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A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN THE ALGERIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND THE FINNISH ONE

DISSERTATION Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of Master **– Psycholinguistics Issues in Learning English**

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Dedication

To the memory of the angel OMAR DJAARANE

Nothing will pass!

You were the best and you will stay!

To your soul: which left your body to live in mine.

Every single letter in this work is YOU

Until we meet again …

Your little AHMEDO

'As you were calling me all the time'

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Abstract

Finland has different approaches to basic education compared to Algeria. This paper aims at taking a policy-planning view in analyzing what makes these systems different and looking for similarities in these contrasting systems by focusing on factors that can be affected via policy means. Factors that contribute to academic excellence are isolated, given that they remain constant even when the surrounding conditions are changing dramatically. My research methodology requires gathering relevant data from the specified documents and compiling databases in order to analyze the material and arrive at a more complete understanding toward the Algerian educational system shape the difference between the educational systems of Algerian, and of Finland. Analysis reveals that many "popular" categories, such as homework, class size and even educational philosophy, all of which are wildly different when comparing Algeria and Finland. Rather, when stable political, social and economic climates are assumed, what matters is structural cohesiveness within the education hierarchy, and a high overall quality of teachers, which can be achieved through a robust training and recruitment program along with powerful incentives to keep them in the industry, if not the career. Finally, this paper presents a model detailing the necessary conditions for a good education system to exist, as well as some measures that can be taken to improve it.

Keywords:

- Education
- Educational systems
- Algeria
- Finland
- Differences between the Algerian and the Finnish ES
- Successful ES

List of abbreviations

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UIS: University Information Systems

CLA: the Council for Secondary Schools in Algiers

SNAPEST: Syndicat National Autonome des Professeurs d'Enseignement

WEF: World Economic Forum

DEUA: Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Appliqués

BTS: Brevet de Technicien Supérieure

TVET: Technical and Vocational Education and Training

IMF: International Monetary Fund

FNBE: Finnish National Board of Education

OECD: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

ICT: The Information and Communications Technology

PISA: Program for International Student Assessment

NBE: the National Board of Education

ES: Educational System

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General Introduction

General Introduction

School is often referred to as the key element for improving well-being and prosperity, the first and all-important step in climbing the proverbial social ladder. It is ironical to see that in our country, it has become a cause of failure, deception and disillusion, a sign of exclusion from the development to which Algerians aspire. Our school is sick, as much by the rate of dropouts than by the teachers' exhaustion, when they are not simply disillusioned. Vividly remembered as a happy experience or unhappy for most cases, school is never neutral; it is a passionate issue of political and social choices (De Queiroz, 1995:5).

Algeria and Finland are two countries that have endured similar situations in their developing years. In 1960, Finland was still 60% rural (OECD, 2010) and less than 10% of students studied beyond grammar school (PISA, 2006) meanwhile, Algeria had only become an independent country in 1962, with an educational system that was in complete disarray, and enrollments in schools at all levels totaled only 850,000. In the years immediately following, teachers were trained hastily or recruited abroad; classrooms were improvised, many in the vacated homes of former French residents. Attendance climbed to 1.5 million in 1967, to nearly 3 million by 1975, and to 6.5 million in 1991-92.

At the time of independence in 1962, the Algerian government inherited the remnants of an education system focused on European content and conducted in a foreign language by foreign teachers. Algerian authorities set out to redesign the system to make it more suited to the needs of a developing nation. The hallmarks of their program were indigenization, arabization, and an emphasis on scientific and technical studies. They sought to increase literacy, provide free education, make primary school enrollment compulsory, remove foreign teachers and curricula, and replace French with Arabic as the medium of instruction. They also planned to channel students into scientific and technical fields, reflecting the needs of Algerian industrial and managerial sectors. The approach to education has been gradual, incremental, and marked by a willingness to experiment--unusual characteristics in a developing country.

The aim of this paper, then, is to compare between both educational systems and examine their differences in philosophy and systems.

Accordingly, the main issues of the present study revolve around the following research questions.

- What are the similarities between Algeria and Finland's basic education infrastructures?

- Where they differ?

- Why the Finnish educational system is the best?

The above-mentioned question led us to put forward the following hypotheses:

- Both countries had their own philosophical stance regarding their prerogatives for education, and that this conviction flowed into their policies that pertained to educators or education system, Finland, leverages a robust training program with a focus on research for its teachers to explore different pedagogical methods and make adjustments for their students as they see fit. On the other hand, Algeria relatively controlled approach goes very far into detail and seeks to maximize the strengths of its educators with several career paths that utilize the different strengths that teachers may have.

- What the two systems did have in common was tailoring its policies for teachers according to the overarching philosophy that was present, and pursuing these policies with conviction across many levels.

Research methodology requires gathering relevant data from the specified documents and compiling databases in order to analyze the material and arrive at a more complete understanding toward the Algerian educational system shape the difference between the educational systems of Algerian, and of Finland. In attempt to test our hypotheses, we provide an overview of quantitative method use to answer our research questions.

Chapter one is devoted with education definition, and the aspects of educational system in both Algeria and Finland, in which I found that the Finnish educational system is top-ranked among developed nations. In contrast , Algerian need to find a way to deliver effective, efficient and high-quality higher education systems because There is an abundance of growth and opportunity that needs to be met by eager and educated individuals.

Chapter two is designed to provide an overview of the quantitative method use and how it is the most conducted approach to answer the research questions. In addition, the study of the research is conducted at many different middle schools in different wilayas.

Finally, chapter three aims to give some pedagogical proposals and suggestions that may help understudies and instructors to work successfully in the learning procedure.

Chapter One: Education

Chapter one: Education

The purpose for this introduction is really to start thinking about education as a force for the collective good and a potential tool of emancipation. As part of the ongoing series of pieces, we look at some of the different models, methods and perspectives within education and evaluate their qualities in terms of how useful they are in the part they play in a possible egalitarian, and ecologically sound future.

Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity or it becomes the practice of freedom, the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world." Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed.

Within the social and cultural context, education can be seen as the process by which society transmits its accumulated knowledge, values and skills from one generation to the next. In this sense, education is not only used to instil the values and norms of a given society, but is also an important element of the socialization process. Different forms of education have different structures of learning that define the learning process and what is seen as educational achievement.

Without education, the development of a Permanent Culture would be impossible. Education is needed to transmit the newly evolved ideas and practices that emanate from different streams of thought and disciplines. Education enables us to understand culture projects in order to live lighter on the planet, whilst also caring for the planet, and our selves through the ways in which we use and distribute resources.

I. Education

1.1- General definition

It is commonly held that the concept of education gets from the Latin educatio (to educate = educare) which refers, as a rule, to the process of acquiring knowledge, particularly during Childhood and youthfulness. Then again, to educate is to confer information, to develop from a potential. From a substantially more extensive viewpoint, it is the raising of kids physically and rationally; it is an expression of such a wide reference, to the point that on occasion it is, of need, vague (Manheim and Stewart, 1962: 15). For example, we read that it is worried with every one of the qualities, which are obtained through individual direction and social preparing. Adams (1912) points out that education has its aims not only to supply a specific amount of knowledge, but also to modify the nature of the student. It is discernible that in the historical backdrop of the foundation of school, we have been moving relentlessly far from the smaller idea of school instruction, of preparing in particular learning or methods, towards the notion of the school and different offices as a component of an educative society. This is to be recognized in the shift and improvement of "education" itself. It will be interesting to clarify the smaller and the more extensive faculties in which the term is used.

Dilthey (1833-1911) discusses education as the planful activity of adults to shape the mind of younger generation (Hodges, 1952). Here one identity follows up on another so as to adjust the advancement of the other. That is to state, that the procedure is cognizant as well as consider, for the educator has the unmistakably acknowledged aim of forming and altering the improvement of the student. This procedure works by two means: initially by the introduction of specific sorts of information (in its different structures), chose and requested by the instructor in his wisdom, and second through the direct and indirect relationship of the two personalities. It is of the greatest importance psychologically to perceive that only at a relatively late stage, and not generally then, can a student isolate out the thoughts that are displayed to him from his reaction to the identity of the educator who is introducing them.

Dilthey (Hodges, op.cit.) finds in education the impact of individual upon individual in which the more established era wishes to set up the more youthful era regarding thoughts, knowledge and attitudes. In the frontal area of this movement stands the school as an

organization in which there is concentrated the motivation behind displaying information intentionally and on the basis of a consciously arranged program. Just generally, as of late, have the thoughts of passionate factors in learning taken some significance in educational thought.

From a sociological perspective, education represents to the association of powers and impacts that are to prompt a higher standard of conduct and values (Manheim and Stewart, on the same page).

Education can just arise out of a social establishment. In the event that the requirement for education arises out of individuals living respectively, one of its aims in socio-psychological believed is to empower them to live respectively more effectively in the most stretched out senses of these terms. The impact which one individual has upon another is just a single shape, which the educational procedure may take. Beyond any doubt this impact might be most intricate, inconspicuous and enduring—one has just to consider the significance which is attached to infantile experience as a factor the frame taken by adult personality to see one exceptionally huge part of this impact. Or, on the other hand once more, the enduring impact made upon us through having met and worked with thoughtful and refined teacher. However, there are different types of education, which must be considered. While we realize that school is just a single, among the multi-faceted educational conditions in which a child grows up, we have now to take more comprehension of the fact, that in the school not just the teacher is essential additionally the nature of the association to be found there, the sort of discipline which wins, and the environment in which it is set.

In the mainstream of sociological studies, Young (1971: 24) gives another definition:

"Education is not a product like cars and bread, but a selection and organization from the available knowledge at a particular time, which involves conscious or unconscious choices."

Bailyn (1960: 14) calls for a complete redefinition of education from the narrow focus on schools, policy, and institutions to include the entire process by which a culture transmits itself across generations.

For Cremin, the historian of American education, too, education as a historical (and contemporary) phenomenon was only partly occurring in schools, but also in social and cultural agencies. Cremin (1977: viii) defined education as any deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, evoke, or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, or sensibilities, as well as any outcome to that effort.

1.2- Philosophy of education

The 20th century has seen the conflict between two main paradigms employed in researching educational problems. The one is modeled on the natural sciences with an emphasis on empirical quantifiable observations, which lend themselves to analyses by means of mathematical tools. Within such a paradigm, the task of research is to establish causal relationships, to explain. The other paradigm is derived from the humanities with an emphasis on holistic qualitative information and interpretive approaches. The two paradigms developed historically as follows.

A. The Scientific Paradigm

By the mid-nineteenth century, when Auguste Comte (1798-1857) developed positivism in sociology and John Stuart Mill (1806-1873) empiricism in psychology, there was a major breakthrough in the natural sciences at the universities with the development of experiments and hypotheses testing. They therefore came to serve as models and their prevailing paradigm was taken over by social scientists, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon countries. However, on the European continent there was another tradition from German idealism and Hegelianism (Absolute idealism). The Galilean, mechanistic conception became the dominant one, particularly with mathematical physics as the methodological ideal. Positivism was characterized by methodological monism. Philosophers at the University of Vienna (such as Neurath), referred to as the 'Vienna Circle', developed what is called 'Neopositivism' or logical empiricism. Around 1950 they founded a series of publications devoted to the study of what they called "a unified science". Positivism saw the main task for the social sciences as being the making of causal explanations and the prediction of future behavior. Neopositivism emanated from the strong influence of analytical philosophy,

represented, at the beginning of the 20th century, by B. Russell and A.N. Whitehead in their major work Principio Mathematica (1910).

B. The Humanistic Paradigm

Husèn (1997:17-18) recognizes no less than three strands for the other main paradigm in educational research.

1-The Continental idealism of the early 19th century has been specified. When the new century rolled over it had a prevailing impact with scholars, for example, Wilhelm Dilthey (1833-1911), who in the 1890s distributed an established treatise in which he distinguished between (to comprehend) and Erklären (to clarify).

Dilthey emphatically dismisses using a model framed solely from the natural sciences and rather proposed building up a different model for the human sciences. He likewise recognized two sorts of psychology, the one which attempted to sum up and foresee by methods for exploratory strategies, and the one that attempted to understand the unique individual in his/her whole, solid setting.

2- A second strand was spoken to by the phenomenological theory developed by Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) in Germany. It stressed the significance of taking a widened perspective and of attempting to "get to the roots" of human movement.

3- The third strand in the humanistic paradigm consists of the critical philosophy, essentially the one of the Frankfurt School (Habermas-1929) which developed with a specific measure of neo-Marxism.

The paradigm decides how an issue is figured and methodologically tackled (Husèn, ibid.) As indicated by the traditional positivist conception, we ought to have both a smaller scale and a full-scale examination of what is happening in the classroom

1.3- Psychology of education

Learning theories are an organized set of principles clarifying how individuals acquire, retain, and recall knowledge. By studying and knowing the different learning theories, we can better understand how learning occurs. The principles of the theories can be used as guidelines to help select instructional tools, techniques and strategies that advance learning.

1.3.1 Behaviorism

Amid the second decade of the twentieth century, Thorndike E.L. (1874-1949) built up a hypothesis of learning known as "connectionism". It expected that particular reactions end up noticeably connected with particular adjoining jolts, in an alleged "S-R bond" (stimulus-response) or connection; as per Thorndike, behavior is controlled by application of various laws of learning. His two most vital laws in psychological theorizing are outstanding: the law of impact and the law of activity. According to the law of effect, when responses to a stimulus are followed by a positive, rewarding effect they are strengthened or reinforced. For example: "How much is 12 times 4?" Reply: "48". Fortification: "That is right!"

