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Developing the Abilities of Music Students: A Blended Teaching Approach Based on Inquiry-based and Task-based Learning

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Abstract

This study explores integrating inquiry-based learning (IBL) and task-based learning (TBL) in music education to enhance student engagement, creativity, and critical thinking. The study emphasizes the complementary roles of IBL and TBL in promoting active learning and real-world application by looking at their respective theoretical foundations. The blended approach is implemented through structured musical tasks, encouraging students to explore, create, and perform. Results indicate that combining these methods improves students' musical skills and develops their problem-solving abilities and independent learning, making it a valuable pedagogical strategy in music education.

Keywords: inquiry-based learning (IBL), task-based learning (TBL), music education, teaching approach.

1. Introduction

The evolution of music education and pedagogy has long been unquestioned and nearly taken for granted by contemporary educators. However, this superficial perception masks deep divisions between multiple, complex, potentially conflicting educational philosophies in music teaching and learning. Whether viewed from the academic roots of traditional music education or the contemporary emphasis on interdisciplinary collaboration and creative development, undergraduate music student preparation goals have been in a tug-of-war between these intertwined and often opposing educational philosophies (Bailey, 2022). This conceptual collision has prompted educators to rethink and reorganize their approach to music education to find a balance between tradition and modernity. Remixing two or more single learning methods to form an entirely new learning approach has become a powerful tool that has proven effective in several studies (Yao et al., 2024; Yusof et al., 2012).

Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL) is a highly respected educational approach in recent years that emphasizes student initiative in the learning process and encourages them to explore, ask questions, and think critically about the learning process. This approach promotes more profound understanding and independent learning by engaging students personally in constructing knowledge (Pedaste et al., 2015). Task-Based Learning (TBL) has achieved significant results in language education, especially in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL). TBL effectively improves students' language proficiency through the design of

communicative-based tasks, especially their ability to use them in real communication situations (González-Lloret, 2015). However, despite the widespread recognition of TBL in language education, its use in music education is relatively rare. Most studies have used TBL as an adjunct to language learning rather than as a core approach to music teaching, leaving its potential in the field of music education untapped (Ruso, 1999; González-Lloret, 2015).

Nevertheless, some studies have tentatively explored the intersection between music and language education. For example, Rodríguez-Peñarroja's (2022) study showed that vocabulary learning through musical activities (e.g., listening to a song and watching a movie) significantly improved students' recall. These findings suggest that music stimulates students' interest in learning and enhances language learning through multisensory experiences. This hints at the potential facilitating role of music in language learning, especially in contexts that incorporate language learning, where musical activities can improve students' vocabulary acquisition and comprehension. However, despite these studies demonstrating the potential for the use of music in language education, the direct application of TBL to music education, particularly as a primary means of developing musical skills and competencies, remains an under-explored area. Existing research has focused primarily on the role of music as an aid to language learning and has failed to delve into its independent application in music education (McCarthy, 2009; Torres Vila, 2021). This research gap provides a significant opportunity to develop blended teaching methods that combine IBL and TBL. Educators may be able to design more effective music education strategies that both develop students' musical skills and promote their independent learning and critical thinking skills.

Moreover, integrating IBL and TBL is wider than music education. The integration of Project-Based Learning (PBL) in the teaching of English for Specialized Purposes (ESP) was demonstrated in Buzarna-Tihenea and Nadrag's (2023) study, which significantly enhanced students' learning by encouraging collaborative and active participation in learning. González-Lloret (2015) further emphasized the advantages of TBL in language education, arguing that this approach, through structured task sequences, not only effectively facilitates students' language learning but also offers broad prospects for its application in other disciplines. In conjunction with these studies, the potential of TBL in music curricula has received theoretical support (González-Lloret, 2015; Buzarna-Tihenea & Nadrag, 2023), suggesting that through a task-oriented approach, music education can further deepen students' understanding and skill development, leading to innovations in interdisciplinary teaching and learning. Therefore, this study aims to explore the impact of a blended teaching methodology based on IBL and TBL on the development of music students' competencies through the development of a blended teaching methodology.

2. Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL)

Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL), as an active learning process, aims to master scientific knowledge and research methods through students' independent exploration of problems. This mode of learning stems from the imitation of scientific research methods, and by allowing students to experience, understand, and apply scientific research methods firsthand, they can master scientific research skills. Paste et al. (2015) believe that IBL is a learning process and goal. On the one hand, IBL encourages students to ask questions, gather information, and construct knowledge as a learning process through hands-on activities and critical thinking. On the other hand, IBL aims to develop students' problem-solving, critical analysis, and independent learning skills, which are valuable for lifelong learning as a learning goal. IBL is regarded as an essential way to enhance the overall quality of students and is one of the keys to building lifelong learning skills in today's education.

