

SOCIO - POLITICAL FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

CRITICAL VIEWS ON THE EDUCATION OBLIGATIONS

Seyyed Muhammad Reza Hussein
Akbar Valadbigi

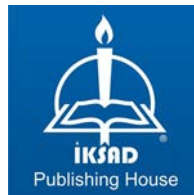


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Dedicated to:

Mustafa Latif Emek

For his unique Nobility and his Sincerely Attempts on the Way of
Social Prosperity

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PREFACE OF AUTHORS:

The present book entitled "*FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION*" is a collection of articles in the field of sociology of education and teaching. The complexities and inefficiencies of educational systems, along with the serious changes in the teaching methods and the schools of all educational systems have a significant potential for interdisciplinary and multiple pathology studies in this area.

The authors of the book, although briefly, have been challenging critical view analysis of the role and position of capable teachers in the transition and difficult paths of educational development, especially in underdeveloped countries.

The title of the most important key factor and the main capital of the educational system, the role of the family institution in the development and continuation of educational functions schools, the serious conflict between the language of instruction and learning, especially in the multilingual areas and in the direction of language learning and foreign languages for children in these regions are the theme of hegemony and global imperialism as a representation of the global discussed in this book.

Reading this book is recommended for experts in the field of sociology of education, students in social sciences and language, literature and science, interdisciplinary studies and research activists,

educational policy-makers and, of course, school principals and teachers.

The authors of the book know their duty to thank you and express their heartfelt gratitude to each one *IKSAD Managerial Team* the World Collection of *IKSAD*, which undoubtedly did not print out without great efforts and vigorous pursuit.

The IKSAD Development Research Complex, which includes a significant number of best researchers, professors, scientists and students is as usual a pioneer in different disciplines, stronger than ever walking in the path to enlightenment, promoting a culture of peace and altruism, economic prosperity, identification of young generations and, of course, the defense of true humanity, including justice educational step.

HONORARY PREFACE BY Prof. Dr. Mustafa SEVER

Sociology of education is a diverse, complex, dynamic and almost a controversial field of study. Since the birth of sociology, the issue of education has attracted the attention of sociologists. Following Durkheim's work, a number of studies were produced under the banner of Educational Sociology and then Sociology of Education throughout the 20th century.

Nevertheless, establishment of the sociology of education as an independent sub-discipline, first in sociology and then in education, corresponds to the years after the World War II. If the differences in intellectual approaches have not been taken into account in the last thirty years, it can be said that sociology of education has been roughly located on two main axes: radical and mainstream. Radical sociologists have largely focused on identity politics and the school-equality dilemma, while mainstream educational sociology has centralized issues such as school processes, student achievement, and corporate culture.

This book deals with the historical adventure and current state of sociology of education while providing an important perspective on the core issues of the field. Socio-political functions of education usually operate latently within schools thus the book puts some light

on the ways of which “political” gets into class settings and student bodies, albeit under the disguise of pedagogical.

On the other hand, writing on the historical development of any field is usually considered a kind of cultural reproduction as Michael Apple stated. Similarly, it is almost impossible to delineate the boundaries of an interdisciplinary field such as sociology of education from other disciplines; this book is no exception.

This book also grips on interdisciplinary perspective through its subject variations. It harbors research data on topics such as language, technology and politics, which are rarely touched by the field, and provides many clues for students and researchers about where and how to look at issues related to sociology of education.

Prof. Dr. Mustafa SEVER
Ankara University Faculty of Educational Sciences
Head of Sociology of Education Program

CAPABLE TEACHERS

On the Study of the Role of Capable Teachers as the Most Efficient Human Capital in the Process of Transition into the Stable Communities

Abstract:

Knowledge has lost its classical status and like the other social entities and realities of the present communities is changing rapidly. The classroom, a place in which the education and the relation between the teacher and student occurs, has gone under great and serious changes rapidly.

The information technology and the communication has changed all the current structure of the modern education and of course these changes are not limited only to the education spaces and equipment. The today schools and students require empowered and new teachers more than anything else, who are learned and equipped with the latest achievements and findings of teaching technology. The empowered teachers are considered to be the captains of knowledge age and the most valuable human capitals of the transition era of the communities, transition to stable democracy, to using wisdom and knowledge orientation, and social reforms to develop the stable communities.

Specialty, the new information, effective communications, the global awareness, technological knowledge, creativity, readiness to take risks, and using wisdom are of the features and requirements of the empowered teachers of age of the social stable reforms.

Teachers' being effective and their methodological and structural creativity are not limited to the classroom and school and should be transferred and injected to the social and public spaces and arenas.

Certainly applying the information technology and the modern equipment in education is an undeniable necessity rather than a luxurious choice. But the focal and key element of the transition and development to educational and social innovation are the empowered and wisdom oriented teachers.

The schools and communities equipped with the empowered teachers direct the students and all the society to the road of learning, democracy, affinity and affection to each other with their moral and methodological influences.

Our students and children in the new era deserve learning before the professional and enthusiastic teachers "Teachers of 21st Century" "not just the adults that teach in the 21st century.

**Keywords: Teacher, School, Empowered Teacher, Democracy,
Stable Communities, New Education**

1. Introduction

Pursuant to drastic changes of the phenomena, the concepts change continually. Literacy is one of such concepts. In the recent years, along with emergence of modern technologies, the mentioned concept, like many others, has undergone dramatic changes. Nowadays it is a well-known fact that to further the knowledge, in addition to enjoying the reading and writing capabilities, we should have the ability to analyze the information and explore information structures, as well.

The main base for production and development of the knowledge is that education has a significant place in such a process. It is ultimately needed in the move towards production and dissemination of the knowledge which finally leads to information society (Abu El-Hajand Rubin2009).

In line with the above issues, computers have changed the human life in all its dimensions. The studies conducted with regard to development programs in many countries are representative of the focal role of the information and communication technology in such programs (Conderman (2003)). It, of course, is a taken-for-granted fact that no industrial change happens in the world unless it has its roots and starts with education. In fact, children compose 20 percent of our society now, but 100 percent of our future. What we do for our

children as far as their education is concerned will show its result in the next 10-20 years and, thus, it is the education which truly forecaststhe future society (Ajzen (1991).

The information and communication technology could be used as a powerful tool for promoting the quality and efficiency of education. It has the potential to change the traditional education methods in a way that presence in the classroom not to be a must. The children must get prepared for such a condition in the future. The needed changes may be imposed on traditional education methods having portrayed such a condition.so, the researchers of the present article try to consider the role and the importance of the capable teachers. In this part the purpose of the research is mentioned (Elhoweris and Alsheikh (2006).

2. The Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is that the researchers want to determine the fact that despite of the structural, cultural, economic, and political restriction of ideas, capable and creative teachers can apply useful methods in teaching and learning of the students in their classes. They may also open a new gate toward new wave in educational development.

3. Theoretical Background of the Study

Theoretically the present study is in line with Skinner (1968) the technology of teaching; in which in his idea the application of operant conditioning to education is simple and direct. Teaching is the arrangement of contingencies of reinforcement under which students learn. They learn without teaching in their natural environments, but teachers arrange special contingencies which expedite learning, hastening the appearance of behaviour which would otherwise be acquired slowly or making sure of the appearance of behaviour which otherwise never occur.

According to (Drucker 1994) "Education will become the centre of the knowledge society, and the schools' key motivation. What knowledge must everybody have? What is 'quality' in learning and teaching? These will, of necessity, become central concerns of the knowledge society, and central political issues. In fact, the acquisition and distribution of formal knowledge may come to occupy the place in the politics of the knowledge society which the acquisition and distribution of property and income have occupied in our politics". In the next part research question of the study is referred.

4. Research question of the Study

In line with the purpose of the study the following research question was formulated:

RQ 1: To what extent today's teachers' can beneficially affect today's modern technology and education?

RQ2: In today's world of knowledge, Does information communication technology replace capable teachers?

5. Review of the Literature

5.1 World in the age of knowledge:

If we look at the history we will notice that the human society has experienced three main stages: The first stage was the agricultural stage for which the infrastructure was the land. The next stage which started along with industrial revolution was industrial stage for which the infrastructure was the factories. The stage in which we are living nowadays is the post-industrial stage for which the main infrastructure is the wisdom and knowledge. In the agricultural stage the main occupation of the people and predatory activities were mainly concerned with raw material and the people largely used their hands rather than the knowledge to work. In the industrial stage the raw material were needed to produce other products and people utilized both their hands and minds. The information was available to people in larger scale compared to the preceding stage. But in post-industrial stage, the main axis around which the life revolves is

the knowledge. Nowadays, anything we wish to do has the knowledge at its base. In the present stage the workforce is mainly composed of the skilled and expert people, and the hand work has largely reduced (Conderman (2003).

Production of the knowledge in the years 1975 to 1995 was about the same as it was for the whole human history up until 1975. In the mentioned twenty-year period, the knowledge in the world was doubled. Nowadays, every four year the knowledge in the world doubles, and of course it is anticipated that soon every two year the same will be doubled. This is how the human knowledge increases in progression manner. It is a fact that those who have more knowledge will have more capabilities. Thus, the students have to be empowered. We should provide them with knowledge so that they will depend on their own knowledge and will be more powerful. If we succeed in connecting them to the information resources, they will be able to overcome the problems and challenges which they encounter in their life utilizing the knowledge they have accessed. So, we need some type of systems and facilities which allow us bring up such people in the society (Mahat (2008).

5.2 The features of a knowledge-based society

Some of the features of a knowledge-based society are: expertise, information and communication(Reynolds (2001). Furthermore, in studying the variables and factors affecting the knowledge-based model of development in any society, the role of education as one of the main principles cannot be ignored. In a knowledge-based society, creative thinking, information management and knowledge production is a fundamental principle (Matthews, 1980)

5.3 An Overview the Skills in 21th Century

The educational laboratory has recognized the skills in 21th century as being: digital literacy, which includes pedagogical, visual, academic, technological, information, cultural literacy, and global awareness plus global knowledge, innovative thinking, thinking for higher ranks, logical reasoning, effective communication and high productivity.

SOCIO - POLITICAL FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

The Literacy in Digital Age	
Pedagogical Literacy	The ability to decode the meaning and explain the beliefs in a series of communicational tools (media), which includes using the images, graphics, videos, diagrams, and maps
Academic Literacy	The ability to understand the theoretical and practical dimensions of the experimental sciences plus mathematics
Technological Literacy	Competence and competing in using the communication and information technology
Information Literacy	The ability to find, assess, and use the information through ICT
Cultural Literacy	The ability to understand the value of the diversity of cultures
Global awareness	The ability to find out how the nations, cultural centers, and societies communicate with each other
Innovative Thinking	
Capacity of imitation	The ability to imitate and manage in a world full of complexity and communication
Intuition	Desire to learn
Innovation	The ability to employ the imagination to create something
Risk-taking	The ability to risk, and consider the possibilities
Effective Communication	
Team-work	The ability to work in a team
Cooperation and individual or social communication and interaction	The ability to cooperate and interact with others
Being Responsible	Being responsible for the methods employed in ICT for the good of society
Mutual Communication	Competence in transferring, explaining, accessing, and understanding the information
High Productivity	
Prioritizing Capacity	Planning and managing the plans and projects to achieve the optimal results so that they could create optimal products

Table 1: Brooks-Young, Susan (2007)

In the age of knowledge and wisdom, the most emphasis is on learning the innovation skills plus the skills to communicate with other and learn effectively. Noting the quantity of the knowledge produced every day and injected into the society, the learning needs to be ever-lasting. It is said that: the academic life of an engineer who graduates from the university is about two years, while it previously reached about 10 to 15 years, necessitating them to keep their literacy up-to-date. The prevalent viewpoint in today's world is that it is no more the age of trial and error to reach a goal, and one needs knowledge to learn the proper methods to achieve their goals. The students need to be prepared for living in such kind of society(Andrews, 2002).

5.4. Modern Methods of Education

For developing countries, ICT is a device to access and progress of training quality and communication potentially. It makes to promote and formulate the politics and widen the opportunities under learning the ways in training systems.