The law of activity expresses that the association amongst S and R ends up plainly more grounded by utilize, exercise, or repetition. "drill-and-practice" instructional projects are based on this law. Thorndike's impact on education has been extraordinary, in spite of the fact that he initially worked on the study of mathematics. His enthusiasm for education came as result of the nineteenth century's attacks to Plato's mathematical reasoning. For Plato, the most elevated value to be picked up from the investigation of mathematics is development of the forces of clear thinking and logical reasoning: mathematics serves to discipline the mind.

The new scientific approach emerged when the new century rolled over with the leading educational psychologist Edward Lee Thorndike of Columbia College, in the preface of his influential book **Educational Psychology** (1903). He proposes to apply the techniques of exact science to educational issues, dismissing theoretical assessments, and emphasizing accurate quantitative treatment of data gathered. He managed the issue of education as a science and introduced the fundamental attributes of what he viewed as scientific education:

It is the vice or misfortune of thinkers about education to have chosen the methods of philosophy or of popular thought instead of those of science….. The chief duty of serious students of the theory of education today is to form the habit of inductive study and learn the logic of statistics. **(Thorndike, 1903:164).**

1.3.2 Gestalt Psychology

While in America Thorndike and Watson were establishing Connectionism, a school of European clinicians were building up a theory compatible with the insight experience (Rosskopf and Fey,op.cit.). Early European Gestalt psychology is based on the rule that a figure or setup must be seen, because it stands out against a background. This spontaneously observed worldwide Gestalt is gradually given structure. For example, a rose window in a cathedral is at first seen a many-colored whole, however gradually it obtains structure and sense: the entire is more than the entirety of its parts. They argued that understanding a situation is not just an issue of knowing the gathering of parts individually; however of getting a handle on the dynamic interrelationships between the parts that make them a substance. Applied to learning, this viewpoint gives a clarification of knowledge.

1.3.3 The Wurzburg School

As indicated by this school, thinking works with requesting classes, for example, means aims cause-impact. Selz (1924) examined the issue of how thinking takes place (cited by Knoers). He found that unique thinking operations or strategies are used to solve a specific thinking task. They might be viewed as plans that anticipate the thinking process:

Schematic anticipation (Knoers, ibid: 2881). Along these lines, it is possible to acquire thinking strategies that are most appropriate for the solution of various types of issues.

The educational implication of this paradigm of schematic anticipation is that educators can help students to utilize the right thinking techniques in tackling various types of issues. Duncker's (1935) exact investigation of problem-situations has applied a solid impact on

psychologists. He demonstrated the important part in critical thinking forms played by heuristic strategies, for example, goal analysis, situation analysis, and conflict analysis; in other words, a breakdown of an objective to take care of an issue into sub-objectives.

1.3.4- Piaget (1896-1980) and Vygotsky (1896-1924)

The Swiss psychologist, Piaget is one of the most famous precursors of cognitive psychology. He had an awesome enthusiasm for the improvement of intelligence (1947), and fundamental to his theory of development is the possibility that an individual assumes a dynamic part in acquiring knowledge about reality.

Piaget distinguished four stages in the improvement of intelligence (Piaget and Inhelder, 1969). Development starting with one phase then onto the next is brought on by the accumulation of errors in the kid's comprehension of environment.

1. Sensory-motor stage (years 0-2): Children experience the world through movement and senses and learn object permanence.

2. Preoperational stage (years 2–7): the stage of the acquisition of motor skills, and processes such as symbolic functioning, centration, egocentrism, and intuitive thought.

3. Concrete operational stage (years 7–11): Children begin to think logically about concrete events.

4. Formal operational stage (years 11–adulthood): It is characterized by the acquisition of the ability to think abstractly, reason logically and draw conclusions from the information available.

In each stage, the activity of the individual is coordinated toward removing the unsettling influence of an original balance, which is caused by an obscure marvel (the conflict) .The core of Piaget's work, is his conviction that taking a gander at how knowledge develops in children will elucidate the nature of knowledge in general. Development is the basis of all possible learning processes. This position contrasts uniquely from the theory of Vygotsky (Knoers, ibid). For Vygotsky, social impact and education play a greater part. Learning depends on the direction and the transmission of culture by an educator, who

empowers what Vygotsky calls the zone of proximal development(ZPD) (Lieury and De La Haye, 2004: 19), which is understood in terms of:

> *The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers* (Vygotsky, 1978: 86).

This means that the teacher, after having assessed the actual development of a student, can help him by sufficient direction to accomplish better and sudden results. The distance between what the student can make alone and what s/he can do with the assistance of his/her educator is called ZPD and constitutes the range in which s/he learns. Guided by his/her educator, the student can accomplish a larger amount of learning than his/her own particular real improvement appeared to make conceivable. Piaget's thoughts on revelation learning and Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal (or potential) development have a genuine influence on developmental psychology (and cognitive psychology for that matter).

So, Education is organized in the society by individuals who are members of a particular group, community, states and nation.

1.4- Sociology of Education

A great part of the work done by educational sociologists focused on the connection between education and the larger society. Some of it was unique and philosophical. For example, they argued that schools could build up our ability to shape the future by teaching us to approach all subjects experimentally. Some of their work was idealistic; they contended that education was the way to the alleviation of every single social ill. Some of it was narrowly pragmatic, and concentrated on subtle elements of school and classroom organization.

There was much discussion of administrative issues and of techniques for overseeing conflicts amongst schools and families, special interest groups and problem students. Virtually all social thinkers, since the season of Plato and Aristotle, have considered the education of the young as a component of their theory of society.

From a social perspective, the procedure of education has dependably been connected with other social procedures, either as a source of stability or as a source of social conflicts. In any case, given that the discipline of sociology did not develop until the mid-nineteenth century with the compositions of Auguste Comte (1798-1857), what could be called sociology of education did not rise until Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) started to instruct, and write about education. The other significant nineteenth century sociologists, Max Weber (1864-1920) and Karl Marx (1818-1883), did not write about education, either as process, or as social foundation. Nevertheless, every one of the three have had extensive impact on the advancement of sociological schools considered education (Youthful, 1971).

The sociology of education is the investigation of how social establishments and individual experiences influence education and its result.

1.5- School as a social organization

This is a general concept which grasps a scope of theoretical, and methodological perspectives on the school as a complex social system which has a structure (a formal and informal association, an arrangement of administration and organization, a designation of parts with duties and rights, and so on.) and a culture (one or more systems of values, norms and sanctions among its members).

The classic account of the school as a social framework is that by Waller (1932), whose compositions were given to school and its values: the particular culture of the school, the qualities and social relations of the educators, the connection between the school and its community.

Research on language choice and symbolic domination in schooling can be seen as one approach to one of the major sociological questions regarding education, in particular the role of education in social and cultural reproduction. Sociologists and anthropologists have long

contended that, while schooling is frequently expected to be a noteworthy method for meritocratic, and thus majority rule, access to social accomplishment, in certainty its assessment techniques support the effectively fruitful. As such, schooling essentially duplicates existing social pecking orders, regardless of whether in view of class, ethnicity, race, religion or gender.

Bourdieu and Passeron's (1970) spearheading chip away at this subject focused consideration on the procedure of social determination through education. Integral to their argument is the idea that schools add to social and cultural reproduction because the knowledge they esteem is not, as they claim, all-inclusive, yet rather is the special property of the overwhelming classes. Subsequently, students who come to school already having that knowledge have a superior shot of doing great at school than the individuals who do not. Or, on the other hand, as affirmed by Youthful (1971:27), the school curriculum turns out to be simply of one the mechanisms through which knowledge is [socially distributed]4. Nonetheless, with a specific end goal to satisfy this capacity viably, it is critical that it be covered; that is, all members must accept the basic, but false, assumption, that schools are truly meritocratic. Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) term typical mastery or the capacity of prevailing classes to persuade themselves as well as other people that the current social hierarchy is thus justified because of inherent properties of people or knowledge.

II- Education in Algeria

1.1- pre-university educational system

The Algerian school system consists of three stages, or cycles, which have been redesigned over the last decade from a 6-3-3 (primary/middle school/secondary) architecture, to the current 5-4-3, which was instituted in 2003. Over succeeding years, this reform has touched many of the fundamentals of school education, and recognizes unsatisfactory outcomes in the previous system in terms of class size, high dropout and repetition rates, shortage of qualified teachers, and unsatisfactory teaching programs and pedagogies. The dropout rates in particular were alarming, with 500,000 students a year quitting education without any qualification, and 10–16% of students repeating whole years

Student numbers given by UNESCO's UIS are 2,989,000 (primary), 3,363,000 (middle) and 1,203,000 (secondary) – a total of 7,555,000 in the system. In 2009 there were 24,600 schools at all levels, and 370,000 teachers; and the Ministry intended the addition of 3,000 primary, 1,000 middle, 850 secondary and 2,000 boarding schools (crucial for the education of children from remote rural communities) over the present five-year plan period.

Promotion from primary into middle school is by assessment, and many fail at the first attempt: the pass rate in 2010 was 66.4%. Redoublement – the repeating of whole years – is common (arguably another French cultural legacy), and accounts for the high gross enrolment figures.

At the end of the second cycle, grade 9, the brevet d'enseignment fondamentale is issued, permitting progression to secondary school for those who succeed – 66.4% of pupils in 2010.

Secondary school begins with a foundation year, known as the tronc commun, which is divided into three sections – general, science and technical – each supporting a further two years of study leading to the baccalaureate in that specialty. In 2001/2 the bac pass rate on the first sitting was 43%, but had risen to 61.2% by 2010.

The reform initiative begun in 2003 has not been entirely successful. It has "failed" – according to a report issued by the CLA (the Council for Secondary Schools in Algiers), an independent teachers' union, in March 2013 – or it "wasn't fully implemented" according to SNAPEST, the CLA's official counterpart. CLA's grievances include the assertion that "pupils don't master the three academic elements (reading, writing and arithmetic)" and the statement that 70% of maths teachers report pupil levels as "low". Their demands are for smaller classes, the extirpation of ideology in the classroom, reform of the curriculum, opening schools up to "universal knowledge", encouraging children's self-expression and – interestingly – "a return to technical education".

In early 2014 widespread teachers' strikes over professional and salary demands paralyzed education for over a month, as they had in 2009 and 2010, with a claimed 65% teacher participation (9.3% according to the Ministry of Education). As noted above, the WEF's assessment of the overall system quality, and its contribution to national competitiveness, is still not high.

1.2- The university system

The tertiary system, which is free to qualified students, is large and growing fast. It currently consists of 84 establishments, of which 36 are universities and 15 university centers, along side 21 "Écoles Normales Supérieures" and 10 "Écoles Préparatoires" on the traditional French model. Since Independence, the French model has dominated higher education, and only in the decade since 2004, has there been serious reform, with the progressive adoption of the LMD system under the Bologna Process, to which international comparability and outcome-defined learning are central.

From 2,809 students at Independence in 1962, Algerian Higher Education has grown to 19,213 (1970); 79,351 (1980), 258,995 (1989), and 423,000 (1999). The current figure is around 1.1 million (also reported as 1.34 million), and the current planning period sees forecast additions of 600,000, with a total of 2 million students by 2017 also noted. Universities are large: the University of Algiers had 106,000 students in 2007 and Constantine 63,000. Algeria's first business school, the "École Supérieure d'Affaires", was founded in the mid-2000s and is supported by a French consortium including the French Embassy in Algiers.

There are about 52,000 academic staff in the system, only 28% of them holding doctorates, and the qualitative improvement of this teaching body through reform at home and government funded study abroad is a priority: programs for several hundred Algerian doctoral students to join foreign universities, many in the UK, are currently being negotiated; and the British Council is working with the Ministry on a large-scale postgraduate study-abroad program which will help underpin the reform of the system.

Problems remain. Massification without adequate per capita resourcing is a constant threat to quality, and teachers are underqualified, underpaid and overstretched. There is a dangerously high dropout rate, frequent changes of course by individual students (and as a result, extensions of the length of education). The last two phenomena are both results in part at least of the very difficult graduate employment situation: pessimism and despair lead on the one hand to abandonment, and on the other to prolonging access to the small financial support, and (however attenuated) sense of purpose that university study gives.

Most important is the failure of the system to produce graduates with skills appropriate to the Algerian job market. As explored below, graduate unemployment at 20.3% is double the national average and significantly higher than the rate of unemployment for the holders of any lesser level of educational qualification (or none). This failure, and the concentration of students in the faculties offering the lowest rates of employment (54.6% of Algerian students are in the humanities and social sciences), suggest a system that is stuck, or as one writer puts it, characterized by "the dominance of theory over practice and the virtual non-existence of internships or stages in professional working environments, despite the existence of an enabling legal framework for them".

Significant numbers of Algerian students study abroad, virtually all of them in France, where there were 218,000 in the last year recorded, of whom 197,000 were at university, the majority studying science.

- ## 1.2.1 University Programs

Stage I: At the undergraduate level, programs are offered on two parallel tracks. The first is the short three-year track, which in most cases does not give access to further studies. Students graduating from short-track programs are awarded the Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires

Appliqués (DEUA). More common are four- to five-year long programs leading to the " **Licence"** or "**Diplôme d'Etudes Superieures"** (both four years) or, in technological institutes the "**Diplôme d'Ingenieur"** (five years), which is awarded in technological fields and some natural and earth sciences.