IBL focuses on self-directed exploration and asking questions. As defined by the National Research Council (1996), inquiry is a multifaceted activity that includes observing, asking

questions, reviewing information, developing a research plan, evaluating conclusions based on experimental evidence, using tools to collect and analyze data, coming up with answers, interpreting and making predictions, and communicating results. The inquiry process requires identifying hypotheses, thinking critically and logically, and considering alternative explanations. Qablan argues (2024) that IBL is a nontraditional approach that incorporates active student participation by allowing students to ask questions and bring real-life experiences. This approach guides students' thought processes through questioning and helping them with "how to think" rather than "what to think." IBL is not only a process of acquiring knowledge but also a process in which students master scientific research methods through exploration (Wu et al., 2015). Scientific inquiry emphasizes acquiring empirical information through experimentation and observation and developing scientific explanations and conclusions based on this information. Hastut et al. (2019) and Purwasi (2019) found that students learn scientific knowledge, acquire scientific thinking and problem-solving skills in this process, and develop independent thinking to enhance their deep understanding of what they have learned.

IBL can be categorized into three types: scientific inquiry, practical inquiry, and social inquiry (Suárez et al., 2018). Scientific inquiry is mainly concerned with the understanding of scientific knowledge and principles, emphasizing the acquisition of data through experimentation and observation, such as measuring the rolling speed of an object on different slopes to understand the principles of mechanics in physics class; practical inquiry focuses on practical problem solving (action plan), such as the management of environmental pollution and the classification and recycling of garbage, etc.; social inquiry involves issues in social sciences and humanities, and pays more attention to reflections and value judgments. For example, what can be learned from the Second World War? Although these three types of inquiry differ in objectives and methods, they all emphasize students' ability to explore and ask questions independently. Different types of inquiry learning can meet the diverse learning needs of students and develop their comprehensive abilities in different fields.

The history of IBL can be traced back to Dewey's criticism in 1909 that traditional science education placed too much emphasis on accumulating information and neglected the importance of science as a way of thinking and an attitude (Kolstø, 2018). Between the 1950s and the 1970s, the rationale for IBL was gradually recognized, and educator Schwab proposed learning through experimentation and observation as specific methods and emphasized students' initiative and autonomy in the inquiry process (Doll Jr., 1972). Curriculum reforms during this period focused on developing students' inquiry skills and understanding science as a dynamic, continually verifying and revising process. Dewey's and Schwab's theories laid the foundation for modern IBL and influenced subsequent educational practices.

IBL is characterized by five main aspects: asking questions, collecting data, developing explanations, evaluating results, and testing results (National et al., 2000). In the question-posing stage, students need to explore science-based questions that are related to scientific concepts and can be answered through empirical investigations. In the data collection phase, students obtain empirical information through observation, measurement, and experimentation and develop scientific explanations based on this information. In the evaluation and testing of results stage, students must compare their explanations with other possible explanations and further consolidate the results of their investigations through communication and validation. Each feature emphasizes students' active participation and independent thinking in the learning process, which makes IBL effective in enhancing students' learning outcomes and scientific literacy.

The implementation of IBL can be either full or partial inquiry, open inquiry, or guided inquiry. Complete inquiry learning encompasses all five characteristics of inquiry, while partial inquiry may need to include some of these characteristics. According to Zion and Mendelovici (2012), open inquiry emphasizes student autonomy, while guided inquiry requires more support and guidance from the teacher. Depending on students' abilities and learning goals, appropriate

inquiry methods can be chosen to maximize the effects of IBL. For example, for lower-grade students, guided inquiry can be used to gradually develop their inquiry skills, while for upper-grade students, open inquiry can allow them to explore and research more independently.

3. Task-Based Learning (TBL)

Task-Based Learning (TBL) is a student-centered teaching method that promotes student learning by completing specific tasks. According to Sholeh et al. (2020), this method improves students' general competence by combining theoretical knowledge with practical applications and encouraging them to use what they have learned in real-world situations. TBL originated in the 1980s when Bangalore first introduced Task-based teaching learning (TBLT) in India and has evolved and improved over the following decades, gradually becoming an essential pedagogical theory and practice method in education (Suntharesan, 2014). TBLT, as a pedagogical method, occupies a prominent position in linguistic research. However, it is noteworthy that the application of TBL in linguistics has gradually been diluted in favor of gradual adaptation and integration into research in several disciplines. The core concept of TBL is to let students learn through practical exercises and specific tasks to enhance the initiative and effectiveness of learning.

The core concept of TBL is Learning by Doing. In this teaching mode, students take the initiative to construct knowledge systems and develop thinking and practical skills by participating in various tasks, such as projects, problem-solving, and group discussions. For example, students can enhance language application and communicative skills in language learning through tasks such as role-playing, simulated dialogues, and practical communication (Shehadeh, 2005). Students participate in various tasks, such as role-playing, simulated dialogues, and practical communication, to enhance their language application and communicative skills in language learning. Students can deepen their understanding of music theory and practice in music education by engaging in tasks such as music composition, performance, and analysis (Moore & Lorenzo, 2015). Students' interest in learning is stimulated, and they can consolidate and apply what they have learned practically, thus achieving twice the result with half the effort.

