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The Role Of School In Gender Socialization

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Abstract

The family and the school are the two main pillars that influence the child during the process of growth, but also play a major role in the socialization of gender roles in the way they organize the environment for the child. The development of gender roles begins at birth. The children are exposed to many factors that influence their attitudes and behavior with regard to gender roles. These attitudes and behaviors are usually taught at home and then reinforced by the peers of the child and the school experience. In everyday life we tend to believe that boys are more favored in school since they are seen as "strong", in fact the discrimination exists but it is a discrimination to the detriment of boys. Boys compared with girls have a higher tendence to be class repeaters, also they have a higher tendency to drop out of school. In some cultures, school attendance by boys is limited because of gender role expectations. Because they are "strong" they need to work to bring revenues in the family. The school remains one of the social institutions that can and should build a deliberate gender education and a proper socialization to the benefit of society. The gender education should play an important role in the educational system.

Keywords: Gender discrimination, gender role, gender education, gender socialization

Introduction

The process of socialization is a very important process for both the individual and for the society. For centuries people tried to give answers to the question, whether what defines human beings are natural features (inherited) or social features (formed through contacts with other people and through the collaboration with them).

Are we individuals created by nature or individuals created by society?

For this, were studied identical twins, also have been conducted other studies with children, who are grown isolated from people. If two identical twins grow far apart then their development is completely different. Isolated

children, whose formation was enabled only by the language, they have no experience with other people and can not understand the relationships between people.

So, what makes each of us human is society.

In fact, women as well as men, act and think in the context of images that have created about what is masculine and feminine, always connected with culture.

The interplanetary theory of gender tells us that boys and girls are fundamentally and categorically different, that boys excel in science and math, play violently in the playground, and shout out in class; that girls, on the other hand, sit quietly, speak softly, play gingerly, and excel in foreing languages and literature. At the same time, of course, we sit in the same classroom, read the same books, listen to the same teachers, and are supposedly graded by the same criteria.

Our gender experiences begin before we go to school. At the moment when we begin the first class, we learn more than the alphabet, learn more than syllables, more than mathematics and literature. We learn something more, what it means to be a man or a woman.

The process of gender socialization in schools

The main question raised in this article is what is socialization?

The process through which people learn and acquire the characteristics of the social group to which they belong is called socialization. The socialization of individuals enables the preservation and sustainability of the characteristics, values and social norms because these are taught and transmitted from one generation to another. The American sociologist Peter Berger wrote: what happens during the socialization is that the social world is internalized on the child. The society does not only control our movements but also provides our identity, thoughts and emotions.

The gender equality is a value of socialization. The gender socialization begins before the child come to life. With gender socialization we understand the processes through which individuals, based on their sex learn to behave, feel, think according to the forms that in the social aspect are appropriate for their sex that they see the world in the light of gender differences, where every individual, female or male is placed and set objects and beings that surround him, within a social and symbolic hierarchy between men and women, between masculinity and femininity.

The school is a very important institution that influences the child's socialization. In school except the curricula, the students learn also that executives are more men and the women are in lower positions. In general, teachers do not behave the same with girls and with boys. They expect from

girls to be more polite, while the boys are expected to be more oblivious. In addition, teachers attribute to the girls the progress of their efforts while they attribute to the boys the intellectual capacity and talent, even in case of failure they think that boys have not exploited their intellectual capacity.

In the primary school, the boys are four times more likely to be sent to child psychologists and more likely to be diagnosed with dyslexia and attention deficit disorder (ADD) than girls. Starting in primary school and continuing throughout their schooling, boys take fewer notes and graduations; they are more likely to repeat a grade. Boys are nine times more likely than girls to be diagnosed as hyperactive; boys represent 58 percent of those who attend classes for special education. Nearly three quarters of all school suspensions are boy's suspensions. In adolescence, boys are more likely to drop out, to repeat class and misbehave in class. Their self-esteem also falls during adolescence - admittedly, not so much as the self-esteem of girls, but it falls.

These data are often used to suggest that boys, not girls, are victims of a significant gender discrimination in schools. After all, what happens to boys in schools? They must sit in silence, slumber, raise their hands, be convinced - all these are a tremendous violation for their "natural" liveliness, inspired by testosterone, insubordinate. "Schools in most of the cases are led by women for girls. To take a second or third grade boy with free spirit and to expect him to behave like a school girl is asking too much," comments Christina Hoff Sommers, author of *Fight against boys*. The effect of education is "pathological boyhood." "On average, boys were physically less peaceful and more impulsive (than girls)," says school consultant Michael Thompson. "We need to accept the physical needs of boys and to meet them." The class, as the workplace is an institution of the public sphere and when women enter the public sphere, they often have to dress and act "masculine" in order to be taken seriously as competent and capable. A recent advertising campaign for children's clothes Polo by Ralph Lauren took pictures of little girls, aged five or six years, with T-shirts, sports jackets and Oxford ties without buttons. Who is being feminized and who is being masculinised? As we have seen, there is little evidence that boys' aggression is biologically based. Rather, it is understood that the negative consequences of the aggression of boys are mainly a social bioproduct of the exaggeration of healthy and pleasurable, strong and messy games. And it is exaggerated by boys so that they can adapt better to the other guys, they agree perfectly with the expectations of their peers. Rather than glorify "the boys culture", we can ask instead about the experience when boys cease to be boys and boys begin to stand and show their masculinity in the assessing eyes of other boys. At that moment we can find a psychological "disconnect" equivalent to that observed by Carol Gilligan with young girls. Gilligan and her colleagues

described the way the safe, convinced and proud young girls "lose their voices" when they reach adolescence.

The first fully developed confrontation of gender inequality produces the gender gap that increases in adolescence. On the other hand, the boys become more confident, even beyond their capabilities, as girls grow less secure. Gender inequality means that when girls lose their voice, the boys find one - but it is an unauthentic voice of rejoicing, constant posing, the ridiculous undertaking of risk and unnecessary violence.

The society expects the boys to be with power and in this way to begin to behave like this because they are aware of the expectations of society. Although the girl's voices are helpless, boy's voices are raspy and full of bounce. But their voices are disconnected from their true feelings, how we educate boys, makes them wear the "Masculinity Mask", a pose, a facade. They "wrinkle" in a manly attitude. The girls "lose their voice" means that girls are more likely to underestimate their abilities, especially in traditionally "masculine" educational areas like math and science and traditionally "masculine" fields of employment such as medicine, military or architecture. Only the most capable and confident woman take these courses or follows these career path. Therefore their number tends to be small and their grades high. The boys, however, possessing the voice of false bounce (and very strong family pressure to enter in traditionally masculine fields), are more likely to overestimate their abilities, to stay in the program even though they are less qualified and able to succeed. In a recent study, the sociologist Shelley Correll compared thousands of eighth graders in similar academic path with identical grades and test scores. Boys were more likely to remember, their scores and grades were identical - to say, "I was always good in math" and "Mathematics is one of my best subjects" compared with girls. The boys were not better than girls - they just thought they were.

This difference and not an alleged discrimination against boys is why the average test scores of girls in mathematics and science are now, on average, close to those of boys. Many boys who overestimate their skills stay in mathematics and science courses longer than necessary; this reduces the average results of the boys. In contrast, few girls, the skills and self-esteem of which are sufficient to enable them to "enter without permission" in a masculine field, upward female data.

It is not the school experience what "feminize" boys, but more the ideology of traditional masculinity that prevents boys from the desire to succeed.

And the efforts to make the class more secure and more welcoming for girls have also contributed in favor of boys. The main problems identified by the high school teachers were initially (in order): speaking without queue, gum, doing noise, running in the hall, the separation of the row, the violation

of the dress code and waste disposal. After 1990, the main disciplinary problems were (again, in order), drug use, alcohol use, pregnancy, suicide, rape, robbery and assault. The challenging stereotypes, the decline in tolerance for school violence and bullying decline make the boys and girls to feel safe in school. They simply raise their hands in resignation and sigh that "boys will be boys" will believe that nothing can or should be done to make those classes safer. To my mind, those four words, "boys will be boys" may be the most depressing words in the education policy circles today.

"The Battle of genders" is not a zero-sum game - whether played in our schools, our jobs or in our homes. Women and men, girls and boys will benefit from true gender equality in schools. Gender equality in schools is a benefit for the whole society.