The Licence is awarded in the humanities and social sciences to graduates of universities, teacher-training institutes and specialized institutes. The Diplôme d'Etudes Superieures is awarded in scientific and technological fields.

Other five-year degrees include the"**Diplôme d'Etat d'Architecte", "Diplôme de Pharmacien"** and the "**Diplôme de Doctor Vétérinaire**." In fields such as engineering, students who have completed a DEUA in a related field can enter the third year of a Diplome

d'Ingenieur program. The "**Diplôme de Docteur en Médecine"** requires seven years of study.

Stage II: The first research degree (diplôme de postgraduation) offered to graduates of relevant first-tier long programs (Licence, DES) is the two year "**Diplôme de Magister"**.

Students take core practical and theoretical classes in addition to classes and electives in their area of specialization. Students are also required to study a foreign language and conduct original research culminating in the preparation and defense of a thesis. If they plan to become educators, students are required to take pedagogical classes. In addition to completing a long first-tier program, students must pass an entrance examination to enroll in a magister program. In most cases, the diploma certificate will mention the field of studies, specialization, overall grade and thesis title. Magister programs are offered at both universities and institutes with qualified faculty.

Stage III: The Doctoral degree is the highest degree awarded in Algeria. It is open to holders of the magister and requires three to five years of original research, publication of at least one article in a scholarly journal and the preparation and defense of a dissertation. A grade of honorable or très honorable on the dissertation is required for acceptance.

1.2.2 "LMD" Reforms

The Algerian framework of university degrees is currently under reform with the traditional system, modeled on the French structure, to be gradually replaced with a three-tier system deemed to be more internationally compatible. The reform, known as the "L.M.D," is set to introduce a degree structure based on the new French model of bachelor's, masters and doctoral degrees (**L**icence, **M**aster, **D**octorat).

Introduced by executive decree in 2004, the reforms are being undertaken as a pilot project at 10 Algerian universities, which are working in consultation with a number of European universities. The new degree framework is similar in structure to the reforms being undertaken in Europe through the Bologna Process:

▪ The licence, corresponding to three years of study beyond the baccalauréat (bac+3);

- The master, corresponding to two years further study beyond the licence (bac+5);
- The doctorat, corresponding to three years of research beyond the master (bac+8).

It is hoped that the new system will make program offerings from Algerian universities more compatible with those around the world, thereby increasing the international mobility of Algerian faculty and students. In addition, the reforms are aimed at increasing student flexibility in choosing and transferring courses and credits; making the system more efficient as relates to the time it takes for students to graduate; increasing lifelong learning opportunities; and increasing institutional autonomy while producing learning outcomes more attuned to the needs of the labor market.

Central to the plan of increasing student mobility is the introduction of a unit- and credit-accumulation system. Under the plan, classes are grouped into modules (unités d'enseignement) that comprise core classes specific to the general field of study (unité d'enseignement fondamentale); required classes for particular subjects of study (unité d'enseignement de découverte); and electives outside the student's area of specialization (l'unité d'enseignement transversal). Instruction and assessment for each module is organized on a semester, rather than yearly, basis and is composed of a certain number of academic credit hours which are transferable as part of the overall module of study.

1.3- Private sector

The private sector is small: the 1976 Ordinance made education a state monopoly, and although this has been relaxed, there has not been very significant growth. In 2004 some private schools were allowed, and in 2008, private universities. There are now 136 private schools in Algeria, but high fees and the fact that more than half of them are located in Algiers limit their impact. Only 0.5% of primary and secondary pupils receive private school education. Other private institutions have been permitted to offer only the state's "Brevet de Technicien Supérieure" (BTS), but have to some extent circumvented this limitation by offering, in partnership, the diplomas of foreign institutions. Only one serious project for a private university is in the tightly controlled pipeline. However, it is clear that this sector will grow, and should have a positive effect on Higher Education in Algeria as it does so.

1.4- Vocational education

Algerian TVET is founded in the need to create a skilled workforce after the departure of the French in 1962. Thus although there is certainly something of the same stigma that colors TVET in neighboring countries as a second-class educational option, it is perhaps less marked: the 743 tertiary TVET colleges in Algeria are seeing rising applications, mainly because their record at preparing students for the employment market is better than universities (though secondary TVET institutes are regularly undersubscribed).

Partnerships with industry allow them to tailor their offerings in a way that universities cannot – or at any rate, do not. It is notable that the litany of complaints by the CLA teachers' union in March 2013 included a demand for revalidating and increasing the provision of technical education. Moreover, indeed the current Five Year Plan foresees 30 new specialized and 80 general TVET institutions catering for 54,000 students; and at a lower level, 130 new vocational training centers, with a capacity for 130,000 trainees. However, there are very high dropout rates: in 2005, the system lost 69,000 students, 90% of them simply abandoning their studies. In addition, at secondary level TVET students are dropping in number, and colleges undersubscribed.

1.5- Employability

Employments, and employability, are very serious issues in Algeria, where the public sector, although no longer the largest employer, is the primary source of secure long-term jobs. The typical post Independence compact, by which all graduates were absorbed into public sector employment, has long gone. Although Algeria has managed to reduce overall unemployment to around 9.8% in 2013 (from an all-time high of 29.5% in 2000), these reductions have had virtually no positive impact on graduate or female unemployment, which remain very much higher than the national level. Youth unemployment figures show 24.8% in 2013, down from 27.5% in 2012, despite dropping fertility and slowing labor force growth. Breaking down these figures shows the impact on women: 37.4% of females in the 16–24 age bracket are unemployed, against 18.6% of males.

Nevertheless, the extraordinary distribution is of unemployment by level of education: as noted above, unemployment increases significantly with each level of education completed starting at only 1.9% for those with no education, it rises to 7.6% for primary completers, 8.9% for secondary completers, and 20.3% for graduates. Even this does not tell the whole story: although the figures for women are higher than those for men at each level, the discrepancy grows significantly, to 10.3 percentage points for secondary completers (17.2% for females, against 7% for males) and 19.9% for graduates (33.3% against 10.4% for males).

Davide Furceri, writing for the IMF, suggests three reasons beyond simple labor market inflexibility and the structural preference for hiring "insiders". These are the skills mismatch on the labor market, between graduate offer and private sector employer demand; the failure of Algeria's political and business elite to create high-skilled jobs for graduates; and the self-destructive choice of field of study at university. He analyses the 21.4% graduate unemployment across faculties, and highlights the humanities and social sciences as leading the unemployment list with 27.3% and 28.7%, respectively, as against 18.1% for science and 14.8% for engineers.

Dramatic as this is, it still leaves the most employable of all Algerian graduates, engineers, well above the national unemployment rate. However, there is final caution. Male/female distribution of unemployment between graduates of different faculties is also heavily weighted in favor of male graduates. In the humanities the percentage point difference between male and female graduates is 19.7%; in the social sciences, 29.7%. In addition, in engineering and science, where employment is least inaccessible, it remains a male preserve: 39.7% of female engineering graduates are unemployed (9.4% of males) and 28.6% of science graduates (9.8% of males).

III- Education in Finland

1.1- pre-university educational system

Finland is a republic (Suomen tasavalta). The Finnish Parliament creates the laws relating to education and determines general education policy, which is implemented by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Opetus- ja kulttuurrijaministeriö/Undervisnings- och kultursministeriet) at central government level. Almost all levels of education, from primary school to higher education, are run and supervised by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Educational programs relating to national security fall under the responsibility of other ministries. Finland is a bilingual country: both Finnish and Swedish are spoken, which means that there are Finnish, Swedish and bilingual educational institutions. This country module provides terminology in both Finnish and Swedish. Compulsory education in Finland lasts for 9 years, for children aged 7-16. The academic year is usually made up of an autumn semester that generally runs from August/September to December, and a winter/spring semester lasting from January until May/June.

- **Pre-School**

While pre-school has been available free since 2001, children do not have to attend although most do. They spend approximately four to five hours per day in school focused on play and preparation for primary education. Municipalities are required by law to fund pre-school along with the national government.

- **Primary Education**

Primary education begins at seven for historical reasons. These included the long distances to travel to school, the small size of the population in many areas, and parents who did not want to send their children away from home at such an early age. In recent years, there has been a debate on changing the starting age of schooling, but there was consensus not to change the age. All students attend nine years of school where instruction during the first six years is usually taught be a class teacher and the last three years by subject-specific teachers. At the primary level, the faculty divides subjects such as art, music and foreign language up

among themselves by identifying which teacher is best at which subject. Finnish primary schools can be very small – with as few as ten students – to a maximum of three hundred students. Most classes have twenty-five students in them.

The national government determines the objectives for education and the number of hours for each subject. All students study the same core subjects with similar content. Learning usually occurs in heterogeneous groups. Called the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education, this national framework defines the objectives, describes the core content that must be taught, and describes good performance in each of the subjects taught in schools. These "national standards" are identified not for each grade, but at transition points in schooling – e.g., for grades 1-2; grade 3-5; grades 6-9 and also criteria for a final subject assessment in Grade 8.

All students can spend twenty-percent of their time in school taking optional subjects. These may include foreign languages, physical education, art, music, more in-depth courses or applied studies in the core subjects. The national government defines the classroom hours required for each of the subjects listed above by grade (see Distribution of Lesson Hours in Basic Education, page 298, National Core Curriculum for Basic Education, 2004). Most children start English in grade one, but are required to start by grade three. Schools can specialize in these particular subjects to distinguish themselves from other schools.

- **More on the National Core Curriculum**

While the national government defines the core subjects, the content to be covered, the performance requirements and instructional hours for each subject at each grade level, municipalities may decide to develop or adopt a specific curriculum for a subject or allow the schools to develop their own curriculum based on the national standards. Some curriculum for some subjects may contain regional, municipal and school sections. The National Board of Education recommends that schools and municipalities consider local conditions (the economy, the culture) and prepare curriculum in cooperation with experts from the field. Each municipality must approve a school's curriculum. Parents can appeal any problems to the courts. Each year, the National Board of Education takes a sample of local curriculum and writes reports on the relationship of the curriculum to the national standards. Any

consequences for non-compliance are at the municipal level. Often schools and teachers develop their own classroom curriculum based on the national standards. The four or five major Finnish publishers typically develop textbooks used by schools, but teachers and schools choose materials and use additional materials offered by the municipality or that they create themselves. According to an official at the National Board of Education, it is in the publisher's best interest to follow the guidelines set out in the National Core Curriculum.

- **Lower Secondary School**

Students move on to lower secondary school at age twelve or thirteen to begin grade seven. Most lower secondary schools average 250 students per school. As in primary school, there is no tracking. Students that are behind receive remedial education. According to officials in the Board of Education, parents and the students ask for this help and there is no stigma. Teachers also identify students having problems and arrange for extra help during or after school. There is no final exam covering all of basic education.

All students in basic education and general upper secondary school receive counseling in how to study, career planning, and how to choose their next phase of education. Students with learning problems must receive remedial education and the government is required to provide education to the severely handicapped. Students that adequately perform in all of their graded courses in basic education receive a basic education certificate.

- **Upper Secondary School**

Once compulsory school ends, students can choose between general and vocational upper secondary school. Half choose general upper secondary with some of these schools specializing in certain subjects similar to compulsory schools. After leaving compulsory school, students can choose any educational institution in the country to continue their studies. This is possible because a student's home municipality is required to cover upper secondary or vocational education costs not covered by government subsidies. Municipalities fund 43% of upper secondary or vocational education while the state funds 57%. There are no fees and both lunch and healthcare are provided free-of-charge. Students do buy their own books. Publishers develop materials used by teachers in upper secondary school. Schools, and at times, municipalities, choose textbooks. Students buy their books from the school bookshop.

Students apply to upper secondary school and schools choose students based on their academic record including grades and test scores. There are no teacher recommendations. As an aside, the grading scale in lower secondary school begins at 4 points and ends at 10 points with 10 as the best score. The highest achieving students have “5 10’s”.

Upper secondary schooling in Finland is more flexible than in most countries in terms of how classes are organized and sequenced as well as the amount of student choice available. There are no specific yearlong classes so students can graduate in less than or more than a three-year period. The government requires that students complete a minimum of 75 courses (38 hours each) of which 47-51 courses are compulsory and 10 are specialized subjects (more in-depth than compulsory courses) over three years. The teacher assesses and grades each course. Students adequately performing in each of their courses receive an upper secondary school leaving certificate noting their grades and scores on the courses in their individual syllabus.

However, this flexibility is directed again by a set of national curriculum standards called the National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools. Similar to the national core curriculum standards for basic education, these contain objectives and core content topics for each compulsory and specialization course. They do not, however, describe good performance.

1.2- The university system

The universities and polytechnics select their students independently and are limited to fixed numbers of students for each specialization, determined in the negotiations with the Ministry of Education and Culture. All specializations are subject to a quota. Given that the number of candidates is higher than the number of available places, universities and polytechnics apply a range of selection criteria. Selection is usually based on prior study results and an entrance examination.

Pupils who complete the matriculation examination are awarded the Ylioppilastutskintotodistus / Studentexamenbevis, which fulfils the general requirements for admission to higher education.

The Matriculation Examination Certificate and the upper secondary vocational qualification give general eligibility for higher education (universities and polytechnics). These qualifications require at least 12 years of schooling. Equivalent foreign qualifications also give general eligibility for higher education.

