new habits and achieve personal growth.

Finally, to control or at least minimize side- and after-effects of the crisis and protect people from the negative psychological impact on their mental health, personal and professional psychological intervention is urgently needed. It is worth mentioning that this investigation is just to deduce initial results. The same sample will be surveyed soon in the future to investigate the longer-term impacts of the crisis.

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MARITIME ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEEDS AND PRACTICES IN THE PORT OF BEJAIA: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY

Abstract

Algeria joined the International Maritime Organisation in 1963 and has ratified all the international maritime conventions. It has also taken official measures in relation to the use of English for maritime communication by Algerian ship crews and port personnel. However, little is known about language practices in general and English language use and needs in particular of the Algerian port regulation staff (port officers, safety officers, radio officers, pilots). The aim of the present paper is to explore language practices and needs of the port regulation staff in the Port of Bejaia. The investigation adopted a case study methodology with non-participant observations and ethnographic interviews as the main instruments for collecting data. Three port officers, two pilots and two radio officers accepted to be interviewed. The findings of the research revealed the co-existence of five languages in the port of Bejaia, each being used for a different purpose and with a different category of interlocutors. English is used in seven main communicative events, in which Algerian maritime officers and pilots interact with foreign seafarers of diverse nationalities and for a variety of topics and purposes. The findings of this research can be used to design an ESP course for Bejaia's port regulation personnel.

Keywords: Communicative Events, communicative situations, foreign ship crews, language needs, language practices, port regulation staff.

1. Introduction

It is nowadays accepted among marine professionals and academicians that English has become the lingua Franca of maritime communication. It has, actually, been adopted by the International Maritime Organization (IMO, henceforth) as the international language of maritime communication, in 1995, as an attempt to reduce the marine accidents caused by the lack of understanding among seafarers from different language backgrounds. This special and generalized use of the English language, called *Maritime English* (ME, henceforth) or *English for Maritime Purposes* (EMP, henceforth) enables maritime crews from different national, linguistic and cultural backgrounds to insure efficient and safe communication on-board ships, among ships at sea, and between ships and different shore services.

In fact, English started to be used officially as the language of navigation after the IMO Convention on the Standards of Training Certification and Watch keeping (STCW, henceforth) in 1978. At that time, Maritime English was just a limited jargon made of a set of specialized terms and idioms: Standard Marine Navigational vocabulary (SMNV, henceforth). However, the IMO's STCW conventions of 1995 and 2012 have considerably reinforced and improved the standards of maritime education and training in general and Maritime English use in particular (see IMO, 2012). Thus, instead of former knowledge-based teaching approaches, the IMO recommended maritime educational institutions to adapt competency-based principles. As regards language use, it recommended that English be used as the unique language of international maritime communication, and that this language be required for the training and certification of mariners in all the IMO member countries. Consequently, SMNV has been

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replaced by the SMCP (i.e. Standard Marine Communication Phrases), and a twofold perspective approach to Maritime English language teaching has been employed ever since: 1) a wide-angle perspective in which all the language skills and other specific maritime communication skills are investigated and integrated into language teaching practices; 2) a narrow-angle perspective in which the men of the sea are trained to use the SMCP for specific safety and navigational matters (IMO, 2012).

These developments have generated an attractive, expanding and promising field of inquiry in linguistics and language teaching as part of English for Specific Purposes (see Culic-viskota & Kalebota, 2013). Accordingly, ME lecturers and researchers can now direct their efforts to the improvement and development of courses, curricula, syllabi and lessons; conception and proposition of innovative and effective teaching methods; new techniques, strategies and criteria of assessment and/or evaluation; description and improvement of the current situations; design and use of appropriate materials and equipment, etc.(Culic-viskota & Kalebota, 2013). In addition, after the long domination of narrow-angled sentence level research, linguistic analysis of ME has now adopted a wider perspective by integrating text, discourse/ rhetoric, genre and corpus approaches.

Algeria joined the IMO in 1963, i.e. just after it got independent, and ratified all the international maritime conventions, among which 1978's STCW convention and the 2006's maritime labour convention (see JORA N°5, 2016). The ratification of these conventions implies the adoption, by the Algerian government, of English as the main language of international maritime communication. However, Algeria's complex sociolinguistic situation and its geographical proximity with non-English European and North-African countries, presupposes the existence of other competitive languages among the men of the aboard ships and within Algerian ports. Subsequently, an exploratory study needs to be conducted in order to determine the language practices of the Algerian Port personnel and the communicative situations and events in which English is used.

Problem and Purpose

In spite of the adoption, by the Algerian government, of official measures in relation to the use of English for maritime communication by Algerian ship crews and port personnel, little is known as scientific researchers about language practices in general and English language use and needs in particular of the Algerian port regulation staff (port officers, safety officers, radio officers, pilots), nor do we have any precise evaluation of the efficiency of the English-based maritime communication in general and of shore-to-ship communication in particular. Accordingly, the main aim of the present study is to describe the language practices and needs of the regulation personnel in the Port of Bejaia. This includes the description of language practices, English-based communicative situations and events, and the communicative components of these situations and events.

2. Literature Review

2.1. What is Maritime English?

English for maritime purposes (EMP), or Maritime English (ME), is viewed and defined differently by the maritime stakeholders. For multinational ship crews and EFL harbour personnel having continuous contacts with foreign ship crews, Maritime English is an operational language, i.e. a restricted language, used to assure effective and comprehensible communication between ships and between ships and shore (Ziarati, 2008). The *raison d'être* of this variety of English is to grant the safety of ship crews, the vessels, harbour installations and harbour personnel. However, many other experts reject this definition and view maritime English as an elaborate and complex multidisciplinary discourse (Demydenko, 2012). Nevertheless, a third group of linguists and ELT researchers consider these two types of ME as two forms of the same entity (Covacevic 2014; Kalebota 2013).

In fact, according to Sanela Covacevic (2014), there are two main forms of Maritime English (ME): ME as restricted code and ME as an elaborate code. Firstly, ME as a restricted code is based on the use of SMCP (former SMNV), which is a specific register employed by the men of the sea and characterised by the use of specialised terminology, phraseology and a limited number of grammatical structures (Sanela Covacevic, 2014). Language use, in this situation, is mechanical and non-creative in that the interlocutors memorise expressions and structures and use them mechanically to cope with everyday professional issues. Secondly, ME is believed to have developed into a more elaborate discourse through the long years of using English as the Lingua Franca of academic maritime communication. According to them, Bachelor students in maritime schools need both professional and vocational English, which are considered as a necessary tool for successful careers in the maritime occupational contexts. In parallel, intense academic activity is observed in maritime high schools, with Master students particularly, in science and technological subjects and business and law subjects, which makes the need for English for Academic Purposes a prerequisite (Čulić-Viskota & Kalebota, 2013).

Similarly, Kourieos (2015, p. 2) noticed that, very often, ME education and research have been limited to vocational English courses which “*aim at the acquisition of standard competence in the use of English onboard, so they mainly concern seafarers and are informed by the need for a common language, essential for avoiding accidents at sea*”. She affirmed that, in fact, the students of maritime schools have also to study academic maritime English which they need to successfully deal with their academic studies. Accordingly, maritime English can be said to have widened in perspective to cope with both academic and professional expectations, in addition to the students’ levels of study.

Demydenko (2011) views maritime English from a wider and more complex perspective. To start with, she views Maritime English as a lingua Franca of maritime communication and a global language used at sea, “*a product of life on the ocean itself, used for clear communication between ship and shore, between crew members, between crew and passengers, where the cost of communication breakdown can be damage to property, to the environment or loss of life (p. 250)*”. In addition, she considers ME as an operational language developed on the basis of communicative practices among the men of the sea and which result in a number of strict and clear communicative conventions likely to reduce communicative misunderstanding and confusion. Last but not least, the author describes ME as a multiplicity of language subsystems. For her, maritime English involves a complex system of specialised sublanguages related to maritime industry, the most prominent of which are: (1) *general English*, (2) *general ME*, (3) *ME for navigation*, (4) *ME for marine engineering*, (5) *ME for ship’s documentation and correspondence*, (6) *ME for radio communication*, (7) *SMCP*, (8) *ME for IMO conventions, regulations, manuals, etc.*, (9) *ME for semiotic systems*, (10) *ME for visual aids and others*.

2.2. IMO Recommendations on Maritime English

English has been adopted by the IMO as the main language of the sea since 1973’s IMO’s maritime safety committee meeting and 1978’s STCW convention and has permanently gained in importance ever since (STCW, 1995; IMO, 2001). Recognition of the English language hegemony over the international maritime communication and the need for efficient English language training for the mariners were reinforced during 1995’s STCW and the different amendments of the SOLAS convention (STCW 1995; STCW 1996; IMO, 2001). In fact, the decision made by the IMO’s maritime safety committee, during the 1973’s meeting, to use English as the common language of communication at sea communication led to the design in 1977 and adoption during 1978’s STCW convention of the Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary (IMO, 2001). Later in 1997, the SMNV was modified and developed into the more elaborate SMCP by the IMO safety and navigational subcommittee and adopted by the IMO convention in 2001 (IMO, 2001).

Similarly IMO's SOLAS conventions, which have concerned themselves with the safety of life at sea, expressed, for the first time, the need for a common language of the sea during 1974's SOLAS convention (IMO/ SOLAS, 1974). Later SOLAS conventions have explicitly insisted on the necessity of adopting English in general and the SMCP in particular as a common communicative tool among multilingual ship crews, among ships at sea and between ships and harbour services. The use of English and SMCP were believed to increase the safety rate of vessels, cargos and crews (IMO, 2001).

Additionally, 1978's international STCW convention, as amended in 1995, recommended the integration of the ability to use the SMCP in the certification requirements of the seafarers, and elaborated a list of minimum standards of the English competence according to the different categories and ranks of seafarers. As shown in the table 1 below, the would-be navigational and engineering officers, navigational watch seafarers and radio operators need to learn SMCP and to develop some mastery of oral and written English. Besides, careful observation of the competence evaluation criteria (see table 1), reveals that English-based communication needs to be clear, concise and precise both in oral and written forms.

Table 01:

Minimum standards of competence in English for seafarers (STCW code 1995, p. 34-98)

Category	English/ communication Competence	Criteria for evaluating the competence
Officers in charge of navigational watch	Use the SMNV, as replaced by SMCP, and use English in written and oral forms	- English language navigational publications and messages relevant to the safety of the ship are correctly interpreted and drafted - Communication are clear and understood
Seafarers working in navigational watch	Steer the ship and comply with helm orders also in the English language	- Communications are clear and concise at all times and orders are acknowledged in a seamanlike manner
Officers in charge of engineering watch in a manned engine room or designed duty engineers in a periodically un manned engine room	Use English in written and oral forms	- English language publications relevant to the engineering duties are correctly interpreted
GMDSS radio operators	Transmit and receive information using GMDSS subsystems and equipment and fulfilling the functional requirements of GMDSS	- English language messages relevant to the safety of the ship and persons on board and protection of the marine environment are correctly handled.

Table 2:

English language requirement for maritime training and certification (STCW code 1995, p. 110)

Category	English/ communication competence
Safety training for personnel providing direct service to passengers in passenger spaces	- Ability to communicate with passengers during an emergency - Ability to use elementary English vocabulary for basic instructions with passengers in need of assistance
Guidance regarding the training and certification of ratings forming part of the navigational watch	- An understanding of wheel orders given by pilots
All the categories	- Use of SMCP
All the categories	- Elementary English vocabulary with an emphasis on nautical terms

Other English training requirements have also been recommended during this convention, the most important of which are related to interaction with passengers (see table 2 above). Thus, future ship crews are required to develop elementary level English language abilities, with special emphasis on SMCP, for the sake of granting the safety of ships and passengers.

3. Methodology

3.1. Context of the Study: Bejaia's Port Enterprise

Bejaia's Port Enterprise is the company that is in charge of all the harbour's management activities. It has undergone, since 1998, several organisational reforms to suit the principles of market economy adopted by our country (Algerian maritime code, 1998), and as an attempt to reduce the states' financial burden in the fields of maritime transportation and port services inherited from the socialist era (Algerian maritime code, 1998; Tadjine & Ahmed-Zaid, 2012). These reforms have separated the management of the commercial missions from the prerogatives of public power: 1) keeping the management of the functions of development and safety, handling, piloting, etc. in the public domain; 2) opening the marketing activities for free for competition (Merzoug & Djenane, 2017; Tadjine & Ahmed-Zaid, 2012).

According to its official website, Bejaia's Port Enterprise (EPB, henceforth) is composed of eight directions, grouped into two main structures: a functional structure and an operational structure. (1) The functional structure includes four main directions: the general direction, the integrated management direction, the finance and accounting direction, and the human resources direction. These directions are assigned the mission of managing the administrative, financial, managerial, and human resources matters (EPB, official website). (2) The operational structure, is also composed of four directions, and is responsible for true maritime work such as handling and stevedoring, towing, pilotage and safety, management and delivery of goods...etc. The four directions which compose this structure concern the harbourmaster's direction, the handling and stevedoring direction, the towing direction and the field and development direction.

The present research took place in the Harbourmaster's Direction, which is concerned with security and safety operations within port limits (EPB, official website). This choice is justified by the fact that the harbourmaster's office direction has permanent contacts with foreigners. It (Harbourmaster's Direction) belongs to the operational structure and is considered as the most important structure in the port. It is composed of two departments: *the police and security department and the piloting department*.

a. The *police and security department* is responsible for terrestrial safety, maritime safety, internal security and dangerous hydrocarbon goods. Terrestrial safety includes the security of staff, operations and different port installations. On the other hand, maritime safety concerns keeping watch on vessels' security while internal security and dangerous goods involves the safety of water basins and the transit of dangerous products.

b. The *piloting department* is also called the *navigational aids department*. Its function is to welcome the vessels arriving to Bejaia's port, to provide foreign vessels with assistance during entry to and exit from the port, internal manoeuvres and the vessels' mooring.

3.2. Population and Sample

The population of the study involves all the officers and pilots of the harbour masters' office direction: safety officers, port officers, radio officers and pilots. Thus, three port officers, two radio officers and two pilots accepted to respond continuously to our questions during the observation period, which took place from February to April 2016.

3.3. Data collection and Analysis

The present research adopted a case study methodology with non-participant observation and ethnographic interviews as the main instruments for collecting data. The results of the study were then analysed and discussed using a combination of two investigative models: Hymes 1974's SPEAKING model and Hutchinson and Waters 1987's model of the Target Situation Analysis (see the table below).

Table 3:

The study's investigative framework

Target Situation Analysis (TSA, henceforth)	Concepts taken form Hymes' SPEAKING
<p>1. Why is language needed? • for study; • for work; • for training; • for a combination of these; • for some other purposes, e.g. status, examination, promotion</p> <p>2. How will the language be used? • Medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc.; • Channel: e.g. telephone, face to face; • Types of text or discourse: e.g. academic text, lectures, catalogues, etc.</p> <p>3. Who will the language be used with? • Native speakers or non-native; • level of knowledge of receiver: e.g. expert, layman, student; • relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.</p> <p>4. What will the content areas be? • Subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, commerce, shipping, etc.; • Level: technician, craftsman, postgraduate, etc.</p> <p>5. Where will the language be used? • Physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library; • Human context: alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone; • Linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad.</p> <p>6. When will the language be used? • Concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently; • Frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks.</p>	<p>End: involves the communication purposes and outcomes of the community</p> <p>Communicative situation/Setting: corresponds to the physical (space and time), and the psychological environments</p> <p>Participants: concerns language users' interlocutors and the relationship among them</p> <p>Instrumentality: involves the medium, modes and channels of communication</p> <p>Communicative event: refers to the communicative activities in which the participants take part productively or/and receptively</p>

4. Results

Two main objectives are focused upon in this research: (a) language practices in the Port of Bejaia, (b) English-based communicative situations and events. The study of communicative events involves the analysis of the purposes for using English, status and identity of the foreign interlocutors, modes of communication and/or interaction, and the topics dealt with. Communicative situations are identified on the basis of physical and psychological settings: that is to say, time and place of English language use, and the communicative occasions.

4.1. *Language practices in the port of Bejaia*

Non-participant observations which took place in the two main sites of our research context (Harbour Master's office and the piloting department) revealed that five main languages were used in the port of Bejaia: Tamazight, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA, henceforth), Algerian Arabic, French and English. These languages were used for different purposes, however.

The analysis of the interview responses revealed that English was used for ship-to-shore and shore-to-ship communications and for direct face-to-face (FTF, henceforth) interaction between Bejaia's port regulation staff and foreign ship crews onboard the foreign vessels. In addition, English is used during informal encounters that took place between Algerian port officers and foreigner ship crews on the dockside. Those interactions are generally related to social and personal needs, such as asking for and showing the way, and asking for and giving locations of hotels, restaurants and other amenities.

The interviewees affirmed that French was used for maritime communication and administrative work and for ship-to-shore communication with some French, Algerian and Maghrebi vessels. However, non-participant observations enabled us to notice that the interlocutors from the two sides were mixing SMCP expressions within sentences made in French. It was also noticed that English dominated French in shore-to-ship communication. In one situation, it was the Algerian radio officer who took the initiative to use French with a French Vessel. The interviewees explained that the main language of communication with vessels was English and that the use of SMCP was compulsory and unavoidable.

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is used with the vessels of the Middle East and the Gulf countries. The use of MSA is rare and is always mixed with SMCP English. On the other hand, Tamazight and Algerian Arabic are often used among Algerians in shore-to-ship, shore-to-shore and frequently during informal interactions. The recourse to SMCP English is also unavoidable even with Algerian vessels.