1-ICT, the Concept

ICT means information and communication technology and is known as a different set of tools and technological sources for saving, making, spreading and handling data. These technologies involve: computer, internet, radio and TV broadcasting tools and

phone. It has an important role in developing of the communities and so training is an experience based on learning to make rather changes individually. Learning is one of the main necessities of human under new methods contribution of data applications (stington, Janet and Wilde (1993)).

2-ICT in Education

ICT turns the education atmosphere to a student-based atmosphere. Studies have shown that that a suitable ICT application increases space changes in content and training technique of 21th century well. Training of protected ICT has been promoted a long term learning of student with a strong planning and provided new solutions for education. These new ways are given for the students by trainers theoretically(stington, Janet and Wilde (1993)).

Table2- A studying on the way of industrial community against data sample society

Index	Traditional educating way	Educating way in appearance
Active	Actions by teachers Training for all of the class Less difference in actions Solution with a plan	Actions by learner Small grouping Differed actions Solution by learner
Cooperation	Individual Uniform groups Everybody works separately	As a team working Not uniform groups Individual support
Innovation	Training of producer Defined ways for problems	High content training New ways against the problems
Coalition	Not joint among theory and practice Great subjects based on regular shape Teachers one by one	Uniform practices and theories Relation among of subjects/There is a subject Teachers' teams
Assessment	By teachers' thinking As a collection	With student attitudes Recognizing

5. 6 Future trends in education and ICT

International organization of working and labor defines that educational need is a basic training with skills and long term contribution for all people. With considering for the changes and corrections, ICT will improve the education. Horizons of ambitions are available with corrections and so ICT can remove the gaps in

training. Today corrections had been depended on informed systems and it has not followed from traditional systems.

5.7 Future schools

1. Mean schools

Mean class is one of the ICT products in training. At this way, training is held in a special place and then it is reused in forwarding to another place. Using mean training is caused to change a role of computer to a class.

2. Intelligent schools

These schools have a compacted nature physically, i.e. they have a great gap from traditional schools and they use from ICT in learning/learned services. It has a differed meaning with a mean school. Students attend in a school but as a mean school. It's expected that these schools would improve and promote the quality of training more.

It is a kind of physical school with intelligent controlling by computer-assisted system and networks and thus contents are designed electronically with intelligent assessment. The roles of teachers, managers and students are usually changing at this way.

Aims:

1. Multi aspects growing for the students.
2. Individual promotions in abilities.
3. Scientific and experienced people training with technology
4. To increase people attendance rate.

In a school, based on IT, mainly view is changed in training and thus training content is adopted among the students and teachers. A smooth procedure to be not implemented in this way and thus a student follows a special and defined procedure in training. Some of the responsible of a teacher are: planning and content providing for training, ICT controlling, supervisory role for learning and efficient training.

5.8 Developmental advances in ICT and stages

In 1997, Uganda, there was a training plan under protection of a world bank. Its aim was helping to the state to attain internet and world web for the schools. That plan had three elements: Correlation, training and assessment. The plan got famous as soon at the world because of professional content for the progress and it was executed locally with on line services in five stages as follows:

Stage0: computer knowledge: the aim of this stage is to acquaintance with computer technology and helping to people at this case based on ICDL standard.

Stage1: acquaintance with internet for learning: the aim of this stage is learning basic concepts and necessary skills with new basic facilities) email projects making)

Stage2: acquaintance with remotely training system: the aim of this stage is learning remotely training by the structure in design and broadcasting the projects.

Stage3: the aim of this stage is Skills and how to make the practices innovatively with technology. Useful using from technology and its application in learning process.

Stage 4: innovations: training technique, technology and development: the aim of this stage is to promote the skills and assessment procedure and innovative actions in the class with controlling process.

6. Answer to the Research Question of the Study

The results of the raised questions are as follow:

RQ1: *To what extent today's teachers can beneficially affect today's modern technology and education?*

According to the results of the studies stated in this article and the researchers view we can conclude that capable teachers by combining scientific and moral skills with creative management in their classes can pave the way for better education.

RQ2: In today's world of knowledge, does information communication technology replace capable teachers?

Answer is certainly No. in fact ICT has made teacher's role better with student role. ICT has a global view with a new role in a class. Teacher model is changed to student one and so a teacher is defined as a facilitator and trainer. (a guide person for the students) basic duty of a teacher is how to state a question and problem making to reach information and its assessment. Thus teachers learn more about ICT, too. Some of them don't like to use from ICT.

7. Discussion

General Discussion

Today modern technology has a deep effect on humans' aspects. Training system is one of the exclusive systems at this case with information lines and sufficient knowledge to progress the aims. Traditional ways couldn't reply the recent needs, so flexible modern ways were replaced. Mean training using made time saving and expenses. It is a necessity factor not luxury option with cooperation and special minds and thoughts in this era. Formulating the structures in pre-service and in service terms is very important to reach for the skills such as:

- Computer knowledge
- Internet learning
- Technology and training plans
- Innovations of training.

In conclusion, the researchers believe that one of the main concerns of the today's world is the world of knowledge and some aspects of these concerns back to structural equipment of the educational settings. Schools and other educational settings in the world even in less-developed countries are equipped with latest technologies in teaching and these equipment's don't guarantee the development of the knowledge. The key point here is the accountable and professional teachers' duties that help improvement of the knowledge in educational settings and also pave the way for more progress in schools and other educational settings. The aforementioned progress required a comprehensive system that lead to the training of the trainers that have their own qualifying characteristics. In addition, in line with the educational objectives the head of the departments, school principals, or teacher trainers provide workshops or INSET programs to motivate, motivated teachers and keep them updated.

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SOCIAL AND POLITICAL FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

With Focus on the Role and Potentials of Family

Abstract:

Anyone can learn very little by himself. Others play a very important part and contribute a lot to his learning process. The presence of other persons is significant because a person learns from the knowledge obtained by others. Therefore, the process of getting education is always a social process. The word Sociology is derived from the combination of the Latin social meaning 'companion' and the Greek logos - meaning 'the study of'. Hence, the word literally means the study of companionship, or social relations. It is the science or study of the origin, development, organization, and functioning of human society. It is the science of fundamental laws of social behavior, relations, institutions, etc.

Obviously, the educational system has two important parts to play from a political point of view. It must ensure that the political leaders at each level are followed even by those in loyal opposition. Democracy is a system of government that demands a fair standard of education to ensure its continuance. Secondly, the educational system must be organized so that those with the intelligence necessary to lead at whatever level or in whatever sphere of the society can have the chance to do so. There are basically the

selective functions of education to which we now rely. There is a balance between the consequences of contemporary social organization. In some ways it is functional and in others it is dysfunctional where, however, there is no balance, a political decision may be necessary to rearrange the institution so as to meet the nation's present aims the family socio economic status is of paramount importance. In all societies, there is social stratification and each social class plays a dominant role in the cognitive development of a child.

In this article it is tried to illustrate and explain correlations between schools way of educations and importance of home factors, emotional factors, pattern of childrearing, parental environment, parental mode of behavior, childhood education and family training in one side and quality of socio-political behavior and orientations of children in future as citizens of their society.

Keywords: Education, Social Functions, Political Functions, Family Training, Learning Process, Political Behavior

Introduction:

Anyone can learn very little by himself. Others play a very important part and contribute a lot to his learning process. The presence of other persons is significant because a person learns from the knowledge obtained by others. Therefore, the process of getting education is always a social process. The word Sociology is derived from the combination of the Latin social meaning 'companion' and the Greek logos - meaning 'the study of'. Hence, the word literally means the study of companionship, or social relations. It is the science or study of the origin, development, organization, and functioning of human society. It is the science of fundamental laws of social behavior, relations, institutions, etc.

Meaning Sociology of Education:

Sociology of Education may be defined as the scientific analysis of the social processes and social patterns involved in the educational system. Peel (1971, p. 27) considers that "this assumes education is a combination of social acts and that sociology is an analysis of human interaction." Educational process goes on in a formal as well as in informal situations. Sociological analysis of the human interaction in education may include both situations and might lead to the development of scientific generalizations of human relations in the educational system.

The sociology of education is the study of how public institutions and individual experiences affect education and its outcomes. It is most concerned with the public schooling systems of modern industrial societies, including the expansion of higher, further, adult, and continuing education. It is a philosophical as well as a sociological concept, denoting ideologies, curricula, and pedagogical techniques of the inculcation and management of knowledge and the social reproduction of personalities and cultures.

It is concerned with the relationships, activities and reactions of the teachers and students in the classroom. It emphasizes sociological problems in the realm of education.

Relationship between Education and Sociology:

Education and sociology are issues used to classify and establish the interrelatedness between education and the society. The terms educational sociology and sociology of education are used in the discipline as approaches to the two extremes. The usage of the two terms rests on the preference of the expert. However, in the contemporary world, sociology of education is commonly in use. This is because educational sociology would imply an emphasis upon emphasizes sociological problems in the realm of education which is the concern of sociologists.

In blending the two concepts to become either educational sociology or sociology of education, the concern and focus is still on the society.

Educational sociology is the application of general principles and findings of sociology to the administration and processes of education. The approach means the application of sociology to the institution of education as a separate societal unit.

In the study of the various relations between education and society, the sociology of education is concerned with such general concepts as society itself, culture, community, class, environment, socialization, internalization, accommodation, assimilation, cultural lag, sub-culture, status, role and so forth.

Educational sociology is by definition a discipline which studies education sociologically, with the premise that it recognizes education as a social fact, a process and an institution, having a social function and being determined socially. Educational sociology could appear only when it accepted the social nature of education.

The need to Study the Sociology of Education:

Every society has its own changing socio – cultural needs and requires an education to meet these needs. Today’s needs are conservation of resources, environmental protection, global citizenship (Cosser, 1977). Therefore, education caters towards

meeting of these different needs. Since the needs of the society change education also changes. Hence there is need for studying sociology of education. It helps in understanding:

- Work of School and Teachers and its relation to society, social progress and development
- Effect of Social Elements on the working of school and society
- Effect of Social Elements on the life of individuals
- Construction of Curriculum in relation to the cultural and economic needs of the society
- Democratic ideologies present in different countries
- Need for understanding and promoting international culture
- Development of Society through the formulation of various regulations of culture and traditions
- Need for Promotion of Social Adjustment
- The effect of social groups, their interrelation and dynamics on individuals check your progress

The Early History of the Sociology of Education:

Modern sociology was born out of the Industrial Revolution and the increasing awareness of radical shifts in the social structure of society, in particular in Europe and England. But it was during this period that education as we know it was also expanding, so that in a way, industrialization and educational expansion went hand in hand.

Education did enter into the writings of the early classical sociologists, although not always in well thought-out forms.

Classical Origins:

Karl Marx (1818–1883) never fully developed or integrated education into his theory of capitalism and social class. But he and Fredrick Engels did refer to education frequently in their writings about the class struggle. They advocated education for all, but they were primarily concerned with the type of education that was given to the children of the working classes and how this education served the interests of the ruling class, the bourgeoisie, in maintaining their social dominance. Although Marx did not focus directly on education in his theory of society, his ideas have formed the base of what later would become known as neo-Marxist sociology of education. This perspective is very much related to forms of reproduction theory, in which education is thought to serve as a mechanism for reproducing the class structure of society, thereby reproducing the privileges of the dominant class.

Max Weber (1864–1920) is not normally regarded for his focus on education in his early sociological writings. Nevertheless, his theory of social structure and the inter-play between social class, social status, and power did acknowledge the importance of the mechanisms through which one social group could maintain its position in society (Garfinkle, 1967). Credentials that reflected the

possession of knowledge were one way in which individuals could make a legitimate claim for membership in particular class, status, or power groups. It follows implicitly that education, as a mechanism for the development and transmission of knowledge, is an important social institution in this stratification process.

The notion of education as a source of knowledge and its manifestation in educational credentials was also important in Weber's notion of bureaucracy and the increasing rationality

Durkheim did not believe these functions of education came about without conflict. Indeed, in his work *The Evolution of Educational Thought*, Durkheim traces the constant conflict between the church and state in France over the control of education. (Durkheim, 1938).

Other Classical Sociologists:

Other early social scientists recognized the importance of education. Three worth noting are Herbert Spencer (1820–1903), Thorstein Veblen (1857–1929), and Karl Mannheim (1893–1947). Although these social scientists did not have the same effect on the development of the sociology of education as did Marx, Weber, and Durkheim, they nevertheless merit mention because of the specific insights that each had about education.