The research on TBL has achieved remarkable results in recent years. Bangalore proposed the task-based teaching method in the 1980s and summarized a set of teaching models in practice, emphasizing the students' subjective position and the teacher's supporting role (Lochana & Deb, 2006). Subsequently, scholars such as Skehan, Prabhu, and Willis further developed this theory, and Skehan (1998) in A cognitive approach to language learning. Oxford University Press explains that task-based teaching should emphasize the "meaning-oriented" approach. Skehan (1998) in *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*, Oxford University Press, explains that task-based teaching should emphasize "meaning-oriented" learning activities, in which students not only pay attention to the form of the language but also focus on the function and meaning of the language in completing tasks. Willis (1996) proposed three stages of task-based teaching: pre-task, task, and post-task, and these studies laid a solid foundation for the theory and practice of TBL. The research and practice of these scholars have provided theoretical support for TBL and specific guidance for actual teaching and learning, so TBL has been widely used worldwide.

Other scholars' research on and application of TBL is also emerging. Researchers have explored the implementation strategies and effects of TBL in different disciplines and teaching contexts. For example, Lee (2004) proposed the concept of communication tasks in English language teaching, emphasizing the purposeful, functional, and situational nature of tasks and designing tasks according to specific teaching needs. Ellis (2006) believed that group work is a core component of TBL because it provides meaningful communication and language use opportunities. Tasks are designed to encourage students to work cooperatively in groups to

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accomplish common goals or problem-solving activities and are more meaningful and motivating for students. Chen (2018) found that TBL also promotes the development of students' thinking and overall quality of life because students must use critical, creative, and expressive thinking skills in completing tasks. These studies show that TBL is adaptable and practical in different cultural and educational contexts and can effectively enhance teaching and learning.

Implementing TBL requires teachers to invest much effort in task design, organization, and guidance. Teachers must design challenging and practical tasks according to students' abilities and interests and provide the necessary support and feedback during the task implementation process. Teachers also need to pay attention to the difficulty and complexity of the tasks to ensure that students gain a sense of achievement and self-efficacy in completing the tasks.

Although TBL has many advantages in teaching practice, there are some challenges and problems. The design and implementation of tasks require a lot of time and resources, and teachers' professionalism and instructional ability also significantly impact teaching effectiveness (Sholeh, 2020). Balancing the challenging nature of tasks with students' receptivity and conducting practical assessments in TBL are also issues that need to be further explored (Zhytska, 2014). In addition, Shukurova (2024) argues that ensuring all students are engaged may be difficult because students may have different understandings of the task, leading to uneven engagement and learning outcomes within the same classroom. These researchers suggest that the theory and practice of TBL can be continually refined through ongoing teacher training and pedagogical research to provide students with more affluent and more effective learning experiences. Addressing these issues will require a concerted effort by educational institutions, teachers, and researchers to explore more scientific and efficient teaching methods.

4. The relationship between inquiry-based and TBL

IBL is rooted in constructivist theory. Proposed by scholars such as Piaget and Cook (1952) and Vygotsky and Cole (1978), constructivism is a theory of knowledge and learning that emphasizes the learner's initiative and sees learning as a process in which the learner generates meanings and constructs understandings based on prior knowledge and experience, which is often accomplished in the context of social and cultural interactions. IBL emphasizes the development of critical thinking and creativity through exploratory activities in authentic contexts that allow students to solve real-world problems. Constructivist theory also influences TBL, but its theoretical underpinnings are more focused on linguistics and applied linguistics, especially Krashen's (1985) input assumptions and Long's (1985) output assumptions. TBL initially emphasized the practical use of language. Through the design and completion of tasks, students are allowed to communicate and cooperate in authentic contexts to improve their language use and practical problem-solving abilities.

Despite their unique focus on theoretical underpinnings, there is a strong link and complementary relationship between IBL and TBL. Both are based on constructivism and emphasize students' active participation and self-directed learning. In addition, both emphasize learning in authentic contexts, with IBL stimulating students' interest in learning through questions and the research process, while TBL enables students to apply knowledge in specific contexts through the actual practice and completion of tasks (Vaquero & Diaz, 2023; Walker et al., 2022). Inquiry-based and TBL focus on developing higher-order thinking skills, such as critical thinking, creative problem-solving, and self-directed learning (Qamariyah et al., 2021).