4.2. *Purposes for using English*

The analysis of the observations and interviews showed that the three main sub-groups of this community had different communicative purposes in relation to their professional tasks: (1) To start with, the radio officers' task was to welcome foreign ships, prepare the ships until their berthing, collect information about the entering ships, and apply the CNP. It happens that the language used for this kind of communication is English. (2) Port officers were in charge of organising navigation within the port and of ensuring the safety of water basins, port quays and stores. (3) Pilots, who have long experiences as international ship masters, are required to go on-board the entering ships and to direct and assist foreign ship masters or pilots to bring their vessels into or to take them out of the port.

However, it was also observed that port officers and pilots gathered regularly in the piloting department and participated in shore-to-ship communication. These latter were simultaneously implicated in Very High Frequency (VHF, henceforth) communications and were expected to contribute spontaneously to the safety of the port equipment. That is to say, there was a kind of versatility and multidisciplinary among the port's personnel.

The results of the interviews showed that English was the main language of maritime communication, and was used for a number of purposes, which we list as follows:

- To welcome foreign ships;
- To prepare the ships for the different manoeuvres until pilot's embarkation;
- To regulate the navigation in the port (entry, movements, exit);
- To give port entry directions to foreign ships from control tower;
- To communicate with foreign navigational officers during pilotage onboard ships;
- To communicate with other foreign marine personnel at berth;
- To communicate with foreign passengers/ tourists;
- To collect information and write them down;
- To do ship safety and control checks.

5.3. Mode of Communication

5.3. 1. Media and means

The results of interviews and observations showed that the port regulation staff communicated with their foreign interlocutors through: FTF, VHF means, traditional telephones, mobile technologies, Telex, internet (emails) and paper-based written correspondence. The interviewees explained that the VHF means was the most frequently used, due to its practicality and efficiency. However other means were also used in special conditions: (1) The telephone and the mobile means were used when more precise information and elaborate discussion were needed; (2) Emails were used to ask for meteorological information or port conditions; (3) Traditional paper-based written correspondence was used, for administrative concerns, when the ships are inside the port.

Concerning language skills, the analysis of data revealed that all the language skills were practised by Bejaia's port regulation staff. However, the oral skills were reported to be of a greater importance in comparison with the written skills (refer to table 4 below). The interviewees justified this importance by the permanent need for spontaneous and efficient FTF interaction, and by the fact that the safety of the vessels and port equipment depended on the mutual understanding between the Algerian port regulation staff and the foreign ship crews. Reading and writing were considered less important because they constitute a kind of delayed communication that is necessary but not urgent, as it is not directly linked to the safety of staff and equipment.

Table 04:

Use of English language skills

Skills	Degree of importance	Justification
listening	Very important	Safety depends on immediate understanding what is said during oral communication
Speaking	Very important	Safety depends on being instantly understood during oral communication
Reading	Important	Delayed written communication is necessary
Writing	Important	Delayed written communication is necessary

5.3.2. Language aspects

The interviewed port officers, radio-officers and pilots agreed on the fact that the use of SMCP was a prerequisite for efficient maritime communication. This jargon with special vocabulary and phrases does not allow for elaborate grammatical variation. It was observed that the port regulation staff used English with varying degrees of fluency but mastered the SMCP well enough. However, as far as English pronunciation is concerned, the interviewees expressed a serious difficulty to understand some non-native English users due to inappropriate

pronunciation. Those interlocutors involved, among others: Russians, Chinese and Filipinos. The interviewees also revealed that US southerners, Texans particularly, were hard to understand because of their difficult accent.

5.3.3. Topics dealt with

Results for this section enabled us to identify the main topics dealt with during maritime communication. Eleven main topics were mentioned by the members of this community. These can be classified into four categories: *social interaction, exchange of information, institutional issues, and orders/ directions.*

- *The category of orders/ directions* is concerned with the instructions related to the entry to, departure from and movements within the port of Bejaia.
- *The category of institutional issues* involves the legal issues and the environmental concerns in national and international waters.
- *The category of social interaction* includes welcoming, directing and socialising with foreign ship crews and passengers.
- *The category of information exchange* involves getting and/or providing information about the engines, the cargo, the ten last ports, foreign ship crews, the ships' thrusters, and the weather forecast (meteorology).

5.4. Identity and Status of the Foreign Interlocutors

Although the status and identity of foreign language users varies (see table 5 below), the port regulation staff revealed that the greatest amount of interaction with foreign crews happens with expert mariners. Foreign interlocutors' mastery of the English language was found to vary greatly among the ship crews as most of them were non-native speakers using English only as a lingua franca of maritime communication. The ship's master is the person with whom most interaction takes place, followed by the radio and piloting officers. Although rare, foreign ship engineers and technicians also take part in interaction, mainly with Algerian safety officers, on board ships during safety and security checks.

Table 5:

Identity and status of foreign interlocutors

Mastery of English	Rank	Professional Experience
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NS • NNS: English as L2 • NNS: English as a Lingua Franca 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ship Masters • Pilots • Officers • Engineers • seafarers • technicians 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NS experts • NNS experts • Students • Trainees • Mariners

5.6. Situations: Setting and Scene (Time and Place) of English Language Use

As shown in table 6 below, English is used in five main places in the port. It is also used at special moments in each of those places. The analysis of the moments and places also reveals the existence of a number of maritime activities around which English-based communication is required: entry of foreign ships to Bejaia's port, pilot's embarkment, towage, pilotage, ship controls, safety and security checks, informal encounters.

Table 6:

Setting and scene (time and place) of English language use

Place	Time
1. In the Harbour Master's office 2. In the control tower	- Before foreign ships are allowed to enter the port - During pilot's embarkment - During towage
3. On-board a foreign ship entering the port	- During pilotage
3. On-board a foreign ship at berth	- During ship controls - During safety/security checks
4. On dockside	- During safety/security checks - During informal encounters/ discussion

5. Discussion

6.1. Language Practices

This study made it possible to draw a model of language practices in the port of Bejaia, which can be summarised in the following figure.

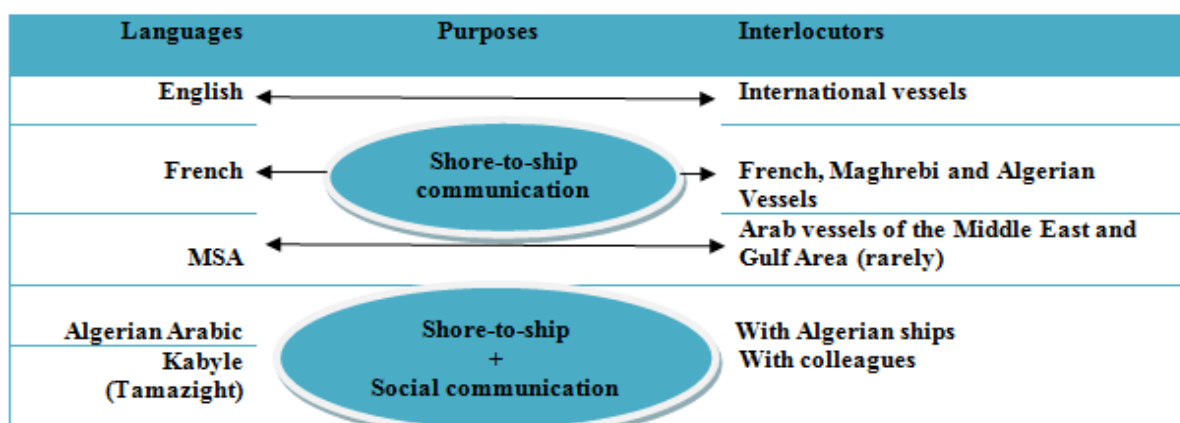


Figure1: language practices in the port of Bejaia

As shown in figure 1, the sociolinguistic situation within the speech community of Bejaia's port regulation staff can be described as very complex with specific forms of multilingualism and diglossia, the existence of three competing languages, and the co-existence of two local vernaculars: (1) This community can be considered as multilingual as five languages are used simultaneously by its members; (2) the linguistic situation in this context is diglossic in relation to the Arabic language as MSA is used as a higher variety and the Algerian Arabic vernacular as a lower variety; (3) Each of the five languages practised in the port is used in a specific domain: English is employed for maritime communication with international vessels, French for internal technical and administrative concerns, MSA with local and national public institutions, Kabyle and/ or Algerian Arabic for social and informal concerns; (4) English is the dominant language in shore-to-ship communication and is usually used with all international vessels, while French is used only occasionally with some French speaking vessels, and MSA rarely used with some Arab vessels; (5) The last feature of language practices in the port of Bejaia is code mixing. The regulation staff and foreign ship masters of the French, Maghrebi and Arab vessels mix their national languages with SMCP expressions and phrases. Accordingly, the use of SMCP is unavoidable for Bejaia's port regulation officers regardless to the language being used by their interlocutors.

6.2. Communicative Situations and Events

According to Hymes (1972), a communicative event refers to a particular communicative activity in which the members of a particular speech community engage using speech communication, i.e. language-based exchange is a prerequisite for the existence of any speech/communicative event. According to Hymes' SPEAKING model (1974), each communicative event is composed of *Setting and scene (place and time)*, *Participants*, *Ends (purposes)*, *(speech) Acts*, *Key*, *Instrumentalities*, *Norms and Genres*. The communicative situations, on the other hand, refer to the context in which communication occurs and are identified on the basis of time, place and desire to communicate (Hymes, 1972).

As far as the present research is concerned, it has been possible to identify eight English-based communicative events and eight communicative situations (see table 7 below). In fact, Bejaia's Port regulation staff use English in four main places in the context of Bejaia's port: control tower & harbour master's office, on-board a foreign ship entering the port, on-board a foreign ship at berth, on dockside (refer to the following table).

- a. **Control tower & harbour master's office:** three main communicative events happen at three separate moments in this place (see events 1, 2 and 3). Communication with foreign ship crews happens via the VHF means, but other means, like the telephone and the internet, can also be used. The main role is played by the radio officers from the Algerian side while the main foreign interlocutors are either the ship masters or the piloting officers. Algerian port officers may take the role of radio officers whenever necessary. At the very moment Bejaia port's pilot gets onto the entering vessel, direct face-to-face interaction takes place and his main interlocutor is either the ship master or the piloting officer. Uses of SMCP, speaking and listening are characteristic of this phase, in which the main communicative purposes are to welcome foreign ships, to give entry directions and to provide navigational assistance for foreign vessels within the water basins.
- b. **On-board a foreign ship entering the port:** the second event that happens in this place (event 4) concerns *informal interaction with foreign ship crews*, and which takes place during pilotage. Once on-board the foreign vessel, Bejaia's pilot welcomes the foreign ship master or pilot, socialises with the ship crews and attempts to create a relaxed atmosphere. SMCP, speaking and listening are the main skills used in this event.
- c. **On-board a foreign ship at berth:** there are two main communicative events in this place (events 5 and 6). The first one concerns *the ship's control interviews* and happens during ships' safety controls, and the second one concerns *the ship's security checks* and happens during the quests about security threats (terrorism and piracy threats). During safety controls, the port officers ask for information in relation to the navigational, handling and storing conditions of the ship. The aim, here, is to ensure the safety of the port by checking the technical safety of the foreign ships. Their main interlocutors are foreign ship masters, pilots and engineers. On the other hand, during security checks, the safety officers go onto the vessels and check ship crews' identities and the ten last ports in order to ensure the absence of suspected individuals or equipment on-board. Their target interlocutors involve the whole ship's crew. Communication, in these situations, is based essentially on oral face-to-face interaction between Algerian port and safety officers and the foreign crews. SMCP, reading and writing are also needed as many information forms are filled in during the checks.
- d. **On dockside:** English-based communication happens at two separate moments (refer to events 7 and 8). The first situation concerns *informal meetings and discussions* during which port and safety officers communicate orally with foreign seafarers, through direct face-to-face interaction. On the other hand, the second situation relates to ship repair requests, during which foreign ship masters correspond, in written

form, with Bejaia Port's Harbour Master to request the permission to start repair works on his ship. SMCP, reading and writing are the main skills needed in this situation.

Table 7:

Target communicative events and situations

Events	Situations		Purposes	Topics	Participants	Mode of communication	
	Place	Time				Means	Means
1- Welcoming foreign ships	Control tower & Harbour Master's office	Before foreign ships are allowed to enter the port	To welcome foreign ships	- Welcoming/socialising - Entry directions - Meteorological information	- Port/ Radio-officers - Ship master	VHF Telephone Internet (email)	SMCP Speaking /listening
2- Giving entry directions		Until pilot's embarkment	To prepare the ships for the different manoeuvres until pilot's embarkation	- Information about the water basins - Legal issues	- Radio officers/pilots - Ship master/piloting officers	VHF Telephone Internet (email)	SMCP Speaking/ listening Reading writing
3- providing navigational assistance		During towage/pilotage	To give port entry directions to foreign ships from control tower	- Legal issues	Port/ Radio-officers/pilots - Ship masters/piloting officers	FTF VHF	SMCP Speaking/ listening
4- Formal interactions during pilotage	On-board a foreign ship entering the port	During pilotage	To communicate with foreign navigational officers during pilotage on-board ship	- welcoming/socialising - Entry directions	- Pilots - Ship masters/piloting officers	FTF	SMCP Speaking/ listening
5- Ship safety control interviews	On-board a foreign ship at berth	During ship safety controls	To do ship safety controls to check the ship's navigational, handling and storing safety.	Information about the engine (machine) Information about the cargo Information about the ship's thrusters and cranes	- Port officers - Ship masters/piloting officers/engineers	FTF VHF	SMCP Speaking/ listening Reading/ writing
6- ship's security checks		During security checks	To do ship security checks to ensure there is no terrorist or pirate threats	Information about the ten last ports Information about the ship crews Legal issues	- Safety officers - Ship masters/piloting officers/engineers	FTF Inform-ation forms	SMCP Speaking /listening Reading/ writing

7- Informal encounters with foreign seafarers	On docksid e	During informal meeting s/ discussi ons	Socialising with and welcoming foreign visitors	- Welcoming & socialising - Locations, amenities, commodities	- port officers/ safety officers - foreign ship crews	FTF Inform -ation forms	Social Communi cation Speaking/ listening Writing
8- requestin g permissi on for ship's repair		Ship repair requests	Requesting and giving permission to do ship repairs	- Environmental concerns - Legal issues	- Ship masters - Harbour Master	letters	SMCP Reading/ writing Professional discourse

7. Conclusion

The present paper has attempted to examine language practices and needs of the Bejaia's port regulation staff. It has focused on the description of language practices, English-based communicative situations and events, and the communicative components of these events. The research has applied a case study methodology with non-participant observations and ethnographic interviews as the main instruments for collecting data and a combination of two investigative models for the analysis of the results: Hymes 1974's SPEAKING model and Hutchinson and Waters 1987's Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

The results of this study have enabled us to draw a framework of language practices of Bejaia's port regulation staff and have revealed the existence of a very complex linguistic situation in the port of Bejaia with multilingualism, diglossia, domain specific language uses and code mixing as the main features of communication. It was also found that English is the dominant language of maritime communication and that its use is characterised by a noticeable combination of SMCP and oral skills. Besides, English is used in eight main communicative events and eight communicative situations, in which Algerian maritime officers and pilots interact with foreign seafarers of different nationalities and on a variety of topics and purposes.

The findings of the present study made it possible to suggest a set of guiding principles for the design of an ESP course for Bejaia's port regulation personnel:

- a. Focusing on the main purposes English-based communication, among which: welcoming and preparing the foreign ships until their berthing/ embarkment, regulating the navigation, ensuring the safety of port equipment, ensuring the safety of water basins, port quays and stores; guiding and assisting the foreign vessels entering/leaving Bejaia's Port.
- b. Taking in to account the features of professional versatility and multidisciplinary of the port's regulation personnel.
- c. Use of different means of communication during shore-to-ship interactions: Face-to-face, VHF means, Telephone, Mobile means, Telex, Internet (emails).
- d. Understanding of what is said and being understood during oral communication, and delayed written communication.
- e. Communicating efficiently with foreign ship crews of different ranks, maritime experience and language proficiencies: NS, NNS, masters, pilots, officers, seafarers, technicians, trainees, students...etc.
- f. Communicating efficiently with foreign ship crews at different moments of interaction: before foreign ships enter national waters/the port, during pilot's embarkment/ship's berthing, during pilotage, during ship controls, during towage, during safety checks.
- g. Communicating efficiently with foreign ship crews in all the places of encounter: in the Harbour Master's office, on-board a foreign ship entering the port, on-board a foreign ship at berth and on dockside.

Last but not least, the present study is entirely qualitative, so there is an urgent need to carry on follow-up quantitative investigations in order to confirm and generalise the results of the qualitative investigation. After the identification of the detailed needs and the design of an EMP course, it will be necessary to conduct experimental studies with the port regulation staff.

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MULTILINGUAL CODE SWITCHING IN CONTEMPORARY ALGERIAN OCCASIONAL SONG

Abstract

This study aims to explore and describe the phenomenon of code-switching in contemporary Algerian occasional song that deals with the Coronavirus event, basically to identify the types of code-switching found. Additionally, it investigates the attitudes of Algerian young people towards code-switching in these songs and how it is used as a device to achieve the communicative intents and serve certain functions in songs. To achieve these objectives, the authors relied on a mixed research method that includes twelve selected modern Algerian songs. The analysis was made based on Poplack theory and the six functions of code-switching proposed by Appel and Muysken. To this was added an audience study based on fieldwork in Tizi-Ouzou which involves data collection from survey questionnaires and individual online interviews. Three types of code-switching were discovered. They are extra/intra/ inter sentential code-switching. In addition, the findings show that code-switching in contemporary Algerian song is not a random switch from one code to another, but carries certain social functions that could provoke positive attitudes and behaviors for the target audience.