Herbert Spencer was a contemporary of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim, but is not normally considered one of sociology's

founding fathers. As a British evolutionary sociologist, Spencer is best known for his work *First Principles* (1862), in which he put forward a social Darwinist view of society. Like Durkheim, he was one of the few early sociologists who wrote a separate work on education, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* (1861).

Mannheim believed that education could bring about an integrated society with a common morality—almost the same type of integrated society which Durkheim believed education could produce. Mannheim's lecture notes were posthumously published and became one of the first systematic books in the sociology of education (Mannheim & Stewart, 1969).

His contribution to the sociology of education was more applied than theoretical. Because he related education to social planning and social reconstruction, Mannheim frequently referenced Dewey in the United States, whom he admired (Coser, 1977).

Social Functions of Education:

Acquisition of knowledge and development of the personality of an individual is no longer presumed to be the main function of education. Functions are assumed to occur without directed effort. From the sociological point of view, education has the following functions:

- Assimilation and transmission of culture/traditions: This needs to be done consciously and selectively because traditions need to be selected for transmission as well as omission depending on their value and desirability in today's democratic set-up. For example, one needs to propagate the idea of 'Sarva Dharma Samabhav' meaning 'all Dharmas (truths) are equal to or harmonious with each other'.

- In recent times this statement has been taken as meaning "all religions are the same" - that all religions are merely different paths to God or the same spiritual goal. It emphasizes moral responsibilities in society that people should have towards each other. At the same time education should encourage people to do away with the custom of child marriage, untouchability etc. Education should help in:

- Acquisition/clarification of personal values
- Self-realization/self-reflection: awareness of one's abilities and goals
- Self-esteem/self-efficacy
- Cultural appreciation: art, music, humanities
- Developing a sense of well-being: mental and physical health
- Acquisition/clarification of values related to the physical environment
- Respect: giving and receiving recognition as human beings

Education should help to build up a qualified and creative workforce that can adapt to new technologies and take part in the ‘intelligence revolution’ that is the driving force of our economies.

It should:

Ensure capacity/ability to earn a living: career education:

- Develop mental and physical skills: motor, thinking, communication, social, aesthetic
- Produce citizens who can adapt, adjust according to social environment
- Produce citizens who can contribute towards the progress of society
- Produce citizens who will live democratically
- Create individuals who will make proper use of leisure time

Socialization of the Family and School Contents:

Agents of Socialization

- The Family
- The School
- The Peer Group
- Religious Houses
- Mass Media

Early Socialization:

The patterns of behaviours that a society has to pass on to its new recruits are referred to as its cultures. In a primitive society, the transmission of the culture was major part of education. It majorly focused on how the children are given what we call primary education in the family without ever entering a school. At the age of five or six children start to go to school, the family has already a great deal of educational care and nurture.

Much of the culture has by this age been transmitted. Also during the next few years when the majority of children are very malleable the school works alongside the family to have very potent influence on the child. The schools have come to consider that they have a pastoral care for their pupils for good moral upbringing to compliment the role of the family. But the values that the school tries to inculcate may be at odds with those that the family attempts to teach the child. For example, stealing may be taught very wrong by the teacher, but no one may prevent a country child from taking apples or mangoes from an orchard or a city child from taking fruit from a lorry moving through his playgrounds or streets.

The children could learn all the roles that they had to play from the education that they receive as they socialized within the school and the extended family because what they need to learn cannot all be taught with the nuclear family (Morris, 1978). This is because a

nuclear family belongs to one social class and mainly meets members of the same class or almost the same social class.

Agents of Socialization:

The survival of any society depends solidly on the sufficient degree of homogeneity amongst its members. Socialization perpetuates and reinforces this homogeneity by fixing in the child from the beginning the essential similarities that collective life demands. These essential life ingredients are transmitted through the family, school, mosque/church, peer group, market, mass media and so forth.

The Family

The family is one of the many small face-to-face groups that are called primary groups saddled with the responsibility of giving the offspring a qualitative and decent pattern of living. The family is expected to satisfy “sex needs” (reproduction), economic needs – feeding, clothing, shelter, medical provision, and so on. It is also expected to transmit the cultural values and norms to the young generation in order to be fully integrated into the society. The family is indeed the foundation of socialization because that is the first contact of the child.

The School

The school is another important agent of socialization. After the home, the child is exposed to the school which also influences him. It socializes the child, gives him the opportunity to manifest his qualities, potentialities, capabilities, instincts, drives and motives and helps to develop his personality. For the child, the teacher's personality and character provide a mode which he strives to copy, thereby consciously molding his personality. This is true only of those teachers who succeed in arousing in the child's mind an attachment and love of themselves. Every little action, every movement, speech made by the teacher impresses itself on the child's mind.

The Peer Group

The peer group is the child's own friends and equals with similar drives, motives and interests. The social world of the child has its own mode of interaction, its own values and acceptable forms of behaviour, many of which adults cannot understand. It is a world in which the child has equal and at times superior status to others. Peer groups take shape early in the child's life. In the earlier years, these peer groups are relatively informal and transitory, adapted quickly to changing circumstances in the child's situation.

Religious Houses

Religion might be described as a reflection of man's attempts to explain those aspects of his environment which he cannot understand. Except in terms of the super – natural – what is the purpose of life? What happens to people when they die? In our society as in many others people's religious beliefs are founded on the idea that God is the supernatural power responsible for the creation of life.

Mass Media

The mass media as an agent of socialization have their own technical characteristics. There are two major types namely "Print and Electronic. The print is in the group of newspapers, magazines, periodicals, texts, bill boards and so on. While the electronics are the Radio, Television, video, projectors and so forth. These form avenues for socialization. Media are clearly in competition with one another for a restricted period of leisure time though there is one exception to this generalization.

Social Stratification:

Meaning of Social Stratification

The concept of social stratification could be related to the classic parable by George Orwell which stipulates that "All Animals are equal but some are more equal than the others". This parable is a fitting introduction, which is centrally concerned with the inequalities of privilege on the part of the constituent groups of society which

compares and ranks individuals and groups. These comparisons are valuations or judgment of relative worth and when members of a group agree, those judgments of relative worth are social valuations.

All societies differentiate their members in terms of roles. Some roles are regarded as more important or socially more valuable than others and the persons who perform more highly esteemed roles are rewarded more highly. When groups are ranked with some degree of performance, there is stratification. Hence, the process by which individuals and groups are ranked in a more or less enduring hierarchy of status is known as stratification.

Agents of Social Stratification:

The Family

The family plays the most significant role in the development of an individual. Freud believed that the impressions made upon the child's personality as an adult by the family is very crucial. There are also factors of social environment that may affect a child which include the occupational status of his parents, the parents' attitude towards their children schooling and the expectations they have for their children.

The School

Social stratification within the school, commonly known as streaming, refers to the division of school children into age groups according to ability and intelligence. The brightest children are made to form one class while those that follow in ability form another class. The children are divided into groups, purely according to the merit of the individual.

Occupation

In modern societies, roles have become very diverse and complex. Skills are learned through formal education systems, and education has a lot to do with employment, the occupation one follows is mostly related to the skills and knowledge which one has acquired.

Educational Implications of Social Stratification:

In analyzing educational issues, it must be borne in mind that there exist class and group structure, where vital facts emerge regarding such concepts as power, status, prestige, life chances, life styles, pattern of consumption, leisure activities and occupations.

There are also closely related issues of human development such as culture, education and socialization which have implication for stratification. In all the ramifications of the literature on class as social groupings, it is not easy for anyone, whether pundit or

dilettante, to obtain any final and clear cut view on social stratification. However, the fact remains that people can be classified according to occupational prestige, income, education or other closely associated indicators of social status and that such classification are not merely statistical categories but reflect differences in values, goals, attitudes and behaviours within the educational realm.

Socialization and Education:

The teaching of the basic knowledge and skills necessary to earn a living in a modern community has been handed down through the educational system; literacy is one of such skill and knowledge. In the same way schools can undertake much of the vocational guidance that is essential to steer a child into the job for which is most suited. This task is unnecessary in a primitive village.

In the contemporary Nigerian Society, skills and knowledge acquisition through the school are tied to white-collar jobs which are no longer in agreement with the reality in the labour market. The labour market in the public establishment is full to capacity and that is why the graduates from our institutions of learning complain of unemployment. Literacy as it is perceived in Nigeria is not meant for white-collar jobs but to assist in capacity building and high level of productivity in our chosen career.

Culture:

Culture has been variedly defined by the different authorities in the field of social sciences most especially sociologists. Linton defined culture as the configuration of learned behaviour, and the result of behaviour, whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society. In the same token, culture is seen as the social heredity that is passed on by the social group from generation to generation.

Kasper referred to culture as a collective term for patterns of essential and normative assertions taken from literature, language or drama or sounds in music, or symbols in sculpture and art, or movement in dance and ballet of fashion in clothes and so forth. Right from the time immemorial, human beings lived together in a given place and at a given time. A society was formed in this way. Set of individuals organized themselves to lead group life. In their social interactions, the people had common interest which makes them to have a common pattern of behaviors.

The Role of Family Background in early Childhood Education:

The family educates the child on the immediate experiences. Even the educationists have become aware of the vital importance of early years in children cognitive development and of the facts that the home is the first of several teachers. This fact in essence, highlights the impacts of the family background in early childhood education.

Childhood is a period during which a child needs the knowledge of the universe in which he lives, the nature of the people and the materials in it.

This in essence calls for parental influence. For instance, the family socio economic status is of paramount importance. In all societies, there is social stratification and each social class plays a dominant role in the cognitive development of a child. For example, the importance of home factors, emotional factors, pattern of childrearing, parental environment, parental mode of behaviour are significant factors in determining a child's early childhood education.

Family and the School:

The family is one of the primary groups of society, concerned with face to face interaction or relationships. Throughout man's history, however and throughout the world both the family and the institution of marriage display a considerable cultural variability. But whatever forms such institution take, they have regard to the fact that the human child is for a long time dependent for its biological survival upon the adult members of those institutions. There are two types of family namely the extended and the nuclear family. The extended family or kin group is found and can span three generations within the total household. On the other hand, nuclear family comprises basically the father, the mother and the children.

The family is vested with the responsibility of educating the offspring. Parents are expected to train their children in school for moral, spiritual, vocational and economic empowerment. The parents and teachers are required to work collaboratively to mold the child in school. The parents as well as the teachers in school are to collectively grant the child psychological development by providing him with security and love for emotional stability. Musgrave further stresses the need that the institution of marriage is not just a social contrivance to ensure its own security and futurity through the family.

Family as an Agent of Education:

The family as an institution safeguards the child during its period of biological immaturity; it is also an institution which provides for the child's primary socialization and initial education. Mitchell pointed out that parenthood is rapidly becoming a highly self-conscious vocation. And it is the realm of inter-personal relationships and social interaction that this self-consciousness operates.

Socialization which is one of the primary functions of the family is to assist in the adaptation of an individual to his social environment and is eventually recognized as both a co-operating and efficient member of the family. At quite an early age, a child begins to place himself in the position of others, that is, to take on the role of others, but it is done in a very imitative and uncomprehending way. For

example, a boy may copy his father by reading the newspaper even though the paper may be held upside down.

Moreover, the role-relationships which are required in the society may be totally lacking in the home not necessarily because it is a “bad home” in the generally accepted sense of the term but because the beliefs of the parents are restricted and restricting. There may be a conflict of loyalties developed in the child through his early education which will result in an ambivalence of feelings and relationships. The failure or success of any society depends solidly on the type of family organization present.

The Family and the Classroom Behaviour:

A child’s classroom behaviour is obviously a product of many influences, both in school and out of it. We should be wary about asserting too much about the causes of a child’s behaviour in the school. Teachers know from experience that the home background of the child greatly influences his behaviour in the classroom and speculate accurately or inaccurately about the family from simply observing the child in school.

There are two extremes about the child’s behaviour in the classroom. There is continuity of the home and the classroom when both the home and the school share common set of shared values and holds

similar aspiration for the child. The other extreme is when the home and school do not have a common set of shared values.