The school environment influences the gender differentiation through two sources: teachers and peers. Teachers have a direct impact on the gender difference in the way how they differ boys and girls in the process of opportunities offered to them and the way of evaluation. Teachers use the curriculum that uses gender stereotypes behaviours and peers manifest this behavior and attitude of gender stereotypes. The children internalize gender stereotypes and turn them in preference and common attitudes.

Teachers contribute to the development of gender stereotypes. Often teachers during teaching in class perform stereotypical gender behavior. Women teachers can exhibit behaviors about phobia for mathematics. Teachers have often different expectations for male and female students. Teachers facilitate children's gender biases by marking gender as important by using it to label and organize students.

Peers affect the socialization of gender differences in different ways. At the moment when the child begins school, he meets with many of his peers, many of whom behave according to traditional gender roles thus re-enforcing gender stereotypes. Peers also use punitive verbal and non-verbal behaviors against those students who did not meet the expectations of gender roles, for example, long hair are for girls and not for boys. While "bad girls" are considered those who do not apply behaviours pursuant to the expectations of teachers. Girls are more open to new ideas, boys are closer. Girls are more controlled while boys are out of control and reckless.

In many countries, teachers still continue to use sexist language when communicating with students.

The continuous findings have shown that boys have more opportunities to interact with teachers, dominate the various activities that take place in school and have more attention than girls when criticized or assisted. The discipline in the classroom is almost a silent practice that reflects the attitudes of the teachers where traditional values about femininity and masculinity are reinforced.

In general, teachers believe they do not take into account the gender of the students when they explain and announce that they see students as children, they do not see them as boys or girls. However, in practice, teachers use some behaviors that favor boys and some behaviors that favor girls. Teachers give assignments to reinforce gender expectations in children. Teachers continue to see girls as successful only trying hard while the boys as naturally smart.

Although most teachers believe they give equal treatment to girls and boys in the support of their learning, focus group interviews with students and classroom observations of teacher-student interactions showed a balanced treatment is rarely achieved. Boys dominated certain classroom interactions while girls participated more in teacher-student interactions that supported learning. Boys felt they received more negative attention from teachers; indeed, they were reprimanded more and asked fewer questions to solicit their teachers' help. Girls asked more academic questions, focusing on understanding of subject knowledge, content, and concepts.

Conlusion

- The school is the second institution, after the family that influences the process of socialization.
- In the process of socialization in schools teachers and peers have an influence.
- Teachers have stereotype behaviours regarding the attitudes towards both sexes.
- Assessments of teachers for the duties of girls and boys differ, boys are valued for skills, intellectual levels while girls for the form and presentation.
- The teachers connect the progress of girls with their great efforts, while the progress of boys with the fact that they are naturally smarter.
- In case of failure for boys they think that they have not used the maximum of intellectual skills that they possess.
- Girls are expected to be polite while boys to be oblivious.
- The school and teachers are institutions that can and should govern and possess the gender education to all meanings.
- It is important to look at all school curricula and to be prioritized the gender education.
- In our country, the female students constitute the largest number of students in social sciences, incentive policies should be taken to change this ratio.
- Schools can magnify or diminish gender differences by providing environments that promote within-gender similarity and between-gender

differences, or the inverse (within-gender variability and between group similarity)

• Unfortunately, teachers receive relatively little training in recognizing and combating gender stereotypes and prejudices, these trainings are very important

• Parents should seek educational settings for their students that are gender integrated and that make use of curricula that directly teach about, and challenge, gender bias and inequality.

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Attitudes Towards Science: a case study of the students at the Second Chance School, Domokos prison, Greece

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Abstract

This paper researches the attitudes of the inmates attending the Second Chance School, Domokos prison in Greece, towards the Sciences with the help of the research scale, Attitudes Towards Science (ATS). The research took place from 3rd to 6th February 2014. Thirty eight inmate students, from different countries, aged 21 to 45 who were enrolled in the 1st and 2nd year of the Second Chance School were the subject of the study, the results of which revealed positive attitudes towards science.

Keywords: Adult education, prison education, scientific literacy, second chance school

Introduction

Second Chance Schools (SCSs) are aimed at people who have reached the age of 18 and have not completed the nine-year compulsory education. SCS certificate is provided after successfully in completing two-years of study. The purpose of SCSs is to be able to offer training to people who, for various reasons, left education so they can gain confidence (European Commission - White Paper, 1996). The SCS belonging to a European project that aims to combat social exclusion. The Adult learners that attend SCSs are educated to be literate in different subjects one of which is to be scientifically literate.

Education in prison

The belief that incarceration should not only serve to purpose of isolation of dangerous people from society but also should have a role in educating both social and moral order to help reintegrate these people into society, began in the 19th century. That is, it should have a more humanitarian purpose in order to give the opportunity for prisoners to be rehabilitated and reformed. The penalty of imprisonment is often not enough

to prevent a future recurrence, so the time spent in prison should be used as constructively as possible for the best possible outcome in addressing factors that affect the chances of recidivism in delinquency. Education is a key factor that helps to combat social exclusion by providing the opportunity for students in prison to change their personal attitudes and perceptions and even to acquire skills and knowledge. Moreover in accordance with international conventions (United Nations, 1948), access to education is a right of every human being and therefore the inmates have the same right to education. Article 14 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union states that every person has the right to education and access to vocational and continuing training. Also in 1990 the Recommendation on Education in Prisons adopted by the Council of Europe and the education of inmates in EU countries, specifically referred to in Article 28 that ensuring access of prisoners to education and training is the duty of every correctional facility services and politicians will have to guarantee this right (Council of Europe, 1990).

Important studies (Nuttall, Hollmen & Staley, 2003) demonstrate the effectiveness of education in prison aimed at reducing delinquency. According to Linton (2004) approximately 60% of former prisoners in the USA end up back in prison, while other research suggests that the rate of recidivism for inmates educated in the USA ranges from 15% -30% (Slater, 1995). Chappel (2002) concludes that the higher the level of education of the inmates the smaller the chance of them reoffending.

Profile of the inmate learners

Though the prison population is heterogeneous, surveys show that there are common characteristics among prisoners (Visher and Travis, 2003), and are as follows:

• Prisoners generally have low levels of education. Research shows that 53% of prisoners are illiterate in Ireland (Morgan and Kett, 2003).

• A high percentage of prisoners have not completed compulsory education because of negative past educational experiences. Research in the Netherlands showed that 27% of people leaving education of an early age were suspected of crimes compared with 7% of those who completed compulsory education. (Ministry of Education, Netherlands, 2010).

• Many of the prisoners have learning difficulties (Moeller, Day & Rivera, 2004).

• Many prisoners come from dysfunctional families of which a member is or was in prison (Johnson & Waldfogel, 2004).

• Lack of stable employment in the past or poor working conditions (Austin & Hardyman, 2004).

- A high proportion of prisoners have a history of substance abuse (Pelissier, 2004).
- Many of the prisoners have mental health problems (Blaauw, Ronald & Kerkhof, 2000).
- They have reduced confidence and strong feelings of failure and anxiety (Winters, 1997).

The concept of scientific literacy

The term science in England historically refers to the physical sciences and by extension, the term scientific literacy refers to the physical sciences too. But in recent years this term includes the words 'technology' and 'mathematics', as applications in the physical sciences. American researchers use the term 'scientific literacy' but in England the term 'public understanding of science' is used (Laugksch, 2000).

It is interesting to see the different views that exist on this term. According to Gallagher & Harsch (1997) this term is over forty years old, but with different definitions over the years. It first appeared as a term in 1958 by Paul DeHart Hurd in his article entitled Science Literacy: Its Meaning for American Schools (Laugksch, 2000). The Hurd used the term to describe society's understanding of both the sciences and its applications. According to Durant (1993) scientific literacy refers to the general knowledge a person has about science and understanding of scientific ideas. Norris & Philips (2003) argue that the term has been used to include some knowledge, abilities and skills a person should have in order to be able to:

- distinguish science from non-science
- understand scientific applications
- think in a scientific way
- use the scientific method to solve problems
- recognize the benefits and risks of science
- recognize the nature of science and its relationship with culture.
- think critically in science

It is difficult to give a specific definition of scientific literacy, as well as being difficult to separate it from technological literacy, which connects science and technology in everyday life. According to Unesco (1993) someone who is scientifically and technologically literate can function in society as a whole rather than as a scientist in a scientific workplace. According to Durant (1993) scientific literacy is what the general public need to know about science, while Millar (1997) argues that to be a functional citizen in society one should be scientifically literate, but Laugksch (2000) considers that the term scientific literacy refers to the knowledge someone needs to have of science to appreciate the purpose of science and understand basic scientific ideas. Hazen (2002) considers that

scientific literacy is a mixture of concepts, history and philosophy that helps us to understand the scientific issues of our time. Rychen & Salganik (2003) argue that scientific literacy is necessary for the development of skills in the rapidly growing technological era we live. Klein (2006) believes that scientific literacy refers to the ability one has to have to be able to read scientific articles.