The implementation method of IBL is usually divided into several main stages: asking questions, investigating, analyzing data, and drawing conclusions. The implementation method of TBL focuses more on the practical and task-completion process. IBL and TBL have many

complementary implementation methods. Combining the two can lead to a more comprehensive teaching strategy. For example, teachers can design task-based activities in IBL to help students verify their hypotheses and conclusions. This can enhance students' understanding of knowledge and improve their practical skills.

Similarly, in TBL, inquiry-based activities can be introduced to help students gain a deeper understanding of the background knowledge of the task and develop their spirit of inquiry and creativity. For example, when conducting a science experiment task, students can formulate experimental questions and hypotheses through IBL and then complete experimental operations and data analysis through TBL. This integration enables students to apply what they have learned in practical operations and enhance their cognitive and practical abilities in the inquiry process.

5. Design principles for the blended teaching approach

What is unquestionable is the close alignment of explicit pedagogical objectives with tasks. While IBL emphasizes that students construct knowledge by asking questions, conducting experiments, and reflecting, TBL requires students to complete real-world tasks or projects. Therefore, when designing teaching methods, teachers must combine course objectives with specific tasks so that students can effectively achieve learning objectives while completing tasks. Each task should have clear teaching objectives to ensure consistency with the curriculum standards and students' ability levels. Teachers need to design tasks according to students' characteristics and needs to ensure their effectiveness and applicability (Anderson & International Institute for Educational Planning, 1991).

Furthermore, teachers must design a step-by-step learning process to progressively enable students to move deeper into TBL based on IBL. However, advancing too fast may lead to problems of insufficient understanding, lack of deep learning, or reduced motivation of students. When students have not fully grasped and internalized the required knowledge and skills at the IBL stage, entering TBL too early may lead to cognitive overload, making them feel overwhelmed when facing actual tasks (Oxford, 2006). Therefore, teachers should provide sufficient support at the beginning and feedback at the end to help students maximize their learning outcomes in each learning stage.

Blended learning also emphasizes the balance between cooperative and independent learning, which should complement each other. Teachers should encourage students to work together in groups to solve problems while emphasizing individual students' self-directed learning skills. Sawyer (2005) emphasizes that deep learning requires students to connect new concepts to prior knowledge and to consolidate their understanding through reflection and evaluation. Collaborative learning helps students gain diverse perspectives and solutions in group discussions, while self-directed learning prompts independent thinking and innovation.

6. The innovative nature of the blended teaching approach

Students who learn songs by rote tend to be technically proficient but often need to perform better in musical expression and creativity than those who learn by understanding musical concepts and performance techniques (Haston, 2007). Achieving a proper understanding of music takes much work and requires talent. However, Iglesias and Tejada (2024) argue that students can gradually develop this understanding through an IBL approach and by combining theoretical knowledge with actual performance in ongoing practice, which enhances their musical expression and creativity. This is mainly because students are encouraged to actively explore different elements of music, such as rhythm, melody, and harmony. Meanwhile, TBL helps students consolidate and deepen these understandings in practical applications by designing

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specific musical projects, such as composing a piece of music or a performance task (Xie, 2017). Partti and Westerlund (2013) also mention that students need to collaborate with their classmates and divide their work to complete complex music creation tasks accomplishing these practical tasks, which enables them to learn about music while also learning how to work effectively in a team. This approach enables students to apply what they have learned in real-life situations and enhances their creativity and expressive skills in music composition and performance.

The innovation of blended learning in the music classroom is also reflected in how teaching and learning are assessed. Traditional music assessment tends to focus on students' accurate performance of sheet music or their mastery of music theory, and this type of assessment focuses on students' performance at the technical level. However, this mode of assessment may need to pay more attention to students' development in musical expression and creativity. McPherson (1995) stated that music assessment should take a more comprehensive account of students' performance in actual performance, especially in expression, creativity, and emotional engagement. Based on McPherson's view, assessment for blended learning is called upon to reflect students' learning progress and overall competency development more thoroughly. For example, in a music composition program, teachers can assess students' creative thinking and musical comprehension by observing how they incorporate different musical elements (e.g., melody, rhythm, harmony) into their compositions. The assessment can also include students' performance in group work, focusing on how they communicate and collaborate with other members, especially their coordination skills in co-composing and performing.

7. The teaching step of the blended teaching approach

7.1 *Step 1: Defining instructional objectives and designing curriculum content*

Identifying instructional objectives is the first task when designing a music course. This step is crucial and aims to ensure that students are equipped with the necessary musical skills and theoretical knowledge at the end of the course. Nwankwere and Ọpara (2016) state that teachers should set clear learning objectives based on the needs of the students in TBL environments to ensure that the content is relevant and practical. Paste et al. (2015) also emphasized that curriculum design should focus on combining theory and practice so that students can apply the theoretical knowledge they have learned to actual music composition and performance. Therefore, in practical teaching, teachers' objectives should consider the student's current level and future learning needs. These objectives should cover basic music theory, such as the mastery of harmony, rhythm, and melodic structure, and at the same time, enhance students' abilities in composition, performance, and music analysis. The setting of objectives should also follow the principle of progressivity, gradually guiding students to transition from mastering introductory knowledge to applying complex skills, ensuring that they build up their self-confidence as they continue to improve, and ultimately realizing the development of comprehensive music literacy. Teachers should also ensure the objectives are challenging and achievable to motivate students and promote deeper learning.