Consequently, children tend to behave acceptably when the home and school share common ideas about child rearing and hold similar standards for behaviour. Conversely, when there is disagreement between the shared values of the school and home the child's behaviour tend not to be in conformity with the school environment.

Social Functions of Education:

It may be found that the way in which education is organized is not meeting the aims assigned to it. The sociological term used to describe this state, is dysfunction and comes by analogy from the field of medicine. Just as illness brings dysfunction to the body, so there may be dysfunction in the social system. Furthermore, this element of dysfunction may be either latent or manifest.

Often there is a balance between the consequences of contemporary social organization. In some ways it is functional and in others it is dysfunctional where, however, there is no balance, a political decision may be necessary to rearrange the institution so as to meet the nation's present aims. It is convenient to consider the social function of education under five headings:

1. The transmission of the culture of the society, here the need is basically the conservative way of passing on the main pattern of society through schools.
2. The provision of innovations, someone must initiate the social change that is necessary for a society to survive under modern conditions such change may be, for example, technical, political or artistic.
3. The political function, this may be looked at in two ways. There is first, the need to provide political leaders at all levels of democratic society and second, there is the demand that education should help to preserve the present system of government by ensuring loyalty to it.
4. The function of social selection, the educational system is central to the process by which the more ables are sorted out of the population as a whole.
5. The economic function, here the need is that all levels or the labour force should be provided with the quantity and quality of educated manpower required under the current technical condition.

Economic Function of Education:

It is pertinent to examine in some detail the way in which the educational system helps to maintain the economy. The economic function of the educational system is to provide the labour force with the manpower that matches the need of the economy and to give

future consumers the knowledge that we require. We shall proceed by examining first the qualitative and then the quantitative aspects of this problem.

Quantity and quality are not independent of each other since the quality or level of skill, of the bulk of the labour force will be of the determinant of the quantity of supervisory role for instance, of the foreman that are necessary.

Functional analysis of social institutions carried out in an unbiased way as possible can bring such conflicts to light. This can be done for social institutions in their existing forms, but it can also precede political decisions to older institution. This should help to prevent the creation of social institution that is structured to increase conflict. Such an analysis will also show where conflict may emerge and thereby force a clear decision on political priorities. The functions of education are complex and closely interrelated.

The Political Function of Education:

The political function of educational system has two tasks. If the political unit as it is now constituted is to survive, there is a need that all its members especially the new generation coming to the age when it can exercise political power, shall be loyal to the assumptions underlying the present system of government. This consensus is often taken for granted but one of its main services

whether consciously pursued or not, lay within the educational system, secondly there is the necessity that the country shall be led.

Whatever is the type of government that exists in the country, its leaders must come from within it if it is to remain independent. The schools can play a major role in both the selection and the training of leaders. When we talk about leaders in a democracy, to whom are we referring? We certainly include political leaders such as members of the Cabinet. We should include members of parliament and the more active members of the Senate. The higher grades of the Civil Service must be added, since they are part of governing machinery of the country and have considerable powers of their own.

Obviously, the educational system has two important parts to play from a political point of view. It must ensure that the political leaders at each level are followed even by those in loyal opposition. Democracy is a system of government that demands a fair standard of education to ensure its continuance. Secondly, the educational system must be organized so that those with the intelligence necessary to lead at whatever level or in whatever sphere of the society can have the chance to do so. There are basically the selective functions of education to which we now rely.

Conclusion:

Acquisition of knowledge and development of the personality of an individual is no longer presumed to be the main function of education. Functions are assumed to occur without directed effort. From the sociological point of view, education has the following functions:

1- Assimilation and transmission of culture/traditions: This needs to be done consciously and selectively because traditions need to be selected for transmission as well as omission depending on their value and desirability in today's democratic set-up development of new social patterns: Today the world is changing very fast due to development of technology and communication

2- Activation of constructive and creative forces: Education should help to build up a qualified and creative workforce that can adapt to new technologies and take part in the 'intelligence revolution' that is the driving force of our economies

The political function of educational system has two tasks. If the political unit as it is now constituted is to survive, there is a need that all its members especially the new generation coming to the age when it can exercise political power, shall be loyal to the assumptions underlying the present system of government.

Among the various social factors affecting education the family plays a crucial role for its long time impact on children to educated for the future. Therefore, it is the duty of the families to provide proper facilities for the new generation to be able to act as a normal human being to become a civilised citizen in his/ her country, to become both socially and politically useful member of the society.

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Linguistic Imperialism

Meta-Analysis to the English Language's Power in Globalized World

Introduction:

The global spread of the English language can be seen as linked to linguistic imperialism, in particular, where English becomes dominant at the expense of indigenous languages. The spread of English may marginalize other languages since English can be a gatekeeper to education, employment, business opportunities and popular culture. Pennycook (1995) is suspicious that the spread of English is beneficial but points out that the language can also be appropriated and changed, in many cases (2001).

Cooke (1988) uses the metaphor of the Trojan horse to describe the way that English may be welcomed initially in a country but then cause concern as it dominates the native language(s) and cultures. The English language, however, may be appropriated by other cultures. The emergence of new forms of World Englishes, with new rhetorical styles, has implications for language acquisition and language teaching. The pedagogic implications are important as different varieties of English become the norm for communication.

In the Australian context, the varieties might be Aboriginal English(es) or Australian English. Linguistic imperialism is an ever-

present threat arising from the global spread of English, even when English is welcomed as a lingua franca. Phillipson's working definition of linguistic imperialism is that 'the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages' (1992 p. 47).

On the other hand, there is constant reciprocity between globalization and localization (Pennycook 2001, p. 5). Language teachers, accordingly, should try to empower their students so that English does not exert a hegemonic influence over local cultures. Linguicism is defined as ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language (Phillipson 1992, p. 47). In the field of English language teaching (ELT) there is a demand for both kinds of resources.

Keywords: *Linguistic Imperialism, Dominant Language, Trojan horse, Cultural Inequalities, Language Power*

English's World:

World Englishes are the global varieties of English in their distinctive cultural and sociolinguistic contexts. These fertile varieties of Englishes demonstrate the widespread influence of the English language. The rise of World Englishes has been investigated by Kachru and Nelson (1996) who point out that Asian and African nations have expanded the role of English, adding 'grammatical innovations and tolerances, lexis, pronunciations, idioms, and discourse' (p. 72). There are many dialectal varieties of English e.g. Australian, Canadian and American English and these can be regarded in a negative way if compared to Standard English (SE) or Received Pronunciation (RP). Yet Standard English is, after all, just one dialect amongst many. Indeed, Trudgill has pointed out the wide dialect distinctions evident in modern British English (1990 p. 328). The Macquarie Dictionary (1981) conveys the distinctiveness of the Australian accent in the pronunciation of words e.g. garage and in the lexis (or word choice) e.g. drongo (the name of a racehorse in the 1920s which never won a race). These differences are reflective of the changing nature of the English language in different contexts. 4 Nino-Murcia, from the University of Iowa, relates some recent attitudes towards World Englishes: a nearly universal ideology in Peru manifests itself in the belief that "hard currency" cultural capital in the form of English competence is needed for technological advancement, employment opportunities, national

progress and international travel. In education, there are increasing but ineffectual investments in public schools and a mushrooming private school industry. The struggle for linguistic distinction generates a low-level language war, where colonially rooted anxieties about race and class come into conflict with popular aspirations for social mobility' (2003 p. 121). Here, there are reasons stated why English may be favoured as an entrance into a more privileged world, contrasted with the desire to maintain local languages.

The English language as a Trojan horse:

Cooke (1988) uses the metaphor of the Trojan horse to describe the way that English may be welcomed initially in a country but then cause concern as it dominates the native language(s) and cultures. The metaphor builds on the historical story of the giant wooden horse, which concealed Greek soldiers who wanted to invade Troy. In modern computerese, Trojan horse programs are called Trojans (or remote access Trojans or trapdoors) where hidden programming is concealed which can later destroy data when they escape into other programs. Where antivirus software is used to combat computer Trojans, language teachers must find other resources. Cooke's (1988) metaphor is a valid one, suggesting that colonialism and class interests threaten indigenous languages and act as a gatekeeper to employment and economic opportunities. There is

inner conflict in the learning of English since it may carry unwanted ideologies and cultures, like a Trojan horse (Canararajah 1999, p. 3).

Implications of the spread of English:

Since language is the 'production, distribution and circulation of knowledge, linguistic and cultural capital (Dua 1994, p. 89) then there is the danger that vernacular languages are marginalised. The spread of English causes language change, often to the extent that indigenous languages are 'killed'. However, the dominance of English can also provoke a resurgence of interest in local languages (cf. Welsh). Language change may be a conceptual change. Muhlhausler (1996 pp. 236-37) illustrates the conceptual differences in the perception of time as a cycle and time as an arrow: 'Culture in the former case is geared towards understanding seasons, lifecycles and the inherent nature of being whilst the arrow view emphasizes progress change and evolution. The latter is the standard view of literate Western societies today' (Muhlhausler 1996, p. 236). He points out that English may be introduced without thinking of the ramifications for the real needs of the indigenous populations, focusing only on the perceived needs of the government. The indigenous languages may lose prestige and this may lead to gradual language attrition. Muhlhausler (1996) deplores the decline of linguistic diversity in the Pacific region: 'Linguists share the very human trait of not realizing that something is being lost until it is

gone. I hope that they will grasp the last opportunities to learn from traditional languages and cultures before these are irretrievably lost' (1996 p. 308). He is quite specific about the effects of the spread of English, noting the erosion of languages and the loss of linguistic diversity: 'indigenous languages of the Pacific and Australian area are declining and dying at an alarming rate. Others, under the influence of video, mission and near universal schooling in English or French, are being progressively Westernized, particularly in their semantics' (1996 p. 337). The Western media and the Internet are major agencies, which advance cultural imperialism. However, the Internet in particular can help to preserve 6 minority languages through its websites and ability to communicate information.

Cultural deprivation may result if the first language 'dies' but the language learner remains incompetent (or even fluent) in English. Speakers may believe they lack competence in both languages and find that this has important ramifications in their lives, affecting their social and employment opportunities. Non-native speakers of English may encounter prejudices: National identity should not be a basis of classification of speakers of an international language. The more English becomes an international language, the more the division of its speakers into "native" and "nonnative" becomes inconsistent' (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy 2001, p. 105).

English is increasing in areas of science and education (assisted by the Internet). Non-native speakers may experience discrimination in the field of international scientific publishing where the inner circles have the power. Ammon suggests that 'They should use their growing number as their argument, among others. In face of these numbers, rigorous enforcement of native-speaker standards amounts to the suppression of a disadvantaged majority by a privileged minority' (2000 p. 116). However, journal editors may invite and encourage contributors from minority groups, striving to ensure that their voices are heard. The politics and pedagogy of appropriating discourses is a complex issue. Canagarajah (1999) writing as a Sri Lankan Tamil, advises the appropriation of English to the vernacular so that it is turned to the advantage of indigenous culture. Rather than rejecting English as the embodiment of colonialism, he advises reconstituting it (1999, p. 2) so that English can be used as the language of empowerment. Code mixing and SWitching take place for learners of English as they extend their repertoire of English in formal and other contexts.