Therefore, it is clear that there are many definitions of scientific literacy. According to Shamos (1995) there are three basic categories of definitions. The first refers to a mixture of scientific knowledge and concepts with elements of history and philosophy someone should have so as to be able to read scientific articles and follow scientific discussions, and is known as cultural scientific literacy. The second category known as functional scientific literacy refers not only to knowledge of scientific concepts someone should have, as required by the previous category, but also the ability one should have to be able actively communicate with others scientifically. Finally, the third category, true scientific literacy goes beyond the knowledge of the previous two categories and includes the knowledge and the ability someone should have in order to be able to formulate scientific questions and develop inductive and productive thinking also knowing fundamental scientific theories. The latter, true scientific literacy, is the most difficult to achieve.

Research methodology

Our research was conducted on adult male learners at SCS Domokos prison who are enrolled in year 1 and 2 of secondary school. In our sample, the ages of students range from 22-44 and country of origin varies students being from countries in Europe, Africa and Asia. To research the attitudes of learners of SCS Domokos prison towards Science the Attitudes Toward Science Scale (ATS) of Francis & Greer (1999) was chosen. Specifically ATS contains 20 statements based on a 4-point Likert scale (strongly disagree=1 - disagree = 2 - agree=3 - strongly agree = 4). According to Francis & Greer (1999) these 20 statements were selected from a total of 62 questions related to the physical sciences, which are both behavioural and constructive in nature. One of the statements was not included in our research because it is not appropriate for our sample, namely number 18 which was in the original questionnaire and says "I'd seriously consider becoming a scientist when I finish school '. Therefore our ATS questionnaire has a total of 19 statements. Note here also that statements 5 and 17 in the original questionnaire mentioned the USA and specifically stated as "Science is very important to the future of the United States" and "the United States needs to have many more scientists', respectively. For the needs of our research we generalized those statements by rephrasing them as "Science is

very important to the future of a country" and "Every country needs to have many more scientists', respectively. The reason why we generalized these two statements is that the population of our sample comes from different countries.

Conducting the research

The final distribution of the questionnaire was preceded by a pilot questionnaire of six students at SCS Domokos prison, 3 from first year level and 3 from the second. The selection of these learners was made randomly and the pilot questionnaire was distributed by the researcher. Then after correcting errors in the questionnaire, it took its final form and was distributed to learners by the researcher from February 3, 2014 to February 6, 2014. A total of 40 questionnaires were given out by the investigator 38 of which were completed.

Issues of ethics

The research complied with ethical requirements, any information that needed to be used for reporting and the preparation of this work is referred to both in the research paper and the bibliography. The students took part in this research at their own will, none of them was forced to participate, and all of them had been previously informed by the researcher about the study and its objectives. The questions were such so as not to offend the participants and not lead to a decrease in self-esteem. Also there was no attempt to change their attitudes towards science. The study was conducted in such a manner so as not to create stress and / or fatigue to the participants. All students who took part in the study received the same treatment and the same respect from the researcher and participation was anonymous.

Results and Discussion

The demographics of the questionnaire showed that of the 38 people who completed the questionnaire, 11 are aged 21-24, 15 are aged 26-30, 7 are from 31-35 years old, 4 are from 36-40 years old, while 1 person is 44 years old. 17 of these students are enrolled in the 1st year and the remaining 21 in the 2nd year of secondary school.

In the first statement which says that if science has ruined the environment, 3 people strongly disagreed, 14 disagreed while 11 and 10 agreed and strongly agreed respectively. We observe that most consider science responsible for destroying the environment. The next statement of the questionnaire, states that science is taught in school is fun and interesting, 17 said that they agreed and 21 strongly agreed. This result is interesting because all respondents seem to find this literacy interesting.

Concerning the statement whether science is relevant to everyday life we see that the majority replied positively, namely 14 said that they strongly agreed and 21 agreed while only 3 disagreed. The majority of respondents agreed the statement about whether science is very important to the future of a country. More specifically, 14 strongly agreed, 23 agreed and only 1 disagreed.

The results of the sentence stating that science is a difficult subject to learn as of interest as here the majority of respondents agreed. More specifically, 16 strongly agreed, 17 agreed while 4 disagreed and 1 strongly disagreed. Regarding statement whether money spent on science is well worth spending, 10 respondents strongly agreed, 20 agreed and 8 disagreed. We observe that most of them express a positive view on the subject. As for the statement whether science will help to make the world a better place in the future, most respondents answered positively, namely 11 strongly agreed, 21 agreed, 5 disagreed and 1 strongly disagreed. The results of the statement referring to whether science discoveries do more harm than good, showed that the percentage who responded positively are about the same as those who replied negatively (Figure 1).
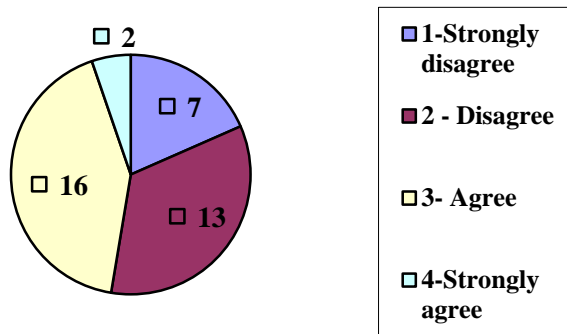

Fig.1: Science discoveries do more harm than good.

The answers to the statement referring to whether science and technology are the cause of many of the world's problems are of interesting. Most students agreed with this statement. Specifically 12 strongly agreed, 18 agreed and only 5 disagreed and 3 totally disagreed. 18 strongly agreed, 16 agreed and only 4 disagreed with the statement that each country needs to have many more scientists. Students responses here shows that the majority feel every country needs scientists and science in contrast with their response to the previous which showed they believe that science is the cause of many world problems.

Conclusion

The results show that the students of SCS Domokos prison appear, on the whole, to find scientific literacy taught in school enjoyable and interesting. This result agrees with other studies conducted in schools in various countries, such as those by Beaton, Mullis, Gonzalez, Smith, & Kelley (1996) where 78% of students in England, 93% in Iran, 92% in Singapore, 90% in Thailand, 89% in Kuwait said they like science. A survey conducted in 2006 in New Zealand, showed similar results where 71% of students agreed that they like learning about science (OECD, 2007). Research conducted by the Institute of Electrical Engineers (The Research Business, 1994) in England showed that 68% of students felt that science is helpful while 58% that it is interesting.

92% of the students at SCS Domokos prison agreed with the proposal that science is relevant to everyday life. Here we observe that this result is consistent with similar studies conducted in several countries, such as in research conducted in England in 1994, in which 87% of students said that science is important in everyday life (The Research Business, 1994), while a survey in Japan in 1995 (Prime Minister's Office, 1995) showed 91% of respondents believe that science is important in everyday life. Another survey conducted in England in 2011 shows that 82% of respondents believe that science plays a very important role in our lives (Ipsos Mori's Social Research Institute, 2011).

87% of learners in SCS Domokos prison agreed that employment in a science lab would be an interesting job. This result coincides with that of the research done in England in 2011 (Ipsos Mori's Social Research Institute, 2011) which showed that 68% agreed that a science related job would be very interesting. In the questionnaire statement stating that science is a difficult subject to learn, 86% of our survey respondents agreed. Research conducted in England in 2010 revealed similar results, where only 3% of students agreed that science is an easy subject (Opinion panel, 2010).

The results about whether the money spent on science is worth spending are of interest. 79% of respondents in our survey agreed that this money is worth spending. Similar results emerged from research done in England, where 76% agreed that such investment should be made even if the benefits are not immediate (Ipsos Mori's Social Research Institute, 2011). In our research 52% disagreed with the suggestion that the discoveries of science do more harm than good, while the remaining 48% agreed. Here we observe that there is an almost equal distribution between positive and negative views. In this statement our research agrees with the results of other studies, such as these carried out in England (Ipsos Mori's Social Research Institute, 2011) in which 54% of respondents agreed that the good effects outweigh the bad, which differs slightly with a corresponding survey

conducted in Japan (The National Institute of Science and Technology Policy, 2001) which showed that 64% believed that the positive effects of science outweigh the negative.