Keywords: attitudes, code-switching, functions, occasional song, types of code-switching

1. Introduction

Algerian sociolinguistic situation is characterized, for historical reasons, by the coexistence of several languages. These are used in different contexts within the daily life of the Algerian people. The overlap of these linguistic codes is also observed in artistic creations in general and occasional songs in particular, as the artistic domain can reflect, to some extent, the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria. This is due to the fact that artists in most of the times are inspired by the reality that the Algerians live and the experiences they go through in their life. The languages used in society cannot be overlooked by the artist because they are part of peoples' identity as well as the means of communication through which they describe the reality they live within. The emergence of new musical genres in Algeria, such as Hip Hop, Rai, Rock, make extensive use of code-switching (CS henceforth). The songs that pertain to such genres of music are often marked by the simultaneous use of two or more languages in an utterance. Bentahila and Davies (2002) in their analysis of Arabic-French lyrics of Algerian Rai music point out that "code-switching in song lyrics is a very different phenomenon from code-switching in conversation, as it is neither spontaneous, nor it is intimate" (p.119). What attracts attention is that how a songwriter creates lyrics in different codes and communicates them to an audience in attempt to elicit a specific emotional reaction. Virtually, it is fascinating to see this diversity in using variant languages by modern Algerian singers in their songs. If we take into consideration their verbal repertoire which is actually a mixture of several languages, notably, Standard/Classic Arabic, Algerian/Vernacular Arabic, Tamazight/Berber (Standard and Vernacular), French, and more recently English, one can deduce from that they switch from one language to another. The recent language policy made Standard Arabic and Standard Berber (the native language of Algeria) as the two official and national languages of Algeria.

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In school, Standard Arabic is the first language, Standard Tamazight taught in few areas of the country; French is considered as a second language and English as a foreign language. Despite this inequality in term of language status, the coexistence of these languages makes of Algeria a multilingual speech community.

Thus, this linguistic pluralism has given rise to code-switching in the Algerian language practices in different discourses. In this article, the authors focus on bilingual and multilingual code-switching in Algerian contemporary songs. The examined songs are recorded and released during the crisis of Corona virus pandemic. They treat some peculiar themes which correspond to the aforementioned health crisis and label this distinct period of time, like: social distancing, spotting symptoms and of course, staying home and washing hands. It is all part of an effort to get vital information about disease prevention to people who might not get it otherwise. Whether they are simple parody of an already existing text or new creation by known artists or emanating from a citizen or group of citizens, these songs are invading social networks and platforms.

Accordingly, the present paper is an empirical investigation, based on sociolinguistic analysis of temporary Algerian code-switching occasional songs. It also explores what role sociolinguistic aspects play in making recent songs attractive to the youth audience in Tizi-Ouzou. This will be done specifically by examining audience behaviours and attitudes towards these songs through the use of interviews and surveys.

The problematic raised here, is composed of the following questions:

- What types of CS are used in the lyrics of contemporary Algerian occasional songs in this period?
- What are the functions of CS in the lyrics of contemporary Algerian songs in this period?
- What are the attitudes of Tizi-Ouzouian' youth towards CS in contemporary Algerian occasional songs?
- Could CS in contemporary Algeria occasional songs be an effective communicative strategy to elicit certain audience reactions?

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Various Perspectives of Code-switching

The existing literature abounds with terms pertaining to language contact phenomena, including CS, code mixing (CM) and borrowings. They are considered to be among the communicative strategies which are predominant in bilingual communities and studied mainly in relation to the degree of proficiency in bilingualism. The overlapping and inconsistent use of these terms needs drawing clear distinctions between them. Such distinctions can be based on structure, context, use, and frequency. Although Eastman (1992: 1) notes that urban language contact studies do not distinguish code mixing, CS, and borrowing, other scholars state that not all cases of alternation of languages are cases of CS.

Milroy and Muysken (1995) define the term CS as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation” (p.7). They use CS as an umbrella term for all instances in which the language code changes in the same conversation. Myers-Scotton (1993 b) also uses CS as a cover term and defines it as “alternations of linguistic varieties within the same conversation” (p.1). On the other hand, there are other researchers like (Sridhar, S.N. & Sridhar, K.K, 1980) reserve the term CS for switching between sentences only, and instead prefer use code mixing for switching within the same sentence. They argue that only code mixing which is rule governed.

Another complex distinction is made by scholars between CS and borrowing. Poplack (1978) has argued that isolated items inserted in another language are fundamentally different from longer switch segments. She proposed that morphosyntactic and phonological integration as a criteria for distinguishing between CS and borrowing .However, Scotton (1992) posits that borrowed and code switched forms behave in the same way morphosyntactically in the matrix

language, for this, they should not be seen as distinct processes. Indeed, if researchers want to understand the social and cultural aspects involved in CS, they have to free themselves for a need to distinguish CS, CM and borrowing (Eastman, 1992), as well as they have to consider CS as “an exception rather than rule” (Gardner Chloros, 1995, p.68).

As this study concerns on CS in song lyrics and discusses both switching within a sentence and between sentences, there is no special need to distinguish between these three terms in this paper. As also, CS functions as a cover term for all instances in which the language code changes within the course of the song lyrics and CS is defined following from Clyne (1987) as “the alternative use of two languages either within a sentence or between sentences” (p.740).

2.2. Typology of Code-switching

According to Poplack (1980), CS is classified into three types:

- **Tag-switching** refers to the switching of either a tag phrase or a word, or both, from one language to another one.
- **Intra-sentential switching** refers to the switching from one language to another within the same sentence or clause. It can occur in the middle of the sentence and will usually be performed without pause, interruption or hesitation.
- **Inter-sentential** switching involves a switch a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language or another. In other words, the whole sentence is produced entirely in one language before switching to another one. It is sometimes called “extra-sentential switching”.

2.3. Functions of Code-switching

According to Sarkars and Winer (2005), CS in songs is different from that occurs in other verbal communication. This is because the utterances are basically not delivered to any specific hearers as song producers do not know the audience personally. It has been also suggested that music is different from any other informal conversation. CS phenomenon occurs in songs to allow people to share their cultures in a more artistic manner (Babalola and Taiwo, 2009). Although it has been noted that conversational CS is not the same as CS in songs, the work of Gumperz (1982) was instrumental in demonstrating what he called “metaphorical” and “situational” CS, could serve a variety of discourse functions and it is particularly relevant to the study of song lyrics. “Metaphorical” CS where the speaker modifies his/her language by inserting elements from a different linguistic varieties in his/her speech for stylistic purpose, and “situational” CS means where CS is triggered by situational factors such as social and contextual roles. However, there may be certain topics or situations where CS is ‘situational’ – associated with particular topics or domains, or ‘lexically-motivated’ (Bentahila and Davies 2002, p. 199).

There are several functions of CS in song lyrics. However, this study uses Appel and Muysken’s theory as the theoretical framework to examine the functions of the code switched sections determined in the selected corpus. Also, it examines other functions of CS based on previous studies. Appel and Muysken (2006) listed six main functions of CS:

- **Referential** function is used when there is a lack of knowledge of the target language. A language is chosen based on its appropriateness, to be used for a particular topic, usually when a certain concept is not accessible in user’s mother tongue.
- **Directive** function is a communication strategy used by a speaker to exclude or include a person from a conversation and it helps listeners to become more engaged and attached to the songs.
- **Expressive** function is when speakers use more than one language to empower their self- identity or express feelings towards others.
- **Phatic** function is used to indicate a change in tone and highlight the significant parts of conversation.

- **Metalinguistic** function includes quotations, phrases and metaphors (Gumperz, 1982).
- **Poetic** function occurs when words, funny phrases or jokes are used in various languages for the purpose of entertainment.

2.4. *Attitudes towards Code-Switching*

Attitude is broadly defined as an individual's feeling, prejudice or belief about a given topic. Therefore, Garret (2010) defines the term as "an evaluative orientation to a social object of some sort, whether it is a language, or a new government policy, etc..." (p. 10). In relation to language, bilinguals or multilingual may express their likes, dislikes or to be neutral for a given language. Thus, Crystal (1992) defined language attitude as "the feelings people have about their own language or the languages of others" (p. 215). In other words, bilinguals may have positive, negative or neutral attitudes towards one of the two languages or even towards the shift between them. Benguedda (2017) gives the example of Tlemcen people in west Algeria. She argues that people lived with the French colonizers have positive attitudes towards French and prefer to use this first foreign language in their daily conversations with Algerian Arabic.

However, some negative attitudes towards CS have been shown as well by monolingual, bilingual or multilingual speakers alike. For example, Cheng and Bulter (1989) state that CS can threaten or remove the purity of the first language.

In contrast to the positive and negative attitudes, there are some other people with neutral attitudes towards CS. They consider this linguistic phenomenon as just a kind or a manner of speaking which occurs when using other language freely and unconsciously with the first language (Benguedda, 2017).

The study of people's attitudes towards language has often been considered in terms of three components (Garrett, Coupland & William, 2003). First, the cognitive component refers to one's beliefs, ideas, or opinions about language as the recognition by many peoples today of the importance of English as a global language. Second, the affective component refers to an individual's feelings, emotion bias, prejudice about a language. Such people often show their likes or dislikes for a given language due to a personal bias, prejudice or fear without any argument. Finally, the behavioural component represents one's acts, behavioural intentions, or actual behaviour towards a language. For example, Garret (2010) speaks about English teenagers who act hostile towards people who use Received Pronunciation (RP). They transferred their attitudes into behaviour.

Therefore, this research adopts the definition of attitude as "predisposition to respond to some class of stimuli with three major types of response as cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960).

2.5. *The Occasional Contemporary Algerian Song*

The occasional contemporary Algerian song is often written or sung for a special occasion or event. It may involve changing or copying existing lyrics and or music, as it can be a new creation. It can be seen to function as bearers of news, commentaries on current events, and as entertainment. In Algeria this kind of song offers a rich diversity of musical genres; however this paper focuses only on Kabyle, rai and rap song that has a direct relation with the Corona virus event. So, it is necessary to bring some explanations of these three musical types.

In Kabylia, singing and music are seen as a means of entertainment, joy and fulfillment. So music, in general, allows individuals to communicate with those around them and to express what they think of society and all things that take place within. The Kabyle modern song is a musical genre that the Kabyles knew from the 2000s, with the arrival of a wave of young singers like (Takfarinas, Allaoua, Ali Amrane, etc., as well as the introduction of new technologies in the world of musical instruments. This song has quickly made its way into the Kabyle artistic and cultural landscape, especially in young people's circle. Currently, it is widely expanding in Algeria and is even heard outside the Berber-speaking areas. Its language is characterized with

insertion of linguistic elements belonging to other different languages, in the form of borrowing or code-switching.

Rai is a musical genre, originated in coast area of western Algeria. It gets mixed with a Spanish, French, African and Arabic musical forms, which dates back to the 1930s. It roots from “the repertoire of the female singers called shikhat, whose performances were judged somewhat improper behaviour for women” (Bentahila & Davies, 2008, p.2). During the years, the genre has become more rakish through dealing with taboo and social topics. By the 1980s, it was influenced by many western music and instruments, as well as it became widely used in popular culture. However, the events of the 1990s that Algeria experienced have forced many performers to flee abroad, where some of them became international stars, like Cheb Khaled.

Rap music, in Algeria, is first originated in urban centers of Algiers, later in other urban cities of the country. It took root in listening and musical performance practices in Algeria in the early 1990s. It coincided with the beginning of the political and social unrest that Algeria experienced through that decade. It became a benchmark in terms of social commitment, not only through the themes treated, but also through its refusal to comply with state injunctions in linguistic terms. Like Rai, but with committed and radicalized words, “rappers use the language of their neighborhood, that is say, prone to the mixture of language” (Koudri, 2009, p.123-128).

To conclude, all these genres share at least two characteristics: Language mixture and young audience fans. Therefore, researchers believe that they are appropriate to study the young audience’ attitude towards CS in occasional contemporary Algerian songs.

3. Methodology

This study is situated in the field of sociolinguistics, takes as its focus the mainland Algeria situation in the Tizi-Ouzou area as a particular case study. It aims to survey the CS phenomenon within the contemporary Algerian occasional songs, as well as to analyze it linguistically in order to discover what types and functions of CS existing in the songs. Additionally, it seeks to investigate what role sociolinguistic factors play in making these songs attractive to the audience. This is done specifically by examining the audience attitudes and behaviours towards this kind of songs. To this end, this study employs a mixed – methods design, or often called ‘triangular’, which is a “combination and application of more than one sampling method for data collection or use of more than one methodology in research design” (An-Gouri, 2010, p.34).

3.1. Procedures

This study is based on analysing of twelve contemporary Algerian songs collected from the Internet. They have a direct link with the context of the Corona virus pandemic crisis that Algeria is living from January 2020. Four songs from each musical genre (Rap, Rai and Kabyle) have been selected for the representativeness of this genre. The classification of the three types of CS is made using Poplack (1980)’ theory of CS. Then, all words, clauses, and phrases of each variety of languages appeared in the songs as a CS sections are marked and categorized according to the six functions of CS given by Appel and Muysken (2006). Finally, in all quotations from the lyrics, French and English parts are presented in normal orthography, while Arabic and Berber are presented in phonemic transcription, using the International Phonetic Alphabet (API). For ease of recognition, in all examples, their glosses, and citations within the text, Arabic elements are (unmarked), Berber (unmarked underlined), French (bolded), and English (bolded and underlined); each verse is immediately translated into English. For the translation, we favoured the use of italics.

A questionnaire survey is created, choosing questions to collect general data on the target audience of the songs, including data about their behaviour, and attitudes towards this kind of songs. Questionnaires are usually used not to elicit actual language data but “to collect data on attitudes about language or qualitative sociolinguistic information” (Scheel & Meyerhoff, 2010, p.4). The questionnaire is carefully developed and translated into standard Arabic and French. This approach originates from an attempt to avoid the researchers’ impact

on the informants' responses as far as possible. Codo (2008) argues that "the translation of the questionnaire into the different languages spoken in the multilingual context under investigation constitutes a crucial step in the research design as it may lead to higher levels of participation" (p.172).

Regarding the situation of people's quarantine resulting from the Corona virus crisis, the participants of this research are recruited by using 'Snowballing', also called "Friend of a friend", or "Social network sampling". So, the questionnaire is sent to ten friends who, in turn send it to their friends and so on. Altogether, fifty two survey returns are received and the data collected are analysed and presented, using some simple statistics. The data is collected from 01st to 30th April 2020.

At the end of the fieldwork, a number of face to face interviews are conducted, using, regarding the actual context, Skype in the Internet. The aim is to obtain the maximum amount of information and the reasons the youth people give for being interested or not in this kind of CS songs (that cannot be obtained through other methods). Using interviews enables the researcher to ask questions to elicit more information about the socio-pragmatic functions of CS. Wolfram (2010) calls the sociolinguistic interview "the methodological heart of the sociolinguistic movement" (p.302). Five interviews with participants are conducted and then the conversations are recorded. Last, the information gained is examined qualitatively, through thematic analysis of relevant material that matches the topic of this study. The interviews are conducted between 02nd and 05th Mai 2020.

4. Results

4.1. Findings from the Corpus

4.1.1. Types of code-switching in the songs

Table 1

Types of CS

Types	Frequency (%)	Examples
Intra-sentential	83.70	Ma tqulch rani JEUNE ET L'UMINITE 3endi qawia
Inter-sentential	8.70	El 3issaba hia sbabna. CORONA, OUI IL FAUT, OUI IL FAUT
Tag/extra-sentential	7.60	Ma sma3t bi hkaytu, MEME PAS !

This table demonstrates that there are three types of code-switching within the selected songs. They are intra-sentential, inter-sentential, and tag switching. As it shown also, intra-sentential CS is the dominant type with (83.70%), followed by inter-sentential with (8.70%) then tag switching with (7.60). Additionally, the findings reveal four languages that are used in the songs, namely Algerian Arabic, Berber, French, and English with less frequency.

4.1.2. Functions of code-switching in the songs

• Referential Function

The CS in contemporary Algerian occasional songs is used because it is the only permitted equivalent in local Algerian languages, to express particular cultural connotation unavailable to equivalent Arabic or Berber concepts, or to maintain the appropriateness of context.

Example 1 : li twahef mimtu jedir efufa : LA CAM, LA CAM

Whoever are missing his mother, use the thing: the webcam, the webcam

Example 2 : VIRUS sghir qdar jetjah.
people

Small virus could kill thousands of

Example 3: Tfiq msa ruhek beli ma kuntj RAMBO ja hmar. *Be aware that you are not Rambo, donkey.*

Example 4: ullah jestarna men el CORONA.

May Allah save us from Corona?

Quim deg xxam urtsfyara.

Stay at home, don't go out.

In the two first examples, the phrase 'LA CAM' and 'VIRUS' are used because there are not the same terms to describe them in Arabic. But, the word 'RAMBO' in the third example refers clearly to the American actor Sylvester Stallone, whose popularity among Algerian youth may be considering. In example 4, the Arabic sentence is used quite deliberately to express specific linguistic and cultural (religious) information that belongs to the tradition of Arabic community, so it should be expressed in Arabic. Additionally, the majority of switched elements in the corpus express the concept of switching which is similar to Blom and Gumperz (1972) concept of 'situational' switching. For example, the following words and phrases have all relation with the titles of the songs: 'Corona', 'virus', 'immunité', 'bavette', 'hospital', 'virus d'origine', and 'made in China'. In this case, singers bring up such topic by activating and displaying association with this particular domain where French and English are dominating.