Pedagogic implications in the ESOL classroom:

The pedagogic implications are important as different varieties of English become the norm for communication. A key question is what kind of English should be taught, gauging the relative need of learners for local varieties and/or Standard English. Intelligibility in

communicating information, especially in the social context of informal exchange, should be seen as the initial aim. Adherence to a perceived Standard English may not be attained and/or desired by speakers. The ability to communicate in English is much more than a control of grammatical features and of lexis: paralinguistic factors and pronunciation are also important in communication. Malcolm (1994) discusses the problems of communication between users of Aboriginal English and speakers of Standard Australian English. Malcolm describes Australian Aboriginal English (AAE) as 'unique at all levels of linguistic description. It is unmistakably English It is English adopted by Aboriginal people for the purpose of providing their own construction of themselves for living in a culturally ambiguous world' (Malcolm 1994 p. 291). Examples from urban/metropolitan Aboriginal English share features with English spoken by non-Aboriginal speakers: 1. Non-standard past and participial forms of certain verbs, e.g. brang, ated 2. have omission with perfect of be, e.g. I been 3. was/were reversed and other instances of non-standard concord, e.g. I weren't, we was. Plural of you, i.e. yous 5. me and him, etc. I subject positions, e.g. me and him went swimming; 6. Non-standard reflexives, e.g. hisself (Malcolm 1991, p. 73). 8 Kaldor and Malcolm (1991) indicate how Aboriginal English(es) and, by extension, other varieties of English, might be regarded: These speech varieties were generally lumped together under such labels as 'pidgin', 'jargon', 'perverted', 'corrupt',

'disjointed' or 'broken English'. At best, they were dismissed as quaint manifestations of valiant but not quite successful attempts by Aboriginal people to speak English, and at worst, seen as varieties to be ridiculed and eradicated (1991, p. 67). A similar view was evinced in the 1950s (and later) about the status of Australian English as 'a debased or inferior version of English' (Ozolins 1993, p. 14). Malcolm shows that 'despite the apparent isolation of Australian Aboriginal people, their dialect and their ways of using it, have much in common with what has been reported for other world Englishes' (1994, p. 300). However, these out-dated views are seen as out-dated in recent texts such as Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, 2nd edition. The appreciation of dialects should also acknowledge the recognition that Standard English dialects may be needed in educational and workplace settings. Adding Standard English to the language repertoire may be a goal for some learners if they can see that its possession confers social status and economic advantages. Learning English can be enrichment rather than 'an imposition on their value system, identity, and community solidarity' (Canagarajah 1999, p. 174).

Teaching/learning English in the ESOL classroom:

The language teaching profession can play a role by bringing critical awareness to bear on the question of linguistic imperialism. The following recommendations reinforce teaching practices which can assist the second language learner. Teachers need to show students that English has many varieties.

Indeed, there are many varieties in regional accents even where there are relatively homogenous speech patterns, as in Australia. Pauline Bryant (in Romaine, ed. 1991) has shown the regional usage in the lexicon of Australian English. As Kachru states 'It is the vehicle of cross-cultural awareness that can be used not only to teach but to learn, in bi-directional ways, multicultural literatures, customs, and acceptance' (1986 p. 95).

Students can check differences in varieties between writers/speakers of the English-speaking world and those where English is a second or other language. This might be done through studying excerpts from the literature of native and non-native speakers (e.g. Derek Walcott). World Englishes reveal the many perceptions of reality and multiple experiences and can thus act as a medium for international understanding. Engagement with different kinds of English(es) can lead to a rich educational experience. Studying World Englishes will demonstrate how a range of speakers possesses

different notions of conversation (e.g. introductions, closure, politeness markers).

Appreciation of the diversity of Englishes demonstrates to all the great number of cultures in the world and the influence of context on language features. These can be found in spoken English from local speakers of different varieties. For example, the following authentic examples come from a language teaching video (Todd 2001): "As a writer, I use Pidgin to communicate with the audience" Playwright "Mammy says I would've gone, and Nana says I woulda went" Fouryear-old "This is not a fable - it's a fact. I'm th' oldest woman in the hills of Tennessee" Senior citizens "I find that I cannot use German to discuss feminism, because I learned about feminism through English" European 3.

Teachers can show tolerance and acceptance of different rhetorical styles of English. For example, academic writing conventions in universities are sometimes imposed for reasons of uniformity and 'past practice'. As Yamuna Kach ru advises: If the professionals in English education take a leading role in adopting a more socially realistic approach to academic writing, it will result in according respect (Cameron, 1992) to all institutionalized varieties of English. Unnecessary rigidity in prescribing a single linear pattern of academic writing, on the other hand, devalues rhetorical styles that

represent the multiple voices of users of English in the world (Kachru Y. 1997, p. 345).

She points out that it is a kind of unacceptable behaviourism to change the rhetorical patterns of users of English who are not native speakers (Kachru, Y. 1997 p. 345). There should be the recognition that English can be used for specific purposes and that teachers do not have to teach the 'whole language' with a perfect accent. The need of learners may be to learn only particular functions of language e.g. for scientific or business purposes. Students may find the suggested format for an academic essay as constraining or in conflict with their traditional style of writing. For example, they may wish to have an introduction which states the topic in a more oblique fashion rather than a bald/bold assertion of what will be discussed. Literature (poetry, drama and novels) written in World Englishes exposes students to new uses of language. Creative writers may regard English as a 'necessary sin'.

Writers can appropriate English for their own uses. Authors (and their publishers) may argue that they can reach a wider audience and thus have a more powerful influence if they communicate in English. The domination of English allows for a more enriched existence because of the greater possibilities of interacting with other cultures. Learning English does not necessarily mean that the original languages are forgotten or dismissed. The creativity of different

varieties is seen in Bolton (2000) when writing of literary creativity in Hong Kong English writing, indicating a vital culture e.g. Andrew Parkin and Laurence Wong (1997), *Hong Kong Poems*. The appropriation of English is evident when it combines with the local vernacular, adding to it expressions and vocabulary from English.

The factors surrounding language change are well explained in Aitchison's text (2000) which shows that language change is not a process of either progress or decay. Language teachers need to take care that tests and assessment practices do not discriminate against users of World English(es). Lowenberg warns:

'In order to assess this proficiency accurately, examiners must be able to distinguish deficiencies in the second language acquisition of English by these speakers (errors) from varietal differences in the speakers' usage resulting from their having learned such non-native norms' (2000 pp. 217-218). Therefore, to have validity, tests 'must accommodate the empirical fact that native-speaker varieties of English no longer provide the norms which all the world's non-native speakers - who now comprise by far the majority of the world's English users - attempt to follow (Lowenberg 2000, p. 224).

More realistic goals about language learning are necessary, instead of having Standard English as the ideal to be attained. Gupta states this position clearly: the needs of the learners in using English are

not to be seen as a need to interact with people from an inner circle country.

There should be no innate hierarchies of American English, British English or Australian English. Different countries assign different values to the English language. It may be highly regarded because its possession can confer status, wealth, power and access to employment (1999, p. 70). A positive affective environment is most important for students.

In the classrooms, there must be a growing acceptance of the use of the first language and dialectal varieties: 'the rationale used to justify English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound' (Auerbach 1993, p. 9).

It is likely that using the native language in ESL instruction will facilitate instruction in English and the transition to a wider repertoire of English. It helps to raise the self-esteem of students and thus leads to more effective learning, acting as a bridge to English. Use of the mother tongue may hasten the acquisition of English and allow students to draw on a wider range of language resources.

It also shows that the teacher values the language of the students. Students may learn to value their variety of English when they understand that English is not 'owned' by the English speakers and those in the 'inner' circle.

Conclusion:

The global spread of the English language is pervasive as it is linked to education, politics, economics, science and technology, culture and the media. Active resistance to linguistic imperialism (Phillipson & SkutnabbKangas 1996) is needed to combat the diffusion of English in those places where it results in inequalities and an imbalance of power. Where English is not the 'ancestral' language or that used by the majority of the population, learners can 'appropriate' English to their own purposes, adding to a richer language repertoire. The way forward is to promote the 'pluralistic identities and hybrid discourses' desired by communities (Canagarajah 1999, p. 173).

English language professionals in the ESOL classroom can play a crucial role by checking their own pedagogical practices. They can teach critical awareness about ideological domination and introduce strategies to validate indigenous languages. Teachers can also focus on the positive aspects of learning English, encouraging their students to communicate with the vast number of speakers of World Englishes throughout the world.

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SOCIO-CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LANGUAGE

Overview on the Correlations between Textbooks and Classrooms Discourses

Abstract:

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between textbooks and the topic, type and organization of discourse used in Iranian private language institutes in the two parts of reading comprehension and conversation of common EFL textbooks used in Iranian language institutes. Besides, this survey sought to probe the differences between the viewpoints of Iranian EFL teachers and EFL students in private language institutes about the relationship between topic, type and organization of discourse in reading comprehension and conversation parts of common textbooks used in Iranian private language institutes.

Using Chronbach's Alpha and factor analyses the questionnaires were found to have acceptable reliability and validity rates. The results of three qualitative analyses of different reading comprehension and conversation extracts indicated that there were significant relationships between: a) topics of discourse and reading comprehension and conversation sections of EFL textbooks, b) types

of discourse and reading comprehension and conversation parts of EFL textbooks, and c) organization of discourse and reading comprehension and conversation of EFL textbooks.

Since the results of this study indicated that there was a significant relationship between the three dimensions of classroom discourse and reading comprehension and conversation sections of EFL textbooks in Iranian language institutes, it seems reasonable to suggest that EFL/ESL teachers try to select and adapt textbooks so as to help learners develop their language skills, especially speaking and reading.

It seems necessary for syllabus designers, materials developers and even EFL teachers to have needs analysis based on students' needs and wants for language learning and prepare or select EFL textbooks that fulfill student's needs and their own goals.

Key Words: Topic of Discourse, Type of Discourse, Organization of Discourse, Classroom Discourse, Textbooks

Introduction:

Research on language teaching and learning has increased greatly in the last two decades mostly with the advent of action research for English language teachers. Unlike general research on

second language acquisition, which is based on tests and other elicitation techniques of inter-language performance, classroom research is based on observation and analysis of classroom activities, teachers' and learners' speech and behavior and the form and function of social and pedagogical interaction in second language classrooms (Tudor, 2001).

Since spoken language is “the medium by which much teaching takes place and in which students show to teachers much of what they have learned” (Cazden, 1987, p. 38, as cited in Wittrock, 1988), the application of discourse analysis to second language teaching and learning can reveal much about how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use in the classroom, and how students can learn language through exposure to different types of discourse.

According to van Lier (1988), classroom discourse has three dimensions: what the talk is about (topic), what is being done through the talk (type), and how it is done (organization). Classroom discourse is a form of institutional talk and as such has

certain characteristics. For example, as described by van Lier (1988, p. 139), firstly, it is oriented to pedagogical goals; the participants interact for the specific purpose of learning. Secondly, the participants have the roles of both the giver and the receiver of instruction and, therefore, have unequal rights of participation.

Nunan (1991) pointed out: Language classrooms are complex social systems for many reasons including the many purposes of talk. Even if we limit attention to talk that is part of an official class, there are still multiple agendas within language classrooms-shifting from hour to hour and even minute to minute (Tsui, 2003).

Research Questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between textbooks and classroom discourse in terms of topics of discourse employed in Iranian private language institutes?
2. Is there any significant relationship between textbooks and classroom discourse in terms of types of discourse employed in Iranian private language institutes?
3. Is there any significant relationship between textbooks and classroom discourse in terms of organization of discourse employed in Iranian private language institutes?

4. Is there any significant difference between the viewpoints of Iranian EFL learners and teachers in language institutes about the relationship between topics, types and organization of discourse and the discourse of textbooks used in Iranian private language institutes?

Theoretical Background:

Classroom Discourse

Classrooms are full of talk and some commentators have even suggested that schools are ‘saturated’ with it. There are different types of classroom talk for a range of different purposes. An international research study conducted in primary classrooms in five countries (the ‘Five Nations Study’) has demonstrated the powerful learning effects of skillfully used ‘dialogic teaching’. This approach has been defined as classroom teaching where teachers and learners both make substantial and significant contributions through which learner’s thinking on particular ideas and/ or themes is moved forward (Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

Research on classroom interaction and classroom events originated in the field of general education in the 1950s for teacher education purposes. It was motivated by the search for objective assessments of student-teachers’ performance in the classroom and the identification of effective teaching (Tsui, 2008). The first major

attempt was made by Flanders who proposed a systematic analysis of classroom interaction with a comprehensive guidance referred to as Flander's Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) (Flanders, 1960). Studies of interaction in SL (second language) and FL (foreign language) classrooms began in the 1960s and were largely influenced by Flanders' work.

There is a plethora of classroom discourse instruments based on FIAC for language teacher training. Early studies of SL/FL classroom interaction were also driven by the need to evaluate the effectiveness of the various FL teaching methodologies in the hope that the "best" method would be identified. The discourse analysis tradition in language classroom research grew out of the contributions of various disciplines. It provided a foundation for research in applied linguistics and language pedagogy.