Finland has a binary higher education system, consisting of universities and polytechnics or universities of applied sciences (in Finnish: ammattikorkeakoulu, abbreviated to AMK), which are institutions of higher professional education. Universities are owned by the state; polytechnics fall under national and local authorities. The traditional university sector consists of the universities and art academies. All institutions in this traditional sector conduct research and issue degrees up to PhD level. The polytechnics provide higher professional education, and issue degrees at bachelor's and master's level.

From 1995, onward higher education in Finland has undergone major changes in connection with the bachelor's-master's degree structure. The degrees awarded before 1995 are fully comparable to the degrees corresponding to the new degree structure and they give the same academic and professional rights.

- **The degree system prior to 1995 Before 1995**

the degree system comprised the following degrees:

• Kandidaatin tutkinto (second-cycle, master-level degrees)

• Lisensiaatin tutkinto (third-cycle, pre-doctorate degree)

• Tohtorin tutkinto (third-cycle, Doctor's degree) the one-tier master-level program incorporated studies at bachelor level and had a duration of 5 years. An independent bachelor-level degree did not exist prior to 1995.

The degree system from 1995 onward

The new degree system (148/1995) comprised the following degrees:

• Kandidaatin tutkinto (first-cycle, bachelor-level degree)

• Maisterin tutkinto (second-cycle, master-level degree)

• Lisensiaatin tutkinto (third-cycle, pre-doctorate degree)

• Tohtorin tutkinto (third-cycle, doctor's degree)

The name of the master-level degree was thus changed to maisterin tutkinto and the bachelor-level degree was named kandidaatin tutkinto. Under this legislation, it was not compulsory for a student to have a bachelor-level degree before starting studies toward the master-level degree. Students were also able to pursue a 5-year one-tier master-level program, incorporating bachelor-level studies. The current degree system was introduced in 2005 (794/2004). The reform established a two-tier degree structure with an obligatory first-cycle (bachelor-level) degree in all fields of study except for (veterinary) medicine and dentistry.

- **University Programs**

There are 16 universities in Finland, pertaining to the Ministry of Education and Culture. Ten of these universities are multidisciplinary; the remaining six are specialist institutions: one of which is in the field of economics and business, two are in technical sciences (engineering van architecture) and three are art academies.

The National Defense College operating within the Ministry of Defense sector provides higher education in the military field.

a- Initial degree

A university bachelor's degree is usually called kandidaatti/kandidat. Exceptions are the oikeusnotaari/rättsnotarie (Law) and the farmaseutti/farmaseut (Pharmacy). The designated English translation for all these degrees is bachelor's degree, the most common degrees being the Bachelor of Arts of Bachelor of Science. The nominal duration of these programs is 3 years.

b- Second degree

Graduates of the kandidaatti can continue studying at graduate level at a university for their second-cycle degree. The duration of these programs is 2 years. The second cycle degree

is usually called maisteri/magister. Other second-cycle degrees are diploma-insinööri/diplomingenjör (technology), proviisori/provisor (pharmacy) and arkkitekti (architecture). The designated English translation is Master's degree, the most common being the Master of Arts or the Master of Science. The second-cycle university degree title in the fields of (veterinary) medicine and dentistry is lisensiaatti/licentiat, the English denomination being Licentiate.

Some master's programs award a professional qualification, such as:

- Law: oikeustieteen maisteri/juris magister
- Pharmacy: proviisori/provisor
- Engineering and Architecture: arkkitehti/arkitekt, diplomi-insinööri/diplomingenjör and maisema-arkkitehti/landskapsarkitekt
- Medicine: lääketieteen lisentsiaatti/medicine licentiate
- Dentistry: hammaslääketieteen lisensiaatti/odontologie licentiate
- Veterinary Science: eläinlääketieteen lisensiaatti/veterinärmedicine licentiate
- Military, Navy and Airforce: upseeri/officer

1.3- Private education

There are very few private schools left in Finland. Private secondary schools were very common up until the 1960s and 70s when legislation made most of them change into municipality-run schools. In 2005, out of a total of 3,579 schools al- lowed to issue comprehensive school leaving certificates, 59 (1.6%) were privately owned and 30 (0.8%) by the state. Private schools tend to be either foreign-language based, or offer Waldorf-Steiner education, or are religious schools. State-owned schools, on the other hand, tend to be either linked to university teacher-training departments, or schools for people with hearing, visual or motor impairments.

A few foreign-language schools are also state-owned. Only very few international private schools are allowed to charge fees, and the majority of private schools use the national curriculum and receive the statutory government transfer (FNBE). Approximately 8% of upper secondary schools, 40% of vocational schools, and 29% of polytechnics are privately owned. All universities in Finland are maintained by the State and enjoy extensive autonomy. Degree instruction at these institutions is free-of-charge, although there has been discussion of introducing fees for non-EU university students. However, students have to pay for materials and textbooks.

- **Challenges Ahead**

The Finnish education system provides an excellent basic education to the majority of its children at a cost close to the international average with a very high percentage of young people entering higher education. To continue to compete in the global economy, government and non-government education experts in Finland note a number of areas in need of improvement. These include:

- Increase foreign language study by offering new languages in comprehensive schools;
- Promote critical thinking and problem-based learning in the classroom;
- Update vocational programs to match the needs of the knowledge economy;
- Open the university to allow foreign expertise in and cooperate more with industry;
- Compress the time it takes to finish tertiary degrees and match those degrees with the needs of the economy.
- OECD Directorate for Science, Technology and Industry.

1.4- Vocational education

If the Finnish approach is anything to go by, technical and vocational education and training, or TVET, could provide a means of tackling youth unemployment. While a negative social bias has often prevented young people, in both developing and developed countries,

from enrolling on vocational track programs, Finland's reforms over the past decade have made TVET popular, contributing to lower youth unemployment rates.

According to Mervi Jansson, director of educational partnerships at Omnia, a TVET institution with 10,000 students, Finland's systematic efforts to upgrade the quality and status of TVET have paid off. Today over 50% of Finnish youth apply for the programs, and it is now more competitive than general education. Last spring, 70% of applications to the vocational education track were successful, as against 94% to the general education track.

Students who choose vocational upper secondary school attend a three-year program that includes a minimum of six months of on-the-job-training. Forty-five percent of Finnish students work toward a vocational qualification.

In the early 1990s, in the midst of a major economic downturn, the Finnish Government began a reform of its vocation education system including basic vocational education and post-secondary vocational education and training. The reform had two major goals: to increase the number of Finns attending higher education by offering a shorter and cheaper alternative pathway to higher education and to upgrade and consolidate vocational education institutions at both the basic and post-secondary levels. Over the last decade, the Finns created the 'Ammattikorkeakoulut' (polytechnics), higher education institutions created by combining many of the 215 former vocational schools and colleges. By 2004, two-thirds of those entering higher education are in the polytechnic. Between 1993 and 1998, the number of students in polytechnics tripled, and the total in universities nearly doubled in the same five-year period.

Since 1999, all three-year degree level vocational courses have had to offer six months' work experience to every student.

A recent OECD review has noted: "The polytechnic policy in Finland has been remarkably successful. There is general acceptance of the existence and value of a sector of higher education with a distinctive educational mission, though controversy exists about the future development of the sector. In general, the programs are relevant to working life, innovative, and well received by employers and students … There is a substantial consensus

in Finland for provision of higher education different from that traditionally provided by universities, and directed towards the needs of working life."

- **Upgrading Vocational Education**

Vocational education was divided into separate fields, each with its own schools and institutes. These were often very small and there was little co-operation between fields of study … The Finnish vocational education system was difficult to describe and grasp, and in particular there was little understanding of the role of post-secondary vocational education and its standing. The reforms involved setting up new institutions in the form of polytechnics, upgrading the qualifications of staff and the engagement in research and development. The mission of the polytechnics states that they are 'to engage actively in the development of working life and to produce relevant new knowledge'. Other goals of the reform process were to set up institutions in regional locations to promote regional development, improve the operations and entrepreneurial capacity of small and medium sized enterprises, and to take part in basic research.

The majority of eligible school leavers in Finland now elect to go to a polytechnic rather than a university. This, together with higher completion rates than universities and high post-graduation employment, indicates strong acceptance of the reforms among both young people and employers.

1.5- Employability

Traditionally, universities had been the reproducers of the social elite. University students held a privileged position and they could pursue scientific knowledge quite freely with the awareness that upon graduation they were likely to obtain a highly appreciated professional position. As long as only a minority of the relevant age cohort was allowed to enter university education, the choice of the major subject was almost irrelevant. When universities expanded and a growing number of graduates entered the labor market the field of the degree increasingly became a screening device for employers. According to Williams (1985), the debate on the relationship between higher education and employment has continued for at least two centuries. This debate has focused on the issue of whether the main

task of universities is to prepare students directly for employment or whether they should aim at providing students with an opportunity for personal, intellectual and social development, which may indirectly lead to better career prospects. The employment of graduates is clearly the dominant factor in the Bologna process.

Nowadays there is a common belief that knowledge is the key to any society's success. Grubb & Lazerson (2005) describe this situation as the Education Gospel. While the significance of knowledge is constantly increasing, society, in order to be successful, needs experts with the ability to apply theoretical knowledge in their work. This means that even if there has always been a close connection between universities and certain occupations, the spectrum of occupations seen to require a university degree is currently broadening. In an expert society, universities are the principal organizations of expertise, having the main responsibility for educating experts for the needs of society and economic life.

Finland scores at the top of OECD countries on measures of the development and use of highly skilled workers, including educational attainment, female participation in the labor force, and up skilling through continuous education and training. Rapid growth and extensive structural change in the 1990s necessitated a retooling of Finland's workforce, which was achieved with relative ease. The information and communications technology (ICT) sector now dominates the economy, accounting for 30% of GDP and almost 12% of employment, and has contributed to recent productivity growth. However, rapid aging of the population and further structural evolution of the economy towards technology based sectors present future challenges in fulfilling industry needs for skilled workers.

There is concern whether the higher education system and labor market policies are able to match supply and demand for worker skills. Finland's population is expected to retire earlier and more rapidly than in other OECD countries. Changes in industrial structure and within sectors will lead to higher demand for technical workers and researchers. Immigration of skilled workers into Finland is minimal, and there is the prospect of increasing brain drain from the country as well. Although women are highly educated and comprise a large share of the labor force, career choices and wage gaps have combined to reduce their contribution to productivity. Moreover, adverse attitudes towards entrepreneurship and business failure have

tended to depress start-ups from research and reduce mobility from the public to the private sector.

Although higher-skilled workers are more likely than the lower skilled to find employment in Finland, the country still has a relatively high unemployment rate for those with tertiary education compared to other OECD countries (Figure 4). In 1999, 48% of the workers recruited by Finnish industry had tertiary degrees from universities and polytechnic institutes. In 2001, about 25% of those employed in manufacturing and over half of those employed in the information sector held tertiary degrees. Almost half of those employed in public administration, social services and financial services hold tertiary degrees. The increasing difficulties for those with tertiary degrees in finding employment suggests that many workers may be overqualified for their jobs or mismatched to the skills needed by industry.

As Finland's industrial structure evolved in the 1990s, the greatest surge in labor demand has been in the information industry. An economy based largely on forestry and natural resources has become one with 30% of GDP related to information technology. Finland has the highest share of employment in the information and communications technology (ICT) sector among OECD countries (Figure 5). Although ICT enterprises account for less than 7% of all firms in Finland, they play a prominent role in overall employment. In the late 1990s, more than one-third of new manufacturing jobs involved production of ICT goods, primarily communications equipment (mobile phones) followed by computers and electronic components. ICT services (programming, design, digital content, Internet) account for over 60% of employees in this sector, and this share is increasing due to declining equipment prices as technology advances. According to the information industry, demand for ICT workers in Finland will double by 2010, while demand for ICT skills will increase in other sectors as well.

IV- Educator's Systems

Teachers are especially important to the academic achievements of their students this section focuses mostly on policies regarding teachers that can help them to do a better job. "A better job", however, is a pretty murky concept, though the goals of most nations for their teachers remains broadly the same – essentially, to develop a student's potential, though the question of "in what direction?" can differ from country to country.

This section will cover the following factors that are important for getting good educators into schools. These include financing, professional development, training, appraisal, autonomy and social perception. Many of these things interact with teaching quality in overlapping ways. For example, training does two things: Good training will firstly equip teachers with the proper skills to handle a classroom well. Depending on how the training is conducted, it should also provide teachers with the confidence that they will also need to do well. Job satisfaction is also an issue as well, though there is no one factor that leads to job satisfaction, but rather sources can be split into three broad areas: One based on professionalism, one based on empowerment and one based on rewards (e.g. salary) can conditions.

In each sub-section, I explain why each aspect of education policy is important in terms of affecting teachers' abilities to teach, and then compare Algeria and Finland in that respect.

1.1- Financing

By financing here, I am referring to two aspects of financing. Firstly, I am looking at the salary levels of the teachers. While this may make sense when we think of a link between salaries and job performance, this has only been proven marginally true for teachers and that there are other factors that contribute more heavily to job performance, such as class size and job experience. Nonetheless, I still believe this is worth investigating, especially when we think about America's fall in education standings coinciding with its drastic underpayment of teachers, with the average teacher only getting paid 70% of the average college graduate.