• Directive Function

Appel and Muysken (2006) reported that the directive function of CS is one that directly involves and affects the hearer. Similar to what Gumperz (1982) called as addressee specification, CS can be used as an effective strategy to direct a message to a specific person in a conversation by switching language and vice versa. Other than that, bilingual speakers may choose to include or exclude a person from communication by using a language that the person knows or doesn't know.

Example: 1 ma kanj HOPITAL jeslah jdawikum.

There is no hospital can cure you.

T3ijfu fi TIERS MONDE wahed masma3 bikum.
you

You live in the Third World, no one knew

Example : 2 ma tkulf rani JEUNE wa L'IMMUNITEqawia 3andi. *Don't say I'm younger and highly immune.*

Kebir wa seyir ma men3u, jkun enta ja waldi. *Olders and youngsters are exposed, who are you?*

In the first example, the singer wanted to transmit his message to Algerian people. By using the French phrase « tiers monde », he shows that these third world countries, including Algeria, cannot cope with Corona virus. The singer in example two also specified the addressee of his message by using the words « jeune » and « l'immunité » in the opening line. Therefore, listeners who listen to his song would be aware that the message was sung for young people who believe that they are not concerned with Corona.

• Metalinguistic Function

Reiteration is defined by Gumperz (1982) as when "a message in one code is repeated in the other code, either literally or in some what modified forms (p.78). This is also identified as "translation as reiteration" in Davies and Bentahila (2008).

Example 1 : hadjer el sehi, DEUX SEMAINES, wallah j3adi.

Quarantine, two weeks, I swear to Allah, it will pass.

Example 2 : la tjara wala babur, C'A Y EST bel3u LE PORT.

No plane, no boat, that's it. They closed the port.

Example 3: niyak xas CONFINER sars imanik tekimdh u tssusmdh.

I am telling you: confine yourself and remain silent

In example 1 and 2, the words 'deux', 'semaines', 'c'a est.', and 'le port' are not stated in Arabic, but they are quite different in the ways of presenting the linguistic information. CS here is used to clarify and to confirm what is said before and to emphasise on the message. But, in the last example the reported speech 'nighak' is in Berber, in the reported speech the singer mix French and Berber.

- **Poetic function**

According to Bentahila and Davies (2008, p.4), "code-switching may interact with the rhyme scheme of a song in several ways".

Example 1: fi nhar el awel klaw el xanbouf, qulna ma3lef balak fih el LOUCHE

In the first day, they have eaten khanbouche, we said to them may be doubtful.

Qulna lhum qbel ma takluh darbulu DOUCHE, adarbulu DOUCHE

We said: before you eat it, shower it, shower it

Example 2: fekass a PORTABLE, akdjefek a JETABLE, amaken zzair CAPABLE.

Give him a cell phone; he gives you disposable, as Algeria is competent

The singers used French words which rhyme with Berber words to create a harmonic sound. This may be explained that their purpose is to present the information in a humoristic manner, in order to entertain the listeners and to be welcoming.

- **Expressive Function**

Example 1 : VIRUS syir q'der jettjah DES MILLIERS DE PERSONNES

A small virus could kill thousands of people

Ma mna3 fiha NI FILLE NI GARCON, NI lgawlou SOLUTION

No one was saved, either girl nor boy nor they found solution

Example 2: aniyak xass CONFINER. *You have to confine yourself*

Example 3 : Islam dir LA BAVETTE ET NETTOYER el santijat.

Islam! Put the surgical mask and clean the synthesizers

In the first example, the singers code switch strategically to bring a dramatic effect, in order to attract the listeners' attention about the danger that presents this pandemic. However, in the second, the two French verbs 'confiner' and 'nettoyer' are used to give advice or commands to song participants, in this case, to respect the rules of quarantine and hand washing.

- **Simplification for linguistic economy**

It has been noticed in the corpus that all singers took only few minutes to perform their songs. They appeal to foreign languages for reasons of linguistic economy. So, the use of French or English allows them, in certain cases, to transmit a message with a few words, which Berber or Arabic does not allow them.

Example 1 : VIRUS jhakmak SURTOUT fel qhawi.

The virus infects you mostly in cafeterias.

Example 2 : tqul lu kan yir emi tkun, TROP TARD. *You say: just if my mother is here, too late.*

The singer, in the first example, deletes the noun ‘corona’ and is satisfied with the noun ‘virus’ for reasons of linguistic economy. As, the word ‘surtout’ can only be replaced by a nominal phrase “3ala el aktarja” which makes the sentence longer and its pronunciation heavier, as well as the word ‘trop tard’ has not a single Arabic equivalent.

4.2. Findings from Survey Questionnaires

4.2.1. Biographical Information

The people who participated in this study said that they had lived most of their lives in Tizi-Ouzou. Of 52 respondents, (61.53%) are male, and (38.47%) are female and their ages range from 18 to 31. Regarding knowledge of the foreign languages, (53.85%) of the respondents have knowledge of the English language at a fair level. However, (09.61%) of the respondents have no knowledge of the English language at all, followed by (26.93%) with a poor knowledge, and (09.61%) very good. Concerning knowledge of the French language, (67.30%) of respondents have a fair knowledge of the French language; followed by (15.39%) with a little knowledge, and (15.39%) very good; against (1.92%) who have no knowledge of the French language.

4.2.2. Youth’s Attitudes towards CS in Recent Contemporary Algerian Occasional Songs

This question elicited the youth’s attitudes towards CS in the songs that specially treat the Corona virus crisis as a main topic. The youth’s views about this linguistic phenomenon in this kind of songs are assessed using a Likert-scale type consisting of five questions. On each question, participants indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the given statements related to language attitudes.

Table 2

Attitudes towards CS in Occasional Contemporary Algerian Songs

o	Statements	S.A	A	N	D	S.D
1	People who listen to CS songs are admirable	42.30	34.62	5.78	17.30	00
2	People who listen to CS songs have good taste	36.54	46.15	3.85	13.46	00
3	People who listen to CS songs are educated	48.08	38.46	1.92	11.54	00
4	The CS songs sound annoying	00	17.31	1.92	55.77	25
5	The CS songs sound meaningless	00	13.46	3.85	36.54	46.15
6	People listen to CS songs to show off	00	42.30	19.23	38.47	00
<i>S.A Strongly agree; A Agree; N Neutral; D Disagree; S.D Strongly disagree</i>						

Table (2) displays the participants’ responses towards using CS in occasional contemporary Algerian songs. From this table, it is clear that (34.62%) of the respondents agree or (42.30%) strongly agree that people who listen to contemporary Algerian songs, that mix and switch different local and foreign languages and treat Corona virus pandemic as a main topic, are admirable. (46.15%) of the participants agree or (36.54%) strongly agree with

statement N°2. Besides, (48.08%) of participants strongly agree or (38.46%) agree with the statement N°3. On the other side, the findings indicate that (17.30%) of respondents, (13.46%), and (11.54%) show their disagreement accordingly with the statements N° (1, 2, and 3). However, (5.78%), (3.85%), and (1.92%) respectively of the respondents remain neutral for the three first statements.

Additionally, the results indicate that (55.77%) of the respondents disagree and (25%) strongly disagree with the statement N°4. (46.15%) of respondents strongly disagree or disagree (36.54%) with the statement N°5. On the other hand, the results show that (17.31%), (13.46%) of respondents agree accordingly with the statements N° (4 and 5). The remaining (1.92%) and (3.95%) respectively are neutral.

Furthermore, the findings reveal clearly one view where the level of agreement is different. As illustrated in Table 1, (42.30%) of the participants agree that people who listen to these songs do this to show that they can speak like westerns. Conversely, (38.47%) respondents disagree with this statement N°6; against (19.23%) who remained neutral.

4.2.3. Code-switching as a Communicative Strategy in Contemporary Algerian Occasional Songs

This part is devoted to report on the effectiveness of the contemporary Algerian songs that mix and switch different local and foreign languages and treat corona virus pandemic as a main topic, in affecting the youth's behaviours and attitudes towards corona virus pandemic. Scores on each question range from

1. Very helpful, 2. Helpful, 3. Slightly helpful, to 4. Not helpful.

Table 3

The Youth's Perspectives towards the Effectiveness of the CS as a Communicative Strategy

°	Statements	Very helpful	Helpful	Slight helpful	Not helpful
	The CS songs help you to understand the contents easily	38.46	36.54	25	0
	The CS songs provide more relaxed information	90.38	00	00	9.62
	The CS songs encourage you to be aware of this disease.	36.54	46.15	00	17.31

Table 3 indicates that (75%) of participants stated that the occasional contemporary Algerian CS songs about Corona virus helped them to understand the contents easily and that corona virus is very contagious not just a simple influenza; whereas (25%) of them maintain that the songs were slightly helpful. (90.38%) of respondents reported that the songs were very helpful in providing more relaxed information about this disease and are interesting in describing what risky, safe and we should do/not do to face the crisis; there are only (9.62%) of them who claimed that the songs were not helpful and not interesting at all. Additionally, the findings reveal that (36.54%) of the participants rated the songs as helpful or (46.15%) very helpful in encouraging them to respect the preventive instructions of the pandemic. In contrast, (17.31 %) of them said that they are not helpful at all.

4.3. Findings from Interviews

All those interviewed claimed that they believe contemporary Algerian occasional songs, that mix and switch different local and foreign languages, which treat corona virus pandemic as a main topic, are 'normal'. Both those who have considerable and minimal knowledge in

foreign languages; and girls indicate a positive attitudes towards these CS songs. However, one of them said that they personally dislike the presence of Arabic and foreign languages in Berber songs and found them strange and “do not represent our culture”. The argued that “why Arabs and Westerns don’t use Berber in their songs”.

The general belief among the majority of the youth interviewed is that there is no difficulty to understand the French or English words that occurred in the songs. One of them claimed that he “feel that his knowledge acquired in secondary school is sufficient to understand such words”. Additionally, the interviewees stated that most people realize that French and English offer them the possibility of understanding many things about this disease, which cannot be expressed in Arabic or Berber because it can be very efficient and appropriate to address the youth by using words belonging to their daily life language repertoire. For example, among those interviewed said that “even those who don’t really know French and English can understand ‘virus’, ‘bavette’, ‘ok’, “made in China”, ‘port’, and so on”.

Further, all the interviewees share the same view that these occasional songs that flood the Internet are an effective source of entertainment and enjoyment during this period of quarantine and uncertainty that people are living. They claim that these songs can help them to be relaxed and to reduce their anxiety felt during this difficult situation, as in the same time to be aware about the danger that this pandemic can cause to human.

5. Discussion

5.1.Types of Code-Switching

The analysis of findings revealed that Intra-sentential code-switching is the most frequent in use followed by inter-sentential and extra-sentential (tag) code-switching. The high frequency use of intra-sentential CS in the corpus refers that the ‘matrix’ languages in the songs remains Berber or Arabic, according to musical genre. So, appealing for this type of CS, the singers ensure that the understanding of the texts by Algerian listeners will not be affected, as well as the song will not lose its Algerian song status.

5.2.Function of Code-Switching

The study of CS in the 12 songs constituting our corpus shows that interfering in the French and the English languages fulfills various functions in the song lyrics. There are functions that are related to the singers’ communicative intents, and others are related to the nature of the song lyrics.

Among the functions discovered within the song lyrics: Directive, expressive and to grab attention. These functions allow songwriters to convey certain values, messages, attitudes, and emotions in their songs that help the impact of the song lyrics and grab listeners’ attention to understand the songs better. Additionally, the findings indicate that the functions of referential, metalinguistic, and simplification of phrases are common in intrasentential than intersentential and tag CS activities. Appealing to such functions provide more clarification and better interpretation to certain terminologies, jargons and phrases, in order to maintain the appropriateness of the context.

On the other hand, switching to other languages fulfills functions that are relative to the nature of the song lyrics. In this case, the songwriters appeal to other languages’ repertoire for aesthetic reasons. Sarkar and Winer (2005) forwarded that CS is also used to facilitate internal rhyme in songs. In effect, in this study, it is shown that switching to extra languages helps to construct rhyme inside the song lyrics that ‘matrix’ word equivalents cannot realise. As, it is demonstrated humor is produced in most songs through using different types of CS mechanisms to serve as a source of entertainment. Further, another function was discovered which is switching for linguistic economy. This permits the singers to look for appropriate words to transmit their messages in the delimited time, since this kind of occasional song are mostly very limited in term of time.

5.3. Attitudes towards Code-switching

Apparently, the majority of participants believe that people who listen to contemporary Algerian CS occasional songs are admirable, show good taste, and have a higher level of education. This can be explained as most Algerian may lack skill in the foreign languages since they are not official languages in Algeria. Thus, the competence of foreign languages usage amongst Algerian people could be reduced. For this reason, the youth may believe that people who understand some foreign languages and who listen to these songs are more intelligent, knowledgeable and show more taste than people who listen to Algerian songs which contain only the local languages.

It seems that some of the youth who have knowledge of the foreign languages may hold the belief that listening to these CS songs requires knowledge of the foreign languages in order to understand the foreign language words or sentences appearing in the songs. However, some other youth who are not skilled in the foreign languages may believe that education is not a necessary factor for listening to contemporary Algerian codes switched songs since they may listen to these songs for entertainment.

On the other side, the negative attitudes towards the use of other languages rather than Berber in Kabyle songs can reflect the reject by Berber people of the language policy of Arabisation that Algerian decision makers established after independence. During this period, Berber language has been marginalised and Berbers' fight of the standardisation of their language has been severely repressed. So, those who express such attitude towards Arabic language may be just a natural reaction, not a categorical rejection of linguistic diversity.

5.4. Code-Switching in Songs as a Communicative Strategy

Apparently, the majority of participants see that contemporary Algerian occasional songs, that mix and switch different local and foreign languages and treat the Corona virus pandemic as a main topic, may function as an effective communicative tool for learning about corona virus pandemic. As posited by Bentahila and Davies (2008), songwriters use code-switching in song lyrics, through choosing some special words and sounds, as tools to attract the audience's attention. Therefore, it is possible that those songs which motivate the listeners to pay more attention could be communicative strategies to learn about infectious diseases. It is also possible to argue that such scientific topics, in this case Covid 19, needs the use of some terminologies to describe them clearly. So, if the songwriters use only local languages, the audience may face difficulties to understand the targeted message. Additionally, the better understanding of song's message by youth may be to the fact that the singers use more simple words like nouns, adjectives, and tags rather than complex sentences that require minimal knowledge in structure rules of those foreign languages.

The inclusion of an audience study was not only to gather in-depth information about the participants' language attitudes and behaviours, but has allowed predictions made based on a corpus study to be checked against the audience. So, it has led to conclude whether the findings of CS study are relatively isolated and trivial, or really significant.

6. Conclusion

While multilingual speakers make use of multilingual forms to achieve a more interesting, meaningful and effective communication, it is also natural for songwriters, who incorporate two or more languages into their lyrics, to exploit CS phenomenon as a device to reach their communicative intents. In this paper, we have attempted to explore and describe the code-switching phenomenon in contemporary Algerian occasional songs; as well as to investigate the attitudes of Algerian young people towards code-switching in these songs and to illustrate some of the ways in which CS is exploited as a communicative strategy to serve certain functions in the songs.

Based on the analysis, the grammatical classification of code-switching in the songs results in three types; they are namely tags switching, Inter-sentential CS, and Intra-sentential CS. Additionally, it can be concluded that youths actually have higher positive attitudes about the usefulness and the effectiveness of the songs in raising their understanding and awareness of coronavirus pandemic. Furthermore, the results have led to approve that by introducing French and English words into Algerian occasional songs, not only singers do grab the audience's attention, but they also create humour and entertainment that reduce the audience's anxiety towards the disease.

In that respect, CS in songs is not necessarily a random verbal behaviour issued by the singer, but it mostly rises from his understanding of the Algerian socio-cultural context. Regardless of whether singers' intentions toward incorporating CS are intuitive or purposive in nature, what is most important lies in the effects and impressions they leave on the listeners, who judge CS to be neither a banal nor a mere informal style embedded in singers' discourse. Rather, it adds an aesthetic pattern that attracts attention and helps the singer in conveying meaning and fulfilling his communicative intents. Therefore, CS is employed as a strategy to achieve these intents and addresses social issues in an aesthetic comprehensible manner that mirrors the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria and allows the artist's message to be accessible for a larger audience. As pointed out by Myers-Scotton (1995), the choices that a speaker makes in using a language are not just choices of content, but are 'discourse strategies' (p. 57), that is, the choices are used more to accomplish the speaker's intents than conveying referential meaning.

To this end, the findings of the present research have several significant implications. Firstly, code-switching in Algeria, is a social practice of people and cannot be a prescription of a legislator and does not need to be invented or to be oriented. In other words, It exists alone as part of humanity that feels society and imposes the learning of coexistence and sharing.

Secondly, In these moments of the pandemic which strikes the world, we discover that mass media is more than necessary for providing unlimited opportunities for listeners from all over the world to be exposed to music from various languages, cultures and countries. The positive attitudes shown by youth towards the use of code-switching as a stylistic innovation in song lyrics, in some way, reflect a growing bilingual or multilingual, and multicultural identity among Algerian youth. This can be helpful in developing the country and contribute to the commercial success within the massive international market of pop culture and modern music. However, this can be reached only by promoting modernity, diversity and plurilingualism. Unfortunately, the accumulated delay in term of new technologies accentuates our inability to meet the actual needs. This is due to the fact that the programs taught, at our school, are out of phase with the modern era, and the languages in which they are taught are too. Therefore, these challenges cannot be materialised without reassessing our school through a renewal of the linguistic policy which should not only concern the Algerian languages, but also the foreign languages; this renewal will best guarantee of success in communication and international exchanges.