7.2 *Step 2: Introducing IBL activities*

While introducing IBL activities, teachers should guide and support students in exploring structured, guided, or open-ended questions to gradually develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Costes-Onishi & Kwek, 2023). For example, a teacher may pose a challenging question such as "How can the emotional expression of a musical piece be affected by changing the harmonic structure?" This question can stimulate deeper thinking and exploration among students. After students discuss and explore in groups, the teacher can help them

summarize the essential findings and apply these theories to practice, such as verifying their theoretical speculations through improvisation or performance. Paste et al. (2015) mention that this combination of exploration and practice helps students to internalize their knowledge while developing their creativity and practical skills. Students experience the music creation process through independent learning, while teacher guidance ensures direction and depth of learning.

7.3 *Step 3: Implementation of TBL*

The core responsibility of the teacher is to design and organize challenging musical tasks to help students translate their theoretical knowledge into practical skills. According to Nunan (2004), TBL prompts students to deepen their understanding and skills through application by setting specific tasks in authentic situations. For example, teachers may assign compositional tasks that require students to create a piece of music using a specific harmonic progression or to rearrange a musical fragment in an orchestra performance. Tasks should gradually increase in complexity according to students' current abilities to help them challenge themselves in practice and improve their musical understanding and compositional skills. At the same time, teachers need to take on the role of facilitator, supporting students through scaffolding, which Richards and Schmidt (2002) have identified as particularly critical in TBL, to help students succeed through challenge, which helps students to succeed in challenging situations.

7.4 *Step 4: Presentation of results and reflection*

Reflection is integral to the learning process and can help students consolidate their knowledge in practical applications (Kolb, 2014). Johnson and Brown (2011) further emphasize that reflective teaching should include discussion, action, and reflection. These processes help students make meaningful connections in their music learning and enhance their critical thinking skills. The forms of outcome presentations can be diverse, including classroom performances, recordings of works, and sheet music presentations, where students can present a comprehensive picture of what they have learned in the course. At the same time, teachers should actively engage students in self-reflection and peer feedback, which will help students recognize their weaknesses and areas for improvement and motivate them to be more proactive in the next stage of their learning.

7.5 *Step 5: Evaluation and adjustment*

According to Black and Wiliam (1998), formative assessment can provide students with timely feedback to help them make adjustments and improvements in the learning process. Teachers can comprehensively assess students' learning effectiveness in the music classroom by observing their performance, creative achievements, and active participation in discussions. Subsequently, teachers should adjust their teaching plans and strategies according to the assessment results to better meet students' individual learning needs. Adjustments should cover the optimization of teaching content and the improvement of teaching methods to ensure that each student can reach his/her full potential and achieve the best results in learning activities.

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Organization and Regulatory Base of Primary School Education in Israel: Specifics of Teaching Bedouin Students in Primary School

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Abstract

After the establishment of the state, there was a radical change in the life of the Bedouin Arabs in the Negev. They were not allowed to continue their traditional way of life in a short time. Bedouins are a destitute minority in a Western-oriented country. This change created the need for a formal education system that would deal with the new reality. Formal education became a prerequisite for the success of the Bedouin Arabs to adapt to the changes that have changed their lives due to the need for assimilation, partially or fully, in the Israeli economy for their livelihood. However, the formal education system is a fairly new framework in the Arab-Bedouin community in the Negev. Bedouin education frameworks were not formal, and the young men and women were educated through observation of adults and active participation in everyday life. The influence of the control system is so strong that teachers and education administration personnel are kept in the system of Arab education is afraid to even openly criticize the Ministry of Education. For example, in an article published in the Jerusalem Post on 14 December 2005, dealing with the sub-conditions at the school in one of the recognized Bedouin settlements in the Negev, the administrators and teachers agreed to speak only anonymously.

Keywords: Israeli education, Bedouins, Arab-Israelis, primary school.

1. The historical developments of the educational system of the Bedouin sector in Israel

After the establishment of the state of Israel, there was a radical change in the life of the Bedouin Arabs in the Negev. They were not allowed to continue their traditional way of life in a short time. Bedouins are a destitute minority in a Western-oriented country.

This change created the need for a formal education system that would deal with the new reality. Formal education became a prerequisite for the success of the Bedouin Arabs to adapt to the changes that have changed their lives due to the need for assimilation, partially or fully, in the Israeli economy for their livelihood.