In Finland, Teacher salaries are competitive compared to other professions in Finland, being closer to the average wage, but are not discernible from other European countries. Lower secondary school teachers with the minimum amount of required education are paid $34,720 in their first year; at the top of the pay scale, they can expect $45,157 a year. The OECD average for a beginning lower secondary teacher is $30,735 and the average is $48,938 at the top of the scale. These salaries are somewhat lower than other professional salaries in Finland.

In contrast, Higher education researches center of the University of Chicago ranked Algeria last in terms of teachers' salaries compared to come countries in the world and Arab nations.

According to a report released by the US center, the average salary of teachers in Algeria is $345 compared to 80 million centimes in Qatar, which ranked first followed by Kuwait by and $2,890. The UAE occupied the third position by $2,840.

Malek Serai, an international economist told Echorouk the report is "real" and all the figures are real. "Teachers' salaries either in our universities or schools are low compared to sister countries such as Morocco. Teachers in Algeria are not motivated because they are concerned about other things such as renting and transportation."

"Teachers must earn a decent salary and be motivated to attend conferences and training sessions abroad to develop their knowledge skills," he added.

however, not to say that paying teachers will make them good – It is not about how much money they are paid, but how it is spent. For example, the country that pays its teachers the best relative to other college graduates is Spain. That being said, teacher salaries are mostly competitive on a within-country basis, and there is no reason to believe that raising salaries will improve grades drastically, if at all, though there is probably a minimum threshold that involves at least a comfortable income level.

1.2- Recruitment and Training

Aside from a reasonable level of mastery of the relevant subjects being taught (a significant amount beyond the curricular demands), the job responsibilities of a teacher go far

beyond that, mostly by virtue of having to interact with dozens, if not hundreds of students at any given time. The load gets heavier when we consider that many teachers spend significant time outside of working hours on job-related activities, such as taking care of after-school clubs. On an intuitive level, compared to the corporate world or a deskbound job, teaching is very different from most other divisions of the public sectors – rather than operation or maintenance, teachers, and to a lesser extent public servants in the education sector are charged with the responsibility of building young minds and preparing them for a future.

Skill-wise, teachers require a lot more than just knowledge to teach a class. The fact that, at least in basic education, these young minds are also not legally adults also subjects the industry to even greater scrutiny, especially when it comes to disciplinary matters. In the education sector, we can thus see that mistakes made by teachers have very real consequences, be it about the education sector's public image or having an impact on the futures of their students. Unlike many other careers regardless of sector, a teacher's job is consequentially very unforgiving, even toward newly minted professionals.

In this section, I will be comparing the hiring and training processes of teachers in Algeria and Finland.

The minimum qualification for becoming a comprehensive (1st to 9th grade) school teacher in Finland is a Master's degree in education, along with 60 ECTS credits (about one dedicated year) of basic or intermediate or equivalent studies in a subject that is covered in comprehensive schools and an additional 60 ECTS of teacher's pedagogical studies.

Teachers who wish to teach at the upper secondary level need 120 ECTS credits in a subject covered at the upper secondary level in addition to 60 ECTS credits in other possible teaching subjects, adding up to a five-year course in any case. In addition, teaching trainee programs are oversubscribed by ten times, so applicants are also assessed on their upper secondary school record, extra-curricular activities. Their score on the Matriculation Exam, after which they undergo interviews and "live" trials where they are observed on their performance on teaching-like activities as part of a three-part round of selection that also includes an exam based on certain textbooks, and an interview discussing the candidate's personal motivations for teaching. In addition to that, they also have attachments to "field

schools" during their time of study, which also enables them to further hone their teaching skills.

The stratification levels among selected candidates are lower, without special treatment or scholarship, which is an extension of Finland's educational beliefs, though different programs still undergo slightly different curricula – For example, elementary school teacher education includes a more robust practical and research orientation related to child pedagogy and learning.

Being a teacher in Algeria also comes with stipulations of its own. Primary school teachers are trained at institutes of educational technology (institute de technologie de l'éducation). Students graduating from intermediate schools enroll in these institutes for two years, the last year as a student teacher. Success on the terminal examination leads to the certificate of general culture (certificat de culture générale et professionnelle). Students who obtain a baccalauréat train at the Institute de Formation de Professeurs École Moyenne (Middle School Teacher Training Institute) to become middle (third-cycle foundation) schoolteachers. Teachers for special education are recruited from those with teaching experience in regular schools; they can participate in special education training courses lasting for one or two years.

Teachers for general and technical secondary education come from the teachers' colleges (écoles normales supérieures and écoles normales d'enseignement technique) and national institutes for higher education (institutes nationaux d'enseignement supérieure). Secondary teachers are more specialized than foundation schoolteachers are, either in a particular field such as mathematics or in a more general area such as social science. Entry-level teachers at the universities require at least the third-cycle master's-level qualification. Teacher's salaries are low, which has led to strikes at the universities.

V- The secret to Finland success

For many years, the school system in Finland has been very successful. In the PISA survey, which compares reading, math and science knowledge of 15 year olds around the world, Finland is not only the top European country but also competes with Asian giants like Shanghai, Singapore and South Korea. However, what makes the educational system in this small country so strikingly different from others in the western world.

1.1- Adopting comprehensive education

Finland's rapid transition from a sparsely populated agrarian society to a quickly developing industrial state in the 1950s and 60s called for radical changes in the education system. Parallel education proved wanting in providing qualified workers and employees for the expanding economy as only a minority of each age cohort received sufficient academic or professional qualifications. Despite the active resistance of the more ardent proponents of the academic establishment and the political right, the common political climate of the 1960s was ready for a radical change, leading to the adoption of comprehensive 9-year education for all.

However, unlike in some other countries adopting a similar reform at the time, compulsory education was limited to nine years of basic school or the age of 16, leaving upper secondary education divided into two parallel systems, the general or academic upper secondary schools and vocational schools. Besides, as a concession to the advocates of the parallel system, streaming in key academic subjects was maintained at the lower secondary level, and while most private secondary schools joined the municipal system willingly, some retained their status while affiliating to the new system to guarantee their economic foundations. Despite the latest reform of 1999, many basic schools are still not comprehensive but students' school careers include a clear transition and even possibility of school choice between primary and lower secondary schools (grades 1-6 and 7-9, respectively), with classroom teachers in the former and subject teachers in the latter.

Many lower secondary schools were actually built on the foundations of former parallel schools for grades 5 to 12, and continued their close affiliation with the respective general upper secondary schools, often with the same teachers teaching at both levels. The

Basic School Law was accepted in 1968, and implemented between 1972 and 1977, proceeding year by year from Lapland to Southern Finland. Concomitant with the basic school reform, large-scale teacher in-service training was implemented to facilitate their transition to teach the whole age cohort through an academically demanding curriculum. Planning of this curriculum was done in a wide-based committee comprising representatives from political parties to university experts on education, and leading to a very detailed new framework curriculum for the basic school being passed in Parliament in 1970. Furthermore, while the implementation of comprehensive school proceeded from north to south, classroom teacher education was transferred from earlier teacher colleges or seminaries to universities. In view of these extensive reforms, it can well be asserted that the foundations for Finnish students' success in PISA in the 2000s were laid already in the 1970s. To secure the attainment of the education reforms' goals of equity and high academic standards across the whole country, a strictly centralized steering system was applied, and governmental decrees were implemented at county and municipal level under the governance of the National Board of Education (NBE).

Once the basic school had been successfully established across the country, however, a shift in political climate began gravitating towards a more open decentralized education system, leading e.g. to the abandoning of school inspections and the obligatory approval of text books by the NBE in the1980s. Reflecting this general trend, the new framework curriculum of 1985 allowed for increased freedom at the municipal and school level while still maintaining high cohesion via the common core curriculum and guidelines for classroom hour distribution. The curricular emphasis on basic skills and knowledge, accentuated in mathematics and science with examples from and a foreseen applicability in real life, can be seen to have further ground the future success of Finnish students in PISA with the very similar goals of its framework.

1.2- Education authority

The Finnish education system is a mixture of state controlled or steered and relatively autonomous elements. The government determines the general objectives of education and the division of classroom hours between different subjects. The Ministry of Education drafts legislation and government decisions pertaining to education. The National Board of

Education lays out the concrete objectives and core contents of instruction in the different subjects and is responsible for the national core curriculum with its directive norms for good achievement in each (mark 8 on a scale of 4 to 10). Local authorities (generally municipalities) are responsible for the practical arrangement of schooling and for composing the municipal curriculum based on the national core curriculum. Each school, in turn, writes its own curriculum based on both the national core curriculum and the municipal document. The education provider is obliged to evaluate its education services and their effectiveness, and to participate in external evaluations. Teachers and school principals are municipal employees.

School boards in collaboration with the school's principal nominate the former, while the latter are nominated by municipal councils, based on a proposition of the respective school board, formed after hearings of the school staff. For most students, the language of instruction is Finnish but at all levels education is also provided in Swedish, the mother tongue of approximately 6 % of the population, and in Sami, Roma and sign language, when needed. The number of basic school age children with immigrant background is about 15 000 (the average age cohort is about 58 000) but their share varies considerably across the country, exceeding 50 % in just one or two schools in bigger cities. Municipalities aim at supporting the integration of students with immigrant background by providing supportive instruction in their mother tongue for students whose knowledge in Finnish does not yet allow for full engagement in regular teaching.

1.3- Pupil welfare

In pre-primary and basic education, pupils are entitled to any welfare services they might need for full engagement in their respective education programs, including general health and dental care for all students. All pupils are also entitled to special-needs education when necessary. Already before school age and especially during the lower grades, at-risk children and students are screened for possible learning problems to allow for early intervention. Any student with learning or adjustment problems is entitled to remedial teaching in or on side of regular classroom education or to be transferred to special needs education. When feasible, this is realized by inclusion but can also be arranged in a special

education class in regular schools or in a school for special needs students. An individual teaching and learning plan is made for each student with special needs.

1.4- Evaluation of and assessment in basic education

Reflecting international tendencies, evaluation has become the focal steering tool also of the Finnish education system after the decentralization of education since the late 1980s. Educational legislation defines the function of educational evaluation as supporting the development of education and improving the conditions for learning. Municipalities and schools are obliged to evaluate their functioning and the instruction they provide by self-evaluation and by participating in external evaluations. The aim is to steer municipalities and schools in developing their own work and to supply data for the continuous development of education and learning at the national level. Evaluation is also seen to have an important social and political function in enhancing the realization of equity in the Finnish education system.

In Finland, the Ministry of Education formulates the overall strategy for educational evaluation. The Education Evaluation Council, an independent expert organization working in connection to the Ministry of Education, administers external system level evaluations. Its evaluations and evaluation development work cover a wide range of issues from regional effectiveness to remedial teaching and student welfare services, from issues regarding specific levels of education to thematic evaluations such as utilization of information technology in education. The National Board of Education carries out national assessments of curricular outcomes in general and vocational education. These comprise alternate yearly assessments of mathematics and mother tongue at the end of basic education (grade 9), occasional assessments in other subjects and at other grade levels and, lately, longitudinal assessments in key subjects.

All evaluation and assessment aims primarily at providing reliable up-to-date information on the context, functioning, results and effects of education to safeguard the realization of educational equity and to support the local education administrations and schools in developing their services. In addition, the NBE assessments aim at providing subjects specific data for amending curricular objectives and requirements. To reflect these

goals, assessment in basic education is solely based on representative samples of schools and students, and there are no national high-stakes evaluations or testing before the matriculation examination at the end of general upper secondary education.

1.5- Teacher education

Concurrently with the implementation of the basic education reform, teacher education was thoroughly restructured in 1975 as part of a comprehensive university degree reform. The transfer of classroom teacher education from teacher colleges to universities entailed a change toward research-based teacher education by consolidating the foundations of teacher education in academic research and by training teachers as commencing researchers, capable of searching for and applying scientific findings in their own work.

Both classroom and subject teachers attain master's degrees (300 ECTS); the former in education, the latter in their respective subject(s). Besides consolidating their professional qualifications as a teacher, this allows and prepares all teachers to continue academic studies to doctorate level. The academic status of classroom teacher education has undoubtedly contributed to the continuous popularity of teaching profession in Finland, as well as to the trust parents feel towards their children's teachers and the school in general. As a consequence, only 10 % to 15 % of aspiring candidates are accepted into classroom teacher education programs in the eight universities offering them, allowing the departments to apply rigorous screening to select the most adept and motivated students. The difficulty of acceptance has also acted as a signal for future applicants that a career in teaching can be intellectually and socially interesting and rewarding. However, as in many other countries, the situation is not so bright concerning subject teachers, and in fields like science and mathematics the number of applicants does not allow for similar rigorousness in screening, even if also they go through a special process of selection including an interview.

The Finnish classroom teacher education qualifies for teaching most subjects to grades 1 to 6, and it is common in Finland for the teacher to teach the same class for at least two but even four consecutive years. As part of their degree, many classroom teachers also attain qualifications for teaching one or two subjects for grades 7 to 9, even if many of them only use the qualification for teaching the subject(s) for other classes in their own schools.

Subject teachers earn qualifications for teaching their respective subject(s) for grades 7 to 9 in the comprehensive school and in the general upper secondary schools. These are not class-level-based but while grouping each incoming student body to class-like groups for social reasons, offer an open array of obligatory and elective courses, of which each student must study a minimum of 75 courses of 38 hours each before matriculation, at his or her personal pace, within two to four years.

Subject teachers may opt for a special program and carry out their pedagogical studies concurrently with their studies in the major subject(s), or they can decide on a career as teacher later and carry out the pedagogical studies after their studies in their respective subjects. Subject teachers usually write their master's thesis in their major subject but may also do it in the didactics of the respective subject.

