ace2009

The Asian Conference on Education 2009

'Local Problems, Global Solutions?'

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ABSTRACT

In 2006, the discovery that a Lebanese freelance photographer, Adnan Hajj, had manipulated pictures he took for Reuters raised questions about the standards of photojournalism at a time of widespread digital photography.

In March 2003, two photos involving Iraqi civilians by a Los Angeles Times photographer were "blended" in violation of the newspaper's policy, and the photographer was fired.
These incidents have increased pressure on news photo editors, who select and edit thousands of photographs on deadline each day, to detect digital alterations and it has put pressure on the academic community to teach higher standards of ethics: morality, honesty and integrity to name a few.

David Friend is an editor at Vanity Fair magazine and a former director of photography for Life magazine. He says: "Now all it takes is a swipe of a mouse, and the kid down the street can add smoke and mirrors to everything."

Like it or not, the reality is that fake images are everywhere and falsification has become a part of today's culture thanks to the popularity of digital cameras, the availability of desktop imaging software, and the immense popularity of web sites such as Facebook and Flickr.

Featured Speaker: General Education Plenary

Construction of Childhood in Children's Literature: Reflecting Change, Responding to Challenges

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First Asian Conference on Education, October 24-25, 2009, Osaka, Japan

Abstract:

Impressive scholarly writing and research have been done on children in the last two decades according to Prout (2005). Debates that stem from varying conceptions of childhood permeate the discourse. The social construction of children or the process by which children learn specific behavioral and cultural codes is among the themes, which are attracting great interest in this new awareness of re-thinking childhood. The open attitude that comes with this new direction inspires this investigation on childhood construction in mainstream children's literature. It seeks to identify issues and challenges in the education of children in the context of changing social and economic conditions brought about by globalization. It limits its gaze to the discourse on concern for children, which is relevant to the discussions on development and education of children. It analyses the implications of representations of childhood in literature against the backdrop of changes in the family and the child's place in it in the midst of transnationalization of care giving and female migrant work. To concretize discussion, this paper focuses on the Philippines for the most part and draws from the literature on Asian children as well. Training the eye on Asian children is timely as it is a response to the growing discontent with the universalizing concept of childhood in western discourse, which dominates the present. Indeed, there is a need to produce multiple discourses on childhood because of the ideological and practical implications discourses have on policies and practices that affect children in general and children's education, in particular.

Keywords: Asian childhood, education, literature, ideology, construction

Introduction

Motherhood is a very powerful concept in Philippine socio-political and cultural landscape. Recently, the passing of former Philippine President Corazon C. Aquino, the first woman president of the republic and the response of the people to it enacted this power. Reminiscent of the 1986 People Power which brought down dictatorial rule, people lined the streets wearing symbols, flashing signs and using color yellow signifying the struggle for democracy, honored the former President who in death had become an icon, 'Ina ng demokrasya.' [Mother of Democracy] She is now perceived as a leader whose commitment to justice, democracy and peace was her legacy.

Mothers occupy key role in child-rearing practice in the Philippines as in many other societies. This is expressed in a saying " Ang ina ang ilaw ng tahanan." [The mother is the beacon of the home.] Traditionally, mother and children spend most of the time together at home, while father earns a living.

The child receives nurturance (literally through breastfeeding) and figuratively through caring. The family is where the child first learns the core values of obedience, filial piety, and duty, which the school, later on follows through and teaches more social and moral codes. Disciplining of children is the domain of the father who is expected to be firm and unwavering, an attribute of child rearing which is inscribed in a number of often quoted work of an 18th century poet Francisco Balagtas who is still being read in   public schools   today:

> "ang laki sa layaw karaniwa'y hubad
>
> sa bait at muni't sa hatol ay salat. (202)
>
>
> " di dapat palakhin ang bata sa saya,
>
> at sa katuwa'y kapag namihasa,
>
> kung lumaki'y walang hihinting ginhawa." (197)
>
>
> "sa taguring bunso't likong pagmamahal
>
> ang isinasama ng bata'y nunukal,
>
> ang iba'y marahil sa kapabayaan
>
> ng dapat magturong tamad na magulang." (203)
>
> Balagtas, 1838

The foregoing describes the traditional place of a child in the family. I shall return to this in relation to the concept of childhood. Connectedness and interdependence is highly valued in family relations as inscribed in another popular saying " *Ang sakit ng kalingkingan ay nararamdaman ng buong katawan."* [The whole body feels the pain of the little finger.] It means that if a member of the family is afflicted, the whole family suffers and it is expected that the rest of the family deal with it in the spirit of concern and care for the family.

The subject of motherhood, family and child care in the preceding, foregrounds discussions on children's literature and its representation of family and childhood in the context of changes in the family structure and composition of the family at present caused by labor migration and recently, female migrant work. The traditional family composition, which is described in the beginning, has mutated into different forms such as single-parent families, mother-headed, father-headed, child-headed, blended families and many others.   This paper explores this reality in relation to the problem

of social construction of childhood in literature and renders an analysis of its implications on the care and concern of children.

1.0 Childhood **Studies Discourse**

Impressive scholarly writing and research have been done on children in the last two decades according to Prout (2005).   Social scientists   were dissatisfied with the way their discipline dealt with childhood and this led to critiques of key notions found in conventional approaches.   Key assumptions were questioned with the critical eye trained on the individual focus of mainstream development studies and the idea of universal biological phenomena of child development.   Prout's discussion of the "new social studies of childhood" point to the use of a new perspective that sees childhood as a social construction and regard children as "social actors in their own right."   He welcomes this development but also cautions about the tendency to simply emphasize differences with conventional approaches because he believes that this too, is coming to an end.   He suggests that in order to push on the development of the field, it is necessary to integrate what is useful in earlier or different approaches with the present perspective that sees " childhood [then] like all phenomena is heterogeneous, complex and emergent and, because this is so, its understanding requires a broad set of intellectual resources, an interdisciplinary approach and an open-minded process of inquiry." (2005: p 2).

The open-mindedness that orients this re-thinking of childhood inspires this examination of childhood construction in children's literature.   It proceeds to identify issues in the education of children through literature by deploying critical approaches to reveal the ideological implications of childhood construction in literature.   It renders a reading of the representations of childhood in mainstream literature and contextualizes this reading by implicating the changing social and economic conditions that constitute the lived experience of child readers for whom these literatures are purportedly intended.   It seeks to know if the literature, as venue of children's education and construction enable children to understand or at least recognize the changes that have taken place around them.   Put another way, this paper seeks to know whether mainstream literature for children are able to reflect fundamental changes in its representations of family life and childhood and in the process, are able to respond to challenges these changes bring about.

The foregoing   will be rendered concrete by limiting the scope to the discourse on concern and care for children, which is an important theme in the discussions on development and education of children.   It draws from the Philippine experience for the most part and occasionally brings in other Asian experiences as sources allow.   Writing and research on non-western childhood is this researcher's own response to the growing discontent with the dominant conception of childhood which has been criticized for being centered on western childhood. One of the reasons for this dissatisfaction stems from an understanding that conception of childhood impact on policy and practical concerns on children from around the world. With respect to the specific subject of child concern, some scholars argue that discourses on heterogeneous childhood need to be produced in order to allow for a more critical examination of on-going international and local policies and programs on child concern and

protection that are put in place for the best interest of children in different circumstances in local and global contexts. This position argues that:

> At the global level there has been an increasing discontent with how children have been named, reified and measured. Prevailing Eurocentric and North-American notions of "childhood" and "development" held sway in how "childhood" and "development" is theorized. Benchmarks about progression are viewed as universal and little has been done to disrupt the colonization of families who have children who do not fit the Eurocentric milestone and who are asked to change their family practices in order to be "ready for learning."

> (World Yearbook of Education, 2009, p. 22)

This paper brings into the discussion what is happening to Filipino children in the present way globalization has been transforming family structure and family relations bringing in the process fundamental changes in their   social and cultural worlds and how mainstream Filipino children's literature is implicated in this process.

2.0 Social construction in literature, new perspective of childhood studies, and discourse on child concern and care

The function of children's literature in education is well established in theory and practice. It is widely accepted that children's literature is a fairly good venue for teaching children skills, moral, religious and social values, and aspirations, as well as for modeling social roles.   This thinking firmly rests on theories of growth taken from developmental psychology (Piaget, Vigotsky) from social learning in education (Bandura) and from theories of social and cultural construction in sociology (James, Prout).

In literary study and criticism, children's literature is attracting new interest as an interdisciplinary area for those whose work is in childhood studies, literature, education, development and culture.   Discourse in this area; show increasing interest in the criticism of ideology and Cultural Studies, as well as, in images of childhood. (Joosen and Vloeberghs 2006) In mapping out this development, Joosen and Vloeberghs observe that the tradition of criticism of ideology of the 1960s continue and so with the tension between pedagogy and aesthetics which influence our understanding of children's literature and its use through to the present. Of particular use to this paper is the observation that cultural studies framework, with its emphasis on critique of power, and the criticism of ideology   when employed in the criticism of literature for children infused criticism and also the production of children's books with new insights and energy. Cultural Studies gave way to a more serious consideration of marginalized forms of cultural expression such as children's literature, and within it, a largely ignored popular fiction or series of fiction for the young reader and brought back the political dimension of criticism of ideology. On the other hand, the ideology of criticism focused attention on the need to have a set of criteria to determine what is literary.

These theoretical insights on children's literature and its relation to childhood construction inform this project.

Literature's stable position in the social construction of childhood from the perspective of these literary and critical approaches is further strengthened by a new perspective of childhood studies enunciated by Prout, which is cited earlier in the discussion. Policy perspective is one of the three main areas (the other two being historical approaches and socio-cultural approaches) identified by Kehily by way of organizing the diversity of studies under the rubric of childhood studies. In this particular discourse, Kehily notes "identification of need followed by social action has been a feature of policy-based approaches." Discussions of need however, are commonly based on assumptions and value- laden judgments about children. (p.13) And here, an important observation, which points to an important shift in orientation, is relevant to this discussion:

> In a move to deconstruct western notions of childhood, the universalism of the 'needs' discourse has been critiqued and replaced by a discourse of 'children's rights.' The shift in orientation from needs to rights reflects an endeavor to understand and take into account the child's point of view. (p.13)

But the 'rights discourse' too comes under scrutiny by Stainton- Rogers, for instance when she points to the limitations of the needs discourse and the rights discourse and proposes the 'quality of life discourse.' This she claims is more open to developing sensitive approaches to children and families and to recognizing the strengths of individuals and families in ways that move beyond ways of individualizing and pathology. (Kehily, 2004, p. 14)

2.0 Transnational care giving and Filipino childhood

Filipino children, at present grow up or are brought up in highly differentiated family structures. The traditional nuclear family consisting of mother, father and children has been transformed into myriads of family types the most radical of which is the child-headed family where both parents are labor migrants and children are seen as "seasonal orphans." What this change apparently implies is that care giving has shifted from parents to relatives and even to older children in families of sending countries. Of the way family structures have changed, the absent-mother seems to be the emerging common form as increasing number of women joins the international labor market. , According to Yinger, recent assessment shows that men no longer constitute the vast majority of international migrants. In some countries, more than half of migrants are female. In the Philippines, 70% of all Filipino labor migrants are women. With this large percentage of migrant women, it is estimated that about ten million children are growing up without a mother. (Carandang and Lee-Chua 2008: 109) Migrant women labor became in demand when developments in rich countries, particularly the need for household work and care giving opened new opportunities for work for women from poor countries. Feminization of migrant labor thus went hand in hand with transnationalization of care giving. This trend is seen most evident in Asia where hundreds of thousands of women from main

sending countries include Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand, while the main destinations are Hongkong (China), Malaysia, Singapore and the Middle East (Yinger)

How are children in sending countries and their care figure in this new context? Studies have been done on globalization and the phenomenon of transnational care giving (cite some of these) and one that examines the experiences of children in transnational families from the lens of gender is by Parrenas. (2006) The study reveals that "gender paradox defines transnational family in the Philippines, and that gender norms are being reified and transgressed " (p. 7) Put plainly, gender role switching is not taking place in Filipino families with migrant parents. The role of a breadwinner belongs to men as head of family while the role of family care belongs to women in the traditional division of labor in the family.   Disciplining is the father's domain while caring is that of the mother indicating clear gender boundaries. With a "father away family' or a 'mother away family,' one would expect that gender roles would change, however, Parrenas study reveals that gender norms were perpetrated by the care practices in these families. Looking at the work of fathers, migrant mothers, eldest daughters and extended kin, the study shows that "each group reinforces gender boundaries in the caring work that they do for the family." (p. 11) Of particular relevance to this discussion is the study's examination of the discourse of abandonment among the children of migrant mothers.   Children in these families, whether care is provided by substitutes, feel that they have been abandoned by their mothers and this strong emotion against the absence of mothers increases as families deviate from conventional practice, i.e. father doing care giving role, mother doing income earning role.

An in- depth study of Overseas Filipino Worker's families by Carandang et al   (2007) describes children in families where both parents are labor migrants and who are sometimes seen as "seasonal orphans." Drawing from several case studies of these families, the study reveals that although there is a pervasive sense of powerlessness and hopelessness among fathers and some of the children, resilience is present especially among children. Hope becomes the wellspring of resilience among children as they try to look beyond the present and imagine a happier complete family in the future.

Other studies cited by Parreπas qualify the generally assumed negative effect of migration to family as social institution.   She brings in the study of Asis who acknowledges the risks that migration may have on the family because of the chances of higher rates of infidelity, strained kin relations, and "wayward" children but adds that this is not as extensive as media and other scholars claim. In another study of more than 700 school children, Batistella and Conaco confirm that " severe cases of emotional disturbance" and "disruptive behavior" do   not necessarily   occur in transnational households but emphasize, " The single most important finding in the survey is that absence of the mother has the most disruptive effect on the life of the children." (Parrenas, 2005, p. 94)

Television has increasingly taken   over the role of parenting. This is a concern, which is commonly acknowledged. The intimacy in Filipino family relation between parent and children that is lacking in parent-away families is being replaced by this medium with no parental control on program viewing.   Value formation is therefore mostly left to television, which is viewed with great suspicion

because of the 'undesirable contents and images' that children are exposed to daily. (Cite studies on violence etc.)

[Discuss briefly the changes in family structures and the children's place in it, focusing on changes in social and cultural world of Filipino migrant families, include studies in other Asian countries]

3.0 The Child and Family in Children's Literature

Theoretically, readership (demand for) of Filipino children's literature is rather big considering that nearly 40% of the population of more than 90 million are children aged 17 and below. This puts children's literature in a good position to contribute to Filipino children's education. However, in reality, this potentially great influence is diminished by certain realities obtaining at present.   Until the 1970s, books for children were dominated by foreign language (mostly in English) books. Trade books or informational books mainly come from the United States and dominated the market until the 1990s.   American colonial education during colonial times fostered the use of the English language and the " American dream" [the aspiration to migrate to the United States as the land of opportunities], which provided the cultural impetus for the importation of English language books. [i] After political independence in 1946, this situation continued with few attempts to produce children's literature, written in English by Filipino authors in the 1960s.   It was in the 1970s onwards that storybooks and novels for children in Filipino language with a new format began to see print. Virgilio S. Almario, National Artist, who at that time   began publishing Filipino language children's story books as part of the mental feeding program of the government's National Nutrition Center gets credit for this development. He later on established his own publishing company and now enjoys a stable position in mainstream publishing.   It was also his company which began the practice of bilingual story book (Filipino and English in one book) while other publishers are testing the market for story books in Filipino and regional languages, especially in the retelling of epics and folk literature. Notwithstanding these developments, the market shares of original Filipino children's literature remains small the full discussion of which belongs to another occasion.   This brief background should help explain in part, the paucity of children's books with certain themes, including the representation of childhood and family, which is the subject of this paper.

What follows is a reading of these texts that reveal the ideological assumptions about childhood and relations in the family, which these texts encode. This section analyses the implications of these representations   on children's social construction given their lived experience.

The child in transnational family

Two storybooks and a novel for children treat the subject of a mother who works abroad as a domestic helper and or caregiver and leaves the care of her children to the father and or grandparents. The story book *Uuwi na ang Nanay Kong si Darna* (2002) [My Mother Darna is Coming Home] by Edgar Samar, illustrated by Russel Molina is about the happy arrival   of a mother from leave from

domestic work in Hongkong, whom the child –narrator vaguely remembers from photos.   Too young to remember how his mother looks, Popoy (boy-child) is amazed that she looks even more beautiful in person than in pictures she sends. The story shows the father as nurturing and creative as he instills a positive image of the absent mother by describing her as Darna personified, a super heroine in popular media. Thus, the child grows believing in his mother's magical power and taking pride in her work as domestic help. The story ends with a scene typical of Filipino overseas worker's coming home. Popoy's mother does not waste time opening the box of gifts or *pasalubong* and giving each item to each member of her extended   family. At last, she hands her gift of crayons and books to Popoy. Popoy thinks his mother could really read his mind because those are really what he likes and not being able to contain his curiosity asked his mother, to the surprise of everyone, if indeed, she is Darna. His mother does not reply but gives him a good tight embrace instead.

The picture book, Ang *Lihim ni Lea"* [The Secret of Lea], written by Augie Rivera and illustrated by Ghani Madueπo is a story of a girl-child who survives sexual abuse by her own father. Her teacher discovers something is wrong with her when she behaves unusually in school banging her head against closed doors. Teacher gets the help of a psychologist and learns that Lea believes that she has magical power to get through closed doors. This she experiences whenever her father abuses her. She receives help and re-unites with her mother who comes home and spends time with her until she is healed.   The story ends with mother and daughter   seen together in a setting that suggests London where the mother works as a nurse.

A young boy, Tonyo, eldest of three children embarks on a journey to find his mother in Hongkong. In this novel in English by Carla Pacis (O.C.W. *A Young boy's Search for his Mother, 1999*, 2001) mother works in Hongkong as domestic helper, leaves her three children (youngest is three years and second is five years) in the care of her husband and father. Tonyo whom his mother expects to stay in school later drops out because of home chores and 'work" in backyard hog raising which helps supplement family income. Tonyo's father who drives a pedicab for a living is unable to cope with his wife's absence. In less than four months, he spends most of his time in the cockpit, comes home very late and drunk and later starts to beat Tonyo in feats of anger over his wife's having to leave for work abroad.   Unable to accept this situation, Tonyo decides to look for his mother to bring her home. In his journey, he meets street children in Manila, and experiences street life, gets help from a Catholic priest Father Randy who gets him employed in a bakeshop. As a stowaway, Tonyo is able to reach the shores of Hongkong, gets help from well meaning Filipinos and later finds his mother. The novel ends with Tonyo and mother coming home and setting score with her husband. Tonyo who harbors so much anger at his father learns to forgive   upon seeing him outside the house as limped as a *petchay* (green leafy vegetable) and gives him a tight hug. The moment he hugs him, his father's bawl frightens him no end but he holds on tighter until his father's cries subside.

It's all right for mother to work abroad

One easily sees that the use of the   plot in Samar's storybook, though original and amusing in the way it depicts wonderment of   a child romanticizes the experience and relations in the family of a

migrant parent.   Although mother is absent, father takes over her role and the child stays happy. How much of the sad reality that millions of Filipino children of migrant mothers are concealed is a real problem in representation. Intended for children aged three to eight years old, stories like this that blend realism with fantasy are considered to be threading a difficult line because of the underlying assumption that children are innocent and must be shielded. Thus, stories for children must always bring hope even for a child in this story.

On the ideological plane, the image of a happy Filipino family who depends on overseas work for economic survival says so much about the position of the text vis a vis the reality that many families in this situation experience. In the story, the mother's coming home with electronic appliances (hair dryer, juicer, coffee maker) seems to exemplify the idea that overseas work brings progress and modernity especially in the more backward countryside. The very reason why Popoy's mother had to leave her very young child, too young to remember how she looks, in fact, is to be able to provide a better life for her family. This and the idea that the essence of motherhood is to be able to make supreme sacrifice for love of family, especially of children is clearly confirmed and reinforced by the story. In fact, the peritext in a message to parents, teachers, daycare workers and storytellers talks about using this story to " *ipaliwanag* ang *makabagong* kabayanihan *ng mga overseas Filipino worker. Ang mga OFW ay bayani dahil sa ipinakikita nilang tapat sa serbisyo at dakilang pagmamahal sa kanilang pamilya."* (*Uuwi na ang Nanay kong si Darna* 2002) [Explain the modern day heroism of overseas Filipino worker. OFWs are heroes because they exemplify dedication to work and love for their family.]