However, the formal education system is a fairly new framework in the Arab-Bedouin community in the Negev. Bedouin education frameworks were not formal, and the young men and women were educated through observation of adults and active participation in everyday life (Abu-Saad, 2007, 2011).

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The indifference shown by the state authorities towards the education of Arab-Bedouin children in the Negev and lack the interest in formal education in the Bedouin community itself meant that the education system among the Bedouins, it did not develop for a long time, even after an education law was enacted compulsory (1949).

The number of schools was very limited during the military regime (1966-1948), and most schools had only four grades (1st-4th). The average number of students in the school was about 40 (Abu-Saad, 1991).

The school was at a low level, and the state authorities did not make a serious effort to enforce the mandatory education law required. For example, in the school in 2015 there were 350 students enrolled in the schools out of 2,000 children in compulsory education age. In the space of one year, 220 students who attended the schools (that is, 37% of the students) dropped out (Sabirsky, 1990).

A well-known problem in Bedouin education is the subject of girls' studies at school, which was particularly problematic. In traditional Bedouin society, women were prohibited from leaving the family environment. The families preferred not to risk their honor and did not allow their daughters to come into contact with boys from other families and tribes.

The Israeli Ministry of Education, for its part, did not bother to establish separate schools for girls in the Bedouin sector, because such separation is also practiced in the state-religious sector and the ultra-orthodox sector. Therefore, the Bedouins in the Negev showed more opposition to girls' studies in schools than to boys' studies.

During the military government, Bedouin students who were interested in continuing their studies went to schools in Arab settlements in the triangle or the north of the country, but they accepted permission to leave the area involved many difficulties, and only a few students succeeded in doing so (Abu Saad, 2004, 2007, 2011; Boyel (Lustick, 1980, 2011).

The number of students enrolled in Arab-Bedouin schools remained low until 1966 (The end of the Israeli military government). After that, when the movement restrictions were lifted, the situation began to change. The Bedouin Arabs established contacts with Arab settlements in Galilee, in the center, and in the mixed cities, where the educational system was more established.

Also, the more the Bedouin Arabs were exposed to what was going on in Jewish society and became more involved in the state's economy, the more it became clear to them the importance of formal education to adapt to the new way of life.

After the 1967 war, a meeting of the Bedouins in the Negev with their relatives and sons was also possible for their tribes in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, from which they had been cut off since 1948.

The Bedouin Arabs in the Negev discovered that among their relatives and acquaintances from the West Bank and the Gaza Strip) who were removed from southern Israel in the 1948 war and after that by the government Israelis (were educated and earned a living from teaching, law, and the medical professions, while theirs had almost no access to formal education, and the vast majority remained Illiterates. They also learned that the women in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip also acquired an education, while the women in the Negev had almost no formal education. marriage between the sons and daughters of these groups of the Arab-Bedouin community, who were separated before. Therefore, it resulted in educated women from the West Bank and the Gaza Strip moving to live there in the Negev, and these new connections greatly influenced the Bedouin community in the Negev and led to an increase in the number of boys and girls sent to schools (Abu-Saad, 1999, 2011).

With the increasing demand among the Bedouin population in the Negev for formal education the government established more schools, and education became the property of more and more people and the girls of the Bedouin Arab community in the Negev. In the late 1960s, the Ministry of Education established temporary elementary schools in all the major tribes in the Negev. In 1969, the first high school was established as a growing division in the settlement of Kasifa, and it served the entire Arab-Bedouin population in the Negev (Reichal, Neumann & Abu-Saad, 1987).

In the late 1970s, two more high schools were founded, in the first two permanent settlements established by the government for Bedouins in the Negev (Tel Sheva and Rahat), and over the years, high schools were added in the permanent settlements only. It should be noted that since the establishment of the permanent settlements that were designed for the Arab-Bedouin community in the Negev in the early 1970s, most of the investments were made in schools in these settlements, neglecting the temporary schools in the unrecognized villages.

Over the years there has been a considerable increase in the number of students in Bedouin education in the Negev, and the increase in the girl's class is the most impressive. In 1982 they studied in the Bedouin education system of 3,782 girls in the Negev, compared to 52,187 girls in 2022 - an increase of about 1,380% in 20 years. Of course, the number of schools in the Bedouin population in the Negev also led to an increase in the number of students.

2. Representations, goals, and objectives, in textbooks and curriculum

The Arab education system in Israel therefore continues to exist in the shadow of a series of political criteria, which the Arabs have no part in formulating. The Arabs were "absent" of the general Jewish-oriented goals formulated in the state education law from 1953 and the amendments to the law were drafted in 2000, and no parallel goals were ever formulated for the Arab-Palestinian education system. In the 1970s and 1980s, and in the 2005 reform of the National Education Plan, several committees were appointed that attempted to formulate unique goals for Arab education (all of which were managed by Jewish educators and policymakers). However, none of these attempts were successful, and the proposed goals were not added as an appendix to the State Education Law (Report of the Dovrat Committee, Al-Haj, 1995, 2005; 2005).