English Materials or ELT Textbooks:

While materials play a vital role in most language classrooms, they are frequently overlooked in classroom-based research. As a simple example, in Bailey and Nunan's (1996) *Voices from the language classroom*, an edited volume of classroom-based studies, while the index contains no fewer than 39 references to "materials" in the book, no single chapter takes materials as its main focus. This does not mean that there is no research on second language materials, but

rather than the large literature on materials includes very few classroom-based studies (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013).

Concerning materials development and designation, a review of literature shows that no single set of criteria for second or foreign language materials is universally appropriate for all classroom contexts (Harwood, 2010; Johnson, 2003; Littlejohn & Windeat, 1988; McDonough & Shaw, 2003; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2008, 2011, 2012; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010).

Teachers and publishers should play a crucial role in the production of culturally appropriate materials (Harwood, 2010; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010; Zacharias, 2005). Moreover, “It would certainly inform the materials development process if we knew more about what teachers actually do with the materials they are given to use” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 157). Harwood (2010) asserts that qualitative classroom-based research on second language materials is “the key” to advancing this area of applied linguistics research (p. 18).

Classroom Discourse Observation (CDO) Checklist:

During direct classroom observation, a Classroom Discourse Observation (CDO) checklist (Arellano, 1994) was employed (see Appendix A). This instrument was piloted with 50 subjects similar to those of the present study and a confirmatory factor analysis was run

to ensure its validity to determine whether it was an appropriate and suitable instrument for the Iranian context.

As Table 1 shows, the KMO measure is .70 which indicates that enough items are predicted by each factor. Bartlett's Test was significant ($p=0$) which indicates that relationship between variables was strong and variables were correlated highly enough to provide a reasonable basis for factor analysis. Therefore, this instrument had an acceptable validity rate.

Table 1: The results of the KMO and Bartlett's Test for the CDO Checklist

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
.701
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square
Sphericity
528
Sig.
.000

Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha consistency was run to estimate the reliability of the CDO checklist. The reliability of the checklist in this survey, as shown in Table 2, was 0.81.

Table 2: The results of the reliability statistics of the CDO Checklist

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No. of Items
.809	.812	26

Two Semi-Structured Interviews:

Two semi-structured interviews based on the relationship between the three dimensions of classroom discourse and EFL textbooks developed by the researcher with regard to the three dimensions of classroom discourse (topic, type and organization of discourse), one with the teachers and the other one with students, were carried out and audio-recorded to gain a clear picture of classroom discourse activities and discourse dimensions in language classes when working upon conversation and reading comprehension parts in the textbooks.

Table 3: The results of the KMO and Bartlett's Test for the two semi-structured interviews

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.721
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square	
Sphericity	df
518	
	Sig.
.000	

As Table 3 indicates, the KMO measure is .72 that shows enough items are predicted by each factor to provide a reasonable basis for factor analysis. Thus, it had an acceptable validity rate.

Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha consistency was run to estimate the reliability of the interviews. The reliability of the checklist in this survey, as shown in Table 4, was 0.82.

Table 4: The results of the reliability statistics of the interviews

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No. of Items
.819	.822	15

Two structured researcher-made questionnaires:

Other data collection instruments used in this study were two structured researcher-made questionnaires based on classroom discourse dimensions. The questionnaires (one for teachers and one for students) were written in Persian to be well understood especially by students. The questionnaires were aimed to obtain pupils' and teachers' viewpoints concerning the relationship between the type, topic and organization of discourse and reading comprehension and conversation parts of EFL textbooks commonly used in Iranian language institutes. Each questionnaire contained 24 items designed on a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree). The questionnaires were based on three factors of topic, type and organization of discourse (see Appendices B and C).

These instruments were also piloted with 50 subjects similar to those of the present study and a factor analysis (KMO) was run to ensure its validity. The results of KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of sphericity in Table 3 indicated that these questionnaires enjoyed acceptable validity rates as presented in Table 4 which indicated that this instrument had an acceptable validity rate.

The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Scheme/System:

Using a mixed method or hybrid design, a qualitative data collection instrument was also used in this study. This instrument was the COLT Scheme/System developed by Spada and Fröhlich (1995). It consists of two parts. Part A focuses on the description of classroom activities and contained five sections: (a) the activity type, (b) the participant organization (participation pattern like group work), (c) the content, (d) the student modality (skill type), and (e) the materials. Part B aims at capturing the communicative features of classroom, addressing seven features: (a) use of target language, (b) information gap, (c) sustained speech (engagement in extended discourse), (d) teacher's response to code or message (form or meaning), (e) incorporation of preceding utterance, (f) discourse initiation, and (g) relative restriction of linguistic forms (expected linguistic forms) (see Appendix D).

Discourse Observation Checklist (CDO Checklist) (see Appendix A) and Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires (see Appendices B and C) were expert viewed and also piloted with 50 subjects similar to those of the current study and a factor analysis was run for the CDO and the two Questionnaires to ensure their validity and to determine whether they were useful for Iranian context.

Second, the intended eight classes were observed and their activities in reading comprehension and conversation were audio-recorded for 12 hours after taking permission from the institute managers, EFL teachers and students.

Third, the same instruments, namely, Students' and teachers' Questionnaires, were given to the subjects of the study, i. e. both EFL teachers and upper-intermediate and advanced students. Clear instructions on how to complete the Questionnaires were given to the students and then they were asked to give true answers to the questions. It is worth mentioning that the subjects were informed of the confidentiality of the information. The administration of these two questionnaires took about 15 minutes for each language classroom.

Fourth, two semi-structured oral interviews with both teachers and students were carried out and audio- recorded on a digital recorder.

In sum, data collection procedures included: (a) about 12 hours of classroom observation and audio-recording of the classroom activities in the reading comprehension and conversation parts in the intended eight language classes, (b) 8 distinctive semi-structured interviews with 8 EFL teachers in the institutes , (c) 8 distinctive focus group interviews with five or six students per group, (d) transcription of 12 hours of classroom observation that was

previously audio-recorded in the intended eight EFL classes according to standard discourse analytic conventions proposed by Jefferson (2004) (see Appendix E).

Data Analysis:

Using van Lier's (1988) dimensions of classroom discourse, i. e. topic, type and organization of discourse, qualitative data analysis was used in this survey. However, due to specific and typical nature of classroom discourse data, aside from the analysis of data for the type, topic and organization of discourse, the data was analyzed based on Sinclair's and Coulthard's (1975) model or pattern of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) to find out the proportion of turns-at-talk in Iranian private language institutes.

Qualitative Data Analysis:

A qualitative data analysis based on Sinclair's and Coulthard's (1975) model of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) was conducted. Using coding system based on students' and teachers' participation in the classroom, the qualitative data was then quantified to gain objective data for analysis and interpretation.

The qualitative data analysis, based on the above model, included: (a) transcribing and interpreting 12 hours of observation and the audio-recording of the eight classes at both levels of upper-intermediate and advanced levels of language proficiency in the two

parts of reading comprehension and conversation of the textbooks in Iranian language institutes; (b) interpreting the eight semi-structured interviews with EFL teachers of these eight classes and investigating their opinions or viewpoints concerning the relationship between these two parts and the three dimensions of classroom discourse; and (c) coding, interpreting and analyzing the interviews conducted with 5 or 6 EFL learners in each group. For the first three research questions to identify the relationship or interrelationships between the variables, qualitative data analyses were used.

Results:

Research question 1:

Is there any significant relationship between *textbooks* and classroom discourse in terms of *topics of discourse* employed in Iranian private language institutes?

After observing and audio-recording of the eight intended language classes in two institutes, the Classroom Discourse Observation (CDO) checklist showed that for group interaction, almost in all classes and especially in conversation classes for both textbooks, there was remarkable pair work and group interaction and Iranian EFL students could talk about and ask questions related to the subjects or topics under discussion. Nonetheless, regarding topic management of the classroom discourse, as the CDO Checklist indicated, it was mainly the EFL teacher who controlled the topic of

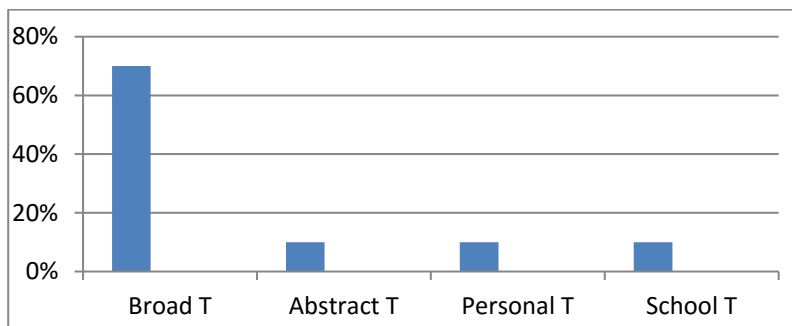
discourse in reading comprehension and conversation sections of the textbooks.

As a result, it was the EFL teacher who finally managed the topic of discourse according to the topics of students' textbooks. Moreover, Iranian EFL students employed repair devices like paraphrases, their first language and comprehension questions in these parts of their textbooks.

Generally speaking, in the eight classes observed from two language institutes selected for this survey, almost all the EFL teachers had more emphasis on discourse clarity, and EFL learners' comprehension of the classroom talk, and they tried to employ conceptually accurate signs like pictures and videos in the language classrooms.

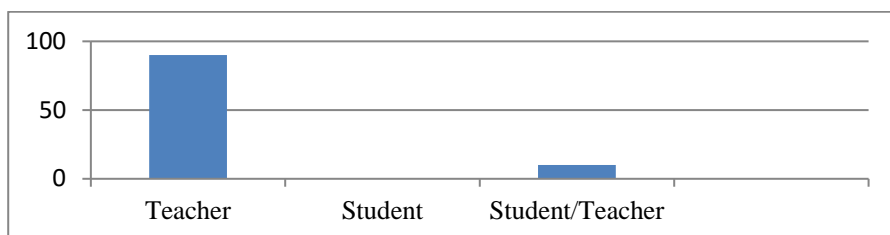
Using the COLT System, as far as Part A (classroom activities) is concerned, the participation organization in all eight classes observed was of student-student, student-teacher and group type and the classroom language was in a discourse and function manner. The topics discussed in the classrooms were mainly broad and universal. However, personal, school and abstract topics were also sometimes discussed in the classes as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Domains of topics of discourse in Iranian EFL classrooms



Regarding topic control, the EFL teachers mainly controlled the topics of classroom discourse. There was also teacher/student topic control. However, no student topic control was observed in the language classes as indicated in Figure 2:

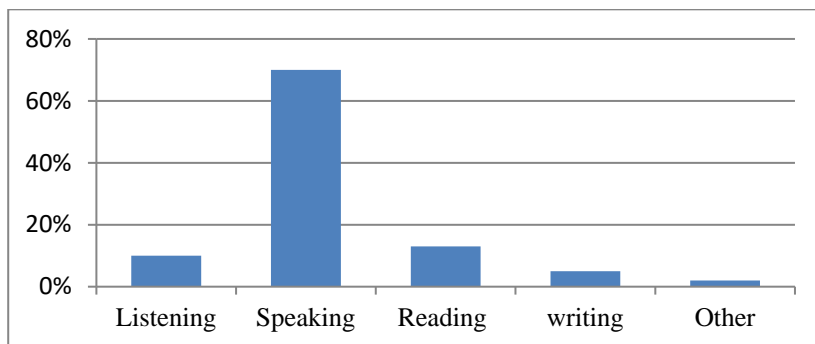
Figure.2: Topic control in Iranian EFL classrooms



Student modality was mainly of speaking type in all classes with the listening modality standing in the second place. Therefore, in conversation and reading comprehension sections, oral language

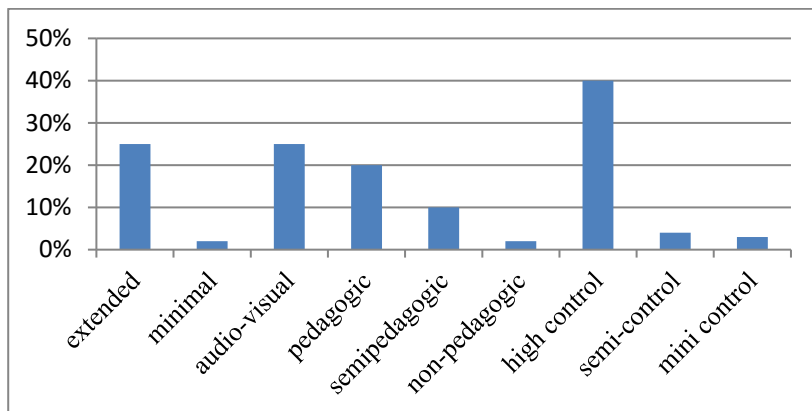
skills were normally higher than written skills due to the typical nature of classroom discourse as shown in Figure 3:

Figure 3: Student modality in Iranian EFL classrooms



With regard to materials type and use, the materials were mainly of extended, audio-visual and pedagogic type and the materials had a high control over the subjects of classroom discourse in both upper-intermediate and advanced Iranian EFL classrooms and all eight Iranian EFL teachers mainly resorted to the textbooks extensively without working on similar and related textbooks to improve their students' reading comprehension and conversation capabilities as shown in Figure 4 below:

Figure 4: Materials types and use in Iranian EFL classrooms



As far as Part B (communicative features) of the COLT System is concerned, in teacher and student verbal interactions the target language in all classes was mainly the second /foreign language and teachers' verbal interactions were of giving and requesting information sort when the teachers were teaching and evaluating reading comprehension and conversation.