It is, however, silent on the dominant plot of real-life stories of children of migrant mothers wherein children experience various socio-psychological problems cited in previous section.   The explicit ideological position of this text resonates with the government's promotion of overseas work for economic support. Unable to provide gainful employment in the country for the majority of the labor force, it tries to ward off blame by popularizing the myth of heroism. This myth is further reinforced by messages from media that describe and ascribe OFWs as " major force in the economy," "central leg of the economy," and "modern heroes that must be honored."

It 's not always alright for mother to work abroad but…

Rivera's text presents a slice of truth and avoids wholesale idealization found in the previous story.   In this instance, the storybook becomes a venue for raising awareness on the problem of sexual abuse of children. The book's blurb in fact, encourages children to come out and in the words of Madrid, Executive Director of Child Protection Unit Network, Inc.: " There are just so many children out there who are afraid to seek help. This book can reach out to them." (back cover, *Ang Lihim ni Lea*) According to its publisher, Soroptomist International of Hope, part of proceeds from the sale will go into the construction of the Hub of Hope, the first day care center and breast bank for children with working mothers, in Baguio City found in Northern Philippines. It is necessary to mention that this book was published by a non-governmental organization, and is part of its advocacy and did not get printed in the usual way that mainstream children's stories get published.   On the front cover, one

reads the message " *Nangangailangan ng gabay ng magulang"* [needs parental guidance] which suggests that the subject and theme of the book is sensitive. The eight-year-old Lea's problem is revealed as her so-called " secret" unfolds.   She and her father just moved in a condominium unit, the 12th house actually. Her mother works as a nurse in London and supports her and her father who is implied as jobless since there is no mention that he has one. Her secret is two layered: first, she thinks she has magical power to pass through closed doors of the rooms of their neighbors and enjoys what she sees: snoring Mrs. Domingo, Paula playing the violin, Linda, the housekeeper watching Korean telenovela; second, she is being sexually abused by her own father. The real secret is revealed when she tries to do in school what she does in their condo. Teacher Cynthia is bothered by Lea's behavior change and seeks the help of a psychologist. At first, Lea is excited to tell that she could go through closed doors. But when asked what she likes best doing in their condo, Lea is able to say that she does not like staying there and her story in bits and pieces reveals that she is being abused by her own father and that her magical power works best whenever her father does those things to her. The explicit messages of the story, which is for children who are similarly situated, is that they should not be afraid or feel shame to come forward. They are "encouraged" to do so by depicting that there are people around who could give help; in this story, a teacher, a psychologist, a social worker, the police and the court and most importantly, the mother. Lea is taken temporarily by a social worker, her father was arrested and taken to prison through the UP-PGH Child Protection Unit, and her mother was contacted. Lea's mother comes home feeling guilty about what happened. She blames herself for leaving her daughter for work abroad but Teacher Cynthia comforts her by saying there are times when these happen even when mothers are not absent. When Lea is deemed healed, her mother takes her along with her to London, which suggests that children are best, secured and loved under the care of their mothers.

This story stands opposed to the idea of the other two texts, which reinforce the dominant thinking that mothers who work abroad are modern day heroes and it is all right to leave the care of children to the rest of the family. This idea of a heroic act and sacrifice is at the core of the government's conscious effort to extol the heroism and sacrifice of millions of   overseas Filipino workers whose remittances that run in billions of pesos help keep the economy from falling apart. In Samar's story and in Pacis' novel, mothers who work as domestic help will continue to work and leave the care of their children to relatives or to the father, because, unlike the mother who works as a nurse in London, these mothers' work conditions, pay and immigration policies of receiving countries do not give them other options to deal with prolonged separation. In the hierarchy of needs of an average overseas family, food, shelter, and education are highest of their priorities. Mothers choose separation from children and family in order to provide for these needs. Children's care that includes the presence of mothers for nurturance and intimacy may take a back seat.

Studies on the impact of overseas work and more recently, the phenomenon of transnational care giving discussed here point to a different   narrative of lived experiences of these families. Children of absent parents experience pervasive sadness and feelings of abandonment, and disruption. Others also manifest resilience especially in instances when absent mothers continue to perform

mothering despite physical distance.   Seen against this context, representations being done in contemporary Filipino children's literature remain limited in not reflecting the variegated lives that children in these families have.

Images   of childhood and motherhood in these texts, however, do   call attention to   deeply rooted problems that impact on children's needs and care which are   engendered by the state of the economic and political landscape of the Philippines for several decades now.   Chronic poverty, increasing population, unemployment and underemployment endemic corruption in government, dismal social and public health services, armed conflict; altogether reproduce a hostile environment that put children in harmful position. These very same conditions push millions of Filipinos to seek overseas work of which female migrant workers constitute the majority. Composed mainly of mothers and unmarried women with children, these women become absent mothers whose performance of nurture and care roles undergo major changes and challenges, as the studies cited reveal.   This phenomenon invariably impacts the lives of millions of children, the forms and extent of which remain to be fully examined. At the same time, these   conditions push millions of Filipino children from poor families in situations that breed street children, children in conflict with law, children who drop out of school at grade four, children laborer, child soldiers, and children in the flesh trade. Tonyo's journey in search of his migrant mother, in Pacis' novel reveals some of these realities. He experiences both street life and child labor. The novel is open- ended and therefore leaves a number of possibilities. Will his life change for the better when mother returns to Hongkong to work? Will his father who showed some remorse in the end be able to adjust and play the nurture role of his wife? Tonyo who dutifully does his domestic chores and later decides to look for his mother   to bring her back home I order to deal with problems spawned by the mother's absence shows a child capable of thinking and making decisions and in this sense shows some kind of agency.   This attribute of child characters present in a number of other stories is indicative of a different perception of the capability of a Filipino child that sees childhood as an active participant rather than passive and innocent. Perhaps the consciousness that organizes these portrayals is drawn from everyday reality that shows children of poor families in urban or country settings actively participating in day to day living and survival.

Children in non-migrant families, deprived but happy nevertheless

Other images of childhood and family in mainstream children's   literature reveal traditional assumptions and ideological ideas about the child's place in the family that raise many questions regarding social construction of Filipino children. Children in these stories receive love and nurturance from stay at home mothers as well as working mothers who exemplify the dominant domestic ideology. Working mothers in poor families are shown as super moms very much like the supermom of the migrant type. This is particularly strong in stories that extoll mothers of poor families in their heroic performance of care of children, household management and even income earning. [ii] Gender stereotyping remains strong in these texts. Since overseas work remains a stable feature of Philippine economy, I believe that it is necessary to provide a new constructs of childhood and family that not only reflect their reality. Even more important is that this kind of literature would enable them to come to terms with reality because I believe that Filipino children are capable of discernment and action.

Contemporary children's literature to be relevant to changing realities of children today need to become a venue for gender formation of children that will liberate them from existing domestic ideology and traditional gender role in the family   to better prepare them to deal with the reality of transnational households.

The child in non- migrant family

This section discusses representations of Filipino children in non-migrant family. In a random reading of these stories one sees that the dominant representation of the Filipino child who belongs to a middle class nuclear family, attends private school, has a nanny, worships as a Catholic, and resides in the city in Tagalog areas of the country is now being challenged by stories that deviate from this canon.[iii]   There are now stories on the child in different and sometimes difficult circumstances and stations. These are children   in working class families, in single-parent families because of separation (divorce is not legally accepted) or unmarried single parent family, in families whose members suffer from difficult problems (alcoholic father, father who is a chain-smoker, son who is addicted to drug), in the streets and living outside the family, in war affected areas of the south, in orphanages, and in poor indigenous families.

The working class family is the extended type, which include father, mother, three children and grandparents. Although deprived of material wealth (house, modern appliances), the family and children are always happy and much loved. Children share in doing some chores on weekends (helping mother baby sit younger sibling, wash dishes, tidy bed, sweep the grounds) and have one single most important aspiration, which is to finish school. The pervasive atmosphere in working class families is one of cooperation, love and happiness with attentive parents. In fact, a child narrator in one story describes his family as *masayang pamilya* (happy family) and repeats what his father says is important, which is a simple happy life because they live together. [iv] Clearly, the story projects an ideal family with each member as a role model. Atypical though is the eldest son's dream to become a poet, which is the reason why he studies well. In this way, this text challenges the typical aspiration among Filipinos to seek work overseas in a nation of transnational families.   In this instance, children see other options to explore.

The care of children

The Filipino child as represented in these stories must be nurtured and cared for in and out of family context. Living with the family and enjoying intimacy so important in child–rearing culture, caregivers are primarily the parents, especially the mother, helped by grandparents who normally live with the family. The normalized sexual division of labor (father earns a living and disciplines, mother manages household and nurtures) is amply represented, hence reproducing   the ideology of domesticity of women and mothers, as well as patriarchal values, [v] but does not remain unchallenged. Children are socialized into valuing the family wherein they receive care and attention, learn to be Christian and   good members of the family and community.   Other more explicit expression of purpose include raising a generation of young people with rich imagination, and who are critical and

creative, proud and confident in the future of the Filipino nation. [vi] Outside the family context, children who are orphans and who are found in the streets receive care in children's homes where they find a home and family just the same.

Social construction of Filipino Children: Resilience, Agency, and Challenging Gender Norms

What emerges from this reading of selected Filipino children's literature, which focused on the subject of care, is a concept of childhood that shows the Filipino child who is resilient, capable of understanding changes in her/his world and ready to act.

Stories on children in families with migrant mothers [transnational families] show the child-protagonist capable of action. Whether a much younger child (Lea) who imagines she has magical power or a much older child (Tonyo) who leaves home to search for his mother and succeeds in bringing her home, albeit temporarily, these children- characters model to child readers of these stories children capable of dealing with problems.   These stories exemplify their resilience, too. In other stories, [vii] agency is exemplified in different situations. A son and a younger daughter takes over selling 'taho' in the neighborhood when their father gets sick; a young girl from a poor family understands what her parents always say about being content with what they have while resources are limited and shares her blanket with them in the end; a boy born without legs is able to explore his world around him as he imagines a magical chair takes him around; a boy who rarely see his father as he grows up, and suffers doubts and peer judgment believes in the power of a charm that comes from a banana blossom to make him invisible so that he can become one whenever he needs to, and later learns that he was born out of wedlock, appreciates his mother's and grandmother's love for him and resolves to become a good father someday; children in middle class family growing up in separate household because their parents live separate lives are able to comprehend the reasonableness of living apart and are aware of different ways   their parents care and nurture them; and a girl who lives in war-torn Mindanao (southern part of the country with a long history of armed conflicts) shares her experiences in fleeing armed confrontations and staying in evacuation centers, expresses her feelings of insecurity, anxiety and fear and not being able to understand why there is war, prays to God to end it.

These attributes of characterization is further helped by the use of the first person child narrator which projects the child's voice and wisdom in no unclear terms. I believe these narrative strategies   are effective to children because in the act of reading, an atmosphere of children speaking to each other is easily established thereby avoiding   didacticism, which is characteristic of traditional practice in storytelling. Authorial power is diminished and rapport is created between text and reader. Uncanny links to harsh realities of present childhood in the Philippines serve to inform children of the real world they are in, but at the same time empowers them through the use of magic and fantasy.

It is interesting to note that in contemporary representation of Filipino childhood, none of the stories show child characters aspire to seek work overseas.   This is in great contrast to the fact that transnational families have become dominant in the Philippines.[viii] Other aspirations include becoming a doctor to serve the poor, a poet, a pilot or traveler, a good father. Other stories show children dream and pray to God for war to end and for a peaceful world to commence.

Filipino children's literature socializes children to conform to dominant gender roles, but at the same time show some evidence of counter-cultural voice in this regard.   Many stories on motherhood   teach children the codes of domesticity by glorifying the work of mothers at home, domestic work of migrant mothers included. Mothers are almost always vested with traits such as compassionate, self-sacrificing, and sensitive to children's needs.

 Surprisingly interesting is a different portrayal of a mother taking on the role of breadwinner when   her husband passed away. In the context of a poor family struggling to survive to be able to send the child to school, the stay at home mother in a reversal of role, decides to drive the pedicab her husband used to earn income in order not pay for its amortization and earn for her child's schooling. This brought about some changes in the way she used to raise her young daughter where before she does everything at home. This time, daughter has to help in some chores because she leaves early as most Pedi cabdrivers do, and she has to wear clothes like that of a male driver. All of these changes are initially resented by the child who is not proud of what has become her mother's "ugly" look, but later on realizes that other mothers in the neighborhood and even her teacher admire her mother, liken her to a heroine and describe her as "may trabahong lalaki at may pusong babae"[with a man's job and a heart of a woman]. (Chong, 22) As the peritext says, the story will make children love their mothers more. From a feminist perspective, the story socializes children to the idea that women are strong, capable and responsible.   It also puts in question the common concept of beauty which is physical when the story shows that the child finally understood that her mother who does not wear make-up and whose hands are not soft, possess inner beauty, a concept her teacher taught her. In another sense, this text challenges the prevalent attitude that does not conform to "crossing gender boundaries," that scholars of transnational families reveal. (Parrenas 2005)

Other new images of women, which are presented to children, include single professional mothers, mothers in separated households, and women bonding with women, which reflect changing conditions of women.   Unconventional images of fathers who are equally nurturing as mothers are being presented, too on the other end of the spectrum fathers who works as shoemaker makes her daughter who was born without legs one dozen shoes as an expression of his love;(Gatmaitan 2002) a grandfather and a grandson's special bonding made strong with grandpa's stories and the child's genuine love (Gatmaitan 2000); a man who finds inner peace when he discovers that his life can be made more meaningful when shared with others particularly children living in the streets who need his love and attention. (Villanueva 2005)

These images provide children with new windows with which to understand changing gender roles, which is clearly evident in their lived experience.

Conclusion

This discussion hopes to contribute to ongoing production of discourse on Asian childhood. In exploring images of childhood and family, representations in children's literature seem to suggest that a notion of Filipino childhood as an active social agent is present. The child in migrant and non-migrant families is vested with qualities of resiliency, intelligence, courage, and will to act on personal and family problems. Canonical representation is now being challenged by multiple images of family structures that reflect changing times. Children are now seen in different family structures such as transnational families with migrant mothers, single-mother families, and separated families. In this literature, uncanny links to social realities call attention to deeply- rooted problems in the socio-economic and cultural world that impact on children's care and social construction, the full extent of which needs to be continually studied.

Interestingly, children in these stories do not aspire to seek overseas work. This seems to suggest that a disapproving view on separation of children and parents, which is a feature of migrant families, may be discerned especially because intimacy between child and mother in child rearing is still dominant according to scholars. This is probably the reason too, why migrant mothers exert extra effort to continue their " mothering" during long years of separation   through the use of modern communication technology as studies on social cost of migration reveal.

Some revisions of traditional gender roles and boundaries are present, too. These are done through the use of images of women as single mothers who work either as professionals or ordinary workers, mothers in separated households, women bonding with women. On the other hand, some images of fathers are shown to be nurturing, and   able to smoothly cross gender boundary in the traditional sexual division of labor with implicit acceptance on the part of other family members.

Filipino children are living in an increasingly complex world brought about by changes in the socio-cultural and economic conditions at the national and global levels. Their social construction through literature is equally undergoing changes that reflect the complexity of this world. It puts into question assumptions of childhood   underlying traditional notion of care and child-rearing practice and gender construction.   In this way, contemporary children's literature   serves as a venue for re-educating Filipino children to better prepare them to discern and deal with future challenges, a function, however, that has yet to be fully realized.

Endnotes:

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[i] In the public school system that the Americans instituted, this is explicitly stated in children's textbook on literature in the *Philippine Readers*, a six volume series prescribed for elementary school.
[ii] Two story books which are both award winners illustrate this: *Papel de Liha* [Sandpaper], written by Remigio and illustrated by Doctolero and *Ang Kyutiks ni Mama* [Mom's Nail polish] by Rene Villanueva.
[iii] Evasco, in his unpublished dissertation, " Mga Saranggola sa Tag-ulan, Ang Poetika at Estetika ng Pag-akda para sa Bata [Kites in Rainy Season, Poetics and Aesthetics of Writing for Children], University of the Philippines Diliman, 2007, reviewed children's literature in textbooks for children and identified this kind of stereotyping of Filipino child and family.
[iv] The story *Ang Aking Pamilya* [My family], written by Genaro Cruz and illustrated by Lyra Garcellano (Quezon City: LG&M Corporation, 2006), is a story of a boy in a working class family whose homework in school is to introduce his family in class. He does this by writing poems about each of the members of the family including his deceased grandparents. When he was done, his father reads his poems aloud over dinner which turned out as a happy occasion for all of them.
[v] There are, however, some departure from this kind of representation where working mothers in non-migrant families are portrayed. These are mothers who are office workers, pedicab driver, or who work in beauty parlors.
[vi] One major publisher of children's literature states this purpose in its new series dubbed " Chikiting Books."
[vii] I base these observations from my reading of the following stories: *Ang Madjik Silya ni Titoy,*[Titoy's Magic Chair], *War Makes Me Sad, Imbisibol Man ang Tatay,* [Father is Invisible Man] *Mama's House, Papa's House, Tahoooiey,* [Sound of Taho or soft bean curd, that taho vendor shouts as he goes around the neighborhood] *Ang Kumot ni Dora*. [Dora's Blanket] Please see bibliographical entries in the list of works cited.
[viii] It is relatively easy to understand that in a country where transnational families have become dominant, children of these families would "naturally" aspire to seek jobs overseas just like their parents. This is evident in, for example, " Coping with Life with OFW Parents," by Melanie Malano, published online by abs-cbn News.com, 7-27-09, from the book *Migrant Stories, Migrant Voices,* published by Philippine Migrant Rights Watch with support from Cortaid, an international development organization based in Netherlands.

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Featured Speaker: General Education Plenary

The Professional Status of Taiwanese Primary School Teachers: A Historical Analysis

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Abstract

Considering socio-cultural influences, this essay focuses on the historical development of education in Taiwan as it relates to the professional status of primary teachers. The historical movement of Taiwanese education shows that unlike western societies, the influence of Confucianism in Taiwanese education has ensured that teachers are seen as a key element in protecting social morality and social solidarity. This has influenced their rewards in Taiwanese society, resulting in them being viewed as professionals and given high levels of social status, prestige and salary. The interplay of these factors has led to the construction of a very protected context for teachers, and deeply formed their professional ideology.

1. Introduction

Following the notion of the division of labour argued by Durkheim (1933), Structural-Functionalists contend that professionals fulfill irreplaceable and crucial functions for maintaining social equilibrium and civilization. As a result, they have devoted a great deal of effort to searching for one set of traits that will serve as criteria for judging whether a specific occupation is qualified to claim the status of professional or not (e.g. Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Davis and Moore, 1966; Lieberman, 1964). In contrast, Marxists argue that the development of capitalism significantly enlarges the size of the bureaucratic system, significantly merging most individual practitioners. Alongside this trend, most employees suffer from the impact of proletarianization (Apple, 1990; Braverman, 1974; Connell, 1985; Johnson, 1972; Ozga and Lawn, 1981).

Although these two sociological schools have uncovered different influences of industrial society on practitioners, their predetermined positions may underestimate the influence of social cultures on shaping the professional status of primary school teachers in a given society (Chiang, 1996, 2008a). Some scholars, for example, argue that it is important for comparative researchers to recognize the important position of cultural differentiation among individual societies, which generate a profound influence on shaping their own social contexts, and, then, educational systems and contents (Schriewer, 2003). Furthermore, individual cultures are developed within a specific social context so that unique meanings are always embodied within those cultures. Therefore, without awareness of such contexts, it is hard to discover such unique meanings and their interactive relations with the development of educational systems (Hall, 1973; Holmes, 1981).

The history of the industrial movement of Western teachers' associations shows that 'bread and butter' has traditionally been the central concern of teachers. Such a linkage further indicates that when a society bestows high rewards upon teachers, they will develop a strong professional image. If it does not, they will tend to reject the notion of professionalism and employ industrial action to fight for

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their own interests, as witnessed by the cases of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (Myers and Myers 1995; Sadker and Sadker 1997; Spring 1994) and the National Union of Teachers (NUT) (Barber 1992; Gosden 1972; Tropp 1957). Those associations have conducted long-term direct actions, including strikes and protests against employers, in order to improve the material rewards of their members. Both cases suggest that the degree of broadly defined 'reward' affects the degree of professionalism attached to teachers' status and their reactions towards their collective actions.