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Reading Engagement Opportunities Of Education Students

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Abstract
        Reading is life. If 80% of man's activity involves reading, (Villamin 1994) then students be made conscious on what type and how the reading materials be chosen for personal and academic purpose. This study which utilized the descriptive-normative survey method aimed to find out the reading preferences and their effects to reading performance of the first year students in both Bachelor of Secondary and Bachelor of Elementary Education programs of Cebu Normal University. These were treated using the simple percentage and ranking with the Minitab software. Using the ranking, findings revealed that most of the students in the Bachelor in Elementary Education highly preferred the dictionary. This is followed by the newspapers, magazines, short stories, etc. On the other hand, the students in the Bachelor in Secondary Education students highly preferred the encyclopedia. This is followed by the magazines, short stories, textbooks, etc. Moreover, it is noted that there is no relationship between the students' reading preferences and their performance in reading. It means that their reading preferences do not have bearing nor effect on their reading performance.   It is therefore concluded that reading is a personal responsibility. It is a matter of how one comprehends, analyzes, applies and creates new ideas from the written texts regardless of their preferences that leads them to develop critical thinking needed for them to function effectively in the society.

Keywords: Reading, Reading preferences, engagement and performance, descriptive normative survey, Cebu Normal University, Philippines

Introduction
        Reading is life. It is a basic tool for learning across areas of discipline. Villamin et al (1998) said that 80% of the person's activity

involves reading. We read recipes in cookbooks, instructions on how to do things, literature in medicine, menus in the restaurants, street signs and advertisements and many other printed forms in notices and announcements. It is a complex process whereby skills involve cognitive reasoning process associated with constructing meaning from text. Flavel (1987) said it is a general knowledge that guides the readers in monitoring their comprehension processes by selecting specific strategies to achieve goals. Different kinds of information require different kinds of processing and place different demands on the learner.

This note ushered to the valuable importance of a classroom teacher to observe each student in a variety of situations. This will allow him/her to draw conclusion about student performance relative to their individual strategies in reading as well as their reading preferences.

Daily family routines are central to all aspects of child development, yet little is known about the relationship between these family matters and specific aspects of children's literacy development, such as motivation to read (Arzubiaga, Rueda, & Monzó, 2002). Motivation to read can be defined as the likelihood of engaging in reading or choosing to read (Gambrell, 2009, 2011). In the same study he added that motivation to read and reading achievement are higher when the classroom environment is rich in reading materials and includes books from an array of genres and text types, magazines, the Internet, resource materials, and real-life documents (Allington & McGillFranzen, 1993; Guthrie et al., 2007; Kim, 2004; Neuman & Celano, 2001).

What is preference without substance and what is substance without cultivating it? As observed, when students are required to read a chapter on the book or to present a relevant issue, oftentimes, they do not go beyond what is required. They only read what they like to read. In Arzubiaga, Rueda, and Monzó (2002), the understanding of how individuals become literate is continuously being revised in an effort to appreciate the process in all its complexity. One study of library behavior indicated however that most sophisticated students scanned or read parts of the book as they make decision about what to read. These students seemed to choose or reject a reading material based on personal preference on an emotional response. In college, reading materials become more abstract and contain a larger, more technical vocabulary. At this stage, the student must not only acquire new information but must also critically analyze the text and achieve an optimal reading rate based on the difficulty of the material and the purpose of reading. The researchers have observed that many students nowadays do not read extensively (making use of varied reading materials) and intensively (analyzing the content of the material) topics that are assigned to them for class interaction, rather they resort to asking from peers to share with them

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what the latter have read. Some have become contented with one reading material, others resort to simply reproduce what they encounter in some reading materials. Reading being a tool subject, the teachers/researchers are therefore concerned if this behavior of not being interested to read and with only one or very limited reading material would affect their performance. It is in this context that the proponents would like to determine the students' reading preferences and   how these preferences affect their classroom reading performance.

Short literature review

It is deemed appropriate for a classroom teacher to observe each student in a variety of situations. This will allow the teacher to draw conclusions about students who fared well or poorly in varied teaching-learning activities. Some may prefer to read materials successfully when highly motivated. Others love to, but may have trouble with relating the materials to actual life experiences as well as with the other content areas probably because of the lack of background knowledge. Research indicates that students do perform differently according to combinations of such things as task, passage type, purpose, prior knowledge available (Villamin, et.al. 1998).

According to one writer in Forward Magazine (2000), ignorance cannot only be for those who lack knowledge and information but also with those who dare not read regarding issues of utmost concern. When students are required to read a chapter on the book or to research a report often they do not go beyond what's being required. In fact, results of the National Elementary Achievement Test (NEAT) as well as the National College Admission Examination (NCAE) showed that students in both elementary and high school still need to be guided on their appropriate reading materials to be utilized. The students would only read what they like to read.

Reading has been defined as a linear, procedural, routinized activity. Expert readers have been viewed as those who can master a discrete set of comprehension or skill, and with little effort, automatically apply them when reading (Sourcebook in English III, DECS – FAPE – PNU p.129).

Reading specialists give different views in reading, that it need is a complex process of perceiving graphic symbols and relating them to one's fund of experience. Teaching the students to read requires that every child receives excellent reading instruction and that children who are struggling with reading receive additional instruction from professionals especially prepared to teach them (International Reading Association). Ogeyik and Akway (2009) mentions that various studies carried out for determining reading habits of individuals report that a growing number of young people do not read for pleasure; boys enjoy reading less than girls (Clark & Foster,

2005);children from lower socio-economic backgrounds read less for enjoyment than children from more privileged social classes (Clark & Akerman, 2006).

The students' reading preferences were also investigated for determining the reader profiles among the participant students (Ogeyik & Akway, 2009). College student's refinement in reading is already expected by the teachers. Thus, it deemed right to believe that they are already equipped with the necessary knowledge structures, scripts and cognitive framework for comprehending texts in the content areas of science, literature, mathematics, social studies, arts and music as they were properly taught by their teachers. Students have already developed their reading power and are guided in the selection of reading materials (Umans, 1964:5) Özbay (2006) in Ogeyik and Akway (2009) disclose that reading is generally accepted as a way for reaching new information and assumed to be consistent with the comprehension capabilities of individuals.

Reading engagement, as such, is understood as a socially-mediated event (Arzubiaga, Rueda, & Monzó, 2002). Sivan (1986) and Ames (1992) as cited in Arzubiaga, Rueda, and Monzó (2002) have begun to examine connections between social contexts and differential motivation. Access to books also implies that teachers should invite children to read by raising interest and curiosity about books and other materials (Gambrell, 2011). The daily family practices in which children participate may affect their access to school-based literacy activities; their notions of engagement and the organization of literacy practices; their appreciation of and interest in reading; and their idea of what counts as meaningful literacy (Arzubiaga, Rueda, & Monzó, 2002).

To further contain a general view of students' reading ability there is a need to look into their reading preferences and performance. Somehow in the process there would be a revelation whether or not one affects the other. Cummins (1989) posits that at the initial stages of developing comprehension, learners will likely require materials which don't force heavy reliance on an unstable linguistic repertoire, but can provide for linguistic growth. Materials should afford a high level of predictability, confidence, through reliable context and visual cues. Thus, the choice of strategies must be made an integral part of the learning designs or activities considering how the students would work together or interact harmoniously while learning.

Objectives of the study

This research determined the reading preferences and performance of Freshmen education students of Cebu Normal University. Specifically, their reading preferences were identified and later verified, if these reading

preferences affect reading performance. Challenges / opportunities which led to their interest were likewise looked into.

Methodology

A descriptive-normative survey method was utilized in the study. Likewise, the teachers' performance record of students as well as the validated researcher-made survey questionnaires were respectively utilized. These helped reveal the students' reading preferences and performance of the 556 First Year students of the Bachelor in Elementary Education and Bachelor in Secondary Education from the College of Teacher Education of Cebu Normal University. Respondents are assured that their responses are treated with utmost confidentiality as reflected in the consent form. The researchers strictly followed the ethical standards in research.These were treated using the simple percentage, and ranking by using MINITAB software.