VI- Conclusion:

The aim of this chapter is to show how the educational system of Algeria and Finland are working. Well, Finland's remarkable education success is now reasonably well known, and the reasons behind it sound surprisingly simple, these include the rapid development of the Finnish well-fare state as well as in the bold education policy of the past forty years with its emphasis on educational equality. also the valuing of – and rigorous entry requirements for – the teaching profession; comprehensive and egalitarian public funding; and teaching encouragingly for the purpose that students learn, rather than punitively for the purpose that they meet the requirements of high-stakes external tests.

However, Algeria in real need to develop its higher education system and should change the culture and the objective of teaching from theory to product oriented if there is will to drive future students to innovation. The reform has to, somehow, attract and interest the industrial sectors, to work closely with research laboratories and participate to the decision making in education and research. The reform should develop the student's innovative and critical thinking skills, including innovation in their academic field. Motivating critical thinking also makes the student able to check the reality of facts and opinions by using a comprehensive set of logical values.

Chapter two:

Methodology and Data Analysis

I. Introduction

This study aims at investigating how learners could make best use of efficient methods of teaching and how the educational system could be helpful to enhance learning and for learners in general.

In attempt to test our hypothesis, this chapter is designed to provide an overview of the quantitative and qualitative method use and how it is the most adequate approach to answer my research questions .In addition details of the research methods and procedures are provided including, the description of the population, and the questionnaire.

II. Description of the population

We conduct the study of the research at more than five middle schools. Each one of these has a population of approximately 30 teachers. We design the research for middle school teachers in order to shape an understanding toward the Algerian educational system shape the difference between the old educational system of Algeria, and the new one; the research also highlights how could the teacher encourage his students and motivate them in their learning process.

III. Research tools

We design the research study to meet a major tool: a questionnaire, which is targeted to gather data on the study and provide a detailed understanding of the Algerian educational system, and highlights its effects on learner's motivation and their learning process.

1.1- Research questionnaire

Is used as a research method to collect information from middle school teachers, it was designed to meet two types of questions, open and closed ended questions, we simply design it to investigate how learners could make best use of efficient methods of teaching and how the educational system could be helpful to enhance learning and for learners in general.

- Open ended questions: a type of question used to make the teachers answer in their own words, the aim behind such questions is to determine the respondent's opinion toward the subject under study.
- Closed ended questions: a type of question used to make the respondent's choose from pre dominant answers.

The questionnaire was handed out to thirtyteachers of middle school.the questionnaire took place in a vivid atmosphere with our main focus on drawing the teacher's attention to the fact of answering objectively and honestly, it consists of ten different questions and each question has a target to achieve, the aim behind this questionnaire is to concentrate on how the educational system could be so helpful and useful through series of questions which would help to highlight the importance of the educational system to enhance learners motivation .it also highlights the methods teachers use to reach their goals.

1.1.1- The analysis of the questionnaire

1- You are

Male female

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Male	10	33,33%
Female	20	66,67%
Total	30	100%

Table 01: Gender of the respondent.

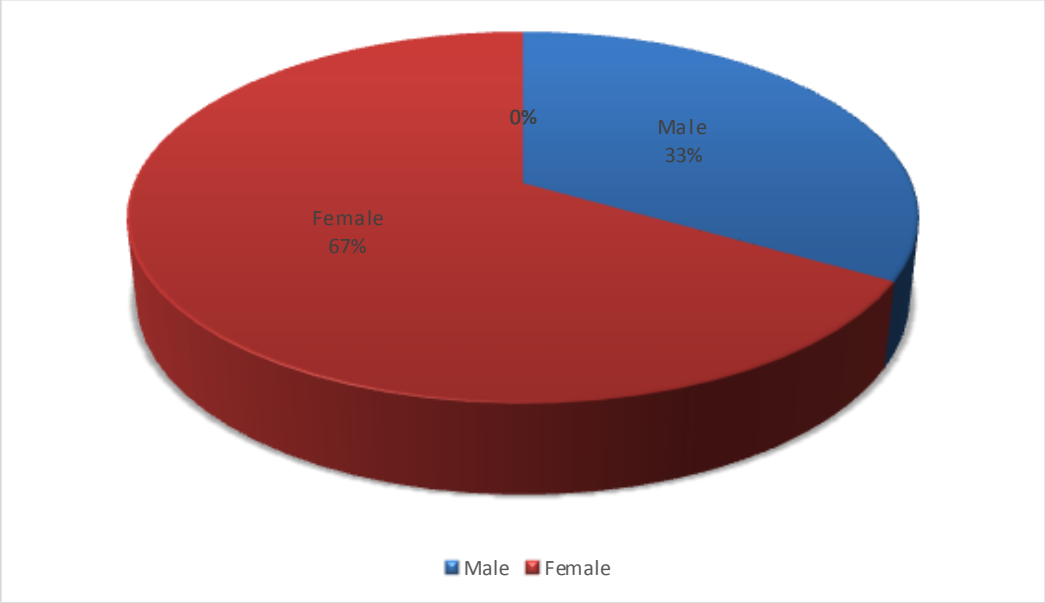

Figure 01: The Gender of the respondent.

Most of the teachers approximately (67%) are women, whereas (33%) are men.

2. For how long have you been teaching?

0-5 years 0 years 10-15 years 15-20 years

Option	Respondents	Percentage
0-5 years	11	37%
5-10 years	8	27%
10-15 years	7	23%
15-20 years	4	13%
Total	30	100%

Table 02: Teachers' experience years in teaching.

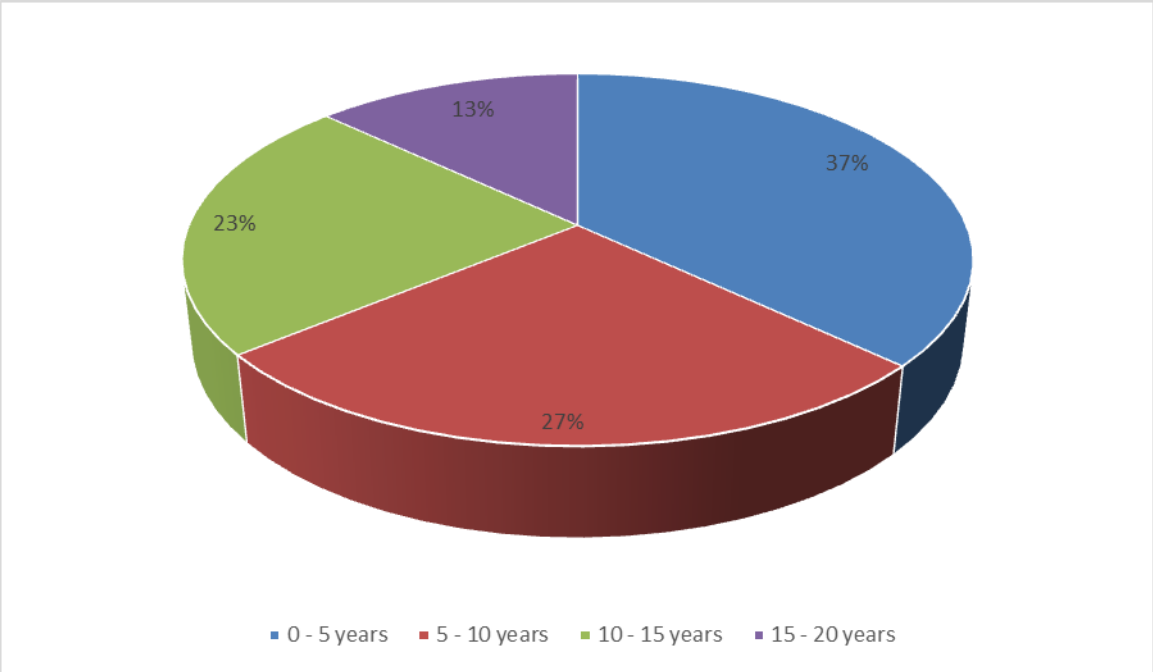

Figure 02: Teachers' experience years in teaching.

The majority of the teachers (37%) are new teachers, means that their teaching period does not exceed 5 years, whereas (27%) have more than 5 years as teachers. (23%) are experienced teachers means that they have at least more than 10 years in the field of education and (13%) are expert teachers who have been teaching for more than 15 years.

3. Are you satisfied with the Algerian middle school syllabus?

Yes No

Option	Respondents	Parentage
Yes	13	43%
No	17	57%
Total	30	100%

Table 03: Teachers' opinions about the Algerian middle school syllabus.

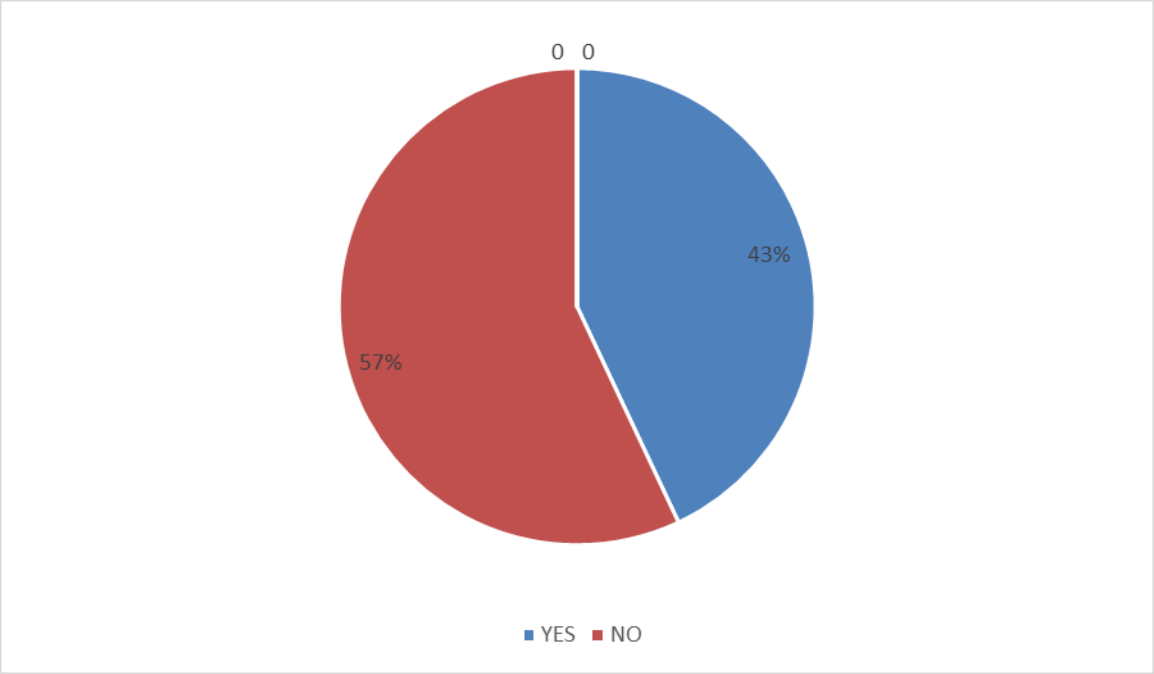

Figure 03: Teachers' opinions about the Algerian middle school syllabus**.**

We have notice that (57%) of teachers population have negative responses and see that the current syllabus is old fashioned and it does not fulfill the learners' needs, whereas (43%) stated that they are satisfied with the Algerian middle school syllabus. The results of this question shows that the Algerian middle school syllabus has negative and positive impact toward learners.And this may indicate that these effects depends on teachers and learners own attitudes.

4. Do you think learners' needs are fulfilled?

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	13	43%
No	17	57%
Total	30	100%

Table 04: Teachers' opinions about their learners' needs.

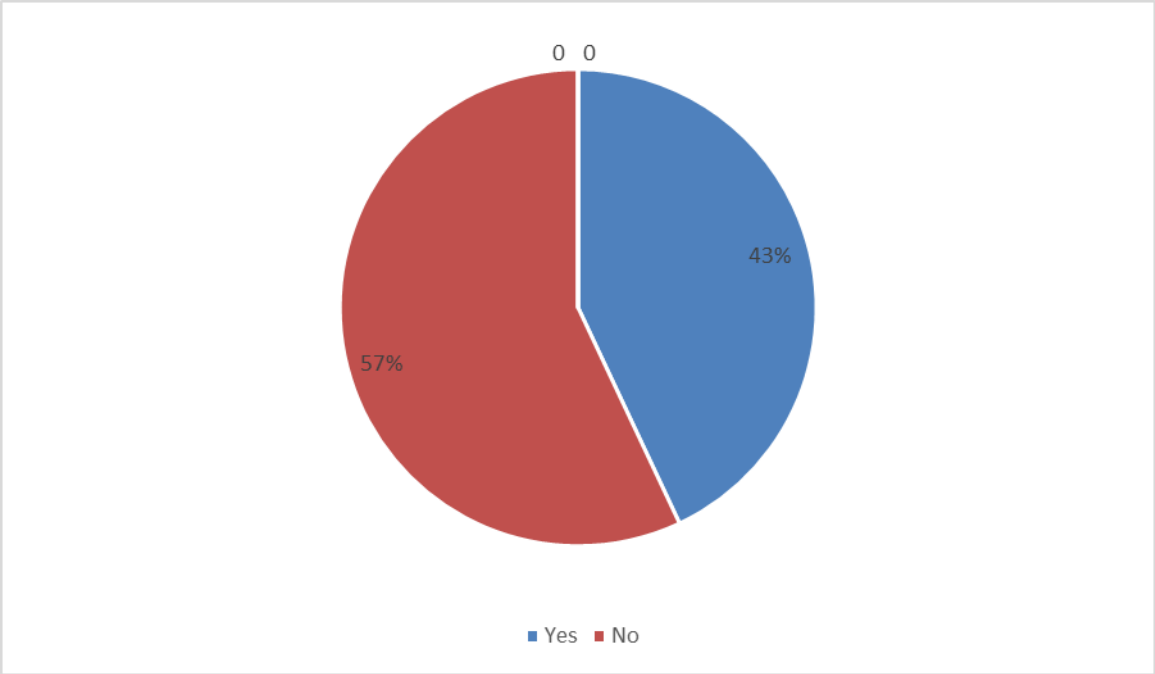

Figure 04. Teachers' opinions about their learners' needs.