In contrast, the influence of Confucianism in Taiwanese education has ensured that teachers are seen as a key element in protecting social morality and social solidarity (Tsurumi, 1977). This has influenced their rewards in Taiwanese society, resulting in them being viewed as professionals and given high levels of social status, prestige and salary (Chiang, 1996; Kuo, 1988). The interplay of these factors has led to the construction of a very protected context for teachers, and deeply formed their professional ideology. Considering socio-cultural influences, this essay focuses on the historical development of education in Taiwan as it relates to the professional status of primary teachers. Four key phases can be identified. The period from 1624 to 1894 can be seen as the first phase, when the Taiwan educational system assumed its early form. The second phase (1895-1945) occurred when Taiwan was a colony of Japan. The third phase ran from 1945 to 1987, which was broadly the period when the KMT (Kuo Ming Tang Party) government exerted strong centralized control over education. The final phase commenced in 1987 when Martial Law was abolished, and has been marked by a series of education reforms that have devolved some powers to educational institutions.

2. The First Phase: 1624 to 1895

Before 1661, no national system of education existed. Successive European colonial governments were only concerned with their political and economic interests and not with establishing an education system. Education as it then existed assumed its form and control from colonial religious teaching in all-age schools, particularly for adults, though many children attended. Teaching focused on introducing the Bible. When there were insufficient priests, soldiers were engaged to teach (Chiang, 2000).

After 1661, when Taiwan was dominated by Cheng-Gong Jeng who, having failed to defend against Manchuria's invasion which eventually established the Ching Dynasty, moved his troops to Taiwan, education as it then existed had as its primary purpose the creation of a national identity in opposition to the Ching Dynasty (Chiang, 2001a). Various types of primary school were set up, such as state primary schools (Confucianist schools), private primary schools (Shu-Farng institutes) and state Taiwanese aboriginal primary schools (Tunn-Fan schools). Except for Taiwanese aboriginal primary schools, schools were mainly concerned with the preparation of students for national examinations in order to enable them to become officers or qualify for the rank of literati (Lei, 1980; Wu, 1983). The school curriculum was thus designed to enable students to meet the requirements for selection. Teaching content focused on classic books based on Confucianism which functioned indirectly to reinforce the emperor's power. School textbooks included the Four Books (the Great Learning, the Doctrine of the Mean, the Analects and the Books of Mencius) and the Five Classics (the Confucian canon comprising the Books of Changes, the Books of Odes, the Books of History, the Book of Rites

and the Spring and Autumn Annals). Because no institutions devoted to teacher education existed before the second phase, the period of Japanese colonisation, well known scholars from Mainland China were recruited as primary school teachers (Chiang, 2000).

In order to meet the demands of these examinations, school lessons were divided into reading, repetition, calligraphy and composition, and their contents focused on the Four Books and the Five Classics. Teachers thus exercised very little control over what was taught. They were like skilled technicians, implementing someone else's policy. Teaching was little more than exercises in drill (Tsurumi, 1977). While primary schools existed throughout this period, very few children had the chance to attend them, particularly, after the war of 1683 when Taiwan returned to the control of the Ching Dynasty, who treated the island as a source of criminals (Wang, 1978). Schooling was confined to those who had wealth and power (Tsurumi, 1977). Although this situation was slightly improved later, the connection between schooling and elite status was not changed until the period of Japanese colonisation.

3. The Second Phase: 1895 to 1945

After the Sino-Japan Jia-Wu War in 1894, Taiwan became a Japanese Colony in 1895. In general, its early educational policy followed the 1890 Education Order issued by the Emperor of Japan, Mutsuhito (1867-1912), the purposes of which were to enlighten, discipline and indoctrinate Taiwanese people. Alongside the creation of subjects loyal to the Emperor, Japan intended to inculcate Japanese ways of life and thought into Taiwanese society (Jang, 1979). In other words, education was intended to serve the government's political interests. All state primary school teachers had to be appointed by the Taiwan Viceroy government in order to achieve this intention (Tsurumi, 1977).

However, a formal primary school policy was not introduced until 1898, because the Japanese Colonial Government had first concentrated on gaining an understanding of Taiwanese culture and language (Wu, 1983). During that period, the first Taiwan Viceroy, Akashi Motojiro, was primarily engaged in suppressing the Taiwanese people's opposition to Japanese authority. In response to this situation, the head of education bureau, Izawa, introduced an assimilation policy in which education came to be seen as a weapon in this struggle. In July 1898, the Taiwan Viceroy issued the State Primary School (Gong Shyue schools) Order which established a system of state primary schools. The new system was funded by the local government. However, the order required that all primary school heads be Japanese (Wu, 1983).

Izawa saw the teaching of Japanese language and ethics as a key means to transform Taiwanese people into Japanese subjects. Thus, the 1898 State Primary School Order introduced ethics, Japanese language, classical Chinese (composition, reading and calligraphy), arithmetic, music and gymnastics as the elements in a six-year state primary school curriculum (Tsurumi, 1977; Wu, 1983). In response to the assimilation policy, spoken and written Japanese were seen as a top priority in the school curriculum. The Taiwan Viceroy's textbooks, teachers' manuals and instruction manuals and other classroom materials were published and supplied to Taiwanese state primary schools, paralleling the use of school textbooks published in Japan in Japanese state primary schools (Chiang, 2001b; Wu, 1983). The introduction of such a national textbook policy can be seen as a hallmark of centralized

control over education in terms of determining what was taught in classrooms and how. Education became part of the state's mechanism to achieve its political interests. Teachers were required to carry out the assimilation and other policies stipulated by the Taiwanese Viceroy.

The 1898 State Primary School Order, however, increased the demand for Taiwanese teachers, with the result that the establishment of Teachers' Schools was announced in July 1898. Besides meeting the objectives of the 1898 Order, it was also argued that the introduction of teacher education was needed because it was difficult to recruit Japanese teachers to Taiwan, given the severe shortage of primary school teachers in Japan, and the fact that their salaries were too high (Wu, 1983). These schools offered three-year teacher training courses to primary school graduates. Subjects included ethics, Japanese language, composition, reading, arithmetic, bookkeeping, geography, history, science, calligraphy, music, gymnastics and pedagogy. With this introduction of teacher education, the Taiwan Viceroy explicitly exerted its centralized control over teacher supply by requiring that it appointed all state primary school teachers, so as to ensure implementation of the assimilation policy for transforming Taiwanese to Japanese.

To consolidate further the Taiwan Viceroy's centralized policy, private primary schools were to be terminated as soon as possible. Accompanying the 1898 State Primary School Order, the Taiwan Viceroy regularly sent detailed guidelines to local authorities against which to check private primary schools. Private primary school textbooks also had to be approved. In this repressive political climate, private primary schools constantly faced a threat of closure if they did not obey the local authority's instructions, so it was also hard for private primary teachers to exercise real control over the selection of teaching materials. Similarly, their control over classroom teaching was also vulnerable to close supervision from the local authority (Tsurumi, 1977).

In July 1902, Teachers' Schools were divided into two sections: Section A for Japanese students and Section B for Taiwanese students (Chiang, 1996, 2001b). The duration of courses in Section A was shortened to one year and three months, and one year in February 1905 and December 1907 respectively in order to reduce expenditure and to cultivate more Japanese teachers. On the other hand, the duration of Section B courses was extended to four years because Taiwanese students needed more time to master the Japanese language.

In March 1910, sections A and B in Teachers' Schools were reformed as Taiwanese Primary School Teachers' Sections A and B in response to the rapid growth in the numbers of Taiwanese primary school students, from 157 in 1897 to 5,412 in 1907 (Wu, 1983). Subjects included ethics, Japanese language, composition, reading, arithmetic, bookkeeping, geography, history, science, calligraphy, music, gymnastics and pedagogy. Later, a new Japanese Primary School Teachers' Section was created expressly for Japanese student teachers. The course was extended from four years to six years.

In 1914, the Taiwan Viceroy issued the Taiwanese Aboriginal Primary School Order, which decreed the establishment of State Aboriginal Primary Schools (Tuu-Fan schools) to extend the influence of the assimilation policy to Taiwanese aborigines. Thus, a three-tier-primary-school system was created, each catering to a different kind of student: Japanese students, Taiwanese students and Taiwanese aboriginal students. In 1919, the 7th Taiwan Viceroy, Den Kenjiro, insisted that education

was a vital way to transform Taiwanese people into pure Japanese people (Tsurumi, 1977). He demanded the opening of more primary schools for Taiwanese students, issuing a Taiwanese Education Order that led to the creation of a more comprehensive system of primary education. In response to this more comprehensive system of primary schooling and Taiwanese people's increasing concern with improving teacher quality, teachers' schools were divided into two sections, preparatory and main. The one-year preparatory section took Taiwanese state primary school graduates. The subjects that they took were moral culture, Japanese language, Chinese, Mathematics, fine art, music, vocation and gymnastics. The main four-year course took Taiwanese students who possessed the preparatory section qualification. Additionally, subjects taught were education, history, geography, science and business. In order to meet the immediate need for more primary school teachers through this more extensive system of primary schooling, Taiwanese State Primary School Teacher Training Sections were established both in Taipei and Tainan, in Teachers' Schools which offered one year courses (Wu, 1983). These were later extended to two years in 1933, the same duration as Teachers' Schools in Japan (Tsurumi, 1977). Subjects were moral culture, education, Japanese language, Chinese, geography, mathematics, science, housekeeping, handicraft, fine art, music and athletics.

In 1937, classical Chinese was banished from the state primary school curriculum (Tsurumi, 1977; Wu, 1983), and students were prohibited from speaking the Taiwanese language (Wang, 1978). Den Kenjiro also believed that compulsory education had to be brought in as soon as possible. However, it was not introduced until 1941 because of financial considerations (Wang, 1978). The introduction of compulsory education through the 1941 Primary School Order made all private primary schools (e.g. Shu-Farng institutes) illegal. It also unified Japanese state primary schools and Taiwanese state primary schools into state primary schools. Following unification, differences between Taiwanese Teacher Education and Japanese Teacher Education were extinguished.

In 1943 when Teachers' Schools in Japan became the equivalent of a three-year specialized college, the Taiwan Viceroy upgraded them all to the level of junior college, from which students normally graduated at the age of twenty (Tsurumi, 1977). The two-year preparatory section took advanced primary school graduates normally at the age of fifteen, making it equivalent to junior high school. The three-year main section took preparatory section graduates or high school graduates, normally at the age of eighteen. The Taiwan Viceroy also issued the Woman Teacher Education Order to allow Teachers' Schools to educate female teachers. This change arose because of the shortage of male teachers in the period of the Pacific War (Tsurumi, 1977).

Subjects for male students in the preparatory section were civics, science, mathematics, physical exercise, skills and foreign language. Beside these subjects, female students also took housekeeping. In the main section, education and vocational studies were added for male students and education for female students. By 1945, there were six Teachers' Junior Colleges (Central Daily News, 1995).

4. The Third Phase: 1945 to 1987

After the Pacific War in 1945, Taiwan was governed by the KMT (Chinese) government. The KMT government continued the centralized control over education experienced during the period of

Japanese colonization. In 1949, when the Chinese civil war ended, the KMT government moved to Taiwan and this control became even tighter. Education was now viewed as a key means to construct Taiwanese people's national identity in opposition to the Chinese communist party. Primary schooling, the primary school curriculum, teacher education and teacher supply were all dominated by the KMT government.

The development of primary education after 1945 led to fundamental changes. A unification of the primary school system meant that there was only one kind of state primary school. State Taiwanese aboriginal primary schools were integrated into state primary schools. Compulsory primary schooling was abandoned by the KMT government as it was not yet established in Mainland China. The National Curriculum Policy was introduced in 1945 to replace the different kinds of primary school curriculum developed in the colonial period. The 1945 National Curriculum Policy also contained the National Curriculum Standard Regulations that embodied the details of the National Curriculum Policy. Primary school subjects were group training, music, athletics, civics, history, geography, arithmetic, Chinese, social studies, general knowledge, natural science, organized group play, and painting and crafts. This curriculum was designed to end the influence of Japanese culture and to develop national identity in Taiwan. The KMT government also extended legislation dating from 1932, by which all state primary school teachers had to be appointed by the government. The 1932 legislation also allowed the KMT government to control the development of teacher education and teacher supply and introduced free (no-fee) teacher education to Taiwan. Because the 1932 Act defined Teachers' Schools as being at the level of high schools, all existing Teachers' Junior Colleges were down-graded from the level of junior college to the level of high school (Her, 1980; Yang, 1981) and now took junior high school graduates. The curriculum for teachers in training included Chinese, Mandarin, mathematics, geography, history, natural history, chemistry, physics, athletics, hygienic, civics, fine art, music, introduction to education, the management of education, teaching methods, teaching materials, and general psychological testing and statistics. In order to overcome the extreme shortage of teachers caused by the expulsion of Japanese teachers, two more Teachers' Schools were set up in Shing Jwu City and Ping Tong City, located in the north and south of Taiwan respectively. The Taiwan Provincial Taipei Female Teachers' School was also established in order to improve and extend female teacher education.

In 1946, the Taiwan Provincial Council re-introduced the National Textbook Policy because in the minds of Councilors no difference existed between Mainland China and Taiwan (Department of Taiwan Provincial Education, 1984; Her, 1980). The Taiwan Textbook Shop was also established to supply primary school textbooks, a list of which was issued for supply only by central government or KMT owned book stores, such as Jeng Jang and Kai Ming (Her, 1980). In 1947, the Chinese Constitution was passed by the main legislature, the People's Representative Congress. The Taiwan provincial government, then, issued the Compulsory Primary Education Act (Ministry of Education, 1985). In response to the introduction of compulsory primary education, the Textbook Supply Committee of Primary Schools was then established to supply national textbooks (Lii, 1984). This Committee was later reformed as the Edition and Translation Committee in July 1947, and was charged with the revision of the primary school curriculum. A new primary school curriculum was then

introduced in 1948, which defined nine school subjects: civics, music, athletics, Mandarin, arithmetic, social studies, natural science, fine art and handicraft.

In 1949, the KMT government moved to Taiwan following its defeat in the civil war against the Chinese communist party. This led to tighter control over the primary school curriculum. In 1953, primary school textbooks began to be supplied by the National Edition and Translation Institution controlled by the Ministry of Education (Yu, 1987). In 1960, Teachers' Schools were elevated to three-year Junior Teachers' Colleges (equal to the age group of twenty one) in response to rapid economic growth in Taiwan, and to improve teacher quality (Chiang, 1996, 2001b). Later in 1963, they were reformed as five-year Junior Teachers' Colleges, taking junior high school graduates (Lii, 1984). Three years had come to be thought too short to offer proper training, and three-year junior colleges were unable to recruit academically excellent high school students, whose first choice was university. Moreover, they produced about 3,000 graduates more than the estimated need of about 1,000 teachers per year (Lii, 1984). The five-year teacher college curriculum was composed of General, Professional and Optional subjects. General subjects were the Three Principles, Chinese, Mandarin, mathematics, civics, history, geography, natural science, chemistry, physics, English, music, fine art, handicraft, athletics and military training. Professional subjects were logic, introduction to education, child development and guidance, educational psychology, educational sociology, the introduction of curriculum, teaching materials and methods, psychological and educational measurement and testing, primary school administration, the history of education, comparative elementary education, educational philosophy, audio-visual education, health education, research of language and literature teaching, research of arts and crafts teaching, research of music teaching, research of natural science teaching and practice in teaching. All students had to finish a total of between 260 and 280 credits in five years.

Nine years of compulsory education was instituted as a minimum requirement for all students, commencing in September 1968. In response to this, the National Curriculum Standard Regulation was revised and re-addressed the importance of national identity in opposition to the Chinese communist party. The overt political purpose of education was later intensified, for example, when in the following year primary school textbooks were published and supplied only by the National Edition and Translation Institution in order to unify them (You, 1993).

The Teacher Education Act introduced in 1987 raised all Teachers' Junior Colleges to the level of college or university in response to increasing pressure to improve teacher quality and global trends in teacher education (Chen, 1995; Lin, 1981; Yu, 1979). The curriculum was divided into three sections: general, profession, and special subjects. Every student was required to complete 148 credits in four years, 74 (50%) for general subjects, 44 (29.7%) for professional subjects and 30 (20.3%) for special subjects.

5. The Fourth Phase: from 1987

It was a milestone for Taiwan in history when Martial Law was abolished in 1987. This new situation forced Taiwan to move into a new era, a democratic society in which people demanded more voice and called on the central government to conduct a series of educational reforms. In September 1988, because of increasing pressure from legislators, the Ministry of Education announced a reduction in the school textbook monopoly by the National Edition and Translation Institution (Bulletin of the

Ministry of Education, 1982/165). In February 1989, the Ministry of Education further permitted primary school teachers to use different editions of school textbooks (Bulletin of the Minister of Education, 1989/170).

On 2 May 1989, the Minister of Education set up the Primary School Curriculum Reform Committee (Kuo, 1994). In September 1993, based on its suggestions, the Ministry of Education introduced a New National Curriculum Policy, which went into operation in 1996. This policy modified the existing primary school curriculum and reduced the range of materials covered by primary school textbooks. It also introduced some teaching periods over which primary teachers were able to have full control and for which they were permitted to devise their own teaching materials and their own assessments.

Although the New Right started to become a dominant influence in western countries such as the USA and the UK in the 1980s (Chiang, 1997, 2008b), its influence in Taiwan didn't emerge until the 1990s, because of the constraints imposed by Martial Law, which was abolished in 1987, as noted previously. However, the extension of the New Right's influence to Taiwanese teacher education in the 1990s is manifest in the 1994 Teachers' Education Act.

In February 1994, because of dissatisfaction with the monopoly of primary school teacher supply by teacher colleges, the Teachers' Education Act was passed in the Legislative Yuan, destroying this monopoly. Although, the Act maintains the Government's right to appoint state primary school teachers, other higher education institutions are now allowed to provide teacher education. The policy of non-fee paying teacher education was also abolished. In December 1999, the Ministry of Education introduced the Post Graduate Certificate Program for higher educational institutes to provide teacher education for university graduates who would like to gain a teacher certificate. Those changes have produced a profound impact on teacher supply, shifting from a slight shortage to oversupply. This oversupply has intensified since the early 2000s as witnessed by the fact that very few graduates with teacher certificates are currently able to become primary school teachers. This phenomenon has brought in a new form of political pressure that has left the central government with no choice but to introduce new policies from the middle of 2000s directed at lessening the size of the teacher education market. As noted previously, the acceptance by the central government of the ideology of the New Right in the 1990s, has resulted in considerable political pressure, driving the state to implement a new ideology that is not free-market but planned under its direction. This new ideology has generated a series of new policies. The Ministry of Education, for example, initiated a new policy in 2004, cutting the capacity of Centers for Teacher Education in all higher educational institutes by 50%. In 2005, the Ministry of Education announced a counter-market policy – that if teachers' colleges agreed to cut their intake of student teachers by 50%, they could upgrade to the level of teachers' university. Without substantial resistance, the existing teachers' colleges accepted this political arrangement and renewed their titles as teachers' universities in August 2005. Although these actions have greatly reduced the scale of teacher education, the problem of teacher oversupply hasn't been alleviated significantly. In other words, it has now become extremely difficulty to become a primary school teacher. Although this competitive selection mechanism has ensured the professional quality of primary school teachers, the employment rate of graduates as primary school teachers is very low – less than 3% from 2005 to

2008. This phenomenon indicates that primary schools have become professional, in the public's eyes. Generally speaking, Taiwanese primary school teachers have traditionally enjoyed a much higher degree of social status than their Western counterparts. This phenomenon is due to the influence of Confucianism, which bestows higher levels of psychical and material rewards upon them.

The influence of Chinese traditional culture has ensured that teachers have enjoyed a high level of social status in Chinese society (Lee, 1972; Liou, 1973, Lin 1992). In ancient Chinese society, there was a close relationship between the Emperor and the teacher. As a national leader, the Emperor had to behave as a model for his people, to whom he was also a teacher. This symbolic meaning gradually extended to both senior officials and teachers and their relationships. A very high level of social status thus adhered to teachers who were defined as one of the five superior-social-status groups (God, the Earth, the Emperor, the Family and the Teacher). They had an important symbolic position to sustain as guardians of social morality. They had to possess a high level of academic knowledge, as well as sound social attributes, in order to influence other people.