Results and discussion

To arrive at the ranks of the reading preferences of the Freshmen Education students, responses were indicated: 1 as the highly preferred and 20 as the least preferred.

Table 1: Reading preferences of the freshmen BEED students in CNU

Reading Preferences	Rank
FICTION	
Shorts Stories	4
Novels	11
Plays	13
Epics	15
Ballads	20
Cartoons and Comics	14
NON FICTION	
Magazines	3
Newspapers	2
Journals	10
Essays	12
Films and Videos	6
GENERAL REFERENCES	
Dictionaries	1
Encyclopedias	7
Atlases	17
Almanacs	18
Internet Websites	9
Bible	8
Bibliography	19
Textbooks	5
Manuals	16

Findings revealed that most first year education students preferred to read dictionaries followed by newspapers, magazines and others. This implies that these reading materials are considered indispensable as these students often use them not only for academic purposes but for pleasure as well. Nearly every magazine or newspaper gives informative and interesting features that are relevant and worth sharing. This often gives the "color" of these materials that is why most of the students often read them. In the process, they meet unfamiliar words, they immediately consult the dictionary for further understanding. In this generation of research, these students take advantage of any interesting and relevant topics therein for academic investigation. Reading for pleasure was another reason for selecting magazines as the preferred reading materials. Reading pleasurable books can be a great activity when they need a break for work or from worrying about their problems or all the assignments they may have to do.

On the other hand, findings disclosed the least preferred reading materials such as manuals, atlases, almanacs, bibliography and ballads. It is implied that these freshman students were not exposed to reading these materials. They may have some difficulties reading these materials possibly because they couldn't relate these with their actual life experiences unlike those which they often read. In one informal interview, a group of students uttered, " What we like most are the dictionaries, magazines, newspapers and sometimes short stories but not much the atlases, almanac, bibliography and ballads because they are not familiar to us and besides we often associate them with classroom tests."

Furthermore, this result is also supported by Kingston (1986) who stated "All lecturers make assumptions about their students' reading habits before coming to decisions about their reading needs for a particular course or topic. These assumptions relate to the speed and efficacy of the reading, the recognition and appreciation of the significance of the material to be read, as well as the availability of that material".

Table 2: Reading preferences of the freshmen BSED students in CNU

Reading Preferences	Rank
FICTION	
Shorts Stories	5
Novels	10
Plays	16
Epics	19
Ballads	9
Cartoons and Comics	15
NON FICTION	
Magazines	2
Newspapers	4
Journals	13
Essays	12

Films and Videos	**6**
GENERAL REFERENCES	
Dictionaries	**3**
Encyclopedias	**1**
Atlases	**18**
Almanacs	**14**
Internet Websites	**8**
Bible	**11**
Bibliography	**20**
Textbooks	**7**
Manuals	**17**

The results show that the first year BSED students highly preferred the encyclopedia, followed by magazines, dictionaries, and so forth and so on. The valuable reason why the respondents have probably preferred to read encyclopedia because they find it useful in conducting research and other school activities.

Cooper (1985) tested these theories in her own college sophomore classrooms. She surveyed students during the first class meeting to determine reading attitudes and experiences. From this, Cooper had students keep a reading journal in addition to many in-class writing assignments. She found that as they read the encyclopedia, magazines and the like, these students, "require similar abilities, similar analysis and synthesis, comparing and contrasting, connecting and reevaluating, the same weighing and judging of ideas". Therefore, the assumption could be made that what college students read has important implications for how they may interact with their other students and prospective teachers.

Different motives promote reading practice and reading habits among young children and adolescents (Hussain & Munshi, 2011). They added that freshmen interests and context can be considered to be the basic motives which urge them to acquire knowledge .

Freshmen were not so exposed to other reading materials such as plays, manuals, atlases, epics, and bibliography.. Convenience appeared to be the main factor in choosing a source of information as claimed by Chaudhry & Low (2009). Freshmen do not have access to information using those materials but may found one from the internet which is natural and motivating. Chaudhry & Low (2009) added that more than 90% would look up information first on the internet, followed by magazines which provided up-to-date information on their topics of interest and friends were always a popular choice for quick information..

In the study of Chaudhry & Low (2009), newspapers were the most preferred and a popular choice as preferred publication for reading as more than 70% respondents included newspapers in their reading repertoire. This

denotes that people especially students use them daily for active engagement with the world.

Thus, engaging in early literacy activities should be a positive experience for students. When such is not the case, it is important for educators to realign their approach to supporting students in literacy events. As what (Chaudhry & Low, 2009) said that reading is considered important to meet the need for information and personal development in addition to a leisure activity.

Extent Which Reading Preferences Affect Reading Performance
The results showed that the reading preferences of both First year BEED and BSED students don't have significant effect on their reading performance. This further shows that regardless of the students' reading preferences, their class performance is dependent on how they develop their competencies and apply these in real life situations and not on their reading preferences per se.

In order to have a full grasp on the students' varied experiences in reading, opportunities and challenges are herein noted.

Opportunities and Challenges on Student's Reading Experiences

One scholar has remarked, "The man who reads well is the man who usually thinks well; he has a basis for opinion and a touchstone for judgment."

Sometime around high school one's view of reading changes. The reader needs to take risks in order to grow in his/her ability to read, thus a supportive yet challenging atmosphere is needed. Upon reaching the collegiate level, learning experiences grow and certain realizations occur.

In an interview with students who were enrolled in Developmental Reading course, they expressed their gratitude to such an exposure. Group of students proudly said:

"At first we took Reading for granted until we were introduced to different strategies in reading which we really treasured not only because of the activities but also with the different reading materials we were exposed to."

When asked to recall their experiences in the basic education, some uttered," We were not richly exposed to varied reading materials." With this note, it can be reflected that if these students would have been exposed to such during classroom discussions and in doing library work for certain purposes, these freshmen students would have been more challenged to read extensively and intensively which are very necessary conditions for comprehension. When they were told to share about their current reading experiences, many of them verbalized, "This is an opportunity for us to develop our comprehension skills like preparing for reading, gaining

information while reading, predicting outcomes for learning, seeking to organize and recall that information, and interpreting the information from text. "

In terms of their interest in reading, some students individually shared their views. One said, "I am interested to read accounts of persons and events of the past because this can often enrich my understanding of the present. I am fascinated reading information and interpretation about important persons and developments of previous ages."

"I love reading novels."

"I am interested about developments in the world that is why I read books in science, math, politics, arts, music, religion, philosophy and other adult areas of interest."

"I like books by well-known authors whose works are considered an essential element to being a future teacher of reading"

"My friends, classmates, teachers, or parents often suggest books written by writers whose previous books have been found interesting and satisfying."

"I'm interested in books which have been made motion pictures."For me, I like books which are related to vocational interests which are both interesting and informative."

On the other hand, there were students who have met challenges in the past and even at present which may have probably affected their interest to read. Research on reading generally agrees that the most critical aspect of reading is how a child feels about reading. A threatening atmosphere is what creates non-readers and not their own lack of ability.

In an interview, some students who met challenges in their reading experiences disclosed, " We were forced to read even if we don't like to". Others frankly noted:

"We only read because our teachers would give us a test the following day."

" We love to read, but we don't have reading materials at home even in school."

" Sometimes even if we like to read but our parents want us to do the household chores. Reading should only be done in school."

"Our teachers don't allow us to read any material that we like but only those stories found in the textbooks."

"To read is to answer a test."

These utterances are reflective on the teacher's role in guiding the learner towards reading. Students would never be interested nor satisfied with any activity which they are forced to do. Conscious of teaching reading in order to learn, enjoy and apply skills to real life, teachers should allow

students to pick their choice of material and not solely what is/are in the textbook/s. Likewise challenging reading activities may as well be provided for the widely-read students.

A wealth of research suggests that by framing learning with student interests in mind, teachers can increase student motivation and learning. Additionally, by understanding the varying literacy strengths and habits of students, teachers can identify what Vygotsky calls their "zone of proximal development" where literacy opportunities are not too hard as to frustrate or too easy to bore but just challenging enough to promote student learning. With a keen eye, one can observe the interests and strengths of students and, when possible, can consider these to plan learning opportunities for the students. By providing choice and respectful tasks, one can provide meaningful literacy experiences.

Conclusion

Students need both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in order for them to learn, enjoy and apply the various reading skills in the development of critical thinking. Reading being a tool subject, if practiced daily, ushers students to achieve better performance not only in reading learning area but in other subjects as well.