Thirdly, besides the fact that this disease obligates people to be physically confined, it also lessons their degree of communication with others. Depriving people from face-to-face verbal interaction with other individuals can be equated at a certain point to a social paralysis, as people may gradually lose their willingness and tendency towards communicating with others. This is the case with our cultural, educational and social institutions. They are all put in the *off* mode, because they have chosen, for a long time, to lock up themselves, long before confinement, in unanimity and unproductive monolingualism, what is known in Algerian society as "the unique party policy". Therefore, we believe that it is the right time to understand that promoting diversity and multilingualism, through a linguistic policy that takes into account both people background and aspirations for modernity and progress, is the safe plan of a real

deconfinement which will allow promoting multiple modern new models of communication that facilitate the coexistence and sharing among the members of society.

Finally, more research into the evolving nature of multilingualism in song lyrics is necessary; in order to understand how code-switching is exploited as a communicative strategy that promotes an effective social interaction among the members of the same multilingual speech community and at the same time helps them to offer a universal message to the rest of the planet. More than that, code-switching will also help to reduce conflicts and to promote diversity, peace and coexistence in one society and also in the world at large.

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Appendix

List of the Songs Examined in the Study

N°	Singers' name/Songtitle	Site
01	ChebBobo Cristal "AlloBonatiro"	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hMGeLtu1DCK
02	Nissou DZ "Corona"	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=F9uNEfSWfgU
03	Hamidou et.al "Qolloli (corona)" <i>tell me (corona)</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iHjql28WK51
04	Anonymous"Corona RuhKhtina" <i>let us corona</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HVCZch6pRXO
05	Anonymous "Corona Virus" version kabyle/ <i>corona Kabyle version</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZsxFbGnNdGW
06	Anonymous «Corona: restez chez vous»/ <i>corona: stay home</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l8oMP9h1QtM
07	Anonymous « qimdeguxxam"'/ <i>stay home</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nD51sUZ-IBM
08	Anonymous"CoronaVirus" (Algerian song) DZ/ <i>corona virus</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7-9pTCRpTWA
09	MCA Fans « le chinois » corona virus alerte/ <i>Chinese, Corona Virus</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tR8HJqW-edl
10	Cheb Adoula"corona"/ <i>corona</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Dn6b7N9Kn7s
11	Cheb Hassan Sghir"matselmce a3lya" <i>do not greet me</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ld3Z-rgFmyY
12	ChebMourad"kijaxttina virus corona" <i>when we skipped corona</i>	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jKoREWxEhOU

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AFRICA'S BACKWARDNESS: THE DANGER OF ABUSIVE REFERENCE TO NEO-COLONIALISM.

Abstract

Neo-colonialism can be said to be a new form of colonial exploitation and control of the new independent states of Africa, as well as other African states with fragile economies. Multinational corporations, such as petroleum and mining companies, are responsible for much of the neo-colonial influence in African countries in the early twenty-first century. Investment by multinational corporations enriches few in underdeveloped countries and causes humanitarian, environmental and ecological damage to their populations. These countries remain reservoirs of cheap labor and raw materials, while restricting access to advanced production techniques to develop their own economies.

This paper reviewed the concept of Neo-Colonialism in Africa with a view to discuss the perpetuation of western interest and the subjugation of Africa long after the independence of African States from European powers. However, this paper also attempted to answer the following questions: is the current poverty of African countries the result of neo-colonialism? Would the abusive or erroneous reference to neo-colonialist intentions have the counterproductive effect of masking endogenous dysfunctions and hampering the capacity for action of Africa and Africans? It is time for African leaders to make the right choice between money and Africa.

Keywords: Africa, colonialism, development, imperialism, neo-colonialism, poverty.

1. Introduction

Imperialism laid the initial stage for the domination of the African continent by the European powers in the 18th and 19th centuries. The situation resulted in the invasion of Africa which John Gallagher and Ronald Robinson conceived as making Africa a 'sphere of influence' on which Europe could build an economic empire with or without 'a formal, legal control by one government over another country.' (Gat, Azar, 2006, p. 542- 55)

At best, the motive behind European Imperial conquest and eventual colonization of Africa resulted from 'economic motives primarily and prestige motives secondarily' (D.T. Osabu-Kle). Imperialism is a 'creation and or maintenance of unequal economic, cultural and territorial relationship usually between states and empires based on domination and subordination' (R.J. Johnston, 2000, p.375). Hence, the stage of economic domination and subjugation of the African continent as a raw material exploration field and a finished products exploitative market required the use of state apparatuses to conceive the colonial state as a sphere of interest in order to aid the successive exploitation of the African continent with limited resistance and orderly process.

Colonialism is defined as the practice by which a powerful country directly controls less powerful countries and uses their resources to increase its own power and wealth (Cobuild Advanced English Dictionary). On the other hand, neo-colonialism is defined as 'A policy whereby a major power uses economic and political means to perpetuate or extend its influence over underdeveloped nations or areas.' (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English

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Language). It is the continuation of the economic model of colonialism after a colonised territory has achieved formal political independence.

Frederick Lugard, first Governor-General of Nigeria; stated in his book titled - *The Dual Mandate* thus:

‘The Partition of Africa was, as we all recognize, due primarily to the economic necessity of increasing the supplies of raw materials and food to meet the needs of the industrialised nations of Europe...For two or three generations, we can show the Negro what we are: Then we shall be asked to go away. Then we shall leave the land to those it belongs to, with the feeling that they have better business friends in us than in other white men...’ (T. Pakenham, 1991).

It is noteworthy to mention that a country that has never been colonized can also be “neo-colonized”. Countries such as Liberia and Ethiopia, which have never experienced colonialism in the classical sense, have become neo-colonial states because of their dependence on international financial capital because of their fragile economic structures.

The old debate of the post-independence era of the Dark Continent on neo-colonialism has been revived by the recent accusations of Italy against France and its president Emmanuel Macron, denouncing Paris to "impoverish" Africa and to use in particular the CFA franc to continue its colonizing work there¹.

This declaration, in addition to having ignited diplomatic relations between the two European countries, quickly toured the African techno sphere and gave new life to the theories of those - young and old alike - who are convinced of the full responsibility of the old metropolises and the new rich nations, by their neo-colonialist work, in the current impoverishment of African countries.

At a time when a real rush of world economic powers is taking place in Africa, is it not time for Africans to stop brandishing the threat of a spectre of neo-colonialism and to face the real threats to the development of the continent?

2. A Dualism which Feeds the Theories of Neo-Colonialism

The rise of emerging countries in the context of financialization of capitalism has radically changed global dynamics. The formerly uni-polar world, dominated by the first world (essentially the United States of America), has today experienced a transition to a multi-polar world where the emerging second world plays a pivotal role, both economically and geopolitically. A new dynamic whose strength and sustainability can only be guaranteed by strengthening diplomatic, economic, military, and commercial cooperation - of this second world with what political scientists initially agreed to call the "third world", in particular Africa. Indeed, the last few years have seen a considerable increase in the interest of foreign powers and their investments in African countries.

¹In January 2019, the Italian Deputy Prime Minister, Luigi di Maio, described France as being a still colonialist metropolis which "impoverishes" Africa. Paris is even responsible, according to him, for the death of migrants in the Mediterranean.

For example, between 2010 and 2016, 320 foreign embassies opened in Africa¹. On the military level, we are witnessing an increase in the presence of American and French troops on the continent to strengthen the fight against jihadists in the Sahel, and the signing of military cooperation agreements between Russia, China and several African states. Also, the surge in trade agreements has something to impress: Chinese investments on the continent increased by 226% between 2006 and 2018. Those of the Indians by 292% and the EU by 41% (The Economist, March 7, 2019.), expanding profusely the range of Africa's trading partners and almost relegating to the background its traditional partners who were, in 2006, the USA, France and China mainly.

Today, with the arrival of other players, including India, Indonesia, Turkey and others, France is ranked seventh (The Economist). A place that justifies the recent tour of French President Emmanuel Macron of an unprecedented duration of four days - from March 11 to 14, 2019 - in East Africa (Djibouti, Ethiopia and Kenya) and the subjects of which largely underline the 'strategic importance of the Horn of Africa and East Africa, even though it makes this continent a priority in its foreign policy', as Le Monde magazine writes (Laurence Caramel, 2015).

The Economist, therefore, rightly described the new dynamics on the international business and government scene on the continent as "a new rush for Africa" in its March 8, 2019 front page. A real rush in which some see unprecedented opportunities for the continent, while the latter faces a rate of extreme poverty that has no comparison with that of other continents. Indeed, today, Africa is the continent with the largest number of people living in extreme poverty. The breakdown by continent is as follows: 383 Million in Africa and 327 Million in Asia. In a similar vein, the continent's share of global GDP today is less than 3% (Max Roser and Esteban Ortiz-Ospina, 2013).

A situation which alarms at the same time the most sceptical who perceive in this dualism "rush to Africa - poverty" a growing spectre, even a materialization, of neo-colonialism by the Western powers and by the masters of the emerging second world. It should be noted that the field of the concept of neo-colonialism has shifted: from relations between former metropolises and decolonized states to relations between rich nations - sometimes without a colonial past or passive - and poor nations. Thus, in the wake of colonialism (involving the use of violence), the whistleblowers of neo-colonialism systematically associate the presence of foreign countries in Africa with continuous and aggravated impoverishment of the continent.

3. A more Innovative than an Accusing Approach

Let it be allowed to refute this theory, at least in large part. On the contrary, it is this prism of underdevelopment explained by neo-colonialism that contributes precisely to the impoverishment of Africa. Kwame Nkrumah, a Ghanaian politician and revolutionary who was the first Prime Minister and President of Ghana, having led the Gold Coast to independence from Britain in 1957, denounced in his book on the question (Marc Semo, 2019), the cogs of international monopoly capitalism in Africa and later demonstrated that "the neo-colonialism, insidious, complex and a real threat to the African people is even more dangerous than the old colonial system". The tactics that the author already mentioned at the time (economic and financial means, making aid subject to the convenience of foreigners, including high-interest

¹ The formerly uni-polar world - dominated by the United States - has experienced a transition to a multi-polar world marked by the emergence or re-emergence of powers like Brazil, Russia, India, China - the famous BRICs - and well others (Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Mexico, Indonesia, etc.). The concept of "emerging countries" has replaced that of "new industrialized countries" which was common in the 1980s. The emerging countries that make up this "second world" are generally distinguished by their rapid integration into the global economy. " from a commercial point of view (significant exports) and financial point of view (opening of financial markets to external capital).

rates, military bases, presence of military, economic or political advisers, etc.) still characterize many of the interventions of developed and emerging countries in Africa today.

The existence of neo-colonialist manoeuvres in Africa cannot be denied, especially if the theme is defined by any policy aiming at taking advantage of the weakness of "decolonized" states to gain political, economic and cultural benefits (Kwame Nkrumah, 2009). This, however, raises two types of insidious question: is there only one form of truly disinterested cooperation and / or assistance in the world? And is interested cooperation necessarily the expression of a neo-colonialist policy? It would be interesting to rethink the debate on the responsibility of Africa's underdevelopment and shift the approach of explanation and solution of poverty of the continent towards an innovative approach rather than an accusative one.

Already in 1965, Philippe Ardant¹ warned of the unfortunate consequences of a reference - abusive or erroneous - to the ambitions of neo-colonialism (Philippe Ardant, 1965.). When used incorrectly in poor countries, the constant and systematic reference to neo-colonialist intentions can go beyond its objective of strengthening national unity and divert attention from real problems of those to whom it is addressed, thus distorting the perspective of national realities. Ardant went further by arguing that the explanation by neo-colonialism of the setbacks encountered in certain areas could serve as an easy outlet, which avoids looking for the real causes of failure, thus delaying the solutions of the problems of construction of the national society.

In summary, this approach aims simply, through an exercise of deconstruction of some arguments brandished by the theorists of neo-colonialism, to put back into the equation a fundamental datum for the development of the continent: the power of action of Africa and Africans (Jeune Afrique, 2017).

4. Unfair Capital Ownership by Foreigners in Africa?

It is enough to examine the shareholding of large operators on the African continent, especially in certain sectors such as the extractive economy, telecoms or even banking services, to see that their capital is mainly held by foreigners (Laurence Caramel, 2015.), at the notable exception of a few groups in South Africa, Angola or Morocco. Even more striking; the income and profits repatriated by these companies reach a significant proportion of 5 to 10% of the GDP of the countries where they operate, an estimate which exceeds the amount of official development. Moreover, each year, more than \$ 50 million in assets are diverted by African leaders, an amount that could be invested in job creation or social services and which, for the most part, is making the case for tax havens (Maria Helena Meyer Dolve and Saule Mullar, 2019).

Despite this backdrop, it should be noted that the majority of foreign ownership creates appropriate incentives and offers a greater opportunity to increase the value-added of businesses. The problem is therefore not the distribution of the shareholding of the companies between local or foreign, but how the added value created by these companies is collected, distributed and used by the public powers, and re-injected in the African economies in favour of long-term growth of countries and the continent. In the same vein, it is also important to stress the importance of policies to promote local industries and businesses, because between these and the total rejection of foreign investment there is a vast field of action favourable to the long-term development of countries.

¹Philippe Ardant (July 21, 1929 – June 6, 2007) was a French jurist, former president of the Constitutional Court of the principality of Andorra, former president of the Arab World Institute and former president of Panthéon-Assas University. He had been a professor at the universities of Poitiers, Beirut and Panthéon-Assas. He had co-founded *Pouvoirs*, a journal of constitutional law and political science.

5. Leonid Plunder of African Resources

Another issue often raised is that of acquisition contracts or infrastructure projects with foreign groups from Asia, the Middle East or the Persian Gulf. The opacity and restrictive terms, among others, which sometimes characterize them, do not always make it a good example of cooperation. We will remember, for example, how Sri Lanka found itself in debt following an agreement with China. After borrowing \$ 1.4 billion from Beijing to develop a port, it was forced in late 2017, due to its inability to repay, to cede full control of the infrastructure to China for 99 years (Le Point, 03/09/2018.). The same economic suicide and threat also hang over Kenya today with its port of Mombasa.

Yet another example is the mining extraction contracts. These cases are treated as if the said contracts had not previously been studied or at least approved by African leaders. Once again, when we uni-directionally accuse Western oil groups, for example, of fuelling armed conflicts, environmental degradation and the end of neo-colonialism, we almost forget to point the blame first to the governments of the countries concerned. Beyond their interest, it is their responsibility to ensure that these activities are in harmony with human rights, local laws, good governance and the development goals of the continent.

From the preponderance of Western languages and educational programs in African schools to the export to the continent of toxic fuels and cigarettes, including overfishing in continental waters, poaching of protected species and the very controversial CFA franc; the examples raised by neo-colonialist conspiracy theorists are legion. At the end of 2017, for example, the Burkina Faso government closed public and private schools for two days during the visit of the French head of state. Several local organizations have denounced French imperialism.

6. Conclusion

The actions of foreign forces on the African continent have in the past considerably upset and harmed African countries, instead of contributing to their development and growth. The stereotype of foreigners arriving/operating in Africa as settlers ready to exploit their natural resources to the detriment of all ethics and morals is still very much alive.

But to tackle these issues from the sole angle of a global conspiracy, with the main expected result, the resurgence of the colonial fact and the new control of Africa is a serious error. This prism of re-colonization entangles Africans in a submissive, powerless, inept and inert dynamic, and significantly diminishes the continent's capacities to influence its destiny and that of the world.

Furthermore, this hypothetical threat of the imperialist forces and the call to fight against them are ineffective in a context where, in many cases, the problem is endogenous. When wrongly mobilized in poor countries as is often the case, the abusive or erroneous reference to neo-colonialist intentions can go beyond its objective of strengthening national unity and serve as an easy outlet, thus avoiding the search for the real causes of African underdevelopment, and delaying the solutions to the problems that hamper the building of the national society.

Indeed, the drifts and abuses noted in Africa, the leonine clauses of contracts with foreign actors, are very often the results of the imperiousness of its leaders, the non-observance of the principles of governance and a lack of political will. The factors prove to be essential at least as much, if not more, than the actions of foreign actors. As a result, the energy devoted to watching out for the resurgence of this colonial fact should rather be dedicated to the search and implementation of effective solutions that serve the interests of Africans. With the new rush of economic powers today on its resources and its potential, Africa must put in place the strategic measures that will allow it to regain its real sovereignty, promote its true integration into global flows and its legitimate aspiration to finally be part of the next generations of world powers.

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The Primary Education Curriculum, Neoliberalism and the Teachers in England (1988-1990s)

Abstract

Prior to 1979, the English primary education curriculum had been the secret garden of the Local Education Authorities, the governing bodies and the teachers. Despite the fact that the State attempted to interfere in this aspect, no direct intervention took place. With the coming of the Conservative Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher to power in 1979, neoliberalism was introduced to replace the failing Welfare State policy, which affected different sectors, notably the educational one. This was conspicuous in the passing of the 1988 Education Act, which represented the first official intervention of the State in the curriculum. Therefore, the objectives of this article are the following: to discuss the changes that the Act brought to the English primary curriculum, to evaluate whether the primary education curriculum was neoliberal in content, and to tackle the reaction of the teachers towards it. It has been found that the 1988 Education Act contributed to the reshaping of the primary education curriculum, but failed to introduce the Conservative Neoliberal principles in English education. Even worse, it had the impact of infuriating the primary school teachers who organized national protest.