This high social status was reinforced by Confucius's life and example. In the Chinese tradition, it has been generally agreed that he was the most remarkable scholar of the past two thousand years or more, as exemplified by the Four Books (Lee, 1977; Liou, 1973). Confucianism achieved an intense and extensive influence on Chinese culture. Furthermore, because of his long-term contribution to schooling, particularly as an inspiration for the movement for public education, he has been regarded as an icon of social equality and social morality. People tend to extend this symbolic meaning to school teachers. Teachers are thus expected, like Confucius, to have an important influence on maintaining or improving social morality. The declaration of the 28th of September, his birthday, as Teachers' Day in Taiwan indicates the length of his symbolic shadow on our school teachers.

During the colonial period, from 1894 to 1945, Taiwanese teachers continued to have a very high level of social status. This was mainly because the Taiwan Viceroy provided only two routes for academically excellent students: medicine or primary school teaching (Tsurumi, 1977; Wu, 1983). To become a teacher was extremely difficult (Her, 1980). J.T. Wu also argued that Teachers' Schools not only developed professionals but also leaders for Taiwanese society (see Wu, 1983). They thus constituted a social elite. Although the selection has been not quite so restrictive since 1945, passing the entrance examination was still very difficult. For example, only 6.3% of male and 3% of female examination candidates passed in 1966 (Lin, 1980). This academic selection further contributed to the high social standing of primary school teachers (Chen, 1992; Her and Liou, 1969; Lin, 1971; Lin, 1992; Win and Chan, 1979; Taiwan Normal University, 1980).

The Taiwanese economy grew more rapidly from the 1960s, while still embodying much traditional Chinese and Japanese culture. Teachers no longer serve as the only knowledge suppliers. People are able to acquire knowledge in other ways, and an open society encourages people to develop multiple and pluralistic values, concepts and thoughts. In such a society, teachers' social status is likely to decline, and Taiwan has not been an exception to this trend. Nevertheless, Taiwanese teachers still have a higher social standing than their Western counterparts (Lin, 1980) and are perceived to exert a significant influence upon social morality. This is recognized, for example, by the annual presidential speech in appreciation of teachers' contribution to national development on Teachers' Day (Bulletin of

the Ministry of Education, 1979/57; Bulletin of the Ministry of Education, 1980/70; Bulletin of the Ministry of Education, 1981/81).

Another piece of solid evidence to document the professional status of Taiwanese primary school teachers is their salary, which is much higher than that of civil servants. Teachers' salaries are determined by central government policy. Each year a central government budget plan specifies levels of the teachers' salaries. It is worth recording that primary school teachers' salaries are tax free. As well as receiving a twelve-month salary, at the end of the lunar year they have bonus of one and half months salary, which is standard within Taiwanese society. Promotion is partly determined on an appraisal process conducted each academic year. Most teachers are rated as 'excellent'. Once they have achieved this 'excellent' rating, their salaries jump to a higher level of the scale and the holders are given an extra bonus equivalent to one or two month's salary. Two months of extra salary are given only to senior teachers, on top of their ordinary teachers' salary scale

Salaries are based on a scale which takes into account post, school location, qualification and the length of teaching experience. This gives rise to a wide range of salaries. At present, the top levels of these scales offer some senior teachers other than school administrative staff, including the head teacher, department heads and assistants, about two thousand pounds per month, which is more than double a new teacher's salary of about nine hundred pounds per month.

In order to encourage teachers' professional development, teachers' salaries jump to higher scale levels when they achieve further qualifications, based on years of course duration. In relation to the bottom level, junior college graduates, Ph.D., masters' and first degree holders advance two, four or two extra levels on these scales, respectively.

6. Conclusion

The historical development of education in Taiwan suggests that education has been seen as an essential part of the ideological weaponry of central government. By and large, central government has determined who and what is taught, as well as how, as witnessed by the introduction of the National Curriculum Policy and the National Textbook Policy. Within this general framework, then, Taiwanese primary school teachers have been positioned traditionally as implementers of policy, and deliverers of curriculum content through classroom practices largely determined at the centre. The state also extended its control over teacher education and teacher supply. Nevertheless, when social changes occur, such as in 1987 when Martial Law was abolished, new beliefs may develop and drive the state to change its means of domination, as witnessed by the adoption of the ideology of the New Right to initiate a free market for teacher education. Although this free market policy pushed teacher education institutes into a competitive arena, the problem of teacher oversupply became critical after 2000. This led to a considerable degree of political pressure on the state to reverse its direction back to a planned mode, the results of which are seen in the introduction of a series of policies to shrink the size of the teacher education market. These changes indicate that there is an interactive relation between the state and the social situation. Perhaps, the state has legitimate authority to initiate educational reforms, the effects of which are able to create new social/political situations which leave the state with no choice but to amend its way of domination. Such an interactive relation also suggests that the state cannot be

viewed as an independent dominator with full power, but rather as a flexible initiator to meet social needs.

Overall, although, unlike like traditional professionals – medical practitioners, lawyers or engineers – Taiwanese primary school teachers do not possess a great degree of latitude in the conduct of their profession, they have long enjoyed a much higher level of professional status than their Western counterparts. Such a phenomenon is deeply connected with the influence of Chinese culture, which positions teachers as social guardians, protecting social morality and solidarity. Such a powerful social value, then, bestows on Taiwanese primary school teachers a high level of social status, prestige and salary. Despite a series of changes in teacher education and the impact of industrialization, their professional status hasn't significantly declined. The above analysis proves that socio-cultural influences need to be taken into account if researchers wish to gain a complete picture of teaching professionalism.

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The Psychological Effects of Digressional Speeches

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Abstract---This study provides the results of the fact-finding survey on the psychological effects of digressional speeches which university lecturers give to students. By analyzing them, the study propose that the digressional speeches lead to the positive psychological effects especially when including frequent reference to senses of values, such as ways of living.

Keywords: Higher education; Digressional speeches; Class of Soetanto; Psychological effects; Mental Education

1. Introduction

The purpose of the study is to elucidate the factors of digressional speeches of lecturers which have an impact on mental growth of university students. The study compares the contents and psychological effects of digressional speeches in the classes of Soetanto with those in the other classes in the same university, Waseda University.

Plurality of thoughts, the freedom of different people having different opinions, has become one of the most notable values in societies with the worldwide democratization. With respect to education in such societies, Radford (2007) points out "The problem, from an educational point of view, is that these tensions in human thought and experience, and the ways in which we seek to address them, whether through religious belief or otherwise, are often very personal, potentially fragile and highly sensitive" (p. 24).   In the field of public education, especially, biases of thoughts are sensitively avoided, and the

attention on neutrality is encouraged[1]. Due to this social background, teachers do not seem to keen on teaching individual ideas, mental attitudes, and senses of values.

However, it is also important to remember that everyone cannot equally enjoy the chances to learn the way of life and values to overcome difficulties in life and internal struggles. It would be a significant part of preventive care for mental illness that public education will take a more active approach to hone the psychological ability of students to cope with such hardships. In this light, it is worthwhile to explore a possible way of mental enlightenment which is acceptable in the present pluralistic society.

The starting point for the study is the hypothesis that digressional speeches would be an effective modality of mental education. Digressional speeches of lecturers here mean anecdotes and stories of personal experiences which are supplementarily added though they are off the main subjects of lectures. Because of its *casualness,* meaning informality, honesty and spontaneity, digressional speech is thought to be an answer to the dilemma between the necessity of mental cultivation and the neutrality of education which is inevitably required in the society.

Furthermore, the reason this study focuses particularly on university education rather than any other public education is that university is the last safety net for most of the young people before entering the workforce[2]. In addition, higher education is more flexible than lower education which has to pay considerable attention to entrance examinations. Due to these reasons, university education was considered as the best object to study.

The purpose of the study and its background ideas have been provided in this chapter. The rest of this paper is organized in the following manner. In Chapter 2, related discourses will be reviewed. Chapter 3 contains the explanation of the setting of the case study and the methods to conduct the research. Chapter 4 presents the results and analyses of the study. Finally, Chapter 5 offers a summary of the findings and the suggestions for future research.

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[1] In Japan, for instance, correction orders are sent from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology to schools which are judged to be conducting education lacking political or religious neutrality (though private religious schools are the exception).

[2] The percentage of students pursuing higher education was 55.4% in Japan in 2008 (MEXT, 2008).

2. Review of the Discourses on Digressional Speeches

Some teachers have reported the importance of digressional speeches in lecturers.   Kawan Soetanto, a professor of Waseda University in Japan, suggested that digressional speeches can have an impact on mental growth of students. His education is one of the successful examples of motivating university students (Soetanto, 1994, 1996, 1998[a], 1998[b] and 2002). Though he regards his own pedagogy as the motivational education, it can be recognized as mental nurturing. This is because he put emphasis on the reform in the mental attitude of students in his education. He asserts that sound mental attitudes are the readiness for university education.

> *First, students should be raised to the one having a dream and self-awareness. And a sense of purpose*
> *and responsibility are also to be inculcated. Only after this, students would be ready to receive*
> *professional education. (Soetanto, 2003, p.10)*

In fact, a lot of students at his classes appeared to have gained (or retrieved) confidence, dreams, and enthusiasm through the observed sessions of his classes. This fact is simply reflected on the following answer of one of the interviewees.

> *Prof. Soetanto' invincible mind that had met many hardships sticks out in my mind. Through his*
> *class, I think I could gain such mental toughness. (T.T. (initial), interview, 2008)*

The Soetanto's method also has achieved recognition from many people besides his students such as parent, business person, employees and government officers etc.   in terms of mental enlightenment as well as motivational strategies[3].

One of the special features of the Soetanto's teaching method is the passionate digressional speeches during lectures in which he mentions his own belief about mental attitude and ideas on social problems. Soetanto pointed out that it is one of the important factors which motivate university students. In his thesis, he gave the clinical evidence that ways of living of students can be positively influenced by his digressional speeches (Soetanto, 2003, p. 56).

However, no attempt has been made to elucidate the factors of the digressional speeches of Soetanto contributing to positive psychological effects on the students. If the factors which make his digressional speeches effective are clarified, it will shed a light on a new possibility of mental enlightenment. As such,

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[3] Refer to his works, especially the book, "Why did 'failures' succeed?: Nine methods of waking up motivation" and the article on the online magazine of "Nikkei Business Online", "Earnest makes 'motivated person'[Honki ga tsukuru 'yaruki-ninghen']" (see Bibliography).

it is worthwhile to examine the effectiveness of his digressional speeches from the perspective of mental growth of students in comparison with that of other lecturers.

An educationist, Takashi Saito, reported that digressional speeches are of significance. He asserts from his experience that students are waiting for digressional speeches in class "as if they were searching for an oasis in desert". In such times, the teachers who cannot make digressional speeches appear boring (Saito 2007: p.127). In the experience of the author during the undergraduate study, students also seem to actively listen to digressional speeches; conversely, they feel that a class without digressional speeches leaves something to be desired. Thus, it is feasible to speculate that digressional speeches let students listen willingly. However, obviously, more research is needed to objectively verify the perceptions of Saito and the author which are based on only empirical impressions.

3. Methods

3.1. The Setting of the Research

In order to investigate the psychological effects of digressional speeches, a case study was conducted in the Kawan Soetanto's classes in the spring and fall semesters 2008 at the School of International Liberal Studies of Waseda University. The classes studied include eight different ones. The details of each class are shown in the table 1.

Table 1

Summary of the Soetanto's classes which are studied

Semester	Class category	Class title	Target grade
Spring	First Year Seminar 2B	Digital and Globalization	Freshman
	Intermediate Seminar	Motivation and Education	Sophomore
	Advanced Seminar	Education, Motivation and EQ: Human Potential Development and Management	Senior

Fall	First Year Seminar 1B	Comparative Study of Asian Education Systems	Freshman
	First Year Seminar 2B	Introduction to Information and Medical Technology	Freshman
	Intermediate Seminar	Motivation and Education	Sophomore
	Intermediate Subject	Basic Digital Technology	All grades
	Advanced Seminar	Education, Motivation and EQ: Human Potential Development and Management	Senior

There are three reasons why Soetanto's classes were chosen as the object of the study. First, his classes tend to entail a plenty of digressional speeches. Although a lot of other classes also include digressional speeches, Soetanto offers not only abundant but also diverse stories when he digresses. As such, his classes are thought to be quite suitable to study in. Second, the education of Soetanto is already recognized as successful in terms of students' motivation. This implies that it is likely to be also successful in terms of mental enlightenment because his way of raising motivation contains the process in which students notice new aspects of spiritual values and the importance of them. Third, Soetanto is responsible for different types of classes for different years of students as seen in Table 1. Thus, it was expected to be able to enjoy the extensive results in various situation and conditions of classes with the fixed condition of the same lecturer. This is an important parameter of the object because it is of necessity to ascertain the validity of the effects of digressional speeches in differing patterns of classes.

3.2. Surveys

Questionnaires were given out in person to the students of Soetanto's classes and to the comparison group, or those who are unrelated to Soetanto's classes from a variety of faculties at Waseda University. This is because comparison with the results of the other classes was necessary in order to clarify the characteristic of the results of Soetanto's classes. Additionally, the wide spectrum of opinion was useful to examine generality of the case study. The 32 students of Soetanto's classes and the 118 undergraduate students of the other classes responded.

In the study, the purpose of the survey was to grasp a big picture of emotional effects caused by digressional speeches in university lectures and a multitude of opinions on them. All parts of the questionnaire were created by the author from scratch. This study is original in that a new questionnaire is presented.

4. Findings

4.1. Digressional speeches have a positive impact on mind of students.

The study has shown that digressional speeches make students motivate to willingly listen to lecturers. The results of the surveys in both Soetanto's classes and the other classes showed that positive feelings increased when students listen to digressional speeches as illustrated in Figure 1 and 2 below.
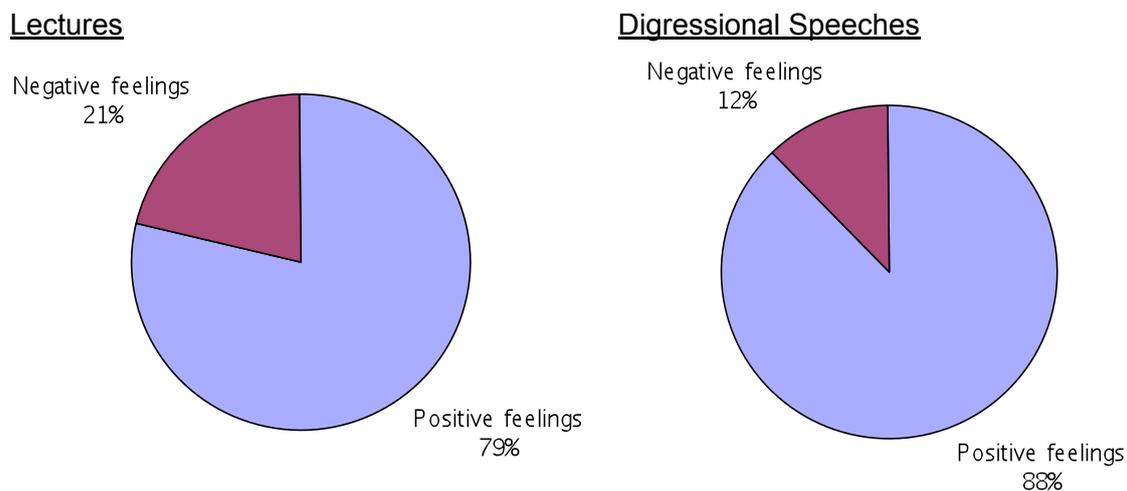
Figure 1. **Pie Chart Presentation of the Comparison of the Feelings Evoked by Whole Lectures and Digressional Speeches (Soetanto's Classes).**

Lectures

Digressional Speeches

Negative feelings
46%

Positive feelings
54%

Negative feelings
24%

Positive feelings
76%
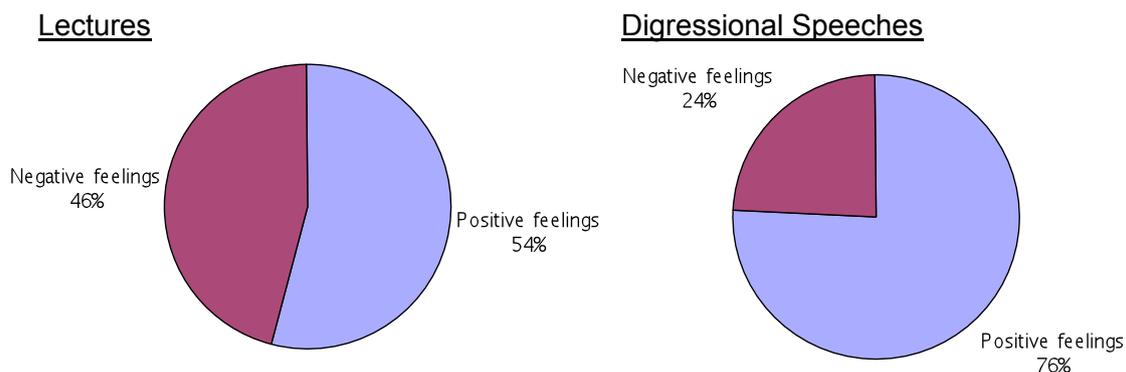
Figure **2. Pie Chart Presentation of the Comparison of the Feelings Evoked by a Whole Lecture and Digressional Speeches (Comparison Group).**

The result indicates that the more students of Soetanto's classes feel positive about a whole lecture (79%) than the students of the other classes do (54%). On the other hand, digressional speeches reduced the rate of negative feelings roughly in half in *both* Soetanto's classes and the other classes. It means that digressional speeches render positive emotional change to both types of students who are relatively content during a lecture and those who are not.

Furthermore, the difference between the result of Soetanto's classes and that of the comparison group regarding the effects of digressional speeches was that the students of Soetanto's classes felt more positive feelings (88%) than those of other classes during a lecture (76%). Although several reasons can be considered, through the observational research, quality of digressional speeches seemed make difference. The following section elaborates the difference in contents of digressional speeches.

4.2. Unlike other lecturers, Soetanto makes frequent allusions to senses of values.

The study found that Soetanto refers to senses of values more often than others though they are more or less mentioned in digressional speeches by both Soetanto and the other lecturers. The survey of the 118 undergraduate students clarified that most lecturers make digressional speeches. 91% (106 out of 118) of respondents know some professors who digress from the main topic in lectures (Figure 3).

The answer to the question if there is any lecturers who make digressional speeches

9%

91%

Yes
No
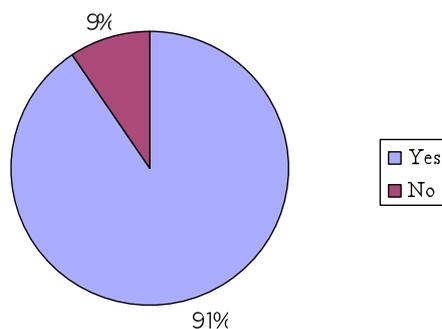
Figure 3. Pie Chart Presentation of the Answer to the Question if There Is Any Lecturers Who Make Digressional Speeches.