Recommendations

The following are herein recommended:

1. Conduct a daily ten-minute non-graded pleasure reading activity where students choose any reading material they like..

2. Make a reading progress report regularly

3. Schedule a monthly library visit for the students to gather news updates from the print and non-print media.

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Exploring Greek Education System's Ethnocentric Character In Modern Time

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Abstract

This paper aims to engage with issues around Greek national identity and in the light of the above, tries to demonstrate how Greek national identity responds to global pressures and how it is being fractured in an era of economic and humanitarian crisis and uncertainty. The purpose of this critical review of literature is not to simply present the crisis of the Greek national identity but to explore the tensions and the competing relations between national, European, cosmopolitan, religious and racial identities in contemporary Greece at a time of rapid socioeconomic change and in the face of the declining authority and legitimacy of the state. Moreover, the present critical review seeks to look into the reasons why Greek national identity not only persists to its traditionally pro-European character but also becomes more and more ethnocentric and racist. Although we may not be able to formulate straightforward answers to the above issue, looking at the Greek educational context and drawing attention to the crucial links, which exist between the Greek national education and the persisting ethnocentric character of the Greek national identity could probably help us understand and uproot some reasons of the aforementioned phenomenon.

Keywords: Greece, education system, identity

Introduction

The aim of this critical review of literature is to engage with issues around Greek national identity and to indicate how Greek national identity is being fractured in an era of socioeconomic crisis. The purpose of the paper is to look into the reasons why Greek national identity not only persists to its traditionally pro-European character but also becomes more and more ethnocentric and racist, and to draw attention to the crucial links, which exist between the Greek national education and the aforementioned phenomenon.

The paper begins with a discussion about the historical development of

nationalism in the 18th and 19th centuries and the emergence of the Greek nation state in the 19th century. Next, it presents some important features of the Greek national education system paying attention to its role in the formation of Greek national identity. It continues by looking at some aspects of Greek society after the 1980s and at the latest political and economical changes and their implications for Greek society.

Therefore in relation to its purpose, the paper focuses on the relation between the education system and the persisting ethnocentric character of Greek national identity. It also illustrates that if schools are to meet the new challenges that stem from the current era of economic and humanitarian crisis, they must change.

The emergence of Greek National Identity
The emergence of the nation states in the 18th and 19th centuries

The division of the world in nations seems to be natural, but it is not. The nation is one of the most successful and dangerous myths of modernity (Coulby, 1997), a myth that established in the 19th century (Ostergaard, 2000). The nation is a modern phenomenon in human history, and a socially and historically constructed product of particular and inevitably localised or regional, and 'historical conjunctures' (Hobsbawm, 1990, p. 5). To be correct, the modern phenomenon is not the nation, but the new-shared political concept of it, its contemporary meaning. The term 'nation' has been defined by Guibernau and Goldblatt (2000, p. 125) as 'a named people who acknowledge a shared solidarity and identity by virtue of a shared culture, history and territorial homeland'. The nation-states of the modern epoch no longer refer to a territorial kingdom as they used to do before the French Revolution, but to a political collectivity (Ostergaard, 2000).

Authors such as Ernest Gellner (1983), Benedict Anderson (1991), Anthony Smith (1991), or Charles Tilly (1992) have demonstrated the links between modernity as a structure of thought, and the nation as an ideological system. Anderson (1991) argues that the appearance of the 'imaginary communities' followed the abolition of the traditional societies, where the religion had a cohesive role, and it is related with the emergence of the local languages and the development of the communication technology. Others (Grant, 1997; Held, 1992) have suggested that nations started forming after the Treaties of Westphalia or of Versailles (Ostergaard, 2000). According to Gellner (1983) the development of industrialization and the cultural homogeneity, which was created, played important role in the formation of the nation states.

There is a separation of the nations at least to two models, the 'Western' and the 'Eastern' (Smith, 2000). These two models appeared in different historical contexts. The Western or civic model was state defined

and inclined to highlight the centrality of a national territory, a common system of laws and institutions and the importance of a mass, civic culture binding the citizens together. The Eastern or ethnic model, by contrast, tended to emphasize the genealogy, the folk element, the native culture and language, customs, religions and rituals (Smith, 2000). Although contemporary theorists of nationalism, such as Smith (2000), note that the above division of nationalism is idealized and does not reflect the historical reality (Kuzio, 2002), they still think that there is something valid and useful in it, specially when we want to study the development of nationalism in particular countries (Shulman, 2002).

Maybe by using the civic and the ethnic model division we could shed light on the reasons why the revival of nationalism in the mid 1980s has resulted in governments and citizens of some countries to reconsider the meaning of nationality, inducing a more inclusive and multicultural conception of 'the nation' and in other countries, such as Greece, it has fuelled xenophobic backlash.

The emergence of the Greek nation state in the 19th century

The emergence of the Greek nation state happened in the 19th century (Stamelos, 2000) and was a result of a revolutionary uprising with the demand of the national revival (Tsoukalas, 1982). The Greek national identity was invented and constructed in the turbulent and doubtful period (1922-1974) after the collapse of the 'Great Idea' (1922) (Tsoukalas, 1982). The term 'Great Idea' appears for the first time in Kolletis speech to the first Greek parliament (1844). This term refers to the expectation of some Greek politics (Kolletis 1844, Deligiannis 1890, Venizelos 1911) that some regions, which were under Turkish sovereignty, would enter the Greek state of the 1830. After the Asia Minor destruction (1922), as the treaty of Lausanne brings to an end this expectation, the 'Great Idea' collapses and the 'Greek' nation is forced to accept the imposed reality, the new narrow boundaries of 'its' land (Skopetea, 1988).

Historical evidence shows that nationalism has been brought to Greece by the Greek speaking Diasporas. As it happened with most national geneses the Greek-speaking intellectuals of the 18th and 19th centuries were greatly influenced by the spirit of the Enlightenment and carried it with them translated to the geographical, social and cultural environment of what was to become the Modern Greek kingdom. The above intellectuals believed in the superiority of the Greek nation and the Greek language at least in the Balkan Peninsula and Asia Minor, the need to hegemonize the Balkans with an educated class of Greek speakers, and the need to expand the Greek state (Chrysoloras, 2004, p.16). Many of them were clerics and understood Enlightenment through the Orthodox dogma (Chrysoloras, 2004).

The Greek nationalist discourse was structured around a series of nodal propositions that prevail till today: a) there is a unified history of one Greek nation starting from the pre-Homeric era, through to Classical Greece, the Hellenistic epoch, the Byzantium, and continuing in modern Greece. b) The nation is bound together by geography, history, language, and religion. c) Being Orthodox Christian is an almost necessary pre-condition for being Greek. d) The Greek nation is superior to almost any other nation in the world since Greeks are the heirs of almost all the great civilizations of the West (Ancient Greek, Hellenistic, Eastern Roman/Byzantium) (Chrysoloras, 2004, p.17).

The preceding nationalistic discourse might help us unravel the difficulties Greek national identity faces in the current era of socioeconomic crisis with regard to the European Union project and ideas about cosmopolitanism, its evolution, its struggles, the nature of its challenges and tensions and the empowerment of its ethnocentric and racist sentiment.

The role of the Greek National Education System in the formation of Greek national identity

The national education systems first appeared in post-revolutionary Europe (Green, 1997) in the late eighteenth century as being instruments of state formation and useful tools for developing a common national identity within specific geographical borders (Wiborg, 2000). Today, three centuries later the national education systems still hold this role even though many other agents of socialization such as family, peer groups, mass media etc. influence students as well. Education systems everywhere, through their subjects, their textbooks and other activities initiate young people into the traditions and cultures of their society and promote cohesion and a sense of national identity (Goodings, 1987).

The aims and the role of education in the formation of national identity differ from one country to another and they are determined substantially by the process and the purpose of the formation of each nation state (Avdela, 1998). The Greek nation belongs to the 'Eastern' model of the nations which attended to emphasize the genealogy of their people (Smith, 2000), and its formation refers to a cultural plan, which was based on a glorious and distant past, without geographical boundaries (Tsoukalas, 1982). As a result, Greek national education system aims to educate and initiate Greek students with a 'natural' and 'normal' way into the traditions and culture of their society (Stamelos, 2000).