Discussion:

The first research question of this study aimed at investigating the relationship between EFL textbooks common in Iranian private language institutes and the topics of discourse, i. e. what the talk is about.

The results of a qualitative and quantitative analyses of the classes observed in the Iranian private language institutes indicated it can

probably be claimed that there was a significant relationship between EFL textbooks and the topics of discourse prompted directly or indirectly by the textbooks used in the institutes. In other words, both Iranian EFL students and EFL teachers mainly talked about the subjects or contents in the textbooks in both parts of reading comprehension and conversation with slight deviation from the main subject or topic in the textbooks, except for necessary explanations by EFL teachers when discussing the subjects inside the textbooks.

The findings of this study in this respect are in line with those of Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) and Katz (1996) who found that both EFL teachers and students mainly talked about the subjects discussed in the textbooks (83% of the classroom discourse was related to the materials).

Thus, based on the results of the present study, it can be implied that if we want to improve Iranian EFL learners' oral communication abilities (communicative competence), the textbooks should include topics or subjects that are discursively challenging and absorbing for EFL learners and are related to EFL learners' personal experiences, personal needs and wants.

Since classroom discourse is a socio-cultural phenomenon (Vygotsky, 1978), it can probably be argued that including culturally

appropriate contents or subjects in textbooks can ultimately increase student-initiated discourse in language classrooms.

In the same vein, van Lier (1996) conducted a study on the interactions in the language curriculum, concluding that discursal awareness, autonomy and authenticity were key elements to facilitating language learning processes in EFL/ESL classrooms. This finding, by nature, stresses the real-likeness of language materials and cultural and discursal awareness of the materials in language classrooms.

The findings of this study showed that the more interesting the subject or content of the textbooks.

The second research question aimed at investigating the relationship between EFL textbooks and the types of discourse used in Iranian private language institutes in reading comprehension and conversation sections of the textbooks popular in these institutes.

A comparison of Extracts 3 and 4 for different types of classroom discourse elicited from two reading comprehension passages from the two EFL textbooks common in Iranian language institutes indicated that the types or purposes of discourse in both Passages directly originated from the contents and goals of the textbooks as Iranian EFL teachers and students worked on the sections according to what was intended by the textbooks.

The third research question asked whether there was any significant relationship between the textbooks popular in Iranian private language institutes in reading comprehension and conversation parts of the textbooks and the organization of discourse elicited from the textbooks. The results of qualitative analyses showed that there was a significant correlation between textbooks and the organization of discourse used in Iranian private language institutes when working on reading comprehension and conversation parts of the textbooks.

Based on the findings of this study it can be assumed that organization of classroom discourse (structural features, construction and control manner by both students and teachers, and quality and quantity of talk) can be influenced by the subject or content of reading comprehension and conversation parts in the textbooks.

Significantly, the meaningfulness of the interactions in Extract 5 was questionable, as to the fact that the substantive content of the materials and the discourse related neither to the students' lives nor to events, issues, individuals, or pupils' personal experiences or places referring to real places.

The results obtained in this regard are in line with those of studies conducted in this field. For instance, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) investigated the relationship between materials and the types of discourse elicited from the intended language materials and found

that in addition to the types of discourse, topics and organization of discourse were also strongly influenced by the language learning materials.

The findings of this study in this respect are also in line with those of Tudor (2001) and van Lier (1988) who attempted to investigate the relationship or interrelationships between EFL language learning materials and different dimensions of classroom discourse prompted by various language learning materials in different contexts.

Firstly, as the results of the MANOVA along with interviews showed that Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' viewpoints regarding the relationship between textbooks and classroom discourse dimensions significantly differed with regard to the types of discourse elicited by the language learning materials used in Iranian private language institutes.

Secondly, there was a statistically significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' viewpoints on the relationship between language learning materials and the topics and organization of discourse, although both emphasized the central role of EFL textbooks common in Iranian private language institutes in directing and organizing classroom discourse in both upper-intermediate and advanced levels of language proficiency.

The finding of this study in this respect is congruent with that of Zacharias (2005) who studied Indonesian EFL teachers' beliefs about internationally-published materials and found that language learning materials influenced the activities of the classroom more than did EFL teachers. This finding is, however, in contrast with that of Richards and Mahoney (1996) who found the role of EFL teachers to be even more significant than textbooks in language classrooms and during the process of language learning and teaching.

Conclusion:

The present study set out to investigate the relationship between textbooks and classroom discourse in terms of topics, types and organization of discourse employed in Iranian private language institutes. Moreover, the possible differences between the viewpoints of Iranian EFL learners and teachers in language institutes about the relationship between topics, types and organization of discourse and the textbooks used in Iranian private language institutes were investigated.

Regarding the first research question, data analyses from the CDO Checklist, two independent questionnaires, separate interviews with Iranian EFL teachers and students and transcriptions of some reading comprehension and conversation Passages from EFL textbooks in Iranian private language institutes indicated that there was a

significant correlation between textbooks and classroom discourse dimension of topics of discourse in reading comprehension and conversation parts of common textbooks used in Iranian private language institutes.

Concerning the second research question, this finding could plausibly be explained by the fact that EFL learners at least in Iranian contexts are to a great extent reliant on the contents of the EFL textbooks and sometimes may talk about similar and, of course, familiar subjects elicited directly or indirectly by the textbooks.

It seems that Iranian EFL syllabus designers and materials developers need to be informed of the fact that it is quite necessary to provide textbooks that aim at goals or objectives that finally lead to foreign language learning or facilitate the process of language learning.

Therefore, it seems necessary for syllabus designers, materials developers and even EFL teachers to have needs analysis based on students' needs and wants for language learning and prepare or select EFL textbooks that fulfill student's needs and their own goals.

With respect to the third research question, the result of qualitative data analyses in comparing and contrasting two conversation Passages indicated that there was a significant relationship between conversation part of popular Iranian EFL textbooks and the

organization of discourse resulting from those textbooks. This could plausibly be justified by the premise that textbooks can have a significant effect on the organization of discourse.

Since the results revealed that the goals of textbooks are interpreted differently by Iranian EFL learners and teachers in private language institutes, it can probably be concluded that a needs analysis of Iranian EFL learners would be of vital importance to develop and select useful language materials for Iranian language institutes. These findings could be justified by the fact that Iranian EFL teachers and students are of different viewpoints or opinions regarding what is being done through the classroom talk.

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The GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE SWEDISH EDUCATION SYSTEM

Teachers Education

Abstract:

The initial structure of the Swedish Teachers' Primary Education Centers was founded in 1842 by the provincial educational institutions. This is despite the fact that teacher training in the Swedish state was seriously introduced after the introduction of special educational regulations during the period of 1865-1862 in the number of 9 teacher training centers (6 special centers for the training of male teachers and 3 special education centers for women teachers). By 1968, responsibility for organizing teacher training courses was provided by the churches, in particular the Swedish Cathedral. It has been argued that in the beginning, teacher training courses were held at teachers' non-academic centers, and since 1968, some of the above-mentioned centers have changed to teachers' colleges and some also are closed.

Teacher's Conditions of Service:

History

Preschool teachers, part-time teachers, and teachers and school administrators are usually hired by municipalities. Local community associations in Sweden are also negotiating with teachers' unions about the rights and working conditions, while non-profit teacher schools are hired by schools. Until January 1991, primary and secondary school teachers were hired by the municipalities, but these state-owned associations were negotiating with teachers' unions on the determination of salaries, benefits and working conditions. Meanwhile, responsibility for the supervision and supervision of teachers' performance was not explicitly assigned to state or municipal associations, but was divided between them. However, over the years, the transfer of responsibility to municipalities continued. In terms of municipalities, the status of a dual employer was a serious obstacle to the performance of municipalities in order to adopt a comprehensive policy and an excuse to escape the state associations from taking over the responsibility for carrying out the activities. Teachers' associations also believed that state laws were considered as a guarantee to provide the same educational conditions in different places.

Due to the fact that there were several decades of research on this issue, in 1989, a bill was passed stating that the state's rules for the

appointment of teachers were abolished and the responsibility for the supervision and supervision of school affairs was delegated to the municipalities. In other words, with the removal The state employment laws, the municipalities took full responsibility for the oversight of the performance of the teachers and school administrators of the country. From January 1, 1991, teachers of pre-school and part-time centers were also considered as dependent and supervised by the municipalities. In addition, the Association of Swedish Provinces also undertook to negotiate the terms and conditions of the work of teachers with the teachers' unions.

Teaching Pre-school Teachers:

Prior to the 1960s, preschool teachers attended special education schools for preschool education. The rapid growth of schools during the 1960s and 1970s led to the rapid expansion of pre-school teacher training centers. Meanwhile, the training of unemployed teachers without special regulations was developed and implemented in a variety of ways. It should be noted that the above-mentioned training lasted 2 years and will take place in teacher education and pre-school academies.

In 1997, pre-school education centers and unemployed teachers integrated together. On July 1, 2001, a coherent new approach to the replacement of teacher training for preschoolers was developed with the training of primary school teachers. In other words, the teaching

of children and adolescents with a pre-primary and post-secondary education was replaced.

The project consists of 160-140 courses, equal to 3.5-4 years of study. The content of the program is determined by the organizers of the courses, and the students are required to fulfill the objectives of the higher education in order to receive the document.

Primary elementary teacher training:

To teach at the Primary Education Center of Sweden, three years of study in universities and higher education institutions of the country are required at the level of education as follows.

First and Second Levels:

Basic training 1 to 7 (3.5 to 4.5 years of theoretical instruction) and 1 year theoretical and practical training.

Basic Education 4 to 9 (3-5 / 4.5 years of theoretical education)
Teachers of this educational foundation will have the opportunity to study in the theoretical subjects of teaching aids in the secondary education supplementary school if they increase their study courses. It is said that faculty teachers (practical workshops) And teachers of arts classes are taught in special colleges. One of the most important requirements for elementary school teachers is the following:

- Suffice enough to speak Swedish
- Lack of sufficient information on the current laws of the state education system and the specific provisions of educational objectives.
- Take courses and special educational programs for Swedish teachers

Teachers Training Basic Education:

Until the 1980s, the only prerequisite for acquiring a pre-school education teacher was to obtain a certificate from a state-run pre-school academy. In the interim, teachers at the basic education levels were instructed by the laws of christianity and churches, and the teaching of Swedish language , Mathematics and vocation were of great importance to teachers. The duration of basic teacher training started from 2 years and increased to 4 years. In the meantime, the academic centers of the country were responsible for accepting and determining the admissions of students based on the area of educational centers, until gradually, the grade criteria and the test of academic talents replaced the traditional admission criteria.

The activities of private sector educational centers were initiated without government support and training courses were offered to short-term training courses for the volunteers. Initially, primary education teacher training courses were supported by the private

sector, so that in the years to come, such training courses would be supported by the government.