73 out of the 118 respondents answered to the open-ended question asking about contents of digressional speeches which respondents can recall. The types of the answers can be divided into eight which include 'personal experiences', 'values/ personal opinions', 'inside stories/ untold facts', 'concrete examples which do not include personal experiences', 'social problems', 'personal hobbies', 'others', 'cannot remember'. The break down is given in the Figure 4. 49 out of the 73 respondents (67%) wrote that they have heard the stories of personal experiences of lecturers in digressional speeches. The second most popular response was the stories about senses of values and personal opinions of lecturers, rating only 19% (13 out of 73) which was less than one-third of personal experiences. This result shows that stories of personal experiences are generally the most predominant content of digressional speeches in university classes.
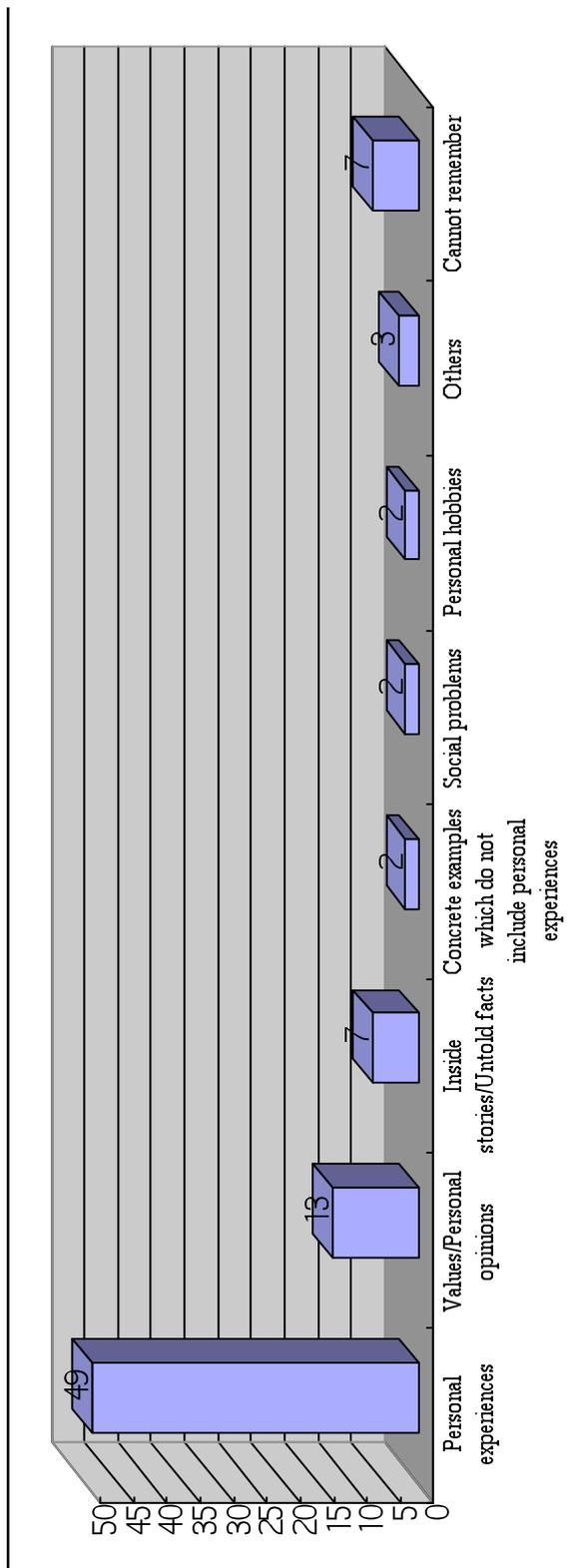
Figure **4. Vertical Bar Chart Presentation of the Contents of Digressional Speeches (Comparison Classes)**
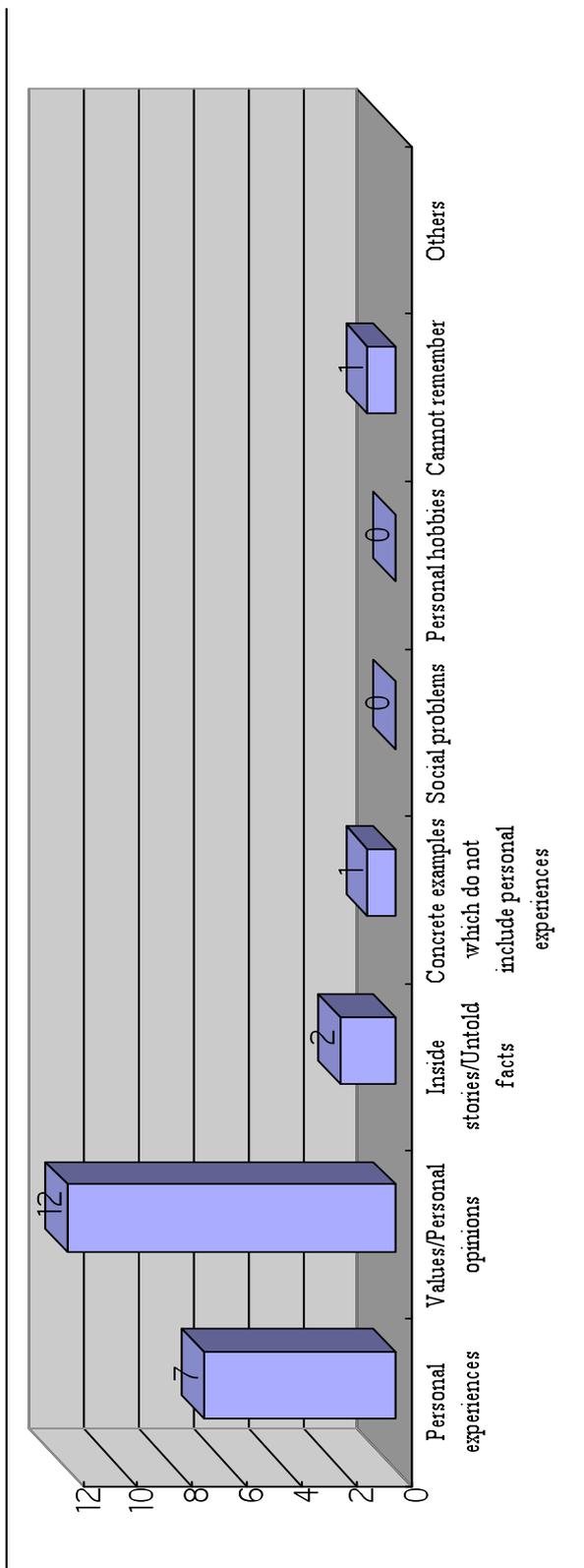
Figure **5. Vertical Bar Chart Presentation of the Contents of Digressional Speeches (Soetanto's Classes)**

The survey of the students taking Soetanto's classes also revealed that digressional speeches tend to include the stories about senses of values and personal experiences. 26 out of the 31 respondents have given the answer asking about the contents of digressional speeches. 12 out of the 26 respondents (46%) explained the speeches regarding values and personal opinions whereas 7 out of the 26 respondents (27%) wrote about the speeches of Soetanto's personal experiences (Figure 5). Compared with the comparison group, the students of Soetanto's classes remember more stories about senses of values than those about personal experiences. This difference is due to the educational philosophy which Soetanto possesses. He put an emphasis on raising mentality of students to motivate them to keep challenging. Considering that stories regarding values are repeatedly conveyed at class, the result was hardly surprising.

What is special about the responses was that all the 12 respondents of the survey who mentioned the digressional speeches about senses of values could describe details of what had been told. For example, S.T. (initial) who took the class of Basis Digital Technology in the fall semester 2008 wrote:

> *I have heard him saying, 'people start to have radiance even when they TRY to do something. In doing so, people can change'.*

N.S. (initial) who took the class of Advanced Seminar from 2007 to 2009 wrote:

> *The story about the person who has impressionable nature was impressive. He talked about the aspirational person, the person who has room in his/her heart, and other concrete examples. Because I came to want to become such a person who is emotionally sensitive, I remember it clearly.*

These detail comments imply the fact that senses of values are substantially conveyed to the mind of the students through digressional speeches.

Hence, it can be declared that university lecturers refer to personal experiences much more frequently than senses of values whilst Soetanto is the other way around. It is feasible to speculate that mentions on senses of values is the important factor contributing to the higher rate of positive feelings which the students of Soetanto's classes have when listening to digressional speeches.

5. Conclusion

The study elucidated the psychological effects of digressional speeches through a case study. The discoveries are following: (a) digressional speeches encourage positive feelings of students; (b) the rate of positive feelings evoked by digressional speeches was higher in Soetanto's lectures than in the other classes; (c) the feature of the digressional speeches of Soetanto is that he refers to senses of values more frequently than the other lecturers. On the whole, digressional speeches have the positive psychological effects. Moreover, referring to senses of values in digressional speeches facilitates the effect even more.

In order to verify the hypothesis that digressional speech is a way of acceptable and effective mental education, the author currently continue the analysis of the results. If space permitted, the more findings and analyses could be given. They would include the verifications of the arguments by the information based on observation, interviews and other documents. In addition, there would also be the discussions about more details of the psychological effects, the casualness of digressional speeches, the structured process of the enlightenment through digressional speeches, and the difference in the effectiveness according to gender. Hopefully, these parts of the study which could not be shown this time will be presented in another opportunity.

Since this study is a case study which offers empirical and descriptive validity of the proposal, it is clear that more extensive research is necessary to establish the statistical validity. In addition, the study

not from educational approach but from psychological one would be also valuable in reexamining the changes in mental state led by digressional speeches.

In conclusion, the merits of digressional speeches can be used in the field of positive psychology, or alleviating various kinds of anxieties in life and enhancing well-being. It is hoped that this study will contribute to interdisciplinary fields besides educational ones.

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Critical practice and projective identification

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keywords = critical thinking, psychodynamics, cultural awareness, pedagogy, theory

Abstract

The concept of critical thinking has been an important one in higher education, defining a set of classroom practices as well as pedagogical goals and curricular structures. However, the inclusion of critical thinking inside the Japanese university classroom is more often than not met with initial acceptance followed by long-range rejection. To understand the dynamics of this external acceptance/internal rejection of critical thinking, the psychodynamics of the Japanese classroom must be considered. In particular, the psychoanalytic concept of projective identification together with the Japanese concept of 'amae' can help to chart courses for critical thinking to become more central in the university classroom. The paper will argue that projective identification has two poles, one in which the classroom is dominated by the instructor's instilling a belief system and the other in which processes such as empathy and intuition inform all activities. By better understanding the processes of projection and identification, a more substantial psychological framework for critical thinking can be established. This theoretical paper will seek to illuminate ways towards a more substantial classroom practice of critical thinking within such a framework and explain how that combination of critical practice and psychological analysis can lead towards greater autonomy for learners within their own frameworks. What has been missing from most of the theory, pedagogy and materials related to critical thinking is the crucial component of local classroom dynamics. The global concept of critical thought, which remains a western-initiated set of concepts, does not begin to solve local problems, in this case Japanese university education, without a more thorough psychological grounding and cultural awareness. This is especially important for students undergoing identity formation, and reformation, within the context of foreign language study and
 international education. This paper will bring together particular practices of critical thinking, an analysis of the resistance to such critical activities, and partial solutions to the issues. Thus, the issue resolves itself slightly differently from the theme of the conference, as it is more of a local solution, cultural awareness of the psychodynamics of the Japanese classroom, to a global problem, critical thinking in education.

The use of self-assessment to foster students' learning in teaching practice

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Abstract

This study aimed to use self-assessment to facilitate students' learning. Participants comprised 57 students which were engaged in a self-assessment process by setting goals, recording evidence and evaluating their performance. Questionnaire and focus group interviews were employed to examine the usefulness of self-assessment and possible changes in students' learning. Results indicated that students found self-assessment enhanced their learning, especially in the area of reflective thinking. Students also reported evidence of positive changes of their learning.

Introduction

This study involves an investigation into the use of self-assessment as formative assessment in teaching practice. The purpose of the study was to explore whether there were any changes in students' learning after they used self-assessment to evaluate their teaching performance.

In the field of teacher education, preparing students to be reflective is a major focus of training programmes. Teaching practice is a core activity in any teacher training programme with the purpose of providing opportunity for meaningful reflection where theory can be challenged and practice improved. According to Hopkins (1995), if teaching practice is regarded as an assessment in which students only receive external feedback with a grade assigned by the supervisor, this assessment does little to promote reflective thinking. Various researchers have explored ways to encourage students to reflect on their teaching and make necessary adjustments to enhance student learning (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2002). Self-assessment is now being used more and more in higher education for that purpose.

Shepard (2000) suggested that assessment could play a more useful role if it was used as part of the learning process. Assessment should not only be used to give a grade for judging the competence of

the students with reference to a set of standards and criteria, but should also be used to provide a learning context that promotes students' understanding of teaching and learning and improves their practice. Many researchers (e.g. Gipps, 1999; Klenowski, 1995) have developed self-assessment as a form of formative assessment and have achieved some success in promoting students' learning. The use of self-assessment as a tool for learning to learn and helping students to take responsibility for their own learning is well documented (Reynolds & Trehan, 2000; Boud, 1995).

Boud (1995) identified two essential components of self-assessment, namely the identification of standards and criteria for judging the quality of the work and the judgment on the extent to which the standards and criteria have been reached. According to Boud, in the process of identifying standards and criteria, the learner develops a deeper understanding of the demands of the learning task and clarifies the learning goals. Costa and Kallick (2004) conceptualised a feedback spiral which includes goals clarifying, planning, action taking, assessing and gathering evidence, reflecting and evaluating, modifying actions based on new knowledge and moving on to redefine the goals again. The spiral serves as a tool for enhancing the knowledge of the student about the effectiveness of the learning strategies, the extent of their learning, and the learning strategies to be used in the next stage of learning. This feedback spiral in turn promotes students' learning.

This study was informed by the Learning-oriented Assessment Project, a teaching development project of the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd). The project stresses a shift in thinking about assessment practices in teacher education away from performance-based methods toward those that may facilitate students' learning. A self-assessment tool was developed that could be incorporated into teaching practice to enhance students' learning. This tool served two primary functions: 1) to encourage students to analyse their own work, using the assessment criteria printed in the handbook for judging their own performance; 2) to aid students in understanding the gap between what they aimed to achieve and their actual practice, and requiring them to take responsibility for the improvement in the quality of teaching and learning. This study aims to examine the effectiveness of self-assessment in teaching practice and to explore whether the students, after engaging in a self-assessment process, exhibited changes in their teaching and learning practice.

Two research questions were formulated:

1.   Does self-assessment aid in teaching practice?
2.   Does the self-assessment process bring about changes in students' teaching and learning practices?

Self-assessment in teaching practice

Self-assessment has been highlighted as an essential component in the professional preparation of teachers in order to produce confident, independent and autonomous learners (Bailey, 1981). With reference to Boud's self-assessment schedule (Boud, 1995) and the feedback spiral suggested by Costa and Kallick (2004), self-assessment is conceptualized here as the process in which students engage in analyzing their own work and make judgments about what they do and do not know and what they can and cannot do. Consequently, self-assessment develops students' competence for self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-correction. This in turns fosters active and independent learning.

In this study, the process of self-assessment included four aspects to connect planning, teaching and reflection. This four-step process proposed a systematic approach for the students to collect, interpret and refine their teaching practices.

1.   Goal setting: students set their goals in relation to the assessed items of teaching practice. This aspect engaged students to make explicit what they wanted to achieve, thus enhancing their motivation to learn.
2.   Evidence recording: students recorded evidence of what they had achieved with reference to the goals they had set earlier. This aspect engaged students to clarify and make sense of the standards and criteria.
3.   Self-evaluation: students evaluated the extent to which they had achieved their goals. This aspect engaged students to judge the quality of their work.
4.   Further action for improvement: students identified areas for improvement. This aspect engaged students to make decisions for self-improvement.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the self-assessment process illustrating the different aspects that engaged learning.

Figure 1:   The conceptual framework of the self-assessment process

Goal setting
• What do I want to achieve?
  (Planning, learning environment…)

• Identifying the criteria

Further action for improvement
• What do I want to improve?

• Identifying areas for improvement

Evidence recording
• What have I achieved with reference to the criteria?

• Judging and reflecting

Self-Evaluation
• What level have I achieved?
• What effective strategies have I used?
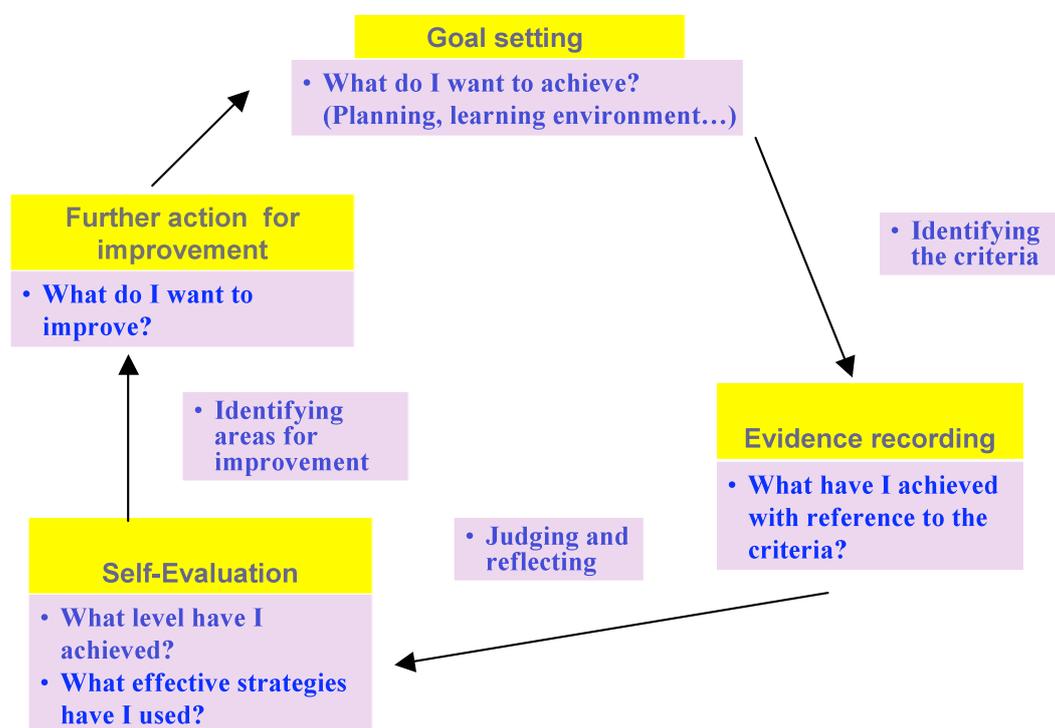
Method

Participants

Forty-seven in-service students enrolled in the Early Childhood Education Programme at HKIEd were willing to take part in this study. The sample contained two groups of students, 27 of whom were in their first year of the Certificate of Education two-year programme while 20 were in the second year of the programme. As part of programme requirements, these students needed to complete a 4-week

block teaching practice. The second year students had prior experiences of teaching practice whereas the first year students had no previous experience.

Procedures

The study started two weeks before the block teaching practice. At the first meeting, the students were informed about the objectives and the procedure of self-assessment. A demonstration of goal setting and evidence recording was given. Then the students were engaged in practising goal setting, using the self-assessment sheet according to the assessment criteria printed in the handbook of teaching practice.

A self-assessment sheet was distributed to each student and used at three stages on the teaching practice. The students were asked to:

1. set their goals according to the assessment criteria before the block teaching practice;
2. record evidence of what they had achieved with reference to the goals they had set during the block teaching practice; and
3. evaluate their own performance and identify areas for improvement.

During the supervised field visits conducted by the researcher, students were asked to highlight selected episodes for discussion from the strengths and weaknesses recorded on their self-assessment sheets. The process of involving students in discussion and reflection based on their self-assessment allowed participants to take some control of their learning, thus building the confidence and independence of students in self-directed learning. It also provided useful information to the researcher for understanding the needs of the students and guiding the students to analyze their teaching and to identify areas for improvement.

Data collection

The use of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods provided multiple data sources for triangulation to address the research questions as well as to enhance the validity of the study. Quantitative data was collected by questionnaire and qualitative data from focus group interviews and the self-assessment sheet.

Questionnaire A questionnaire was designed and administered to all participants at the end of the teaching practice to collect descriptive data on participants' perceptions of the usefulness of self-assessment on teaching practice.

Part One asked students to indicate on a 4-point scale how useful they found self-assessment for their teaching practice. Part Two required students to indicate the usefulness of self-assessment in the areas of lesson planning, teaching skills and reflection on a 4-point scale and to state their views in the open-ended section. Part Three of the questionnaire asked students to circle the adjectives that best described their feelings about the teaching practice before and after the self-assessment process.

Interview A semi-structured focus group interview was conducted for each group to gain an in-depth understanding of the impact of self-assessment. Six students from each of the two groups were randomly selected to participate at the end of their block teaching practice. The interview was designed with a topic-centered approach where several initial questions were formulated to ensure that the following aspects of interest were addressed:

1. experiences of selecting the goals, finding the evidence and identifying the areas for improvement to explore students' understanding of the self-assessment process;
2. views of the usefulness of self-assessment on teaching practice, the most useful areas and the influences on teaching to obtain information about the effectiveness of self-assessment;
3. difficulties of using self-assessment to collect information for improving the use of self-assessment.