The Greek education system is particularly centralized and seeks to cultivate Greek national identity throughout its curriculum and throughout its compulsory textbooks, which are state-endorsed (Coulby, 2000; Avdela, 1998; Coulby &Jones, 1995; Massialas & Flouris, 1994). The Pedagogical Institute as a representative of the government writes the curriculum and the

textbooks. The Institute takes advices from academics and teachers when it draws up particular textbooks, but the last word on content remains in the Ministry of National Education and Religions. The teachers in schools must follow the school curriculum and teach each subject exclusively from the Pedagogical Institute textbooks (Avdela, 1998).

The curriculum and the textbooks, especially in subjects such as History, Greek Language and Geography promote Greek nationalism by presenting an image of the Greek nation, which is based on the common agreement of its homogeneity and superiority (Tsoukalas, 1982). They also attempt to identify the modern nation state, 'via Byzantine Orthodoxy, with the city-states of the fourth century BC and thus with Hellenic civilization' (Psomiades & Thomadaki, 1993 quoted in Coulby, 2000, p. 92). The curriculum and the textbooks see the Greeks as the fountainhead of European civilization and focus on other states only through the teaching of the wars, expansionary policies in the past and hostile stances in the present (Avdela, 1998).

As Coulby (2000, p. 92-93) argues, the curriculum 'in attempting to bury the state's recent history of internal and external warfare and conflict beneath a homogenous Greek and Orthodox identity, only exacerbates tensions with internal minorities and bordering states'. Consequently students in Greece are exposed and become acquainted with other countries, as well as with the concept of Europe only in the context of warfare and hostility (Flouris, 1995). It might be extreme to indicate that the Greek national education system encourages hostility and warfare; nonetheless it may be said that it undoubtedly does remarkably little to inspire conciliation and peace.

The Greek society after the 1980s
The Greek society after the entrance of Greece in the European Union

The entrance of Greece in the European Union (EU) brought the country closer to the 'European miracle' (Beck, 2005). The political project of the creation of the EU and the European citizen attempted to turn enemies of the past to neighbours by dispelling from the horizon of Europe the threat of violence as a political option, whether between member states or against supranational institutions. The European Union also aimed to ensure the health of the member states and the economy, effectively dealing with unemployment, and encouraging a lively democracy through a cosmopolitan viewpoint (Beck, 2005).

Soon after joining the European community in 1981, the Greek government aimed to introduce secularisation, modernization measures and increase Greece's standard of living, and made considerable steps towards this direction, liberalising the economy, and trying to replace the old clientist

politics with an effective bureaucracy. Greece also became the recipient of many grants from the EU to strengthen its agricultural sector and build public works projects hoping to enhance economic growth (Dimitrakopoulos & Passas, 2004). However, even with the European Union's financial assistance Greece stayed behind many of its fellow EU members and remained one of the least economically developed member countries in the European Union. In January 2001 Greece joined the EU's single currency (the euro), thereby allowing the European Central Bank govern its economy as the sole currency issuing institution.

Although many Greeks were positive towards the EU motivated mostly by economic advantage rather than a desire for deeper political and cultural convergence, a large part of the Greek population criticised the European Union concentrating on the cultural rather than the political or economic aspects of the European unification, and felt more and more estranged from the new westernised 'image' of Greece. Besides, the Greek attitude towards the West has always been equivocal, and the functioning of western-type institutions has often been disharmonious, if not always problematic (Chrysoloras, 2004). Many Greek people thought that the new European order undermined the role of national culture and the socializing of the state and family and saw the European Union as a threat against their imaginary collective identity. Those ideas have in effect prevented the full cultural and political integration of the country into the EU and its institutions.

Under such social circumstances the nationalist discourse and especially that of the Greek Church found a fruitful background in order to develop. The Church presented itself as a cultural opponent to the forces of assimilation and homogenisation and the Greeks identified themselves strongly with it maybe as a reaction to the abovementioned 'threats'. Orthodoxy until today remains a distinguishing characteristic of Greece, which has given and continues to give the impression of stability in a nation increasingly insecure about its identity (Chrysoloras, 2004).

In short, Greece because of its persistent ethnocentrism expressed in recent decades as exaggerated patriotism and xenophobia remained a largely pro- European country. The Greek case is an example, which demonstrates that the forces of Westernization and European integration do not automatically make weaker the forces of nationalism in Europe (Chrysoloras, 2004). Maybe it is because the Greeks don't feel secure and confirmed in their national dignity. As Beck (2005, p.114) argues, the more secure and confirmed Europeans feel 'the less they will shut themselves off in their nation-states and the more resolutely they will stand up for European values in the world and take up the cause of others as their own'.

The Greek society after the settlement of waves of immigrants in the period following the 1990s

The entrance and settlement of waves of immigrants in many countries, especially after the nineteenth century, is a phenomenon that has given a diverse character to many societies in different countries all over the world (Lynch & Simon, 2003). People from different cultural, religious linguistic, and ethnic backgrounds have ended up living and coexisting in places and circumstances dissimilar to those that they were used to. Greece is one of these European countries that as a result of immigration have significantly and irreversibly seen its demography changed in social, cultural, economic, ethnic, racial and religious terms (Stratoudaki, 2008).

During the period following the 1990s, Greece not only witnessed an impressive return of nationals to their homeland, but also experienced a shift from a traditionally sender country to a main destination country for immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union (Rozakis, 2001). Rapid demographic changes that took place during the last two decades led to an increasing participation of immigrant people in Greek society.

This fact implied growing complexity, uncertainty and unpredictability in the Greek society, affected seriously its composition, which became progressively more heterogeneous and in turn affected the Greek national identity, which grew more unconfident and xenophobic. A vast amount of the Greek population expressed both antipathy and fear towards the immigrants, who were generally seen as the main cause of the significant rise of criminality in Greece (Stratoudaki, 2008).

The latest political and economical changes in Greece and their implications for Greek society

Financial crashes are as old as the markets themselves. Since the global economic crisis of 1929, it has been obvious that they influence everyone and can have catastrophic effects especially for politics (Beck, 2009; Levitas, 2000). When the global financial downturn struck, Greece was badly prepared after years of profligacy, unrestrained spending, cheap lending, hosting the expensive Olympic games in 2004 and after failure to implement financial reforms. By the end of 2009, the Greek economy faced the highest budget deficit and government debt to GDP ratios in the European Union, which led to rising borrowing costs, ultimately resulting in a severe economic crisis, maybe one of the worst in its history (Romanias, 2009).

Greece's fiscal and economic problems left the country struggling against unemployment and striving to pay its bills. The government in order to avoid a downward spiral has requested and agreed to a rescue package

from the EU, the International Monetary Fund and the European Central Bank. It has also started slashing away at spending and implemented austerity measures that aim at reducing the deficit. It has hiked taxes on fuel, tobacco and alcohol, raised the retirement age by two years, imposed public sector pay cuts, closed schools and public hospitals and applied tough new tax evasion regulations; thousands of people have lost their jobs and more releases are on schedule (Vayanos, Meghir, & Vettas, 2010).

The severe budget cuts and savage measures adopted by the Parliament have led workers nationwide to stage strikes closing airports, government offices, courts and schools, more than 500,000 Greeks to rally in central Athens to denounce politicians, bankers and tax dodgers, and a large number of Greek people to abandon the country and emigrate in search of better working and living conditions to the USA, Australia and other parts of Europe.The Greek society is not willing to accept austerity measures, already showing dissatisfaction and public unrest. Reformism in Greece has been met with protests, some of them quite violent, fortified by the belief of many Greeks that the crisis is being manipulated by foreign forces such as the European central bankers and other financial speculators (Pappas, 2010).

Greek National Identity and the Greek Education System in the Age of Austerity
Greek National Identity in the Age of Austerity

Linked to the economical changes is a change in views with regard to belonging and identities. Current debates include discussions about economics, fairness, concepts of national identity and perspectives on 'outsiders'. The crisis raises fundamental questions about how national identity can be identified, and what might be done to confirm it.

Greek national identity is increasingly growing more racist and xenophobic, a fact that reflects the deep identity crisis, which has come to underlie Greek society lately. Many Greek people have started becoming more and more racist as a result of their unemployment and their lower quality of life (Eurobarometer, 2008; EU-MIDIS, 2009; International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, 2011). Incidents of racial violence against migrants and asylum-seekers have increased the last six months particularly in Athens (Amnesty International, 2011).