As mentioned, the Arab minority in Israel never received autonomous control over its education system. He was not allowed to determine its goals, objectives, or curricula. The Arab education system does have a separate curriculum, but it is determined by the Ministry of Education in a process in which the main participants are Jewish administrators and academics (Sabirsky & Dagan-Bozaglo, 2005; Al-Haj, 2009). This situation stands in complete contradiction to what is happening in the state-religious Jewish education department.

As is known, the State Education Law of 1953 recognized the split between religious Jews and non-Jews secular and allowed the religious to have a separate autonomous department for education within the Ministry of Education religious government. This department is physically, administratively, and pedagogically separate from the Ministry of Education the General and maintains complete independence (Svirsky, 1990, 1995); Agbaria and Jabarin, Mar'i, 1978; Swirski, 1999; Adalah, 2003; Agbaria, 2018; Arar, 2013) (Galily & Schwartz, 2021).

As mentioned, the State Education Law of 1953 emphasizes the cultivation of Jewish identity and values the Jews, but did not set any goals for Arab education in Israel, although, in the 70s and 80s of the 20th century, there were a few attempts to do so within the framework of committees led by educators Jews (Alhaj, 1996). Instead, the general and specific goals of a program the studies developed for Arab education tend to obscure and dim its formation of Arab identity, and not to strengthen it. The comprehensive goals of the educational system, as well as the specific goals of the curriculum obligate Arab students to learn about the Jewish culture and

its values, as you can see in the program the state curriculum for Arab primary and secondary schools (Marei, 1985); Shetrit, Peres, Ehrlich, and Yuval-Davis, 1970; Mar'i, 1978, Al-Haj, 2014, 1995; Agbaria, 2018; Arar, 2022).

The Arab students are required to spend many study hours studying the culture and Jewish history and the Hebrew language (in total) are assigned to these subjects more hours of Arabic literature and Arabic history). They are also required to develop identification with Jewish values and promote Zionist aspirations at the expense of developing awareness of their nationalism and a sense of belonging to their people. Arab national identity is emphasized much less, and the Palestinian identity does not receive any kind of recognition (Mari, 1985; Sheetrit, Mar'i, 1978; Al-Haj, 1995; 2014).

Also, the main goal of studying Hebrew and Judaism in the Arab education system is not to develop cultural competence within Jewish Israeli society, but to force the Arabs to understand and sympathize with the Jewish-Zionist goals and blur their national identity. (Mar'i, 1978; Al-Haj, 1995; Swirski, 1999; Agbaria, 2018; Arar, 2022).

The Arab education system in Israel institutionalizes to a large extent the fear of the Israelis from the past, from the Palestinian cultural and national identity, and as we know, prohibits teachers in the Arab schools from talking about current affairs. This lack of content and experiences cultural and national relevance from the Arab schools leads the students to look for other sources to satisfy their needs, for example, on social networks. for example, Samia Sharkaoi's personal story: "The house drew me to my roots, the school, consistently and by herself, ripped me off. Over the years I look back with a smile at how he succeeded in the house at the end. Education is the magic word and the keyword. That's where you need to take your tool the light and heavy work and continue working."

Peres, Ehrlich, and Yuval-Davis criticized the Ministry-imposed curriculum education about the Arab schools because it is trying to "instill" patriotic feelings into the hearts of the Arab students by teaching Jewish history. They also voted on the absurdity inherent in the expectation that "the Arab student [...] will serve the state not because it is important to him and meets his own needs, but because it is important to the Jewish people" (Peres, Ehrlich & Yuval-Davis, 1970).

The curriculum in the Arab schools maintained and preserved over the years the lack of reference to Arab culture, in general, and the lack of involvement in politics the contemporary one, in particular. For example, the curriculum does not deal in any way with the specific social, cultural, and educational needs of the Bedouin Arabs in the Negev, who are gradually becoming an urban population whose economy is a modern economy, western and hi-tech. The failure to address their social and political affairs and the contemporary nature of the Arabs in Israel greatly weakens the relevance of the educational experience for the Arab students, so much so that he threatens to keep them away from home the book (Mar'i, 1978; Brown, 1986; Abu-Saad, 2019; Agbaria, 2018; Arar, 2022).

This neglect reflects the very low priority that the state authorities give to Arab students – the entire Arab education system remembers their announcements and the publicity of senior officials in the Ministry of Education as a sort of footnote. For example, a server the former educator Limor Livnat announced in June 2001 that she would like to see "there is no even one child in Israel" who will not receive "Jewish and Zionist knowledge and values" at school (Fisher-Ilan, 2001) and within the Jewish Home party headed by Naftali Bennett (who was the Minister of Education from May 2015 to June 2019) states that "the most urgent task ours is the establishment of a unit for Jewish-Zionist education in the state schools in the country Israel [...] The Jewish Home will lead a national plan for a Zionist Jewish identity which will strengthen all students from first grade to twelfth grade" (Alder, 2015). In other words, Zionism became an ideological mechanism that promotes policy decisions aimed at ensuring that the Jewish identity

of the state will remain at the forefront of all state institutions, especially in the field of education (Sheps, 2019).