Results and Discussion

With regard to Research Question One on the usefulness of self-assessment in teaching practice, data collected from the questionnaires was scored and analysed for descriptive statistics to capture a preliminary picture.

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The usefulness of self-assessment in teaching practice

79% of the students indicated that self-assessment was useful and the mean score (M=2.98, SD=0.64) also revealed a generally favorable response towards self-assessment. While 100% of 2nd year students found self-assessment useful, only 64.2% of 1st year students responded positively. To check for possible differences between 1st and 2nd year students, an independent-sample *t-test* was used. Analysis indicated a statistically significant difference (t=3.927; p<0.01) between 1st year students (M=2.71, SD=0.11) and 2nd year students (M=2.71, SD=0.11), with the 2nd students having more favorable responses.

When looking at students' perceptions of the usefulness of self-assessment in relation to the three areas identified as important in students' learning, again significant differences (p<0.05) were revealed between 1st and 2nd year students in all areas, with mean scores decreasing significantly for 1st year students (see Table 1).

Table 1: One-way analysis of variance of the four areas

Area	Source	SS	df	F
Lesson Planning	Between Groups	1.584	1	6.447*
	Within Groups	0.246	45	
Teaching Skills	Between Groups	1.883	1	8.669**
	Within Groups	0.217	45	
Reflection	Between Groups	1.414	1	4.361*
	Within Groups	14.586	45	

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

In an attempt to ascertain areas that were most endorsed by the students, the mean scores and rank orders for each of the areas were calculated and compared. The mean scores for all areas were above 2.5 which showed that students generally had positive responses towards each of the areas. Students rated reflection as the most valuable aspect in self-assessment, followed by teaching skills and, lesson planning was rated the lowest. An examination of the mean values between 1st year and 2nd year students revealed that the 2nd year students consistently rated higher than the 1st year students across all areas. Irrespective of their prior teaching practice experience, both student groups considered reflection as the most useful aspect in self-assessment.

The results showed that 2nd year students placed a higher value on having self-assessment on teaching practice. This more positive response expressed by the 2nd year students might be due to the fact that a comparison could be made by the 2nd year students. Reflection received the strongest agreement and was ranked the highest. This result supports Reiman's (1999) claim that reflection does not come naturally and needs to be guided. The self-assessment process in this study helped the students extract meaning from their work and aided them in understanding the effectiveness of their teaching and the gap between what they aimed to achieve and the actual outcomes. Consequently, self-assessment as a useful reflective tool was valued. This is also the belief of many researchers (e.g Reiman, 1999; Boud et al., 1985) that reflective skills often need some sort of guidance and support.

Changes in students' teaching and learning practices after using self-assessment

With regard to Research Question Two on whether self-assessment in teaching practice brings about changes in students' teaching and learning practices, both the quantitative data and the qualitative data gave affirmative answers to the question.

Students' change of perception toward teaching practice

Students were asked to express their feelings about teaching practice before and after the self-assessment. A positive change was found. There was an increase in positive feelings and a decrease in negative feelings and the results indicate that students had a positive view of the experiences gained from the self-assessment process.

Figure 2: Perception change toward teaching practice
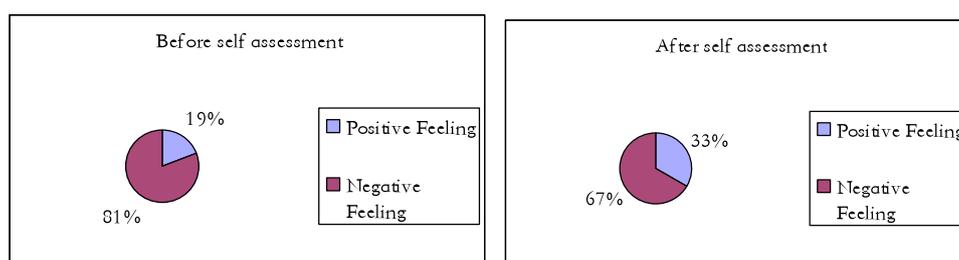
Figure 3:   A comparison of changes before and after using self-assessment
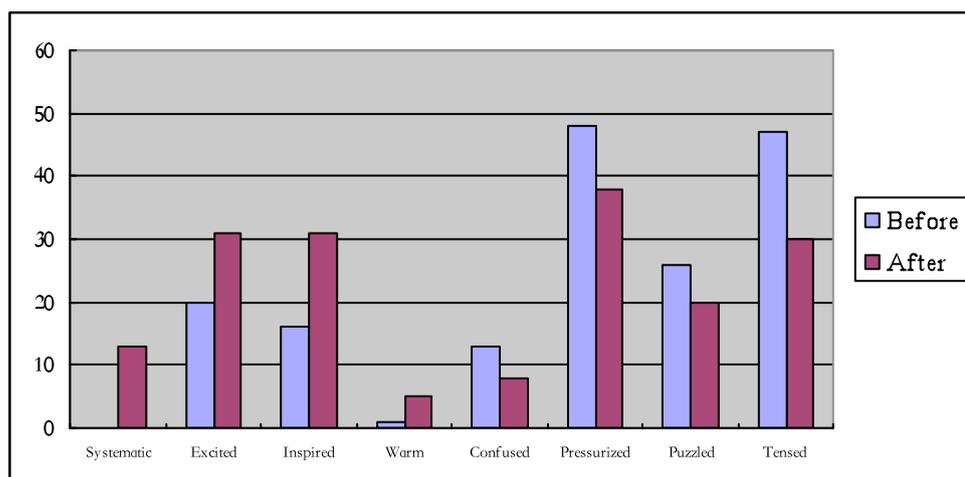
Analysis of the interview data was carried out in the form of thematic analysis. All interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and coded. Instances and excerpts were grouped according to the following themes: lesson planning, teaching skills and reflective thinking. The main points and issues within each theme were then summarized to reveal the enhancement of students' learning.

Changes of practice in lesson planning

Students in both focus groups expressed the opinion that the self-assessment process enabled them to be more systematic in planning their lessons. Goal setting helped them to identify specific areas to work on and directed them on what to plan for the children. After using self-assessment in teaching practice, they were clearer about underlying teaching principles and understood better the children's needs and interests. The following excerpts illustrated their change of thinking:

	Before using self-assessment	After using self-assessment
Tam (2nd year students)	• *When I planned the lesson, I didn't refer to the teaching principles*.	• *I set my goals according to the teaching principles I have chosen. I wrote down the teaching principle, then the lesson plan. It seemed to help*

Chan (2nd year students)	• *I focused on what I want to teach and I didn't know where the children's interests and needs were in the previous lesson.*	• *After I've set my goals, I could refer to them when I evaluated. I could check if I had achieved my goal. If I haven't, I would consider children's needs and interests and revise the plan tomorrow accordingly.*
Fung (1st year students)		• *It helped me to focus. When I wrote down the goal, I dealt with one first if I found more than one problem in previous lesson plan. After I've achieved that, I would set another one. This made the way clearer.*

Changes of practice in teaching skills

Both 1st and 2nd Year students commented that the self-assessment process helped them to shift their focus from what the teacher does to how the children respond. They pointed out that they are often more conscious of their own performance in terms of a smooth implementation of activities rather than on children's learning. By collecting evidence during the lesson, it helped them to look for children's performance and identify what counts as evidence in relation to the goals. It provided critical information for students to reveal how well their specific goals were met and to identify their own strengths and weaknesses. It helped to made decisions about what could be done next time to make their teaching more successful, which in turn improved their teaching skills. Some reported:

	Before using self-assessment	After using self-assessment
Cheung (2nd year students)	• *I usually focused on my teaching only.*	• *I am now clearer with good teaching. I needed to observe children, to help children to learn, with reference to the goals set.*
Lam (2nd year students)	• *If I saw the children following my instruction to do the activity, I thought I had achieved the objectives.*	• *I knew clearer what I should do to help children. I know specifically which aspect I should scaffold children. I knew how to guide children by referring to the goals I set.*
Lai (1st year students)		• *I felt that I have improved in responding to children in class. I've got more to talk to them and know more ways to enhance their language development.*

Changes of practice in reflective thinking

During the interview, students kept repeating that they were made to think more when they were required to set goals, to search for evidence and to judge their own performance. This thinking also enabled them to have a clearer understanding of their goals and of the standards and criteria against which their teaching performance was judged. Loughran (2002) indicated that reflection emerges as a way of helping learners better understand what they know and do because they develop their knowledge through reconsidering what they learn in practice. With engaging in self-assessment, students could see the problems in their teaching by judging the gap between what they aimed to achieve and the actual outcomes, then making decisions to improve teaching. Some students reported that before adopting self- assessment, their day-to-day evaluation mostly were descriptions of teaching episodes rather than attempting to thinking critically about the episodes. The self-assessment process enabled students to see the link between the different aspects, thus develop their skills in critical thinking. Statements from the students include:

	Before using self-assessment	After using self-assessment
Chan (2nd year students)	• *The day-to-day evaluation was done to fulfill the requirement of teaching practice rather than reflecting my teaching.*	• *I would make use of photos, children's works as evidence to reflect on my teaching.*
Leung (2nd year students)	• *I did evaluation everyday and just described what children could do and couldn't do.*	• *I would think about what I did well or didn't do well seriously, then tried to find ways to improve.*
Cheung (2nd year students)	• *The daily evaluation is just a record of what I did that day. I didn't see the need to follow up. I didn't change my planning the next day according to the reflection. This is what we mean by feeling very vague of what to plan.*	• *The self-assessment stimulated me to think and evaluate systematically. Now, I would refer to the goals and evidence when I reflect. I now think more when I plan because I need to meet my goals. I would try my ideas for improvement in next lesson to see if it really worked.*
Ng (1st year students)		• *Through collecting evidence, I developed my analytic skills. I felt more confident when I found that I could gather evidence for my improvement. This means I can do better. And I've got a clearer idea of what and how to do next.*
Wong (1st year students)		• *Now, when I collect evidence for my teaching, I can see the progress of the children. I am glad that my effort has not been wasted. I have clear goals and steps to guide my teaching. I could feel my own progress as well.*
Lai (1st year students)		• *I learnt how to be selective in setting the right goals for my teaching. I now know I should not set too many goals, but to set goals which match my teaching principles.*

Conclusion and Implications

This study investigated the extent to which self-assessment facilitated students' learning among in-service student teachers in the Department of Early Childhood education at HKIEd. Findings from this study demonstrate that self-assessment can be a useful tool for facilitating students' learning on teaching practice in the areas of lesson planning, teaching skills and reflective thinking. Data from the questionnaire and interviews show that the process assisted students to clarify the learning goals; to gather evidence and use it to inform their own practice; to think about what happened and why it happened; and to make decision on what could be done to improve teaching. Through this process, students showed better understanding of the standards and criteria and became increasingly skillful in reflecting on their teaching.

The experience of self-assessment on teaching practice also enabled students to recognize the learning that had taken place and how their thinking had changed. Students started to feel that teaching practice was not only an assessment vehicle but a very valuable learning process. Students could gain control of their own learning and built up confidence which then generated more positive feelings towards teaching practice. Although the exercise involved an extra workload, it was still highly valued and well received by the students, especially the students with prior experience in teaching practice. Students reported that they did the self-assessment in teaching practice not only for the supervisor, but also for their own improvement in teaching. They felt that their focus had shifted from a narrow concern with grades to a more holistic view involving how to plan, teach and evaluate.

This study has made preliminary exploration into the use of self-assessment in teaching practice to facilitate students' learning and yielded positive answers to the research questions. Given the learning-oriented assessment project in HKIEd continues to espouse assessment innovation in higher education, developing self-assessment in teaching practice provides the idea and practice to meet the challenge and also brings a valuable focus for future research.

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Concurrent Assessment of Subject Competency and Dimensioned Self-Efficacy: A Tool for Designing Learner-Centered Interventional Curriculum and Instruction

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keywords = motivation studies, self-efficacy, assessment, intervention programs, learner-centered curriculum

Abstract

Test scores are a traditional source of learning needs information. However, self-efficacy beliefs, those that deal with a person's perceived ability to get something done or to reach a level of attainment, are also essential contextual inputs on how such learning needs should be addressed. Even better, if such beliefs are so dimensioned as to identify their causes, then they become actionable. Combined with test scores, dimensioned self-efficacy beliefs can be used to design more effective and efficient learner-centered intervention programs.

A framework for development and use of concurrent assessment of subject competency and dimensioned self-efficacy is presented here by example. We developed and tested the new concept, dimensioning self-efficacy into configurations of previous learning experience and self-assessed state of knowledge. We then designed a 5-point self-efficacy belief scale and used it with a 50-item criterion-referenced problem-solving diagnostic test in a unified test instrument. The unified test was then administered to high ability Filipino students of high school Mathematics, first in a pilot run, and then in full scale testing.

We found that concurrent assessment of subject competency and dimensioned self-efficacy beliefs provides value-added information on actionable aspects of an individual learner's motivation that cannot be deduced from subject testing results alone. In addition, the clustering of self-efficacy information around dimensions of previous learning experience and self-assessed level state of knowledge indicated the intervention needs of each group, both among low and high performers.

As synthesis, we present a model for identifying learning needs, based on combinations of subject competency levels and dimensioned self-efficacy beliefs. With the model, we also present interventional strategies in curriculum and instruction to improve motivation and performance, and hence, arrest or prevent underachievement in individuals or homogeneous groups.

Though not necessarily a stand-alone tool, concurrent assessment of subject competency and dimensioned self-efficacy presents a unique way to measure learning needs not only in terms of performance and attitude, but also in terms of the causes of such performance and attitude. This allows the teacher to target the causes, rather than the symptoms, of underachievement, while also providing clues to needs for enrichment or acceleration, depending on the range of difficulty in test content.

Because actionable dimensions of self-efficacy can differ from one discipline to another, and from one culture to another, we recommend that our dimensioned self-efficacy scale be concept-tested first and changed or refined as necessary before being used in a different disciplinary or cultural context.

Learner Stories: Impact of Second Language Identity on Motivation

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Abstract

Based on a study conducted with four Chinese secondary school students in Hong Kong in 1996, the researcher investigates L2 identities and their effects on L2 motivation using their learner stories, drawing insights from Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System and Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (SCT). He would also suggest a model for bridging the two research fields and proposing ideas on priming L2 identities for language education.

Introduction

"The kid's English person is still very small," a former colleague once said. And this comment has become the cornerstone for me to build up this study. It made me ask: "What do L2 learners think about themselves in the learning process? What can make the 'inner English person' grow?" Questions like these stayed in my mind and formed the base for me to start my study on L2 identity in 2006, when I was a secondary teacher.

In the research tradition of second language acquisition (SLA), Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System and Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (SCT) are two relatively new theories. Not many researchers have tried to combine to two in theory and L2 pedagogy. Also, not long before my study, Murphey, Chen and Chen (2004) published an article on life history of tertiary-level ESL learners in Taiwan and Japan. So, I would like to try to conduct mine with my secondary students in Hong Kong.

Before looking into to my study, let us briefly review several concepts we would use as our frameworks for reference.

Sociocultural Theory and L2 Motivation

Sociocultural Theory (SCT), inspired by Vygotsky about 80 years ago, is a theory of mind about the role social relationships and culturally constructed artefacts play in the organizing human mental thinking (Lantolf, 2004: 30-31). These artefacts are tools – either physical or psychological (the latter of which include language, numbers, arithmetic systems, music, etc) – that humans use to mediate and regulate their mind and the world around them (Lantolf, 2000; Penuel and Wertsch, 1995). In short, language is one of the tools that mediate the mind.

Activity Theory (AT) is the second generation of SCT, crystallized by A. N. Leontiev, another Russian psychologist. Activity Theory refers to the theory about 'doing something that is motivated either by a need – biological, or culturally constructed' (like the need to be able to read and write). The need then becomes a motive, which is only realized in goal-directed action (Lantolf, 2000; see also Block, 2003: 101-102). The sequence of the operationalization of an activity system is:

Figure 1

Sequence from mental functioning to operationalization

(Block, 2003, p.102; and Lantolf, 2000, p.8)

$$\textbf{need} \rightarrow \textbf{motive} \rightarrow \textbf{goal} \rightarrow \textbf{action}$$

We will come back to this sequence of operationalization in the analysis of the learner stories in the study.

L2 Motivation

Since the 1970s, Gardner and his associates' research on L2 motivation has been the 'most extensive research' related to the role of attitudes and motivation (Ellis, 1985: 117). Up to the mid-1990s, L2 motivation was defined as 'the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourite attitudes toward learning the language' (Gardner, 1985: 10).

The 1990s, however, saw the so-called 'motivational renaissance' (Gardner and Tremblay, 1994) when some researchers revisit the construct (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Oxford and Shearin, 1994, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997; Dörnyei 1990, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c, 2002, 2003, 2005).

One of the recent developments in the field is Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System. It is a rather new framework (with only one large-scale research ever conducted by Csizér and Dörnyei in Hungary (2005a)), comprising three dimensions: a. Ideal L2 Self (L2-specific facet of one's ideal self); b. Ought-to L2 Self (attributes that one believes one ought to possess); c. L2 Learning Experience (situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience).

Csizér and Dörnyei (2005b) also called for future research on the 'self' concept. In this study, we would ask several questions related to this self concept: 1. how the effects of the ideal and ought selves differ; 2. how the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual and idea self is translated into action; 3. how can we promote or "prime" the ideal L2 self.

L2 Identity and Personal Narratives

'Identity' is the sense of who a person is with reference to 'how the person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future' in the person's sociocultural context (adapted from Norton, 2000: 5). L2 identity, then, in this study, refers to that person in his/her second language.

Murphey et al (2004) and Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) used personal narrative in their researches on investigating L2 identities. The rationale for using self narrative was to bring the learners' past events into the present and projects present to future (Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000: 171), and to let participants reflect on their self-identity as a language learner in terms of their biography (Giddens, 1991: 244). This research will follow the same tradition of using personal narratives for investigation, just as what other researchers did (Block, 2003: 131-133).

Murphey et al. (2004) used the learners' L2 learning stories as a mediational means to allow their learners in Taiwan and Japan to clarify and construct their L2 identities. The participants constructed their learning stories with events, desires, decisions, strategies, beliefs, actions, perceptions, involving trajectories and patterns of investment and de-investment. The function of using L2 learning stories is to raise metacognitive awareness so that learners can reflect on the above forces and become aware of their part in making their histories. They suggested that the class, as an activity system, would become more student-centred by putting the participants (that is, the students), their stories, their identities and their development, as their subject matter (p.83). They conducted their research by asking undergraduates in Taiwan and Japan to write about their L2 learning experiences. Besides their discovery concerning imagined communities (not the topic this research focuses on), these first-person narratives of language learners revealed the 'roller coaster' kind of development of the participants' L2 motivation, the impact of friends and near peer role modelling, and L2 learners' identities as successful L2 users.

Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) also used first-person narratives -- the autobiographies of late/adult bilingual writers -- to investigate the participation issue and identity construction. They showed that L2 learners' participation in language learning implies struggling in the reconstruction of selves, or what they termed 'self-translation', entailing the phase of loss of one's L1 identity and the phase of recovery and (re)construction (pp.162-163).

The Study

Research Questions

In this study, I would like to find out:

1. What self identities did/does the ESL learners form in their L2 learning process?

2. What effects do self identities have on L2 motivation?

3. What is the impact of this L2 'identities' research on connecting motivation research with Sociocultural Theory (SCT) /Activity Theory (AT)?

Methodology

This is a qualitative research since it aims at exploring the dynamic nature of motivation and concerns about how learners think about themselves (identity) in their L2 learning process and how their thinking affect their L2 motivation (Ushioda, 1998; Dörnyei 2001c).

This study combines both life story and life history techniques (Miller, 2005; Nunan, 2004; Benson and Nunan, 2004; Richards, 2003). Basically, the participants first told the story of their own life. Then, the researcher used interviews – individually and in group – to help construct their life history in second language learning. The data were triangulated (Block, 2000; Richards, 2003: 22), using a variety of sources -- including participants' memoirs of their life stories, individual and group interviews, supplemented by phone conversation when necessary – for data collection.

The use of autobiographical source has also been used by sociocultural theorists for understanding research subjects in their historico-sociocultural contexts (Pavlenko, 1999; Cameron, 2000; Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf and Genung, 2002; Lim, 2002; Murphey et al, 2004)

Participants

Susan, Cherry, Jane and David (names changed for privacy reasons) – were chosen from a F.6 class I taught in 2006 because their stories were interesting for discussion for this research and the students displayed a working knowledge in spoken English for interviews.