Based on the analyses of this table, we notice that the majority of teachers (57%) find that their learners' needs are not fulfilled, whereas (43%) see the contrast. According to the results learners' needs are not fulfilled most of the time because of the syllabus.

5. Are your learners good at written and oral?

Yes No

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	19	63%
No	11	37%
Total	30	100%

Table 05. The learners' level at written and oral.

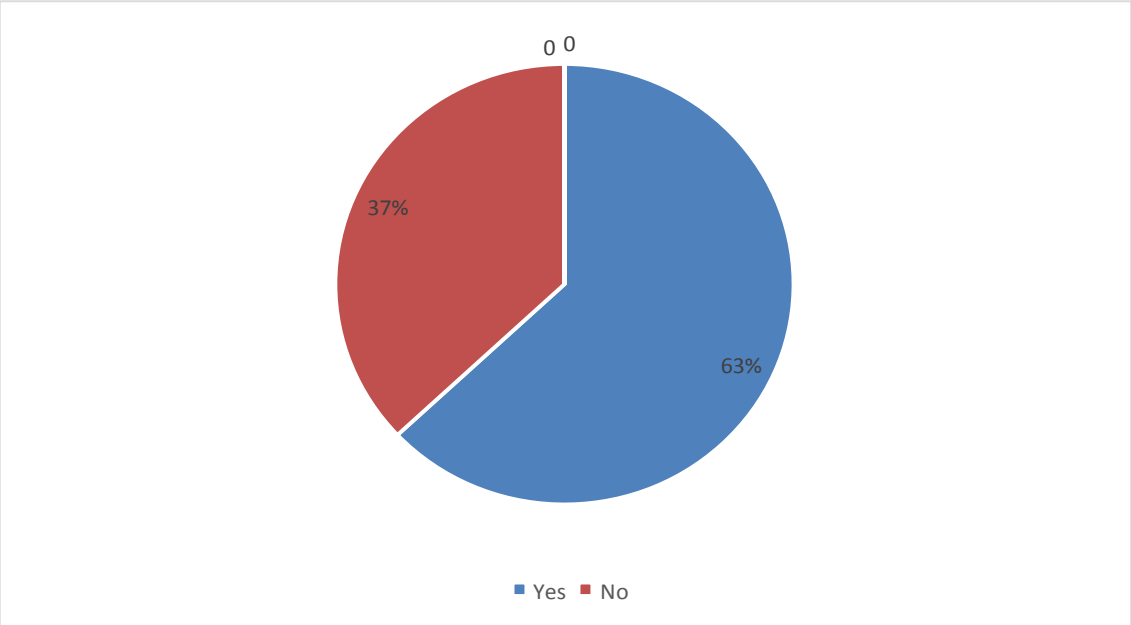

Figure 05: The learners' level at written and oral.

The answers of this question reveals that learners are good and can be motivated to improve a particular skill if the teacher made some suggestions, the teacher can be an external factor that increase learners intrinsic motivation, the majority of the teachers (63%) have positive responses whereas (37%) have negative ones.

6. How do you prepare your learners for written and oral assessments?

- At each end of the unit, I give them a summary of all lessons, and they conduct a group review in the class.
- It is a bit difficult, but I try to include a communicative task in each lesson.
- By asking questions for oral, and giving assignments for writing.

Most of the teachers answered these three answers above which reveals that teachers are different in preparing their learners for written and oral assessments. The results of this question indicate that engaging learners in a group work and make a general revision at the end of each unit can be an efficient activity where they work to ameliorate their levels.

7. How could you encourage your students and motivate them in their learning process?

- By varying activities.
- By focusing on grammatical structures.
- By drilling and practicing

Option	Respondents	Percentage
By varying activities	14	47%
By focusing on grammatical structures	06	20%
By drilling and practicing	10	33%
Total	30	100%

Table 07: The teachers' methods to encourage and motivate their learners.

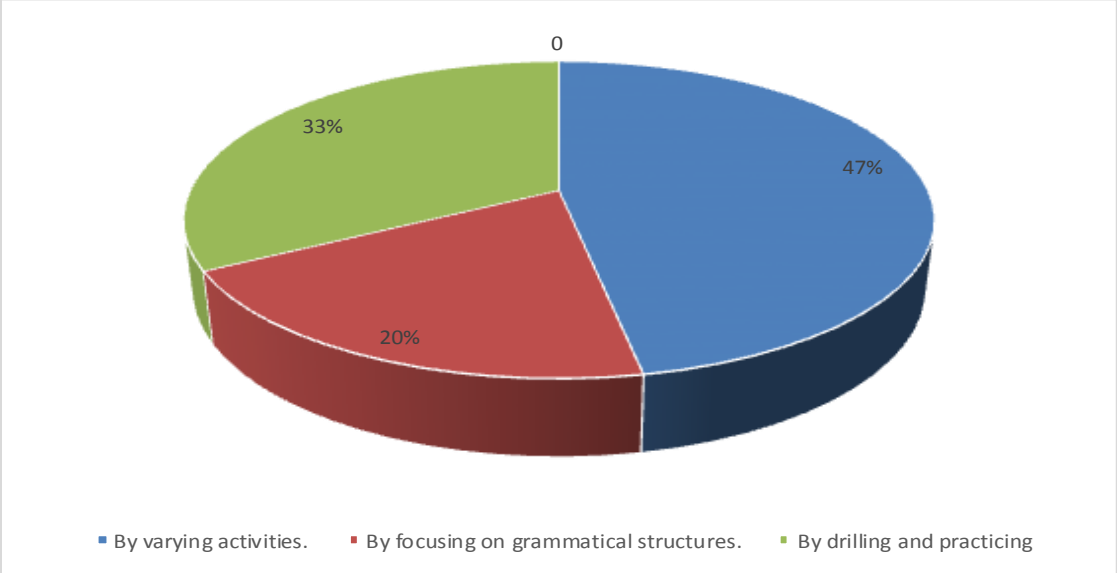

Figure 07: The teachers' methods to encourage and motivate their learners.

The table above illustrates the teachers' methods to encourage and motivate their learners.most of teachers (47%) say that varying activities is the right solution to motivate their learners, (33%)say that by drilling and practicing the learner can be more motivated and encouraged, while (20%) say that focusing on grammatical structures is the fruitful way .this implies that the teacher himself knows his learners and what do they need to give better performance in the classroom, and urge to persist for a better achievement.

8. To test your learners' understanding, which method do you prefer?

Quiz Test

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Quiz	4	13%
Test	26	87%
Total	30	100%

Table 08: How to test learners' understanding.

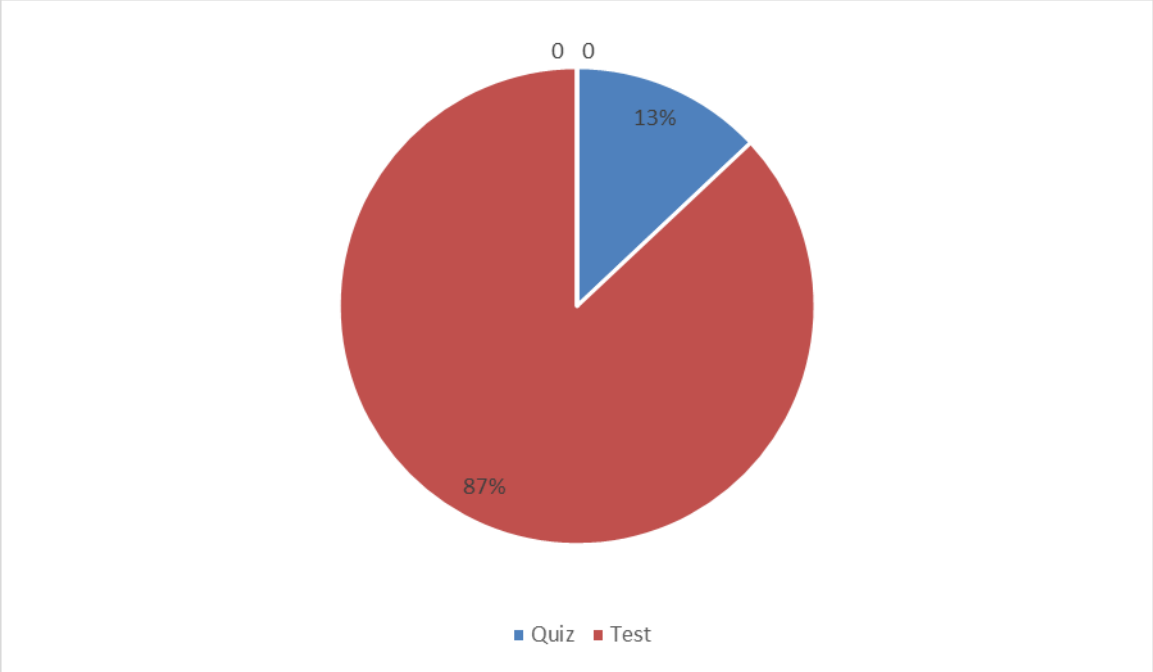

Figure 08: How to test learners' understanding.

In this question, we wanted to know how teachers test their learners' understanding, whether quiz or test. The majority of them (87%) agreed that making tests help them testing their learners' understanding, and only (13%) answered quiz. From the results, we notice that teachersbased their results on making tests.

9. Have you ever experienced discipline problems with the learners?

Yes No

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	6	20%
No	24	80%
Total	30	100%

Table 09: Discipline problems with the learners.

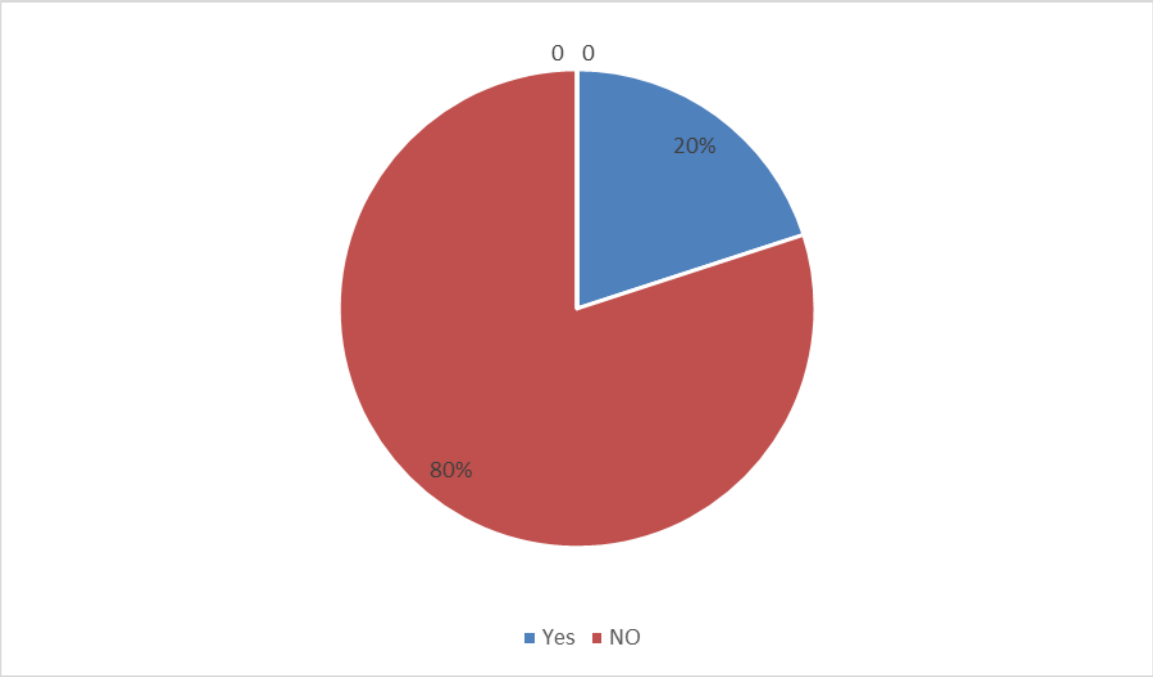

Figure 09: Discipline problems with the learners.

About (80%) of the middle school teachers population have answered “NO” that they did not face discipline problems with their learners ,while only(20%) have claimed that they faceddiscipline problems. We asked them how they have dealt with the situation most of them say that they talk to the learner calmly and trying to get his problem to solve it secretly.According to the result above learners at middle school are far from making discipline problems with their teachers.

10. What do you prefer, past or nowadays-educational system of Algeria? Why?

Option	Respondents	Percentage
Nowadays ESA	1	3%
Past ESA	29	97%
Total	30	100%

Table 10: Teachers' attitude toward the education system of Algeria.