In 1931, when state institutions were in charge of providing training courses for teachers, the duration of training courses increased to 2 years. Based on the idea of school education at that time, different classes of teachers were instructed to provide similar training courses in order to reduce the distance between preschool teachers and formal school educators. In 1950, a decision was taken to establish a special school for teacher training. A few years later, there were six colleges of teacher training. In 1968, teachers' colleges and universities completely replaced teachers' teaching academies.

One of the main changes in the structure of teacher training during 1968 is the development of national teacher training programs. In 1977, teachers' education system was integrated into the higher education system. In the autumn of 1988, a new special training scheme for teachers of basic education was developed. It is said that the project was implemented for basic schools with children aged 1-6 years and 7-9 years. The main purpose of such changes was to pay attention to the placement of base schools as higher education centers was consistent and non-affiliated with higher education institutions. In this way, primary school teacher training courses were organized to create a more cohesive culture for base school teachers.

In the year of 1993-1992, teachers' education programs for older age groups were offered at the primary school with the aim of creating a greater variety and diversity in the basic education structure of the country. After undergoing reforms in the structure of higher education in 1993, it was required to receive a certificate of teaching in basic education for teachers of grades 1-7 and 4-9.

Prior to reforming the law of higher education in 1977, students were required to complete their theoretical studies at the university or faculty of practical training of teachers, in order to obtain a higher education certificate. After 1977, theoretical courses of higher-level teachers were organized in the form of educational programs of 5-5 / 4 years. In the academic year of 1993-1992, the academic teaching curriculum of higher-level teachers was presented to enthusiasts as 40-stage training programs. Following the reform of the 1993 law of law in the academic system and colleges, only one specialist diploma specializing in higher education levels focused on theoretical, practical, or a combination of both graduates was presented. On July 1, 2001, a more coherent and new typology approach was presented.

Academic Qualifications:

Throughout the course, higher education students are regularly evaluated through written, spoken and written tests.

Recruiting education relationships:

Based on national agreements between local community associations and educational institutions, teachers and teachers are recruited for a 12-month training period before being recruited. The goal of the pilot phase is to provide one-year opportunity for new teachers to be educated in an efficient manner under the supervision of experienced teachers.

Legal frameworks:

The rules for teachers and the necessary documentation for teaching can be found in the Swedish law of education. Laws related to the faculty members of universities and colleges are also assessed by the Ministry of Higher Education.

Deciding on the working conditions of teachers:

According to the laws of education in Sweden, all municipalities and state associations of the country are required to employ and employ teachers with teaching qualifications. Work conditions are determined on the basis of the conclusion of a main contract between state associations and the Teachers' Union. In non-profit schools, trade unions also negotiate with relevant employment agencies. Universities and colleges are required to install faculty members. In 1991, new rules were introduced for the appointment, training and

promotion of faculty members of universities, and higher education institutions were awarded the title of professor to

Access to employment:

Since July 2000, teachers who apply for permanent recruitment to the national school, are required to have a college degree, have a full knowledge of Swedish language and knowledge of school education programs, especially those related to educational objectives. Applicants are required to attend a teacher training course in Sweden or EFTA or EU member states. If the applicants for higher education courses do not succeed in passing educational units at their internal centers or organizations, the National High School of Higher Education will decide on the validity or invalidity of the credits. Postgraduate secondary schools are also required to appoint a Master's degree in teacher education.

It should be noted that applicants who do not have the above conditions will only receive training centers for 12 months. According to the existing rules, all teachers will be in a 12-month recruitment period before being officially employed. The aim of this pilot course is to provide the opportunity for new and emerging teachers to familiarize themselves with methods and methods of training supervised by experienced teachers. The Swedish National Assembly (Riksdag) has, based on the government's proposed bill, to make changes to the laws of education to determine the language

skills of teachers. The reason for changing the law is that foreign teachers can have Swedish language proficiency as well as Swedish teachers.

Job position:

The majority of teachers and educators in pre-school education in Sweden have been hired by municipalities or nonprofit teachers, while university lecturers and colleges have recruited institutions themselves and, as a result, have recruited state institutions.

Educational Progress:

Although there are no specific national laws regarding the job opportunities of teachers in the field of education, the opportunities for promotion of faculty members in higher education institutions have been provided through the adoption of special laws on higher education. Swedish teachers are required to conduct educational programs similar to EFTA countries and the EU in order to improve the quality of their work. In the case of a shortage of experienced teachers, untrained teachers will be used for a limited time. Primary school teachers are trained in universities, colleges, or educational institutions.

The majority of teachers of units 1-3 and 4-6 carry out separate courses for 2.5 and 3 years. This is while the teachers from the 7th to the 9th year get college degrees from college or university colleges.

In addition, they achieve diplomas that at the end of the 1-year period, the theory and practice of providing teaching methods will be provided to them. During the academic year 1988-1989, a new study program was presented. This program is divided into two branches of the Teachers' Program (Years 1-7) and the Teachers' Program (4-9).

It is compulsory for all students to complete a one-year course on the theory and practice of teaching. Teaching courses for undergraduate courses ranging from 1-7 and 4 to 3 years to 3 years. Students choose from 3 types of basic education programs and may be specialized in one or two subjects. Basic grade students are trained in one of the five educational backgrounds and trained between 3.5 to 4.5 years depending on their specialty.

The students expand their thematic studies and obtain the information they need to teach in the secondary education center.

From the academic year 1992-1993, teacher training was also provided for 4-9 teaching methods. Subsequently, after undergraduate studies, a number of different basic training courses are presented. The graduate student after completing the training course for All primary school teachers provide one-year supplementary study program.

Teachers of practical and artistic units are trained in special academic colleges. These teachers gain expertise in their field of work, but it is possible for them to attend a basic school teacher training program and combine a combination of the core and one or two other disciplines.

In all teacher training courses, complete one semester Time is obligatory. Responsibility for the provision and monitoring of in-service training is the responsibility of municipalities and government. The National Education Agency also assures confidence in conducting in-service training courses in all parts of the country.

Universities and colleges also conduct in-service training courses for instructors. Regional education committees also oversee the delivery of courses by teachers. In addition, all teachers are required to provide in-service training, which is provided within 5 days a year, as well as in-school extracurricular activities.

Teaching staff:

A total of 85,500 teachers attend schools under the supervision of the municipality and 4,300 people are also active in the Swedish independent school. The total number of teachers working in basic education is 89,400 teachers. There are 37 teachers in Sami schools. On average, in the municipality-based school, for every 100

students, 6.6 teachers work in the Semitic Schools 16/9 and in the 7.7 Teacher's Independent Elementary Schools. By average, about sixty seven teachers are awarded per 100 students.

In municipal schools, 83.9% of teachers have academic degrees. Independent schools have increased by 62.2%, and the average for all schools is 82.8%. Approximately three quarters of Kodramruck Preschool Education is considered as a specialist teacher of pre-primary education, with over 84% of them having special academic degrees. It should be noted that the number of preschool education centers was 8400 and the average educational staff per 100 people was 7.8. In the spring of 2000, 100 thousand students completed the basic schools.

In addition, there are 760 teachers working in schools under the supervision of provincial councils. In total, there are 297,700 teachers at the secondary schools in Sweden. On average, in the state secondary supplementary centers, per 100 students, 7.8 teachers, and in independent secondary schools, they serve for every 100 students, with 7.7 teachers. The ratio of 8 to 10 (79%) of secondary school teachers is from special teaching materials. In schools under the supervision of municipalities, 81 percent of teachers have a special academic degree. It should be noted that this figure is 56 percent in independent schools.

1993 statistics

schools	8426	students	893932
Independent schools	166	Independent schools	13689
Students/ teachers ratio	Students 8.3/100	teachers	84011

Public school teachers have university degrees. After completing the self-study course, these teachers also go through the 1-year course of teaching theoretical and practical instruction. The minimum requirements for obtaining a university diploma in high school are four years of study, a 2-year course of major courses, a 1.5 year course for other courses and a one-year specialization in teaching methods. All teachers are public servants and can work half-time or full-time. Professional training in high schools is taught by instructors with technical or economic skills or by professional teachers. The most important feature of in-service teacher training for high school and adult education centers in Sweden is to complete the skills of these individuals because they are now able to acquire the necessary capabilities in the new programs of the secondary education system.

The average ratio of teachers to students (in 1993)

Students	313662
Region schools	218216
District schools	28876
Independent schools	5570
Teachers	29398
Schools	638
Independent schools	59

Educational reform

In August 1999, the Ministry of Education and Science worked on organizing meetings with representatives of teachers and school administrators, employers, the National Education Agency and a number of colleges to discuss progress and increase their employment rates. The result was a report by which suggestions were made to improve the activities of teachers and to attract teachers.

In addition, all municipalities were invited to attend the "Ideal Schools" project. The Ministry of Education and Science, the Association of School Administrators and Teachers, and the Association of Swedish Provinces are among the founders of this project. One of the most important goals of the project is to make adaptations for the development and improvement of the quality of work of schools, to find suitable opportunities for the development and promotion of teachers and to promote the development of

schools through the establishment of cooperation with higher education institutions. The main goal of the project is to expand the knowledge and experience of reflection and provide experiences to schools throughout the country. It should be noted that 33 municipalities participated in the 5-year project.

Hiring conditions of professors in higher education institutions

Some conditions for recruiting faculty members from Swedish universities are regulated by higher education law. After January 1999, the official professors of universities will only be able to obtain a degree from which their ability to qualify for this job status is approved. In addition, there are similar rules for the advancement of the degree of instructors to associate professors and associate professors. Applying new changes means that higher education has more defined responsibilities for determining the duties of instructors.

Transfers and job transfers

Swedish national law does not have any specific laws or regulations to shift teachers to different educational levels. Studies have shown that, during the economic growth period, teachers, like other occupations, are moving on to more transitional jobs. During the 1980s, a number of teachers worked as advisers in areas such as communications. Generally, the displacement of teachers in Sweden

is not high. The future of recruiting instructors, part-time teachers and full-time teachers is influenced by local policies. In addition, the future of the recruiting of part-time instructors and teachers will depend on the amount of parents' welcome to pre-school and child support classes in pre-school children. No national law has been passed to remove teachers from their jobs in the country.

The weaknesses in working management and performing unlawful activities are considered to be factors in the elimination of teachers. In this case, similar criminal laws apply to teachers. Workers are required to study the demand of teachers for activities in pre-school and child-care schools. Those who volunteer to teach at these centers should be given a non-malpractice certificate.

The salaries and benefits of the educational staff

Teachers' rights vary between different educational levels and are determined by regional authorities. On December 2000, the Teachers' Association and the Association of Swedish Provinces reached a new agreement to streamline the working conditions of teachers. It should be noted that the above mentioned Tamaris 2003 is valid. Part-time instructors and teachers and native teachers receive a minimum salary after the test period of SEK 300/14 and an average salary of SEK 517.17 per month. Primary school teachers (Teachers from 7 to 1 years of age) receive a minimum subsistence

allowance of up to SEK 200 / month in the month and an average salary of SEK 19,561 per month. Primary school teachers (Teachers from 4 to 9 years of age) and Adult Education Specialist Teachers receive a minimum monthly income of SEK 16,700 and an average monthly salary of 1447 SEK. The average salary of the faculty members of universities and colleges in September 2000 is as follows:

The monthly salaries of the assistants are estimated at 23,000 SEK, the residents of the survey are 25,300 SEK, the associate professors are 29,700 SEK and the professors are 40,000 SEK per month.

The annual work hours of teachers are about 1767 hours apart from holidays.

The hours worked by the employers also amount to 1360 hours of work per year. 104 hours of in-service training are also considered for full time teachers, which may be unequally distributed among people.

Regular work hours may take up to 194 days throughout the school year. The remaining hours of work are allocated to managerial activities and agency tasks. University lecturers and colleges also operate 40 hours a week.

Vacations

Pre-school instructors and teachers, like other municipalities, have the right to leave at a rate of 32-25 days a year depending on age. University lecturers and colleges also vary from 28, 31 to 35 days off. It should be noted that university lecturers, like other county governors, benefit from days off depending on the age group (28 years old, age 29 and 35 days 40 years and later). The holidays of faculty members are also usually during student holidays.

Pensions

All Swedish teachers retire at age 65. There are also methods for early retirement, in which case retirement pensions will decrease for each pre-retirement month.

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