Learner Stories

The Story of Cherry

Cherry is a Hong Kong-born girl who entered kindergarten at the age of 3 and, like every most local children, started her first English lessons by learning ABC. There are two major experiences in Cherry's learning history. In Primary 5, she once got the highest score in the final, year-end English examination. This proved to be of great encouragement to Cherry.

Another thing that affected Cherry in her learning is her falling love with the pop song, "Lemon Tree" in Form 4. Cherry started listening to English songs since then.

In Form 6, she once joined a school-organized study tour to Singapore. Cherry also likes eavesdropping on English-speaking foreigners on MTR (the underground transit system in Hong Kong). Although she may not understand what is being said, she finds their accent interesting. She also looks for chances to speak English with her aunt since she thinks her aunt's English is really good.

Cherry's goal is to become a news anchor. She admires people with good linguistic skills, especially reporters. She thinks speaking English is a global trend.

However, Cherry was experiencing frustration at the moment of the study. She felt that she and her classmates were all learning English just to pass public examination. She was eager to re-gain the enjoyment of learning English. 'I really love English…It's my interest, my interest,' she said.

The Story of Jane

Jane had a background similar to Cherry at primary and secondary education. There are three special occasions in Jane's life in which she could have close contact with English speakers. The first of them occurred in Form 3 summer. She joined a programme called Summerbridge. It was the same event in which another participant in this research, Susan, also took part in. Summerbridge created an English-speaking environment for local students to speak English all day.

The following summer – Form 4 summer – Jane and Susan, encouraged by their Religious Studies teacher, joined a week-long multinational camp organized by a church group. Jane had a lot of chances to speak English with fellow worshippers from different countries who came to Hong Kong that summer.

Another special period to Jane took place in 2005 summer, after she finished her Form 5 study and taking the HKCEE. She joined a study trip organized to the UK. She thought her English was not good. So, she was afraid the host family would laugh at her. However, it turned out that the family were very patient to her. After the trip, her self-confidence in speaking English improved.

In summer, Jane would cousins come to Hong Kong. She would take this chance to talk to them in English and listen to her cousins' conversation.

The Story of Susan

Susan started to learn English at around 4 years old when she entered the kindergarten. She was educated in Chinese-medium primary and secondary schools, in which all school subjects other than English were taught in her mother tongue, Chinese.

She remembers that she learnt English through games and contests. In her primary years, she basically followed the teacher's instructions in the English lesson: reading storybooks.

There are two memorable experiences in which she had a lot of chances to use English with other people. The first one took place in her Form 2 and Form 3 summer holidays. Susan, like Jane – her schoolmate in Form 1-5 and then her Form 6 classmate – joined a weeks-long English-speaking summer programme, Summerbridge. She had a lot of chances to be involved in English activities organized by local and foreign English speakers from different countries.

Another critical experience took place in Susan's Form 4 summer. Her teacher encouraged her to join a camp organized by a church group that lasted several days. In the camp, she could talk to people in English.

In Form 6, Susan volunteered to join the English Club. She thought English was important as a school subject and for her career development in the future. She also claimed English was crucial for meeting foreigners and learning about foreign countries. Susan likes to learn from the newspaper. She believes that the newspaper can help her with grammar vocabulary. She read less newspaper in Form 6 now, so she felt she was not as motivated as before.

The Story of David

David is an ethnic Chinese born in Venezuela. His family returned to Hong Kong when he was about nine (in about mid-1990s).

David's mother tongue is Spanish. A speaker of Spanish with only a year of exposure to English (the second language he encountered in his life), David faced a lot of difficulties when he first arrived in Hong Kong when he was about 8 years old.

David, like other participants in this study, claimed following teachers' instructions in English lessons was his main way to learn English in primary and junior secondary periods. However, after a Form 6 schoolmate told the then Form 2 David that he should read more storybooks, he made up his mind and started reading one storybook per week and his reading habit last for about a year or more.

At the moment of the study, David enjoyed learning from the TIME magazine. He found the magazine, which was accompanied by an audio CD with English conversations based on the magazine articles, helpful to him for picking up vocabulary. David's sisters speak English and Spanish at home. He thought such a language environment at home would lead to success in language learning. He enjoyed learning, for he thought he did it for himself, not anybody else.

Group interview: language and transformation of identity

I tried to address three main questions in the group interview. **(Q1) "What kind of person you think you have to be or need to be, in order to become a good English speaker?"** Both Jane and Susan wanted to attain the 'native speaker' level. They explained later in the interview that they both like western culture. Susan said she likes the western lifestyle. Jane likes the French people because they were laid back and different from Hong Kong people. Interestingly, both Jane and Susan said they wanted to marry a foreigner. Susan got this idea since she was in Form 2, when she began looking for male friends on the Internet.

Cherry and David's dreams were, however, more career-oriented. Cherry wished she could be an English news anchor/reporter since a news reporter is good in language; David wanted to be a translator or a multilingual businessman -- able to speak Spanish, English and Chinese.

The next question was: **(Q2) "What helps you to achieve your goal?"** David said he would work hard in study; Cherry, watching English TV programmes; Susan, setting personal goals for herself in her study plans and school tests and speaking with her sister; Jane also mentioned watching English TV programmes and talking to herself in mirror.

The last question was: **(Q3) "When you speak English, do you feel different?"** All participants agreed. David found it unnatural to speak English. Cherry claimed she was a more serious person because she had to think hard to choose the right words and she could not make jokes in English. Susan said she could not express herself well in English.

Probably the more interesting answer was from Jane. She pointed out that speaking English could make her a different person, a more confident and mature person. David remarked that in Hong Kong, if one speaks English, it shows that he is a more intelligent person. Both Jane and David said at the

end of the interview that English could make them proud of themselves.

The learner stories and histories in the participants' life are represented in Figure 2. There are moments in the participants' life that critical experiences (abbreviated at CriEx for analysis, as seen in Figure 2) took place in their L2 learning history. These experiences, it is found in this research, have effects on the past, present and future L2 identities ("L2 Id").

Figure 2 Timeline of the participants' life histories and L2 identities (extracted from data of the life histories based on Appendices 1 to 3)

Participants / Stage	**Cherry**	**Jane**	**Susan**	**David**
Primary Stage (about 6-11 years old)	P.1-4 ---------------- - L2 Id: not obvious P.5 - CriEx -- highest mark ------------- **- L2 Id: successful English learner**	P.1-6 ---------------- **- L2 Id: not obvious**	P.1-6 ---------------- **- L2 Id: not obvious**	Before 9 years old ------------------ **- L2 Id: not obvious [since he spoken Spanish as his 1st language]** 9 years old - CriEx -- immigrated to Hong Kong -------------------- **- L2 Id: struggler /survivor**
Secondary Stage (About 12-17 years old)	F.4 - CriEx: Listening to "Lemon Tree", the first English pop song she loves ---------------- **- L2 Id: a popular culture consumer**	F.2-3 - CriEx: Summerbridge F.4 - CriEx: Church activity; F.5 summer - CriEx: UK trip ------------------ **- L2 Id: a brave L2 speaker**	F.2-3 - CriEx: Summerbridge F.4 - CriEx: Church activity ----------------- **- L2 Id: a brave L2 speaker**	F.2-3 - CriEx: Storybooks ------------------ **- L2 Id: an English story explorer**
Present (17-19 years old)	F.6 Frustrated at learning English at the moment is to pass AL exam. ------------------	F.6 ------------------ **- L2 Id: a 'larva' eager to assume to a different identity by using**	F.6 ------------------ **- L2 Id: Incompetent L2 learners**	F.6 feeling that it is hard to see his improvement in English ------------------

	- L2 Id: A 'serious' identity; Unnatural L2 speaker	L2		- L2 Id: Unnatural L2 self
Future	After AL*/ university: **- L2 Id: News reporter/anchor**	After AL/ university: **- L2 Id: Native-level speaker; an English speaking wife**	After AL/ university: **- L2 Id: Native-level speaker; an English speaking wife**	After AL/ university: **- L2 Id: translator/ multilingual businessman**

*Advanced Level (AL) examination is a public exam for secondary students; AL results are important for university entrance.

The life stories of all participants showed no obvious trait of an L2 identity formed at the start of their early primary stage. However, for Cherry and David, new identities were formed later in their primary stage. **Cherry** once got the highest mark in her final P.5 English examination. This experience significantly boosted her self-confidence in English. Her self image as a successful L2 learner has since been a strong motivational force to keep up in English.

David had a very different story. Spanish was his first language. He had only one year of English exposure in Venezuela before coming to Hong Kong at the age of 9. In Hong Kong, he had to learn English and Chinese in order to survive in the school and the society. Chronologically speaking, the second language he learnt is English. However, after immersed in this Chinese-dominant environment after about a year or so, he managed to speak English and Chinese, the latter of which has now become the language he feels more comfortable with. Looking back on his arrival in Hong Kong, David feels the most difficult thing he endured was the isolation caused by his inability to speak English and Chinese when he first came to Hong Kong. The struggler/survivor identity, as the researcher interpreted the 'self' David had when he came to the territory, motivated him to learn English and Chinese.

As for **Jane** and **Susan**, their individual L2 identity was not developed until they took part in the Summerbridge programme in F.2 and F.3 and the church gathering in F.5. The programme created a 'safe' English-speaking environment. The programme and the church gathering allowed Jane and Susan to interact with local English learners and foreign English speakers in real-life settings. They were the critical experiences that helped the two secondary schoolgirls to become brave English speakers, a new L2 identity they could not have assumed elsewhere. Jane's UK trip made her even a bolder speaker. After the trip, she started to like to communicate with foreigners in real-life situations.

Despite the frustration some of the participants had, all of them had their goals as to what ideal selves they would like to have in the future. These goals motivated the participants to take actions.

Cherry, who wanted to become a news reporter/anchor, enjoys exploring foreign cultures. She joined the study tour organized by the school to Singapore and she also joined her family to Thailand. She also liked reading English newspaper (Appendix 2.3, Line 132) and eavesdropping on MTR, a trait that a reporter would have.

Jane and Susan, who wanted to become native-level speakers, like foreign cultures. Jane made use of the chances she has for speaking English with her cousins from USA during summer holidays. Susan read newspapers, worked hard in exam preparation and engaged in English activities in school.

David, wishing to become a translator or multilingual businessman, cherished his family environment in which he can talk to his sisters in three languages: Spanish, English and Chinese.

From their non-obvious L2 self identity to their ideal selves that ranged from an English news reporter to a multilingual businessman, the participants have displayed transformation of their identity in their life history. From the time they did not know what/why they studied to the late second stage when they found their ways to learn English, we can see their shift from teacher-dependence to learner-centredness, from relying on what the teachers assigned in class to choosing their favorite pop songs, movies, newspaper, magazines, etc. A similar direction has also been documented by Lim in her autobiography: from learning in a formal learning environment; to an informal/self-instructional one, and finally to natural one (Lim, 2002; Benson, Chik & Lim, 2003).

Discussion

Shifting identity

Research Question 1: "What the self identities did/does the ESL learners form in their L2 learning process?"

Identities are most obviously seen being (re)constructed when critical experiences take place in one's life. For example, Cherry saw herself as a Form 4 student but also a popular culture consumer. She did not discover her interest in English pop songs until she first listened to "Lemon Tree". Her existing identity as a successful English learner since Primary 5 was destabilized by this critical 'Lemon Tree' experience. To reach an equilibrium, she constructed a new L2 identity – the popular culture consumer identity. This L2 identity continues in her life and motivates her to keep learning English from this aspect of cultural life.

As seen from last section (Figure 2), in terms of identity development, we can see the gradual tendency from a non-existent L2 identity from the participants' early primary stage to a goal-oriented identity they project into their future. In short, we may say they change from a teacher-centred learners (who had no autonomy to determine what, when and how to learn) to a self-centred person who decides what kind of person they would like to be.

Dynamic motivation

Research Question 2 "What effects do self identities have on L2 motivation?"

The learners' critical experiences shaped and transformed their goals and their identities. Goals become the driving force of what a person would become. For example, David's goal to become a multilingual speaker motivated him to communicate with his sisters in three languages at home. Cherry's goal to become a news reporter motivated her to read newspapers and eavesdrop on foreigners on MTR.

However, some goals are demotivating. For example, both Cherry and Susan lamented in individual and group interviews that they are not very happy with themselves because, for the moment, passing the AL exam has become their goal of learning English, which they regard as shallow.

Such dynamic conflicting motivation in L2 learning echoes Dörnyei's (2000) claim that motivation should not be merely viewed as a *stable* construct, rather it is a *dynamic* construct that evolves gradually in the course of time.

Impact of this Study on connecting Motivation Research with SCT/AT

Research Question 3: "What is the impact of this L2 identities research on connecting motivation research with Sociocultural Theory (SCT) /Activity Theory (AT)?"

The life stories here show that when the learners see their **needs** to become their future self/identity (e.g. Cherry wants to become a news reporter/anchor). So, they set their short-term/long-term **goals**, i.e. to pass the AL English exam and get into university. As a result, they have a **motive** to study hard in Forms 6 and 7 despite the pressure and difficulty they face at present. They take **action** by making study plans (for example, Susan set targets for doing past exam papers), practise speaking with relatives, reading newspapers, etc.

Combining Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System and the Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory, I would propose a new model for understanding the role L2 identity plays in activity system regarding L2 learning as below:

Figure 4 New model combining Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System and the operationalisation of activity system

need → motive → goal → action   *Activity Theory*

Actual Self

L2 Identity: Ideal L2 Self
/Ought-to L2 Self

Actu

L2 identity c…uctio…   *L2 Self Motivational System*
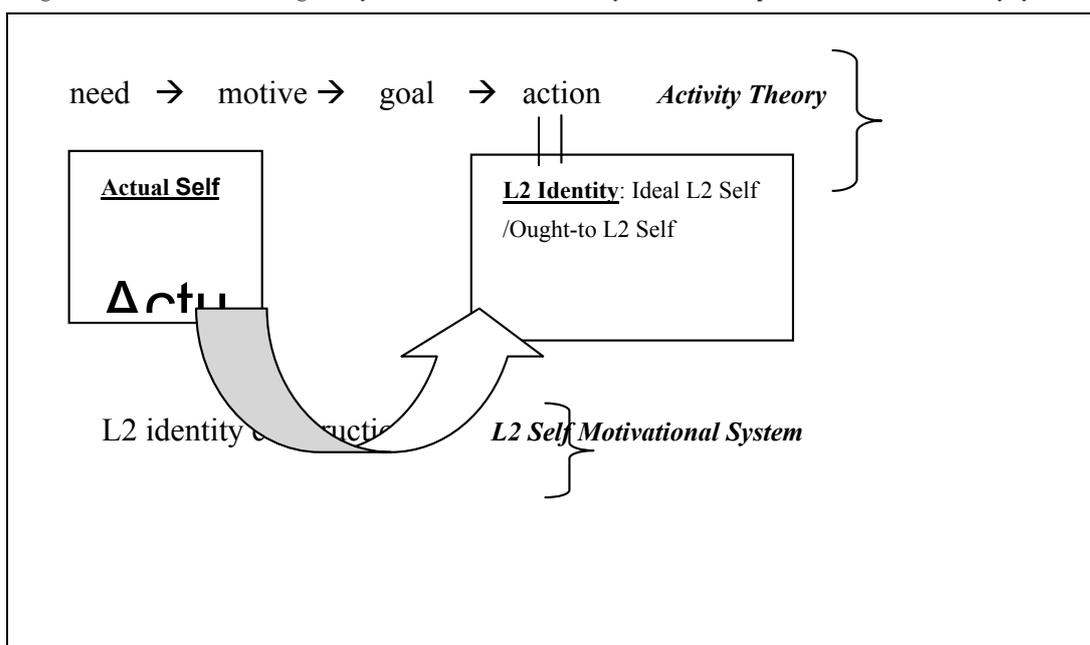
Figure 3   Relationship between identity construction and activity system

* 'Ideal L2 Self' represents the L2 self identity with attributes that the person would like to possess, such as hopes, aspirations and desires; 'Ought-to Self', the L2 self identity with attributes that the person believes they ought to possess, such as sense of duty, obligations, responsibilities, etc. (Dörnyei, 2005)

When a learner sees that there is a need to attain his/her goal. To reduce the discrepancies between his/her actual self to his ideal L2 self, the person generates the motive necessary for attaining the goal (i.e. to become the ideal L2 self). The motive is then operationalized through the action.

Implications and further research

Cultivating positive L2 identities:

Teachers may include designing tasks that introduce these identities to the students, encouraging L2 learners to develop these positive identities (some teachers may hesitate using pop songs in language classroom) and explaining there is nothing wrong with being 'smart and bright' in L2 (some students may fear that their peers regard them as showing off their English in the class). However, in terms of pedagogy, how would we present an ideal 'English-speaking' future identity to the learners? Would a local successful L2 learner be a role model for learners to follow? Or, would a multilingual, multicultural World Citizen image be more appropriate? How much international posture, as Yashima has recently in her study (2009), should be introduced into a language classroom?

Creating critical experiences:

The stories of the participants show that participation in L2 community -- be it specifically formed (made up by gathering local L2 speakers together, like the Summerbridge programme) or created by putting the learners in the L2 community (like the situation the Spanish-speaking David was in when he moved to Hong Kong with his family, or the home stay experience Jane had in the UK in a summer) – could bring about a 'profound struggle to reconstruct a self' (Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000: 174). Given a conducive environment or learning context, the learner may be triggered -- see the need to become the Future Self, and be motivated to set goals, and finally taking action. Would a local learning context be enough for providing rich learning experiences to the learners? Or would a taste in global English-speaking culture – through a song, a movie, a study tour, or a camp – be good stimulus for triggering a learner's interest?

Setting goals

As goal setting is important for concrete action to take place, questions arise. Are educational institutions like schools setting collective goals (like what some tutorial schools are doing by claiming they can help their 'customers' to get an A in public exams – presenting them the "'A's harvester" image as their L2 identity)? Should goals be set individually? Are the present education system and institutions putting passing public examination as the goal for all learners, regardless of their personal preferences and goals (if the learners are aware of them)? Are we allowing learner autonomy in goal setting? A recently published research by T.-Y. Kim (2009) used a complex model of AT in his analysis of two Korean student's goals and their L2 motivation. Perhaps the goal factor discovered in this study could be incorporated with Kim's for expanding Engeström's (1999) AT framework.

Conclusion

This study has attempted to apply insights from Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System and Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (SCT). The researcher has found from the learner stories that when learners perceive a need to reduce the discrepancy between their Actual Self and their Future Self, the learner forms the motive to learn by setting goals, with would materialise in the learning action. Since individual sociocultural factors differ in different learning environments, the L2 identities the learners form differ, whic may imply differences in their L2 motivation and their actual investments in L2 learning.

It is hoped that in this attempt to answer the questions on L2 identity and motivation can trigger more intensive research efforts and contribute to the building of a unified second language learning theory.

Appendix   **Guiding questions for language learning story**

1. How did you learn English in primary, secondary, and/or post-secondary schools?
2. What positive and negative experiences did you have and what did you learn from them?
3. What were/are you expecting in the last/present English course/programme?
4. Have you changed your ways of language learning in the course of time?
5. What are the things that you found especially helpful in learning English?
6. What are the areas that you still want to improve in?
7. How do you think your next three years will be in terms of course/program/learning tools you may take or use?
8. What are your language learning plans and goals after taking/using the present/next course/program/study tools?
9. What advice would you give to those interested in taking the course/program or in using the study tools?

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A Study on the Relationships between EFL College Students' Perceptions of British/American Culture Learning and the Changes of English Learning Motivation

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation. The findings in the present study echoed some of the results in the earlier research and refuted some others'.

For the quantitative results, the subjects' negative attitudes toward learning English increased in the experimental group, and the participants' positive attitudes toward learning English had a correlation between the British/American culture learning and English learning motivation in the control group. Nevertheless, the qualitative outcomes interestingly evidenced positive effects between British/American culture learning and English learning motivation in EFL classrooms.

Keywords: EFL, British/American culture teaching, British/American culture learning, British/American culture perceptions, learning motivation

1. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers have proposed that language and culture are indivisible (Brown, 2000; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Masuduzzaman, 2007; Schulz, 2007; Wang, 2006), so we are unlikely to discuss the effects of language instruction without taking cultural backgrounds and knowledge into consideration.