Keywords: Curriculum, neoliberalism, primary education, teachers

1. Introduction

The issue of the primary education curriculum in England has always aroused heated debate given the fact of its importance in education and its particular historical development in England. This topic has been discussed by many historians among them Clyde Chitty, Denis Lawton, Stephen Ward and Christine Eden, Colin Richards and Prof. Norman Thomas. They have notably focused on the context of the foundation of the National Curriculum in England and its development in relationship with primary education. This article has a more specific objective, namely to see whether the primary National Curriculum was neoliberal in content, and to reassess the changes it brought to the primary education curriculum, and its impact on the primary school teachers.

2. Historical Background

To understand the foundation of the National Curriculum in England, it is necessary to shed light on the evolution of the primary education curriculum from the early interference of the State in it in 1862 until the foundation of the National Curriculum in 1988. Colin Richards divides its development into three consecutive periods, and therefore, three types of primary education curriculum: the payment by results curriculum (1862-97), the codified curriculum (1897-1926) and the unregulated curriculum (1926-88). These three types of curriculum were the fruit of the government policies of their periods. For instance, the payment by result curriculum sought to achieve economies in a period of austerity as a result of the Crimean War (1853-56) by reducing the amount of government grants that had before been devoted to elementary education, and to adapt the elementary education curriculum according to the new

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needs of the English society; this is why it was compulsory and conservative in its content. The codified and unregulated curriculums, which were in the form of issuing government official documents such as codes, reports and pamphlets that would regulate the elementary/primary education curriculum, sought to offer guidelines to LEAs and schools to adapt their curricular policies according to the schools' context. This corresponded to the government policy of decentralization, which aimed at giving more autonomy to the local authorities to take their decisions and elaborate their own policies. (Richards, 1999, pp.53-66)

However, this practice changed when the Conservatives led by Margaret Thatcher won the General Elections in 1979. The new Thatcher Conservative policy sought to replace the failing Welfare State policy by the Neoliberal one in all the aspects of the English life, one of which was education. This was translated into the introduction of neoliberal concepts in the educational debate such as free market, choice and competition. Neo-liberalism was finally introduced in education with the passing of the 1988 Education Act which founded the National Curriculum. (Lawton, 2005, pp.18-70)

3. The National Curriculum and Neoliberalism

According to the 1988 Education Act, the National Curriculum was compulsory and its application common to all the primary schools in England. It was elaborated on a broad subject-basis, with three core subjects and seven foundation subjects. The core subjects included mathematics, English and science, and the foundation subjects comprised history, geography, technology, music and art and physical education. As far as the content of health education and information technology were concerned, they were incorporated in the teaching of the foundation subjects. These subjects were taught through two primary key stages, one from 5 to 7 and the following from 8 to 11. As to Religious Education, the National Curriculum did not consider it as a foundation subject, but it was obligatory for those pupils attending a maintained school. (The Education Act 1988, pp.1-10)

As far as assessment was concerned, the National Curriculum appointed the Task Group on Assessment and Testing (T.G.A.T). Its responsibility was to draft Standard Assessment Tasks (S.A.T.s), or as they were known as National Tests in accordance with the two primary education key stages so as to assess the pupils' individual evolution. According to the National Curriculum, the pupils were forced to take these tests at the end of each stage, and their results were presented through the drafting of reports, which was generally done by the teachers. (The 1988 Education Act, pp.11-13; Thomas, 1990, pp.129-143)

To meet the new requirements of the National Curriculum, Thatcher's Conservative government had also to adapt the training of teachers. As a result, the 1989 Consultation Document proposed new terms of reference for the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (C.A.T.E), and provided it with new criteria. (Lawton, 2005, p.112) This was done with the support of H.M.I, but it was opposed by the Labour Party, and both Houses of Parliament. In fact, it was seen as a statist means to control the teachers' education and training, especially the initial teacher education. (Lawton, 2005, p.112)

However, the intervention of the State in the curriculum through the passing of the 1988 Education Act and the foundation of the National Curriculum did not correspond to the concept of the free market which stipulates that the State does not have to interfere in the regulation of the country's affairs. Moreover, the content of the National Curriculum did not conform to the neoliberal concept of choice. In fact, neoliberalism implies that individuals have the right to choose, which is the opposite of what the National Curriculum stated. It compelled all the primary schools, with their administrators, teachers and pupils, all over the country, to apply the National Curriculum, with its educational stages, its subjects and their content, and its tests. Therefore, the uniformity of the National Curriculum and its application in all the English primary schools did not encourage competition, especially when the creative and innovative

aspect of the teaching profession, and the learning process were removed. (Chitty, 2014, pp.51-54)

Ward and Eden (2009) refer to the existence of this contradiction between the dominating policy of Neo-liberalism of the Thatcher Conservative government (1979-90) and the content of the National Curriculum. They explain this contradiction by considering the foundation of the National Curriculum as a means that the government used in order to reach its neo-liberal objectives. They notably explain that: “the reason for setting up the machinery of a National Curriculum, national testing, school league tables and Ofsted inspection was to allow customers to make their choices. Parents could select on the basis of the schools' test results, positions in league tables and quality of Ofsted reports test results online” (p.21)

Clyde Chitty, in his turn, quotes the passage of one adviser of Margaret Thatcher, Stuart Sexton who minimised the importance of the National Curriculum in the 1988 Education Act. He notably confessed the following:

And it diverted attention away from the really important parts of the legislation. You see the curriculum should be one of the school's selling-points with its own particular consumers...Schools should be able to respond to what they perceive the market is looking for...The National Curriculum undermines what we were trying to achieve. (Chitty, 2014, p.54)

Hence, according to him, the National Curriculum was a distraction rather than the main part of the Act and the Government policy. It was the issue that all the people concerned with education were supposed to concentrate on and to debate about in order to divert them from what was really important and what the government wanted to pass in the 1988 Education Act. (Chitty, 2014, pp.53-54) Naturally, this had repercussions on the world of primary education, especially on the teachers.

4. The Repercussions of the National Curriculum on the Teachers

The teachers complained of overwork and criticised the National Curriculum, in particular, during the period of the Education Secretary, John Mac-Gregor (1989-1990). Their criticism concerned the application of the National Curriculum, and its reliability and validity, and added that it was too detailed, over-prescriptive, managerial and bureaucratic rather than educational and professional. Therefore, they asked for more policy statements and schemes of work to help them plan, teach, learn and assess in their work. (Lawton, 2005, p.104)

During the period of Prime Minister John Major (1990-1997), the National Curriculum began to be gradually overloaded, in particular in the subjects' content and the tests, which hardened the work of the teachers. Furthermore, although the teachers worked hard to apply the National Curriculum and its tests, they came to realise like their pupils, that they were themselves under assessment, and the assessment of the teachers' work was more apparent than that of the pupils. Parallel to this, those teachers, who taught in schools with an important number of pupils having difficulties, were afraid to see their schools to be under classified and to lose public consideration. The teachers were also confronted to the difficulty of supporting and implementing the National Curriculum and its tests, which made them become more and more dissatisfied and call for the abolition of tests. (Chitty, 2014, p.158)

This dissatisfaction and the lack of interest from the part of the government compelled the National Union of Teachers (N.U.T), the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (N.A.S.U.W.T) led by Nigel de Gruchy and the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (A.T.L) to organise the Teachers' Boycott in 1993. For them, these tests represented a lot of work for the teachers and for this, they asked for their simplification. As a result, the Prime Minister and his Government felt desperate. (Chitty, 2014, p.162)

Following the 1993 boycott, a commission was appointed and chaired by the Chancellor of Nottingham University, Sir Ron Dearing. Its task was to investigate into the issue of the National Curriculum and its assessment procedures. The recommendations of the Dearing Review were published one year later, which notably comprised the trimming of the content of lessons and the reduction of the time devoted to teaching to eighty percent, permitting teachers to have at least a day per week for them. The final report was accepted by the Education Secretary Gillian Shephard (1994-1997) who threatened that it was the last offer for the teachers. According to Dearing:

The primary purpose of the review at Key Stages 1, 2 and 3 should be to slim down the National Curriculum; to make the Orders less prescriptive; and to free some 20% of teaching time for use at the discretion of the school. The review should, therefore, be primarily concerned with dividing the content of the present curriculum Orders between a statutory core and optional material for use at the discretion of the school. The slimming down should take place in the context of curricular objectives for each key stage with all Orders being revised together (Dearing, 1994, p.7)

On the whole, the teachers' boycott was a success in the sense that the proposals mentioned above were accepted by teachers, the Conservative government and the Labour Shadow government. (Chitty, 2014, p.162)

5. Conclusion

To conclude, one can say that the National Curriculum did not correspond to the values that Neoliberalism sought to spread given the fact that its main objective was to impose a national uniform curriculum rather than to give choice to schools. For some historians, it was crystal clear that the National Curriculum functioned as a distraction, rather than the main issue of the government policy. However, its impact was negative since it created load of work for the teachers and even the pupils and their parents, which led to opposition and protest, and the demand for reforms.

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USING FILMS AS TEACHING MATERIALS IN THE COURSE OF CIVILIZATION: TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES

Abstract

This paper aims to examine students' and teachers' perceptions of integrating films in the course of civilization as a means to reinforce the course objectives in terms of enhancing students' culture learning and critical thinking at the Department of English of Bejaia University. Two research instruments were used for collecting data: students' questionnaire to enquire about their perceptions and attitudes towards learning civilization with film and teachers' interview to find out whether films have a place in their classes of civilization and their idea on the potential of film to teach civilization. The qualitative and quantitative data obtained reveal all the students and most of the interviewed teachers are in favour of integrating films in cultural instruction. Yet, there appears a mismatch between the students' high interest in learning with multimedia and the traditional materials the instructors use in the classroom.

Keywords: Course of civilization, film, culture learning, critical thinking, foreign language classroom.

1. Introduction

The incorporation of civilization modules mainly American and British civilization in foreign language curriculum at Algerian higher education system aims at contextualizing language learning and enhancing students' culture learning and critical thinking.

Civilization teaching in Algerian universities is generally based on the transmission of factual knowledge about big 'C' culture mainly the history, geography and political institutions of the United States and Britain (Nait Brahim, 2005). As for the materials used by civilization teachers, they are mainly traditional chalk and board, and handouts. However, multimedia technologies are not commonly used for teaching culture while film is generally absent. Resultantly, this approach does not lead to substantial insights into the culture of the target country. Furthermore, it is observed that students demonstrate boredom in civilization classes where the emphasis is on the memorization and regurgitation of dry historical facts.

In fact, this traditional way of teaching civilization does not account for students' attitudes, habits and interests in learning. In the media-dominated culture in which we live, television and the Internet are part of the daily life of Algerian students. The latter belong to the "visual generation" where they get most of their understanding of foreign cultures from visual media and not from books. Besides, by the wide use of the Internet, they are exposed to English-language media mainly to US cultural products like music, videos and TV programmes. So, it is appropriate to bring this material to the classroom. Writing about using technology in education, peck et al. (2007, p.20) state that "as far films are concerned, no explanation and justification is needed at this time of predominantly visual culture, of increasingly visual texts, of the visual generations we encounter at school and everywhere else". Accordingly, teachers should cope with students' needs and make their lessons more interesting and enjoyable because this helps promote language and culture learning.

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Besides its motivating effect on the learners, film is perceived by some foreign language professionals (Mychalkzyk, 1976; Rollet, 1995; Herron et al., 2002; Ingram, 2001; Zoreda, 2006) as an effective means to enhance culture learning in the foreign language classroom. This is due to its rich authentic cultural content and its interpretative aspect which helps build critical thinking.

The present study undertakes to examine students' and teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of integrating films in the course of civilization at the Department of English of Bejaia University. It is expected that the research findings would provide insights into how civilization courses are taught and learned in the Department, and pave the way for the implementation of innovative methods that promote culture learning in Algerian universities.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Advantages of Using Film in the Foreign Language Classroom

Researchers who explored the role of film in the foreign language classroom highlighted its positive effects on the process of language and culture learning. These are summarized in the following points:

2.1.1. Motivating Language Learners

Motivation is considered a crucial factor in determining successful foreign language acquisition (Ellis, 1994). In his speech to the North of England Conference, Sir Christopher Ball (1995, quoted in Chambers, 1999) stated: "There are only three things of importance to successful learning: motivation, motivation and motivation... any fool can teach students who want to learn". Moreover, Briam (2010, p. 386) holds that "enjoyment and motivation to learn about other cultures can go hand in hand". This relationship between motivation and learning implies that in a class of culture studies, the transmission of knowledge alone does not guarantee learning as learners may pay attention or may not, depending on their interests and needs. Thus, teachers should develop effective supporting teaching materials that stimulate learners' motivation to engage in culture learning.

Recent empirical studies highlight the motivating effect of films on language learners. Walsh and Reese (1995) assert that among all the media used in language education, films have proved their potential to attract students' attention. As a matter of fact, this medium can easily gain the interest of students because it can convey information relevant to their world experience. This is reinforced with its storytelling style (Chao, 2013, p. 250), in addition to the effects of image and sound that capture and hold the viewer's attention and interest in ways that words do not. Furthermore, film is an excellent stimulus for discussion and participation in the classroom (Cook et al., 1988).

2.1.2. Film as a Source of Authentic Language and Culture

One of the challenges of teaching English in an EFL context is that English is not taught in the natural setting in which it is used, as is the case with teaching English in Algeria. Since English is not used for communication in everyday life, Algerian EFL learners do not have many opportunities to be exposed to English language and culture outside the classroom as easily as ESL learners. One suggestion to address this drawback in the English classroom is to use authentic materials in print, audio or visual forms to give students the opportunity to use the language in realistic contexts. By watching films, students can listen to native speakers and see how they behave in authentic contexts without leaving the classroom. So, it can be argued that film can, to some extent, substitute for the input that may be difficult for students to receive from the more restricted classroom environment or outside the classroom.

In this context, Champoux (2007) maintains that “inexperienced students will likely benefit from the use of film because of a greater feeling of reality”. This view is shared by Cook and his associates (1988, p. 97) who argue that “with the exception of total immersion in the target culture itself, there is simply no better medium to bring both student and teacher into direct contact with the foreign culture, providing that the videos selected for classroom use are truly representative of (foreign language speaking) cultures and have meaningful cultural contexts”. In the same vein, Kramsch (1991, p. 236; quoted in Harrison, 2009) states that videos promote the teaching of culture “in a multidimensional and authentic way”. Likewise, Mishan (2004, 2016) holds that movies can be considered as authentic materials and they provide the learners with genuine input. We can say that films bring the outside world into the classroom (Tomalin & Stempleski, 2001).

Film provides a full visual context and addresses different senses simultaneously which helps students’ comprehension. When watching a film, students do not only listen to the characters but also watch their movements and behaviour. The non-verbal aspects of communication like facial expressions and gestures support the verbal message and provide a focus of attention for students while they listen (Donalghy). In the meantime, by observing the behaviour of the characters, they learn about the culture.

Additionally, the visual aspects of film foster cultural learning insights. Film gives life to culture by presenting actual people, their customs and products, cities, and countries with outstanding vividness and reality, and this gives film a unique advantage in presenting the culture of a specific period compared with other methods. Phelps (2012) holds that films mustn’t be mistaken for real life, but they lead us back to it, more thoughtful about the people and cultures that we encounter. We can learn about culture by observing the behaviour and attitudes of the fictional characters in film and the factors that influenced and shaped that behaviour and attitudes.

2.1.3. Film as a Means to Enhance Learners’ Critical Thinking

Integrating films in cultural instruction does not merely provide students with socio-cultural information but also encourages them to analyse, evaluate and synthesize this information (Ingram, 2001; Pegram, 2008). It is clear that for cultural analysis, we cannot take mediated texts, like movies, television programs, recorded music, advertisements, etc., which are created for a specific audience, at face value; one has to be conscious of their function as entertainment or propaganda (Corbett, 2003). Yet, this interpretative aspect of cultural products like films is important because it reflects varying viewpoints and attitudes in the target culture and hence avoids presenting culture as a monotonous entity and describing it in a generalized and stereotyped way.

Furthermore, presenting students with different views present in films and other documents on the same issue will result in an improved ability to analyse and draw conclusions (Ingram, 2001). Film can be compared to texts (documents, excerpts) from other disciplines like history, sociology, political science, social anthropology and literature. By comparing the approaches taken in these texts with that of the film and understanding what facts and viewpoints shown and what is left out by the movie, students get a deeper understanding of the target culture and forge critical thinking abilities.

2.2. Research on Using Film to Teach Culture

Review of research on using films in the foreign language classroom reveals that only few studies dealt with using films to teach culture as opposed to the wealth of existing research on integrating films in the language classroom to develop communicative competence (Herron et al., 2002, p. 38; Rollet, 1997, p. 132).

Among the few researchers who explored the role of film in cultural instruction, John Mychalkzik (1976) described a course entitled “Civilization through Film”, which he taught at Boston College in 1976. He argues that the coordination of lecture, reading and film provides an intensive approach to the programme of civilization offering students an exposure to contemporary culture in its creative form (art, literature, and achievements) as well as in its everyday manifestations and leading them to an in-depth understanding of the target culture. At the end of the one semester course, students wrote ‘course critics’ to evaluate their learning experience. Results showed that students’ motivation was stimulated. Furthermore, students learned to avoid ‘generalizations and idealizations’ of other cultures.

Rollet (1995) wrote a book-length study on the role of fiction film in the teaching of French civilization. She views fiction film as part of popular culture which reflects society and shapes the creation of national identity, and as such it is a valuable tool to be used in cultural instruction.