3. Budget inequality, politicization, and control of the education system

The budgets of the Arab education system are very poor compared to the Jewish education system and very far from meeting her basic needs. For example, a high school student in the stream in 2020, the religious state received an average annual budget of NIS 40.8 thousand – budget 26% higher than the budget received by a Jewish student in the state stream (32.4 thousand NIS), and 46% of the budget received by an Arab high school student (NIS 27.9 thousand) (Detal, 2021).

According to data from the Ministry of Education, the Arab education system also receives fewer training days, fewer resources for developing unique programs, fewer supervision hours, and fewer budgets for struggling students, in addition to the lower investment in non-formal education.

At the same time, the Arab education system suffers from a severe lack of physical infrastructure basics - for years there has been a severe shortage of standard classrooms, annex rooms, libraries, computer labs, science labs, sports halls, and infrastructures and digital technologies. The damage to disadvantaged populations is particularly great, and their possibility to enjoy such infrastructures at home is even more limited (Abu-Saad, 2011, 2015; Haddad Haj-Yahia et al., 2021; Nasr-Abu Elhija, 2021; Chase Him et al., Arar, 2022; 2022).

Allocating equitable resources to the Arab education system is particularly important due to the poor economic situation of most Arab local authorities, and the inability of many parents in Arab society to finance private expenses for education. In 2017, the total private expenditure on education—parental payments, after-school activities, and equipment—was 749 NIS per month on average per student in state Hebrew education, 625 NIS in state-religious education, 430 NIS in ultra-orthodox education and 296 only NIS in Arab education (Haddad Haj-Yahia et al., 2021).

The lack of adequate representation of Arabs in the senior management of the Ministry of Education is also seriously damaging to the functioning of the Arab education system and its ability to promote and empower the minority the Arabs in Israel. The Arabs are "present" but "absent" within the administration of the Ministry of Education the main one, where the important decisions are made. For example, there is not even a district manager Arab, and only recently appointed to the office of Vice President and Head of Technological Education Administration Arab, although there are many talented Arab educators who can fill positions many seniors are very successful (Abu-Saad, 2015, 2021).

Also, there are still few Arabs employed in senior positions in the central headquarters of the Ministry of Education in Jerusalem and the seven districts of the Ministry of Education. This fact limits the Arabs' contribution to the ministry's many educational and pedagogical programs; remainder therefore, as Dafna Golan-Agnon (2004) pointed out, the lack of Arab representation at the highest levels of the Ministry of Education prevents Arab schools from accessing many educational programs which are not mandatory (Abu Saad, 2005; Golan-Agnon, 2006; 2021).

According to some scholars, the exclusion of Arabs from senior positions in the public education system stems from the will to maintain control over the Arab minority. The management and teaching powers were determined first and foremost according to political considerations and not according to professional considerations. If so, the Arab education system is not autonomous in any sense whatsoever.

The employment of teachers, managers, and supervisors in Arab schools is ultimately given in the hands of the Central Ministry of Education in Jerusalem. The training and certificates in themselves are not enough for Arab citizens in Israel to get a teaching position. before receiving them to work in the education system, they are required to undergo – without their knowledge - also a classification procedure security and receive a secret seal from the Shin Bet. In jobs that require an open tender, such as teacher positions and management or supervisory positions, candidates in Jewish schools are required to present certificates attesting to their education, training, and experience only.

On the other hand, in the Arab education system, the requirements are completely different. Shin Bet representative in the Ministry of Education he serves on the appointment committee for the Arab education system, and without his approval – which is based on a security check by the Shin Bet – it is impossible to enroll an Arab school teacher, manager, or supervisor. The candidates themselves are completely excluded from this process, and they do not have any way to challenge the decision (Golan-Agnon, 2004; Abu Saad, 2015, 2021; Storm, 2001; Ettinger, 2004; Ron, Al-Haj, 1995; Golan-Agnon, 2006; Agbaria, 2020; Mustafa & Jabareen, 2014; Agbaria, 2018; Arar, 2022).

In conclusion, the influence of the control system is so strong that teachers and education administration personnel are kept in the system Arab education is afraid to even openly criticize the Ministry of Education. For example, in an article published in the Jerusalem Post on December 14, 2005 dealing with the sub-conditions at the school in one of the recognized Bedouin settlements in the Negev, the administrators and teachers agreed to speak only anonymously (Halkin, 2005).

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