The media, because of the sheer multiplicity of the forms in which they appear and because of the rapid way in which they move through daily life routines, (Appadurai, 1996), occupy a key site for the monitoring of the Greek self-imagining and the antagonistic relationship with the 'others' in this era of socioeconomic crisis. By observing the pages of tabloid newspapers or the TV shows we can see that negative language and misinformation for the 'others' -that are not anymore only the immigrants

from the surrounding Slavic and Balkan populations, but also the European Union- is very common.

Very common also is the use by protestors, commentators, politicians, bankers of the narrative of the All-seeing Public Economist (APE) for Greece, which goes like this: 'Greece is a poor but honest country… The present crisis is a symptom of its exploitation by the European 'centre', whose essential nature is to be rich and exploitative. We poor Greeks were duped into entering the EU and adopting the euro. The cunning union gave us grants for our honest labour. Eventually, we were sucked dry: but the centre's greed is boundless, and now they want to gain more through usury and, if bad comes to worse, political domination…'(Doxiadis, 2011).

The aforementioned narratives, which are very similar to the narratives that have been used since the emergence of the Greek nation state in the 19th century, treat Greeks as immature children, ultimately irresponsible for their acts and their faults, who must demonise others rather than understand themselves. Moreover, they enslave them to their worst ethnocentric self (Doxiadis, 2011).

The role of the Greek Education system in the persisting ethnocentric character of Greek national identity

The education sector is probably one of the most sensitive and politically charged areas of public policy because of its important role in identity formation, national cohesion, national consciousness and its potential to prepare students for their roles as world citizens (Kenway & Bullen, 2000). In Greece, although different policies taking in account the current deep transformations, the new social conditions and the increasing and changing diversity are proposed, these policies do not seem to tackle the problems of Greek society with sufficient breadth.

As a result the Greek education system fails to address in its policy and curriculum documentation the full implications of the recent political and economical changes and, as many other education systems around the world (Kiwan, 2008), it continues to propose a single national identity, even though it is acknowledging the presence of a plurality of nations, to be based on exclusion rather than inclusion and on ethnocentrism rather than multiculturalism, and to be racist and nationalistic (Stratoudaki, 2008).

Relevant studies about the Greek education system and its role in the formation of the Greek national identity in the present rapidly changing era show that the Greek education system seeks to rationalize the curriculum and textbooks (Stratoudaki, 2008). But even if the curricula and books have improved being more tolerant and understanding to 'others', they still present an ethnocentric national history and tend to be introvert; they are still conservative and oblivious towards matters concerning religion or other

nationalities, those traditionally seen as 'enemies' and are still highly reluctant to accept the potential transformation of Greek society into a multiethnic society.

In short, having in mind the importance of education in the formation of the national identity, we could say that the predominance of the ethnocentric national history in the Greek education system and in general the ethnocentric content of the books and the curricula in general may be one of the main reasons of the strong influence in Greek society of the Orthodox Church, of the anti-Western feeling and of the persistence of identitarian discourses like nationalism.

Nonetheless, we should be cautious when we make judgments about teaching from curricula and textbooks alone (Council of Europe, 1996). Brindle (1996) reminds us that 'we cannot assume that the content of the textbook is the same as the content of the lesson' (quoted in Goalen, 1997, p.2). Grosvenor (1999, pg. 248) argues that in order to come to some conclusion about the impact of the teaching in identity formation, we need to extend our vision of schooling to consider the cumulative effect of value messages in both the formal and 'hidden curriculum'.

In addition, if we are to interpret the persisting ethnocentric character of Greek national identity, we may need, as Chrysoloras (2004) argues, an alternative theoretical framework for the study of the national identity. Chrysoloras proposes a theoretical framework (radical ethnosymbolism) that incorporates elements from A.D. Smith's ethno-symbolism and from post-structuralist discourse theory (as it has been developed by the 'Essex school' of discourse analysis- Laclau & Mouffe, Howarth, Norval, Stavrakakis, Glynos, et. al.) (2004, p. 2).

Challenges for the national education systems in an era of economic and humanitarian crisis

The future of the education systems is an issue all over the world. With the reality of everything changing so fast in Greece and within this context of financial crisis, multiple political and economical restructurings and uncertainty the educational scene is transforming rapidly and dramatically. Schools and universities are closing down; there are fewer teachers than needed in schools and fewer books and teaching materials. Teachers are very pessimistic; they feel undervalued because of the cutbacks in their salaries and their personal vision for education is being weakened day by day. This affects citizens particularly in the constitution of rights, responsibilities and identities (Robertson, 2008).

The severe complexity of issues surrounding nationality, immigration and asylum seekers, necessitates the need for new forms of identity that are more appropriate to these new times (Halpin & Moore, 2006). If the schools

are to meet the challenge of educating the next generation in a way that equips them for their contemporary life and for their future, then they must change (Johnson & Hallgarten, 2002). However, the will for change alone is not enough. We have to think of what we need to change.

Research (Kiwan, 2008; Whitty, 2002; Steiner, 1994) suggests that if a society is to move towards a national education system that promotes an understanding of identity and diversity schools should:

•   include a global perspective into the curriculum and teach in ways that encourage co- operation, critical thinking, democratic values of fairness and practices

•   help students deal with prejudice and value diversity, develop self-esteem and a commitment to justice and sustainable development

•   help students make connections between the abstract knowledge associated with subjects and students' own experiences in everyday life be committed to human rights

•   actively seek to keep informed

•   use a range of teaching styles

•   encourage their students to be active and participate in the wider societal context

Maybe the above reformulations could be more possible if the education systems were to accept Mouffe's critiques of deliberative approaches to democracy, and base their reforms to her proposal for an agonisitc public sphere (Ruitenberg, 2008) and, as Norval (2000) argues, to a non-essentialist account of identity formation that wouldn't advantage the antagonistic over the differential dimension of identity.

Drawing upon the writings of Mouffe, we could say that such radical democratic citizenship education systems would aim 'to transform antagonism into agonism' (1995, p.108), and they would not be concerned with overcoming the 'us/them' distinction but with constructing the 'them' in such a way that it would no longer be perceived as an enemy to be destroyed, but as an 'adversary' whose existence is legitimate and must be tolerated' (2000, p. 101-102). Perhaps this kind of schools could meet the challenge of educating students in a way that would prepare them for their present and their future.

Conclusion

Appadurai some years ago (1996) argued that the very epoch of the nation-state is near its end and nationalism enters a terminal crisis. Today, we see that nationalism not only doesn't enter a terminal crisis but on the contrary in some countries is being revived. Even the most superficial examination of Modern Greek society reveals that the Greek nationalism is

racist, anti-Western, ethnocentric and looks at everything from the national perspective, fact that jeopardizes national prosperity and democratic freedom (Beck, 2005); It also reveals that the latest political and economical changes has fuelled xenophobic backlash in Greece.

In our attempt to unravel the fact that Greece because of its persistent ethnocentrism expressed as exaggerated patriotism and xenophobia remains a largely pro- European country in which there is no room for cultural and social pluralism, we claimed that maybe the above has to do with the fact that the Greek nation state belongs to the ethnic model of the nations as well as with the nationalistic discourse and the narratives on which the construction of the Greek national identity is based.

People from countries that belong to the ethnic model of the nations construct their national identity by emphasizing the genealogy, the folk element, the native culture and language, customs, religions and rituals. As a result maybe they find difficulties in focusing on the world as a whole rather than on a particular locality or group within it (Calhoun, 2008), and in being patriotic- celebrating the institutions of the state which they live and at the same time cosmopolitan-celebrating the variety of human cultures and sharing the political culture of their state (Beck & Sznaider, 2006; Couture & Nielsen, 2005; Appiah, 1997).

In addition, we argued that the Greek national education system due to its capacity to shape national identities has played and continues to play significant role. The predominance of the ethnocentric national history in the Greek education system and the ethnocentric content of the books and the curricula are some of the main reasons why Greek national identity remains ethnocentric and resists to the construction of a European or a more cosmopolitan identity.

Drawing on the above conclusions we can contend that one of the most important challenges for the Greek government in the age of austerity is how to organise a quality education system that will address in its policy and curriculum documentation the full implications of the recent political and economical changes, will meet the needs of learners, parents and the community, will inspire conciliation and peace, will promote an understanding of identity and diversity, will construct a more tolerant conception of Greek national identity, will be committed to the cosmopolitan ideal (Held, 2005; McKinnon, 2005; Tan, 2005) and will 'transform antagonism into agonism' (Mouffe 1995, p.108).

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