Ingram (2001) described an interdisciplinary approach to teaching civilization at university level. Popular films formed part of a broad range of sources that he used to discuss the theme of ‘modernity and modernization in post-World War II France. He argued that through this approach students are prompted to examine French society from a range of diverse disciplinary perspectives. This enhances their understanding of the particularity of the French society vis-à-vis other societies and former periods in the history of France. Moreover, by working with texts from different disciplines, students are encouraged to examine different perspectives towards the same issue or concept and to “evaluate different kinds of evidence and argument, to synthesize materials when it is possible, and to compare and contrast them when it is not” (2001, p. 1156) and hence help build critical thinking.

Other researchers (Pegram, 2008; Wildner-Basset, 1990; Zoreda, 2006) explored film as a means to facilitate intercultural learning in the foreign language classroom. They concluded that films can be effective for teaching a foreign culture and enhancing intercultural learning.

Chao (2013) used diaries to investigate the perceptions of EFL university students towards an intercultural course that used foreign films as an instructional tool and to study the progress of their intercultural competence. The results obtained from the analysis of the learners’ diaries showed that many participants appreciated the course and that they made a significant progress in developing intercultural skills: motivation, attitudes, knowledge and awareness.

Herron and his associates conducted studies with beginning-level college students of French (1999), and then with elementary level French students (2000). They investigated whether these students learn culture included in a video-based second language course. They further researched the issue in a study with intermediate level students of French (2002). These studies highlight the effects of a curriculum that includes an authentic video component on enhancing foreign language learners’ cultural knowledge and understanding.

All of the above studies show that films can be integrated in civilization courses to motivate learners, enhance their culture learning and build critical thinking and intercultural competence.

3. Methodology

3.1. Aim of the Study

This study was designed to examine students’ and teachers’ perceptions of integrating films in the course of civilization as a means to reinforce the course objectives in terms of enhancing students’ culture learning and critical thinking at the Department of English of Bejaia University.

3.2. Participants

The study used the teachers of civilization and 79 third year students enrolled in the specialty of Foreign Language Literature and Civilization as informants. The choice of 3rd year students was based on two main reasons. First, third year students are believed to have acquired a linguistic competence and cultural knowledge which allows them to understand films in English and assimilate and discuss their content.

The number of the teachers of civilization in the Department was four; three were males and one was female. Three of them hold a magister degree and one hold a Master degree. They all taught American and British civilization with an experience which varies from 2 years to 25 years. Three of them were carrying out a Doctorate research.

3.3. Procedure

In order to examine students and teachers' perception of the effectiveness of films to teach civilization to third year students, a survey method was adopted. Data was collected using two research instruments namely a students' questionnaire and teachers' interview.

3.3.1. Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was designed to get information about the learners' opinions and attitudes towards studying civilization as well as the methods and materials used by their civilization teachers. It also aims to know about their learning preferences and their perception of integrating films in their classes of civilization.

The questionnaire includes 25 items which are divided into 6 sections; each one is intended to elicit a specific set of information. The first section is concerned with students' motivation and attitudes towards the course of civilization. The second section targets their attitudes towards the current methods and materials used for teaching civilization. The third section is about students' learning preferences. The fourth section is about their familiarity with film outside the classroom and their exposition to films in the classroom. Section five focuses on students' interest in studying civilization through films. Finally, the last section asks respondents for open comments and suggestions.

The students filled in the questionnaire in scheduled civilization class time. Since eleven (11) students were absent, the questionnaire was distributed to sixty-eight (68) students. We explained the instructions to the students encouraging them to answer the questions honestly as part of a study and not as a test.

Students' questionnaires resulted mainly in numerical data in addition to qualitative data. Answers to close-ended items were subjected to statistical analysis; the percentages and frequencies of the answers were calculated and presented in tables and graphs. As for the open-ended type questions, they do not lend themselves to statistical analysis and provided more detailed information about students' attitudes and opinions. So they were subjected to qualitative analysis.

3.3.2. Teachers' Interview

Teachers' interview (see Appendix B) includes eighteen questions (18) focused on the teachers' experiences and thoughts about using films in the teaching and learning of civilization with the possibility for further explanations and precisions. They aim to get information about their current practices in teaching this subject and to know whether films are utilized in their classes of civilization. If so, how they use it and the effects it has on students' culture learning. The interview also aims to get the teachers' opinion about the pedagogical value of film as teaching material in cultural instruction.

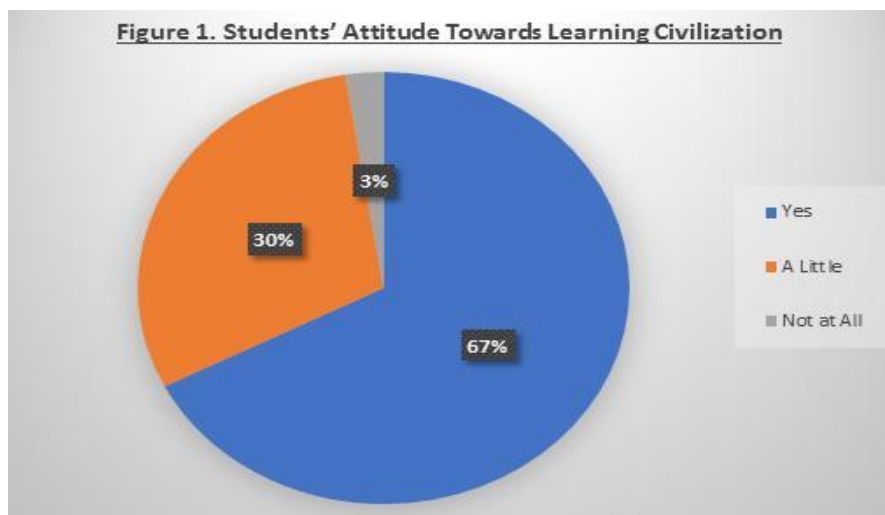
We conducted a face-to-face interview with the teachers. Only one teacher was on a medical leave, so he was interviewed by e-mail. The interviews were carried out in the head of

the department's office. We explained to the participants the purpose of the interview and asked permission to record it. Then, the interviews were transcribed and analysed using content analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

The purpose of this study is to examine students' and teachers' perception of integrating films in the course of civilization as a means to reinforce the course objectives in terms of culture learning and critical thinking. Students' questionnaire and teachers' interview were used to collect the needed data.

The first section of the questionnaire aims to check students' appreciation of the courses of American and British civilization. The data obtained from the respondents' answers reveals that an important number of students appreciate civilization courses. Students' interest in culture leaning suggests the need for research on how best to teach them culture. On the other hand, it is not wise to ignore those who did not show interest in studying civilization. In fact, 30% of the students seemed to be little enjoying these courses and 3% mentioned they do not enjoy them at all (Figure 1).



The interviewed teachers, on their part, acknowledged that many students have negative attitudes towards the study of civilization and find it boring because they consider it as the study of remote history (Question 6). The first teacher commented as follows: *“teaching civilization is not easy... We have first to motivate them... Many students come to the class of civilization with the idea that civilization is boring. So the teacher has to use materials in order to motivate them and to stimulate them”*.

The second teacher opined that only a *“minority of students... are interested”* in studying civilization and that *“unfortunately there are not enough teaching materials in our university which could be used to motivate them”*. Similarly, the third teacher noted that only a minority of the students he teaches are motivated to study civilization. The fourth teacher did not refer to students' motivation and said that he is satisfied with his method of teaching because *“students have a better assessment of the society in question”*.

The data obtained from the questionnaire (Question 1) shows that most students equated studying civilization with studying history (table 1).

Table 1*Students' Opinion about the Reasons of Studying Civilization*

Students' goal in studying civilization	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Understand history, political and social institutions	61	90%
Understand culture and way of life	32	47-5%
Culture differences, cultural awareness	14	20%
Develop positive attitudes	12	17-5%
Develop critical thinking	32	47-5%
Language proficiency	14	20%
Other	7	10%

Additionally, the results displayed in table 2 reflect a strong focus on history in civilization courses.

Table 2.*Students' Identification of the Cultural topics included in civilization courses*

Themes	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
History	68	100%
Political institutions	55	81%
Achievements	15	22 %
Beliefs	25	37 %
Educational system	05	7-5%
Economic system	17	25%
Customs, traditions	22	32-5%
Ethnicity, lifestyles	12	17-5%
Family	7	10%
Body language	None	0%
Media, science, technology	3	4-5%

The strong focus on the historical element in civilization courses is confirmed by the testimony of the teachers' interview; when asked what objectives they set themselves in the course of civilization, all of them emphasized the importance of the transmission of facts about the history of the target country, in addition to the enhancement of cultural understanding and critical thinking.

For the first teacher, the objectives of the course of civilization depend on students' academic level. The objectives for first year students are to give them information about the culture, history and geography of the United States and Britain: "*For 1st year students, the main objective is by the end of the year they grasp certain concepts related to the culture and civilization of the target countries: Britain and the US... to understand some facts about the geography of the two countries, the development of their history*".

At the second-year level, the objectives of the course include, in addition to the transmission of factual knowledge, the development of students' critical thinking through understanding the cause and effect relationships of historical events: *“the objectives are larger and broader than the first year. They should understand the circumstances in which some events happened. They should answer the questions like why and how such events happened that way. They should provide explanations about causes and effects of things”*.

Likewise, the second teacher mentioned the transmission of factual knowledge about Britain as the main objective of the course of British civilization she was teaching: *“we have to transmit to our students some information about British civilization and people in general”*.

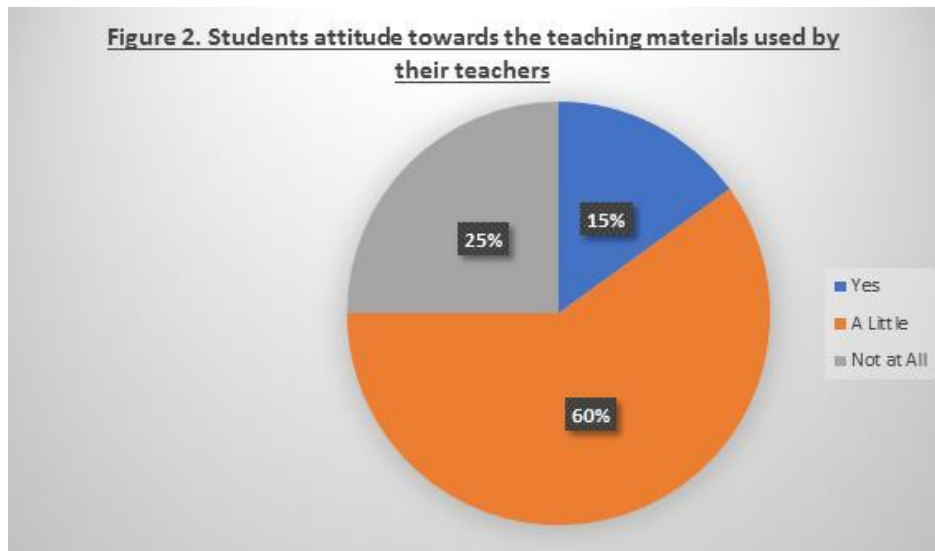
Teachers' emphasis on the transmission of historical facts may partly explain the lack of motivation of learners. In addition to this, the teacher informants seem to introduce culture by themselves through the method of lecturing. It is clear that this method gives students minimum exposure to the target culture and civilization. Resultantly, students do not enjoy the real value of exploring and learning about another culture. This generates a loss of motivation and decreases interest and curiosity to learn about the foreign culture. In the answers given by the interviewees to question five, there was no mention of any supporting document (authentic or not authentic) to their lectures apart from the handouts. Only one teacher said he used educational videos to enhance some lectures. This fact was confirmed by the students' responses when asked in Question five to identify the methods and materials used by their teachers.

Table 3

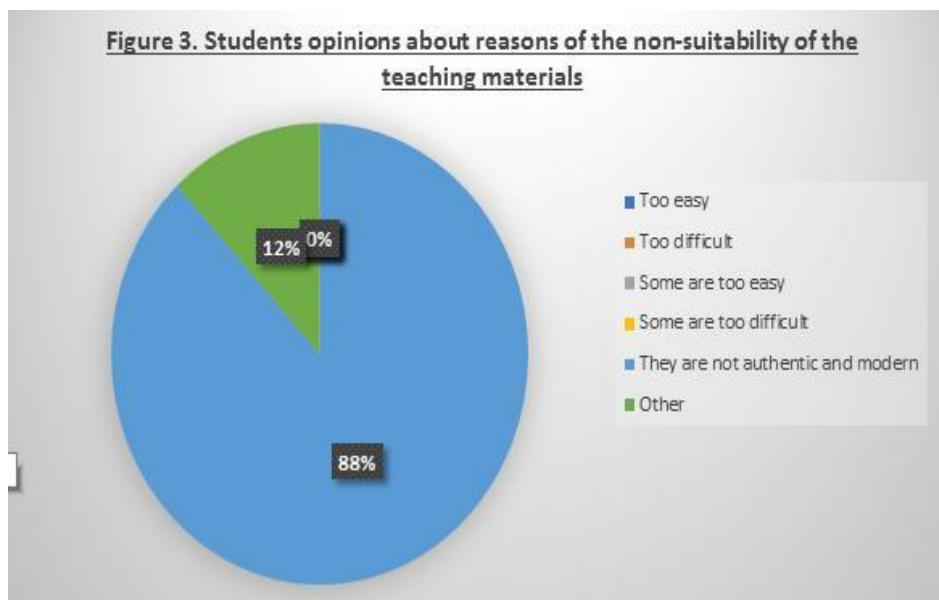
Students' Identification of the Teaching Materials used by their Teachers of Civilization

Teaching material used by teachers of civilization	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Textbooks/ books	05	7-5%
Handouts	68	100%
Chalk and blackboard	44	65%
Newspaper, magazines	None	00%
Literature	None	00%
Visual aids	19	28 %
Audio-visual material	17	25%
Other	04	06 %

One of the findings of the questionnaire is that the methods and the materials used by the teachers of civilization did not suit students' needs and interests: with the exception of 15% of the respondents who considered the teaching materials as efficient, the majority (60%) stated that they are “a little” effective, and the others (25%) mentioned “Not at all”. This is illustrated in Figure 2.



For the reasons behind the non-suitability of the teaching materials, the majority of the informants (88%) pointed out that they are not authentic and modern as shown in Figure 3.



Students' negative attitudes towards the teaching materials used by their teachers indicate the need to introduce new materials that would motivate them and stimulate their curiosity to learn about the target culture. Film seems to be a suitable material to use because nowadays students belong to a generation of the image, and this material seems to provide for many of them more motivation than the blackboard chalk or the teachers' handouts or even the books of history and civilization. This is confirmed by the data obtained from the questionnaire.

The second section of the questionnaire targets students' learning preferences. As presented in table 4, students stated they learn cultural information from different sources mostly from the Internet (75%), film (72-5) and television (67- 5%) programs. Books and the classroom ranked fourth; they were ticked by 62% of the respondents.

Table 4*Sources from which the Students Learn about Culture*

Options	Number	Percentage
Books	42	62 %
Newspapers	12	17-5
Radio	7	10%
Television	46	67-5
Film	49	72-5
Internet	51	75%
Classroom	42	62%

In addition to this, when the students were asked to indicate those teaching materials which arouse their interest to learn about culture, it was found that audio-visual materials like films are the most attractive to them (95%) and auditory materials like cassettes are the least attractive (3%). Visual material like pictures and printed sources like books and teachers handouts come in the middle with 35% and 17-5% respectively. The answers are illustrated in table 5.

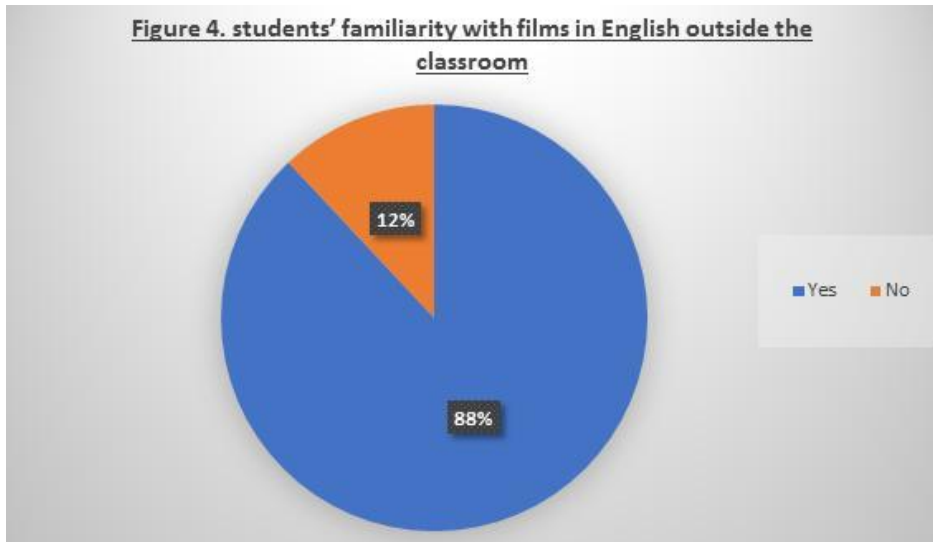
Table 5*Students' Preference of Teaching/Learning Material*

Options	Student' number	Percentage
Visual material like pictures	23	35%
Auditory material like cassettes	2	3%
Audio-visual material like films.	64	95%
printed material like books, teachers' handouts	12	17-5%
Other	5	7-5%

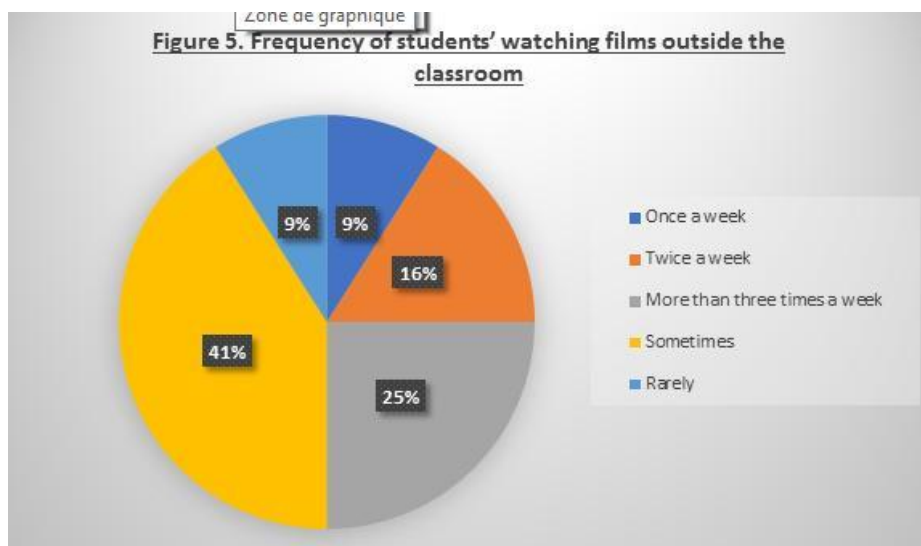
This result was consolidated by the data obtained from the teachers' interview. The first three teachers believe that film suits student's learning style, and it is a medium which motivates them. The following are quotes from the teachers:

- The first teacher: *"students enjoy learning with videos"*.
- The second teacher: *"generally students dislike reading but if you propose to use films they will be interested. I think films motivate the students to learn the language first, then about culture"*.
- The third teacher: *"when you ask students to do research they do not go to books but show Internet to see pictures and videos... When a student is asked to read Pride and Prejudice, he's not going to read Pride and prejudice but to watch the movie, this is good but they don't read"*.