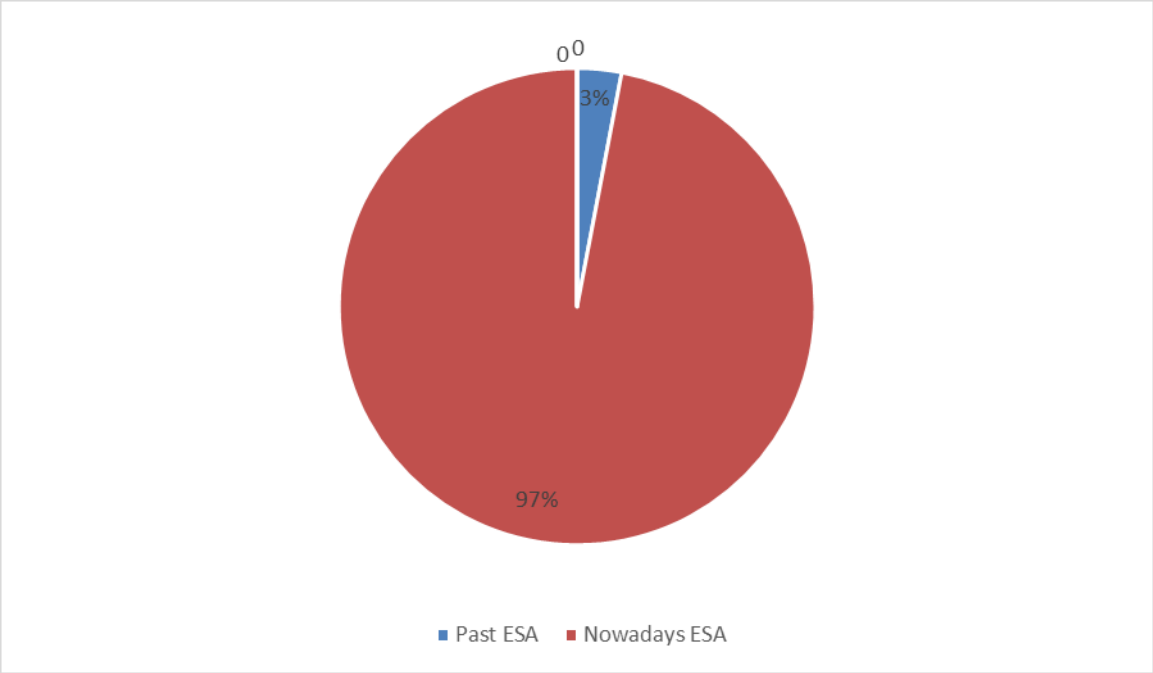

Figure 10: Teachers' attitude toward the education system of Algeria.

(97%) among the teachers see that the past educational system of Algeria is better than nowadays one, when we ask them why? They reply that the old one was so organized and clear and fulfilled the learners' needs easily, whereas just (3%) of teachers find that the nowadays educational system of Algeria is good. Because in their opinion it is in line with the time.

Chapter three: Discussion of the findings

I- Introduction

Based on the results of the study, the educational system of Algeria is weakening year after year, that it does not fulfill the learners' needs and teachers' at the same time. Therefore, we consider it as a weak system that should be changed as soon as possible to make learners more persistent and motivated in their learning process. This chapter provides a general discussion of the research findings; it also provides recommendations and limitations of the study. We also would like to provide some suggestions from the successful model the Finnish educational system as guidelines to help our authority and learners obtain satisfactory outcomes in their learning process.

1.1- Discussion of the findings

In the educational system of Algeria, everything is strongly orientated towards examinations. Pupils are used to working under pressure and working towards examinations. The style of teaching is traditional but it is not rote learning without understanding, it is memorization with understanding. Thus, from the results obtained from the data analysis of the teachers' questionnaire; it is evident that the Algerian educational system is weakening because of the mess in the curriculum and the most important goal is grading not learning, this has an impact on students' attitude and academic performance.

According to our investigation, there is a mix of academic rigor and structure. There is a theory of grading behind everything. They do a project just for the sake of doing it - there is no framework of learning. Students simply do things without having the aim of learning whereas for grading, this tells that they are climbing on a fragile ladder. In addition, this in return make them having brains that do not work. In addition, these negative patterns have a negative influence on their learning process.

Different components, which affect on teaching, one of the enormous issues in Algeria is space. There are more than 40 kids in every classroom and the best way to organize them is in old-fashioned rows. There is little group work or understudy interest.

It is troublesome with 40 children to give them singular consideration. Some school principals have the conviction that a quiet classroom is a good classroom. The possibility that youngsters can learn through discussion has not generally pervaded through. There have been a few moves towards activity-based learning but success has been limited. The context is important. You cannot transpose a style of learning somewhere else without changing the parents, teachers and classroom architecture.

The Finnish educational system, which has been proved to be the most successful system in the world, there is an accentuation on supporting each person, each kid paying little heed to their financial or social foundation. This fundamental rule of equity applies to the education system additionally human services and social care. It is a comprehensive approach. They pay for it through taxes and the government tries to support each family. Very qualified educators: their teaching profession is profoundly esteemed and regarded. Finland's success begins with its teachers. They are chosen from the top 10 percent of college graduates and are required to obtain a master's degree in education. In the classroom, teachers are entrusted with the success of their students.

There is not a strictly outlined curriculum; instead, teachers are able to do what is necessary to see their students improve. In Finland, 30 percent of students receive special tutoring. The projects are exceedingly competitive and many students do not get a place. They get exceptionally energetic understudies and the five-year courses are to expert level. Regardless of the possibility that you teach at a grade school, you need an expert qualification. This is not the same in other Nordic nations. There is a relaxed atmosphere in Finnish schools. The classroom is an exceptionally intuitive space where students can challenge the instructor. The traditional educator coordinated style is not so typical in Finland.

Nearby power: Districts and schools have a considerable measure of energy to localize the national main subjects. They believe their instructors as they have been chosen through a careful procedure. They are given a ton of opportunity and duty to tailor learning according to the needs of every child. They are not just paying lip service or following a script. There are core subjects, for example, literacy, numeracy and science yet they

attempt to accomplish a balance in the educational programs. A school day is a blend of core subjects and furthermore art, physical, woodwork and entrepreneurial instruction (at secondary level). The educational modules is being renewed and is expected out in 2015. There will be an expansion in 21st Century abilities, for example, joint effort, social communication, critical thinking and lifelong learning, however they will not be separate from the center subjects, they will be coordinated.

Different elements, which affect on teaching, class sizes are between 15 to 25 crosswise over primary and secondary schools, dissimilar to the Algerian ones. There are no national examinations or rankings. They do not have that culture of comparing schools. On the off chance that a school is not doing admirably, it is not shut down. It is given more resources.

Last but not least, there are components of the Finnish model, which could be, executed somewhere else, for example, the emphasis on high quality teachers.

The teaching environment is also vital. In relaxed and educationally supportive environments, children are granted authority and accountability in and for learning. They believe that learning and interacting in relaxed educational environments will teach children for life, not for school.

The Algerian educational system is based on grading; in contrast, the Finnish is based on learning. Moreover, this is the big difference.

1.2- Recommendations for teachers

In the light of the findings of this research, we provide different suggestions for teachers as a helpful element to increase their learner's motivation in learning not just taking marks for grading without a good level; we shall present some of these recommendations:

- Teachers would be wise to sort out meetings in which they talk about various issues that make learners need inspiration in their learning procedure, for instance issues of

self-preoccupation, uneasiness to highlight its negative impacts and in endeavor to build learner's mindfulness and give strategies to acquire.

- Teachers are required to grow the courses of group works and discourses with various exercises keeping in mind the end goal to urge learners to talk about issues of their learning issues and work in an agreeable environment to search for arrangements.
- We additionally prescribe educators to furnish learners with assignments to take a shot at a specific aptitude; for instance task to enhance their written work or speaking skills.
- Teachers ought to give writing exercises in which learners expound on a specific issue that they are confronting in their learning procedure and list solutions for take after.
- Teachers may likewise give a task in which learners make presentations in the classroom about a specific learning issue, anxiety for example, keeping in mind the end goal to expand learners' mindfulness about the issues that they may confront behind such an issue.
- Teachers may talk about issues of demotivation and its impact on their understudies' academic performance in order to make learners avoid having a negative disposition in their learning process.

1.2.1- Suggestions for learners and teachers

- Teachers need to make a proper situation and a neighborly association with the understudies in which understudies speak with no dread and dithering
- Teachers ought to give an instructional method, for example, agreeable group work keeping in mind the end goal to build learners' enthusiasm to take care of a specific issue in their learning procedure.
- Learners need to hinder amenably and react well when consulting in the classroom keeping in mind the end goal to make a positive situation to convey.

Finally, these suggestions aim at encouraging learners to improve their performance in the classroom; it aims also at making learners work with better techniques for better results. Although the educational system is weak and still weakening but since the change starts from the bottom we hope to challenge ourselves before the authority to succeed in being learners not marks collectors.

1.3- Limitation of study

Because of many reasons, the review under research has thought of some as limitations. In any case, the particular population is one limitation. The number of population in the review was restricted in light of the fact that it concentrated just on 30 educators who were in different places (wilayas). In this way, the quantity of the example would not speak to the entire population since it is hard to sum up these findings. In the event that the review secured an extensive number of educators, it would have given another measure of information and discoveries. Therefore, it would be interesting if the study were repeated to examine a large number of teachers of different environments at middle schools. The second limitation was time; we were limited by time and we needed to have exams in the period that we should concentrate on our dissertation. Additionally we did not have enough time to cover an expansive example of instructors and utilize different tools for our research. Extended time would have been extremely useful to cover vast sample of educators.

The examination of the study highlighted just the differences between the educational system of Algeria and of Finland; it did not reveal the entire regions of the systems. Besides, the lack of documents and sources in our library drove us to search for ebooks and articles from the websites. The study under research concentrated just on one research tool: a teachers' questionnaire; it would have been quite beneficial if we made an interview and ask various segments of society about the education nowadays; this may furnish us with an unmistakable amount of findings and allow us to reach different conclusions.

II- Conclusion

This chapter aimed to give some pedagogical proposals and suggestions that may help understudies and instructors to work successfully in the learning procedure. Depending on the results of the review and the findings gotten from the previous reviews, we have highlighted the powerless points in our instructive framework and what makes other educational systems fruitful than our own, for instance we have picked the Finnish one which has been demonstrated the best on the planet recently. It is important to give educators and understudies a few recommendations to upgrade their inspiration and enhance their exhibitions. Those suggestions have been offered in light of the fact that the amount of the data revealed that learners are facing some obstacles and challenges in their learning process due to the mess in the system in general and in the environment in particular.

General conclusion

General conclusion

Doing any research through its different phases is not an easy task. From the research outline, to collecting data, to writing the dissertation is a long process.

The topic goes for taking a strategy arranging view in examining what makes these two educational systems, the Algerian and the Finnish different and searching for similarities in these differentiating systems by concentrating on variables that can be influenced via policy means . What are the similarities between Algeria and Finland's basic education infrastructures? - And where they differ? - Why the Finnish educational system is the best?

Through the process of this paper I have compared different aspects of Algeria and Finland's education systems with the objective of looking at two vastly different educational systems, searching for similarities that help to foster high levels of student achievement, in which I found that the Finnish educational system is top-ranked among developed nations, as measured by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), and the most interesting aspect of their education system is that Finland achieved its success by breaking what are considered the customary rules of education.

The researcher aims to not just compare the educational systems of Algeria and Finland, but also to find aspects of each system that each country can learn from.

In contrast , Algerian need to find a way to deliver effective, efficient and high-quality higher education systems because there is an abundance of growth and opportunity that needs to be met by eager and educated individuals. In addition, it is important for Algeria to understand that a good education is not necessarily bought by spending more money and take Finland as a model in success not only in education. The Finnish outlook not only highlights the importance and possibility of spending less and still receiving a quality education, it provides a model that every country should learn to emulate.

The Algerian educational system can learn some aspects from Finnish education, which may benefit the country; the Finnish people emphasize themselves on studying and

the inclusion of integrated studies to link several topics and see logic, and can increase the likelihood of learning.

In the end, I feel that education is a largely nationalized phenomenon. While it would probably be better if we could all work towards an optimized education system that adapts according to its surroundings, the general international political climate does not allow such free exchanging of information between governments, or between governments and the public. In that respect, then, I believe my model could be improved on with greater clarity of information regarding processes and more data. It is possible, and I am hopeful that the rise of globalization may transcend these barriers and allow more parties to work together to determine the direction of future education research and development. I hope that the model I have devised will prove useful for future research pertaining to this subject.

Therefore, the results of this investigation confirm the hypotheses proposed earlier. That both countries have their own philosophical stance regarding their prerogatives for education, Finland, leverages a robust training program with a focus on research for its teachers to explore different pedagogical methods and make adjustments for their students as they see fit. On the other hand, Algeria relatively controlled approach goes very far into detail and seeks to maximize the strengths of its educators with several career paths that utilize the different strengths that teachers may have. In addition, what the two systems did have in common was tailoring its policies for teachers.

Understand that education is changing. Long ago, students went to school to acquire information. Now, students can easily have access to most of this information, multiple perspectives of the same information, cliff notes, etc...

What students need now is someone to show them how to think critically about that information, and for themselves.

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