The results of the questionnaire (figure 4) also show that the majority of students are familiar with the film medium: the majority of the participants (88%) mentioned they watched films outside classroom while only (12%) stated "No".



It can be seen from figure 5 that the frequency of students' watching films outside the classroom is as follows: 41% of the students watch films sometimes; 25% more than three times a week, 16% twice a week, 9% students once a week and 9% watch films in English rarely.



Besides, table 7 indicates that when the participants were asked what they learn from films, more than half of them considered that films help them to communicate fluently in English (72%); then, they expose them to traditions and way of life (47) and idiomatic expressions (45%). Exposition to history, political, social, and economic aspects of culture ranks last (27-5).

Table 6*Students' Views on what they Learn from Films*

Students' views on what they learn from films	Number	Percentage
Idiomatic expressions	31	45-5%
How to communicate fluently in English	49	72%
Traditions and way of life	32	47%
History, political, social and economic aspects of culture	19	27-5%

Another key finding of the study is that all the informants (100%) were in favor of studying civilization with films (question 22). The approach of supplementing civilization courses with films was also greeted with considerable enthusiasm by the interviewed teachers; all of them, except one, think that films can enhance students' process of learning.

When asked about film's potential to enhance culture learning, the first teacher argued for the incorporation of films in the cultural studies syllabus: *"of course, I do like educational videos; films become a must and the panel of teachers have to select and agree on a list of movies and they should be used all along the year, they should be integrated in the syllabus. I think the teachers have to see objectives: why they use this movie and not another"*. He added that: *"teaching through videos is good, it is stimulating, motivating"*.

The second teacher answered: *"it's a great idea to teach with films... for example if I teach the plays of Shakespeare, it is really wonderful when you teach the book, the manuscript, and support students with adaptations"*. She further stated that *"to provide students with films you make them into direct contact with the culture; there is no intermediary, as if they lived in the period"*.

She also commented that using films in the class of civilization helps enhance cultural awareness and develop positive attitudes towards the target culture: *"yes, even though you can find that students do not accept some practices in the foreign culture but I think that the teacher should be adviser and sustain them and help them and explain to them that we are different, we have our culture, there are cultures that function differently, so we have to accept them"*. She carried on saying that *"here the film will make them discover, it shows students that there are other cultures and that they have to accept, the film has more advantage than disadvantages"*.

The third teacher believes that film can improve learners' understanding of the lectures. He said: *"yes, I completely agree with you, in addition to ideas you have a picture, for example if you use a movie about the Great Depression they will understand the hard times better"*.

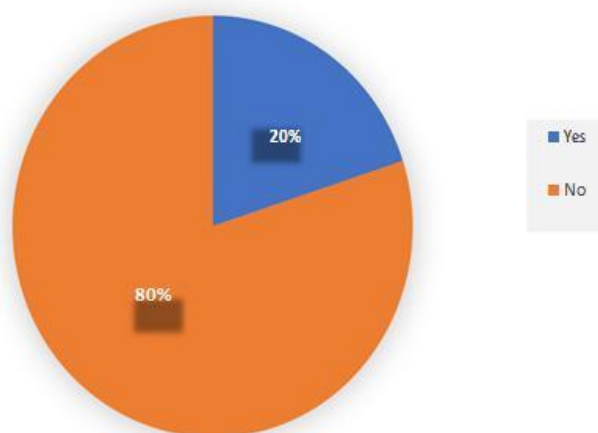
Only one teacher, the one with the longest experience, thinks that films cannot enhance culture learning and that only a lecture based on presentation and discussion can lead to culture understanding. This can be explained by the influence of predominant traditional teaching methods.

Despite the fact that the teachers consider film effective for teaching civilization, this material is almost absent in their courses (Question 7). Only one teacher used once the film *Elizabeth* with the objective of enhancing his students' motivation but not as a pedagogical tool to reach pedagogical objectives. He said: *"few years ago I brought a film of Elizabeth in the Tudor course"*. As far as the effect of films on the learners' understanding of the lectures and the enhancement of their culture learning, he asserted that he doesn't know: *"unfortunately, I didn't give them any material after to see whether the movie was very effective or had any"*

impact on their understanding, the one thing which is clear is that they enjoyed the movie; it was something which enriched the course of civilization”.

This is confirmed by students’ answers to question 19; Figure 6 shows that the majority of them claimed they had no previous experience with film in the class of civilization.

Figure 6. Students’ Exposure to Videos in the Classroom in the First and Second Years



Only two students mentioned they watched a film in the second year without accompanying activities. We deduce from these findings a mismatch between students’ high interest in learning with audiovisuals and the traditional materials the teachers use in the classroom.

Likewise, the data obtained from the teacher’ interview shows that little use of audiovisuals particularly films exists in the department to assist students in culture learning. The two first teachers mentioned the lack of resources as the main obstacle to the use of films in the classroom. They referred notably to the lack of audio-visual materials and the insufficient number of media rooms for the overcrowded classrooms obliging them to work with hand-outs only. The second teacher commented as follows: *“Algerian universities suffer from the lack of means and materials. I would really prefer to use some sophisticated means like films, videos, but unfortunately I hadn’t this chance so I was obliged to rely on traditional material like hand-outs, my own material”.*

Additionally, the lack of knowledge of the methods of teaching culture and of using films in the classroom seem to be another major hindrance for the implementation of films in the Department. This lack of knowledge is due to the kind of training the teachers received in which the methodology of teaching civilization is absent. All the teachers stated that they received no formal training in teaching civilization or in the use of multimedia and audiovisuals as shown in the following quotations:

The first teacher: *“No specific training, but I try to look on Internet. I try to find some YouTube videos or daily motion videos on teaching. I think lot of things can be found on Internet about film studies, I think it is a module which should be enhanced at university especially in our specialty literature and civilization”.*

The second teacher: *“no training, only once in a private school about civic education... but it is not enough, I think teachers need training to make us more suitable for teaching and to make our courses more effective”.*

The third teacher: *“in this interview I’m speaking about my own experience. I followed no training”*.

When the students were asked to give the reasons why film is suitable for studying civilization (question 23), their answers revealed the results shown in table 7: For them the most important advantage of films in the classroom is that they help them remember (60%) and understand better their lectures (50%). A considerable number of them agreed that this medium enriches their knowledge (45-5%), creates motivation (30%) and generates a relaxed classroom atmosphere (22%). Yet, a lesser number of the participants mentioned that films can contribute to foster their mastery of English (17-5%) or develop their critical thinking (17-5%) and only a minority of them believes that films stimulate classroom participation and discussion (10%). These findings indicate that most students consider film as a means of entertainment and exposure to the target language and culture which can enhance their understanding and memorization of their lectures.

Table 7

Reasons why the Students Think Films are Suitable for Studying Civilization

Options	Number	Percentage
generate a relaxed classroom atmosphere	15	22%
create motivation	20	30%
foster mastery of English	12	17-5%
Encourage to discuss and participate in the classroom	7	10%
make remember better	41	60%
Enrich cultural knowledge	31	45-5%
facilitate understanding of civilization lectures	34	50%
Develop critical thinking	12	17-5%
All the above suggestions at the same time	19	27-5%
Other	5	7,5%

Students’ opinion is shared by the third and fourth teacher. To answer question (12) of whether the interpretative aspect of film can be used to enhance learners’ interpretative skills and critical thinking, the first teacher raised the question of film faithfulness; he argued that it is important to use films which are faithful to historical events. He said that *“films are works of fiction and are not generally faithful to the events of history...It depends on the directors, some of them try to be faithful to the events... the more faithful a film, is the better”*. He added that *“films would be of greatest interest if the information is true, because some directors use fancy and imagination, so they provide incorrect information which may be misleading for the students”*.

The second teacher emphasized the importance of the teacher’s guidance since films have a convincing impact on students. For example in *“Macbeth, the film adaptation make you afraid and even dislike women, film can influence negatively the students especially when the students are not mature enough, in general the culture portrayed in films can influence our culture and attract them, they will like to follow it and this may lead to assimilation or may be reject it completely, so the teacher should always guide the students”*.

Even though these teachers agreed that with a good selection and teachers’ guidance, films can help build learners’ interpretative skills, in their overall discussion of the role of film in civilization courses they focused on this medium’s potential to entertain and motivate students and to offer exposure to the target culture.

The second teacher commented that “*films are used for entertainment first*” and second to teach the language and give students exposure to the culture. “*I think that films motivate students to be curious to know how British people lived in a specific time. You entertain them and raise their motivation and curiosity especially when they watch in groups there is a kind of help if somebody does not understand. In addition to this you will incarnate this tradition of watching films*”.

Moreover, the main reason for which the third teacher did not introduce films in his class is his preference for working with printed sources and his idea that films are considered as only entertainment by the majority of students. Moreover, he expressed the view that introducing films in the class of civilization comes at the expense of developing students’ writing and analytical skills. He commented as follows: “*no, I advise students to do that at home so that they develop their imagination and provide interpretation, but in the classroom I prefer something written and discussed.... A film may help and it can change the way a book is interpreted, but still is not that*”.

5- Conclusion

The findings of the study show that all the students and most teachers are in favour of introducing films as teaching materials in the course of civilization. They perceive that films can motivate students and enhance culture learning and understanding. Yet, there appears a mismatch between students’ high interest in learning with multimedia and the traditional materials the instructors use in the classroom. There seems also to be a gap between the teachers’ beliefs and the pedagogical implementation of these beliefs. The lack of adequate teaching material and resources is mentioned by the teachers as the major reason why they do not use films and other media in their classes of civilization. It is also clear from the teachers’ answers that the lack of training in the methodology of teaching civilization as well as the use of audiovisuals in the classroom is another factor which dissuades them from introducing film in the classroom. In addition to this, the use of film in cultural instruction is not a pedagogical approach supported by teachers who may consider this practice as simply providing entertainment to students.

These results highlight the need of reinforcing teachers’ training in the methods and techniques of teaching civilization. Besides, since many teachers do not possess the necessary skills to use multimedia technology effectively, it is equally important to provide them with adequate training in the use of multimedia materials. There is also an ardent need to provide the required technological equipment in Algerian universities and to equip language departments with audio-visual materials, media rooms and computer laboratories, libraries of videos including feature films to make them prepared for the implementation of new and effective methods of teaching and learning.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Students' questionnaire

Dear Students,

I'm undertaking a research in the use of films in the teaching of civilization. I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions. This is not a test, so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you don't have even to write your name on it. I'm interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as this will be of a paramount importance for the fulfilment of my research. Thank you very much for your help. Please put a check mark (X) in the box that is relevant for the answer you select, or write in the space provided.

Age: -Gender.....

Section one: Student's motivation and attitudes towards learning civilization

1 -Why do you think you are learning civilization?

- a- To understand the history and the social and political institutions of British and American people
- b- To understand the culture and way of life of British and American people
- c- To be aware of the difference between your culture and the British and American cultures
- d- To develop tolerance and acceptance of differences between your culture and foreign cultures
- e- To develop your critical thinking about social, political and cultural issues which shape societies
- f- To improve your English proficiency

Other:

.....
2- Do you enjoy learning civilization?

Yes a little not at all

3- If no, why?

- a- The content is difficult to understand
- b- The content is inadequate
- c- The teaching materials are not interesting
- d- The way of teaching is not interesting

Other:

.....
Section 2: Students' attitudes towards current methods and materials used for teaching civilization

4- Which of the following cultural themes you are dealing with in the class of civilization?

- history
- political institutions
- achievements
- beliefs
- educational system
- economy
- family
- customs, traditions
- ethnicity, lifestyles
- body language
- media, science, technology

5- What is the material used by the civilization teacher in the classroom?

- a- books and textbooks
- b- handouts
- c- chalk and blackboard
- d- newspapers, magazines
- e- literature
- f- Visuals (maps, pictures)
- g- audio-visual material (videos, films,)

Others:

.....

6- Do the material used by your civilization teacher good enough for studying civilization

- Yes a little not at all

7-If your answer is (no), is it because:

- a- They are all too easy
- b- They are all too difficult
- c- Some of them are too easy
- d- Some of them are too difficult
- e- They are not authentic and modern

Others:

.....

8- Do the methods used by your civilization teacher satisfy your actual needs?

- a- Yes, thoroughly.
- b- Yes, partly.
- c- Not at all.

9- What role do you take in the civilization class?

- a- Active participant who discusses and expresses his opinion
- b- Passive participant who just receives knowledge

Section 3: students' learning preferences:

10-Apart from the lectures of British and American civilization at university, from where do you get information about these cultures?

- a- books
- b- newspapers
- c- radio
- d- television
- e- film
- f- internet
- g- classroom

Other:

.....

11- What type of material is likely to arouse your eagerness to learn about British and American civilization?

- a- Visual material like pictures, maps
 - b- Auditory material like cassettes
 - c- Audio-visual material like films, documentaries.
 - d- Printed material like books, teachers' hand-outs
- Others:

.....

12- Do you prefer to study civilization?

- a. Individually
- b. In pair
- c. In group

Section 4: Students' experience with film

13- Do you watch films in English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

14- If your answer is (Yes), how often do you watch them?

- a- Once a week
- b- Twice a week
- c- More than three times a week
- d- Sometimes
- e- Rarely

15- How much do you manage to understand the language of English films?

- a- Thoroughly
- b- Partly
- c- Not at all

16- Do you read subtitles in captioned English films?

- a- Yes
- b- No

17- If your answer is (Yes), is it because:

- a- The language of the English films is difficult for you to understand
- b- Your attention is unconsciously directed to the subtitles
- c- Both suggestions at the same time

18 -What do you learn best from film?

- a- Idiomatic expressions
- b- How to communicate fluently in English
- c- Traditions and way of life
- d- History, political, social and economic aspects of culture

19- Did you watch videos (films, documentaries, cartoons) in your classes in the first and second year?

- a- Yes
- b- No

20- If yes, in which classes?

.....

21- Were these videos accompanied with activities?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Section 5: students' interest in studying civilization with film

22- Do you think that using films is a good way to study civilization and culture?

- a- Yes
- b- No

23-If your answer is (Yes), is it because

- a- They generate a relaxed classroom atmosphere
- b- They create motivation
- c- They foster your mastery of English
- d- They encourage you to discuss and participate in the classroom
- e- They make you remember better
- f- They enrich your cultural knowledge
- g- They facilitate your understanding of the lecture of civilization
- h- They develop your critical thinking
- i- All the above suggestions at the same time

Other:

.....

24-If your answer is (No), please specify why?

.....

Section 6: further suggestions

25- Do you have any further comment or suggestions to add about the use of film in the course of civilization?

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Appendix B : Teachers' Interview

1. How long have you been teaching civilization?
2. What are the main objectives which you set for yourself in your course of civilization?
3. Do you emphasise on cultural aspects in teaching civilisation or do you only focus on historical facts or both? Why? Why Not?
4. What teaching methods or techniques do you use to attain your objectives in your class of civilization?
5. What are the materials/resources you usually use in your class?
6. Do you feel that your students enjoy learning civilization?
7. In many western universities, films are used in teaching culture and civilization. Have you ever opted for films to supplement your course of civilization?
If yes, what effects did the use of film have on your student's motivation?
8. And what effect it had on their culture learning?
9. Do you think that films are suitable teaching materials for your students?
10. Do you think that films, as cultural products and audio-visual media, can enhance culture learning?
11. Knowing that films do not reflect real events but are only an interpretation of them, do you think that films suits civilization teaching?
12. Do you think that the interpretative aspect of film can be used to enhance students' interpretative skills and critical thinking ?
13. From our discussion on the advantages and challenges of using films, do you agree that films are cultural documents that are worth to be included in the civilization course syllabus?
14. Could you suggest a method for using films to supplement the course of civilization?
15. Did you follow any particular training to improve your teaching methods? If your answer is 'yes', would you please specify some improvements that you have achieved so far through this training?
16. What is the last film you have watched?
17. Any further comment?

Thank you!