In addition, Brown (2000) indicated that misunderstanding may occur when interlocutors are from different cultural backgrounds. In Tsai's (2002) study, it also revealed that miscommunication may take place not only because different languages are spoken but also different cultures are involved. Thus, even an advanced second language (L2) speaker may misunderstand or misconstrue the messages because of the lack of others' culture knowledge (Yo, 2007). Moreover, lots of English products such as movies, pop music, and TV/radio programs are released in Taiwan due to the prevalence of mass media, so there are more and more opportunities for people to be exposed to foreign cultures (Chuang, 2002).

Consequently, L2 learning cannot be isolated; however, as language instructors, we need to pay more attentions to look after every L2 learners, especially when there is a new language student starting to learn a L2. In other words, we have to not only put our instructional emphases on how to improve students' language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing but also instruct them in the background knowledge and culture of that language.

1.1 Research Questions

1. Do EFL college students have a significant change on the British/American culture understanding before and after the treatments?

2. Do EFL college students have a significant change on the English learning motivation before and after the treatments?

3. What are the correlations between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation?

4. What are EFL college students' perceptions toward the British/American culture learning as well as their English learning motivation?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 What is Culture?

"Culture is a way of life" (Brown, 2000, p.176), so everyone is cultivated and influenced by one's own culture. Li (1989) mentioned "culture may mean different things to different people" (p. 7) so that everyone has his/her own interpretation about the term of culture.

Brown (2000) explained that culture can be defined as ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that belong to a particular group of people in a particular period of time; as a result, it reveals how people communicate and contact others in their daily life. Chou (1997) also proposed that each group of people has its own cultural characteristics. The foundations of a culture include ancestors' wisdoms, ethical thoughts, religious beliefs, political systems, historical mythos and so forth.

Therefore, the notion of culture does not only refer to the past experiences, properties or thoughts in one's society but also comprise lots of tangible and intangible assets as well as the objects and concepts in the present period of time.

2.2 The Relationships between Language and Culture in EFL Classrooms

Thanasoulas (2008) presented that "language does not exist apart from culture" (para. 5), so learning a new language, to some extent, also refers to learning new worldviews (Klein & Cohen, n.d.).

Brown (2000) explained that culture learning is a process of learning a language and of perceiving the other's thinking, feeling and acting. Learning a L2 is also a creation of second identity and this newborn identity is a pivot in cultural learning. He further mentioned that language and culture cannot be divided into two parts because they are closely related to each other; in other words, a language is one part of a culture, and a culture is one part of a language. In light of Brown's interpretation, a L2 acquisition is also a second culture acquisition which is supported by Wang's (2006) points of view. Wang stated that foreign language learning is a kind of foreign culture learning. Thus, Masuduzzaman (2007) indicated that "language teaching is culture teaching" (para. 7).

As what have been discussed so far, language, obviously, is an important component in a culture (Chou, 1997; Jiang, 2000). Leveridge (2008) described a language as one of the branches of a culture in terms of their relationships. Language is a vehicle to deliver cultural knowledge and property generation by generation.

Besides, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) mentioned that the objectives of foreign language learning are for the purposes of academic expectation as well as for the intention of communication which are strongly agreed by many experts and scholars. However, real communication does not implement without contextual involvements, but culture is one part of the contexts; in short, communication implicates culture understanding, and the knowledge of a language can be enriched via cultural realization (Leveridge, 2008). All in all, language learning and culture learning are inseparable and important in EFL classrooms.

2.3 The Relationships between Culture and Motivation in EFL Classrooms

Dörnyei and Csizér (2005) presented that culture learning is also an important issue in L2 classrooms because one of the purposes of L2 learning is to interact with others, and the L2 skills are vehicles to contact people in a community. By learning the target culture, individual's language skills can be developed, and one's L2 learning motivation and behaviors can be shaped and upgraded as well. In addition, Wang (2006) illustrated that teachers have to deliver the knowledge of customs, thoughts, and styles of the target language in classrooms in order to raise and strengthen students' L2 learning motivation. Contrarily, learners' negative attitudes toward the target culture or the value of L2 learning may reduce their L2 learning motivation and behaviors (Oxford & Ehrman, 1993). Therefore, the relationships between culture and motivation are intricately interwoven in L2 education.

2.4 What is Motivation?

"Motivation is a complex concept" (Gardner, 2001, p. 8); similarly, Oxford and Ehrman (1993) defined that "motivation is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon that is integral to L2 success" (p.192). Dörnyei (2001) also mentioned that motivation involves one's learning desires, efforts, and attitudes. In short, one's motivation is related to goals one sets, efforts one devotes, desires one has toward objectives, and attitudes one has toward objectives (Gardner, 1985).

2.5 The Role of Motivation in EFL Classrooms

Motivation is an important determinant in L2 classrooms (Hernández, 2006), which is one of the key elements to determine one's success on L2 learning (Brown, 2000; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Learners who have higher motivation may have higher L2 achievements, no matter what their language aptitude is (Cheng & Dörnyei; Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005). As a result, Cheng and Dörnyei reported that without sufficient learning motivation, even an intelligent student may not insist on a long journey in L2 learning. On the other hand, one's deficiencies in language learning aptitude and condition can be compensated by one's high learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1998).

Considered as one of the most important elements in EFL classrooms, motivation determines one's success or failure in L2 accomplishments, since it supplies stimuli and supports during learners' long and tedious learning process (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Similarly, due to the differences of learning methods and personal traits, motivation can influence one's success or failure in L2 learning (Huang, 2007). Consequently, learning motivation plays a crucial role during students' language learning process.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Subjects

There were 58 students whose majors were Applied English in a university in Kaohsiung County, Taiwan participated in the present study. They took English Listening and Communication Skills as the required course in spring of 2009 academic year. For the control group, a total of 29 subjects including 11 males and 18 females, aged 18 to 25, participated in the present study. As for the experimental group, a total of 29 subjects including 5 males and 24 females, aged 18 to 21, took part in the current study. All of the participants have learned English for at least 7 years.

3.2 Materials

Way Ahead: A listening and speaking course written by Nicholas Sampson and issued by Macmillan Publishers in 1999 was mostly adopted as the teaching and learning material in the courses. However, for the control group, traditional teaching methods were used during the process. The British/American culture inputs were given and some extra related multimedia video clips collected from the YouTube website were utilized in the experimental group as well.

3.3 Instruments

The research instruments used in the present study included the test for EFL college students' British/American culture understanding, the questionnaire for EFL college students' English learning motivation, and the technique of the interview.

The test for EFL college students' British/American culture understanding was developed based on the adopted materials to evaluate the subjects' British/American culture understanding. Furthermore, in order for assessing EFL college students' English learning motivation, the questionnaire for EFL college students' English learning motivation, including 63 4-point Likert-scale questions and 1 open-ended question, was devised based on Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985).

Additionally, 10 interviewees were randomly selected from the two groups in the present study, which means 5 interviewees were respectively recruited from the two classes. The questions of the interview were yielded according to the adopted questionnaire and related literature.

3.4 Procedures

All the participants in both two groups were asked to complete the test for EFL college students' British/American culture understanding and the questionnaire for EFL college students' English learning motivation in the pre-test. They also received the 6-week program during the treatment phase and filled out the two documents which were the same as the instruments used in the pre-test in the post-test phase. After conducting the post test, the researcher randomly selected 10 students as the interviewees to participate in the semi-structured interviews in order to collect in-depth information. In order to gather genuine ideas and opinions, the interviewees' native language, Chinese, was implemented during the process.

3.5 Data Analysis

SPSS for windows 12.0, a well-known statistical tool, was used to compute the data to yield a set of quantitative results. In order to examine the intra-group differences before and after the treatments between the two groups, the Paired-sample t-test was conducted to analyze the data collected from the test for EFL college students' British/American culture understanding and the questionnaire for EFL college students' English learning motivation. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006), Paired-sample t-test is usually employed in the research of the same group of participants tested in a pre-test and post-test; thus, it was appropriate to apply in the research of this kind.

The Pearson Correlation was also used to analyze the relationships between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation. According to Dörnyei (2007), the purposes of correlation are to investigate the differences and relationships between variables and to measure the strength and direction of the relationships between variables. Similarly, Huang (2006) noted that when a research aims at looking into the relationships between variables, the Pearson Correlation is appropriate to be utilized.

In addition, those responses collected from the interviews were translated and analyzed by the researcher and were used to explain the quantitative results in depth.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Results of Research Question 1

Table 1.

Paired-sample t-test of British/American Culture Understanding

	Control	Experimental
t	-2.85	-8.84
df	28	28
Sig. (2-tailed)	.008*	.000*

*Note: * p < .05*

As demonstrated in Table 1, the result indicates that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups in terms of the subjects' British/American culture understanding. For the control group, the statistic shows that $p = .008 < \alpha = .05$ which means there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test. Also, the result presents that $p = .000 < \alpha = .05$ which signifies there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test in the experimental group as well.

4.2 Results of Research Question 2

Table 2.

Paired-sample t-test of English Learning Motivation

Group		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
Control	*t*	-2.845	-.343	-1.473	.947	.126	.295	.482	-1.310	.286	2.002	1.146	1.160
	df	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.471	.734	.152	.352	.901	.770	.633	.201	.777	.055	.261	.256
Experimental	*t*	.205	-.379	-2.828	1.099	-.143	-1.979	.804	-.604	-.132	.052	-.566	.000
	df	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.839	.707	.009*	.281	.887	.058	.428	.551	.896	.959	.576	1.000

*Note: * p < .05*

I. = Interest in foreign languages, II. = Positive attitudes toward learning English, III. = Negative attitudes toward learning English, IV. = Integrative orientation, V. = Instrumental orientation, VI. = English class anxiety, VII. = Parental encouragement, VIII. = Motivational intensity, IX. = Desire to learn English, X. = Instructions (English teacher evaluation), XI. = Instructions (English course evaluation), XII. = Orientation index

As shown in Table 2, the result reports that there was no statistically significant difference in the control group in terms of the subjects' English learning motivation between the pre-test and post-test.

As for the outcomes in the experimental group, no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test in terms of the subjects' English learning motivation except for the category III ($p = .009 < \alpha = .05$).

4.3 Results of Research Question 3
Table 3.
Pearson Correlation of British/American Culture Learning and English Learning Motivation in the Control Group

English Learning Motivation	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N.
I.	-.003	.863	29
II.	.376	.045*	29
III.	-.075	.701	29
IV.	.003	.987	29
V.	-.265	.164	29
VI.	-.166	.390	29
VII.	.191	.321	29
VIII.	.277	.146	29
IX.	-.034	.861	29
X.	.083	.667	29
XI.	.157	.416	29
XII.	.025	.899	29

*Note: * p < .05*

I. = Interest in foreign languages, II. = Positive attitudes toward learning English, III. = Negative attitudes toward learning English, IV. = Integrative orientation, V. = Instrumental orientation, VI. = English class anxiety, VII. = Parental encouragement, VIII. = Motivational intensity, IX. = Desire to learn English, X. = Instructions (English teacher evaluation), XI. = Instructions (English course evaluation), XII. = Orientation index

As can be seen in Table 3, it explains the relationships between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation in the control group. As shown in Table 3, the result points out that only the category II has a statistically significant difference ($p = .045 < \alpha = .05$) in terms of its correlation with the British/American culture learning among the subjects after the 6-week experiment.

Table 4.
Pearson Correlation of British/American Culture Learning and English Learning Motivation in the Experimental Group

English Learning Motivation	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N.
I.	-.110	.570	29
II.	-.239	.211	29
III.	.043	.824	29

IV.	-.093	.633	29
V.	.199	.300	29
VI.	-.202	.294	29
VII.	.000	1.000	29
VIII.	-.114	.555	29
IX.	.025	.898	29
X.	-.355	.059	29
XI.	-.273	.152	29
XII.	-.121	.533	29

*Note: * $p < .05$*

I. = Interest in foreign languages, II. = Positive attitudes toward learning English, III. = Negative attitudes toward learning English, IV. = Integrative orientation, V. = Instrumental orientation, VI. = English class anxiety, VII. = Parental encouragement, VIII. = Motivational intensity, IX. = Desire to learn English, X. = Instructions (English teacher evaluation), XI. = Instructions (English course evaluation), XII. = Orientation index

As presented in Table 4, the result demonstrates the relationships between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation in the experimental group. The result of the Pearson Correlation reveals that no statistically significant difference was found in terms of the correlations between EFL college students' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation after the 6-week program.

4.4 Results of Research Question 4

In light of the data collected from the open-ended question and interviews, the researcher found out that most of the participants had high expectations of English learning, especially for the British/English culture learning. The reasons included: (a) they have had little experience in learning the British/American culture in EFL classrooms because most instructors focused on teaching the four skills; and (b) learning native speakers' cultures was also important to them since the target culture knowledge could widen their perspectives of the target language.

Moreover, according to their responses, EFL college students' English learning motivation could be enhanced via learning the British/American culture as curiosity toward different cultures could bring about their learning interests.

5. DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Discussions of Research Question 1

According to the results collected from the control group, the researcher discovered that since the participants' majors were English, they were actively interested in English learning. They often learned English outside of the classrooms, namely in informal learning contexts such as watching English movies or listening to English songs. As mentioned earlier, lots of English products such as movies, pop music, and TV/radio programs are released in Taiwan due to the prevalence of mass media, so there are more and more opportunities for people to be exposed to foreign cultures (Chuang, 2002). Moreover, the subjects expressed that learning the British/American culture was attractive and knowing native speakers' lifestyles and cultures was important to them, so they might also learn the British/American culture knowledge in informal learning contexts.

As for the consequences gathered from the experimental group, the result proved that teaching and

learning the British/American culture could improve college students' target culture understanding. Thus, it was witnessed that the more British/American culture knowledge is taught in EFL classrooms, the more target culture knowledge students have.

5.2 Discussions of Research Question 2
The results in the Paired-sample *t*-test collected from the control and experimental groups showed that only the category III (Negative attitudes toward learning English) had a significant difference in the experimental group. The possible reason was that teaching the British/American culture in class might make students feel like compulsory learning. In order to avoid the increase of students' negative attitudes toward learning English, the encouragements of leaning the target culture in informal learning contexts are recommended since learners may feel more comfortable and enjoyable when they are doing so. From their autonomous learning, both students' target culture awareness and English learning motivation are supposed to be developed simultaneously as their learning materials can be chosen based on their preferences and interests. As a result, EFL instructors are suggested to encourage students to learn native speakers' cultures outside of classrooms, not just learning in classrooms.

5.3 Discussions of Research Question 3
The Pearson Correlation dealt with the relationships between the subjects' British/American culture learning and English learning motivation. The results displayed that a significant difference was found in the category II (Positive attitudes toward learning English) in the control group. It was thought that the participants gained the British/American culture knowledge from their self-learning, namely informal learning contexts, so the consequences revealed an increase of positive attitudes toward English learning after the 6-week instruction. Thus, it, again, certified the arguments and explanations in the previous discussions (see 5.1 and 5.2).

Although the earlier studies reported that one's language learning motivation can be shaped and upgraded via learning the target culture in EFL learning contexts (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005; Wang, 2006), the statistical results in the present study refuted their points of view. From the quantitative outcomes, most of the results did not correlate with each other in terms of the relationships between the British/American culture learning and English learning motivation. However, the qualitative results noted that students' English learning motivation could be enriched via learning the British/American culture because curiosity and interest inspired learners to explore different cultures.

After the data analysis, the quantitative and qualitative consequences formed a discrepancy between the British/American culture learning and English learning motivation. The reason is that one's English learning motivation involved complex elements (Gardner, 2001; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993); therefore, one's increase or decrease of English learning motivation could not be summarized simply based on the British/American culture learning. However, teaching and learning the British/American culture were not useless on facilitating students' English learning motivation; conversely, it has a certain effect to promote students' English learning motivation, but not the major determinant.

5.4 Discussions of Research Question 4
Various reasons were provided by the interviewees to explain their eagerness toward learning the target languages and cultures. One of the declarations was that the students wanted to make friends or communicate with native speakers and those tendencies revealed their real attitudes and interests toward learning foreign languages and cultures.

Moreover, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) noted that one of the objectives of language education is to cultivate students' communication skills with native speakers, so real communication can be carried out via the British/American culture learning. It is because communication implicates culture understanding, and the knowledge of a language can be enriched through cultural realization (Leveridge, 2008). More importantly, most of the interviewees mentioned that learning native speakers' lifestyles or cultures was important since some problems of miscommunication and misunderstanding could be avoided if a L2 speaker had adequate target culture knowledge. Such result echoed Brown (2000) and Tsai's (2002) findings; thus, it was evidenced that the target culture learning is important in EFL classrooms.

Although the positive effects and correlations were rare in terms of the British/American culture

learning and English learning motivation in the quantitative results, the qualitative consequences overthrew those consequences. Based on the responses collected from the interviews, most of the interviewees declared that it was interesting to learn the British/American culture which might stir up their English learning motivation because curiosity toward different cultures encouraged them to learn.

6. CONCLUSION

As mentioned by many researchers, the notion of language learning motivation is complex (Gardner, 2001; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993), so it is hard to motivate students merely based on an interesting learning topic. Learning the British/American culture does enhance EFL college students' English learning motivation; however, it is suggested to be learned via learners' self-learning. Through their autonomous learning, students have the rights to select attractive topics according to their own opinions or interests, and they can learn with less-pressure which is more helpful to develop their English learning motivation. One of the reasons is that everyone is educated by varied ways and grows up from various backgrounds (Brown, 2000), so learning methods and personal traits are different (Huang, 2007). As an English instructor, he/she is recommended to inspire students to learn the British/American culture knowledge in informal learning contexts since it is very hard to meet everyone's requirements for having an adequate learning topic and material in classrooms.

To sum up, the British/American culture teaching and learning cannot be ignored in EFL classrooms because individual's language competence can be developed and L2 learning motivation can be upgraded spontaneously and simultaneously through learning the target culture (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005).

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Effects of Achievement and Gender on Students' Foreign Language Anxiety

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Abstract

This study set out to investigate the effects of achievement and gender on junior high school students' foreign language anxiety. A modified "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale" questionnaire and an interview were employed, sampling 372 participants.

The major findings were as follows:

1. Low-achievers felt the most anxious and high-achievers the least.
2. Female students were more afraid of negative evaluation.
3. Various factors inducing anxiety and strategies for overcome them were found.

Key words: foreign language anxiety, English achievement, gender

Introduction

Since English is an inevitable communicative medium in modern society, people in Taiwan perceive English as an important and necessary tool in several aspects, including academic research, trading, traveling, and carrier promotion (Lin, 2005). Therefore, English proficiency is highly emphasized for students in Taiwan.

Of the factors that influence the success of English learning, affective factors, including self-esteem, motivation, learning style, and anxiety need to be considered (Brown, 2001; Oxford, 1990). Anxiety is related to painful preoccupations and concerns about obstructing events (Sarason, 1984). According to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982), the "affective filter" is an obstacle that influences learners' language acquisition. When the "affective filter" is reduced, learners cannot only lower their foreign language anxiety but also receive more input and have better language acquisition. When it comes to foreign language learning, learners may feel anxious in a communicative context. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) suggested that communicative competence may be the most threatening aspect of foreign language learning, and may pose great difficulties for the anxious student. They also classified foreign language anxiety into three perspectives, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

Communication apprehension has been described as an individual level of fear or anxiety associated with oral communication with others (McCroskey, 1984). Horwitz et al. (1986) also indicated that the first component of foreign language anxiety was communication apprehension. They thought it was a type of shyness, fear and anxiety abouto communicating with people. However, communication apprehension plays an important role in their conceptualization of foreign language anxiety because of its emphasis on interpersonal interactions. In a foreign language classroom, the abilities of listening and speaking are required, but anxious learners are unwilling to communicate with others and lack social interaction. Due to lack of oral communication, communication apprehension intensifies. Students who feel anxious about communication rarely communicate with others. With much avoidance, communication apprehension becomes an impediment to students mastery of a foreign language. This vicious cycle indicates that students with communication apprehension probably continue to be apprehensive (Daly, 1991; McCroskey, 1984).

In addition, test anxiety is another component of the foreign language anxiety. It could be part of social anxiety, particularly in an evaluative situation. Sarason (1984) defined text anxiety as "the tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation"

(p. 214). Young (1992) contended that test anxiety seemed to more likely to affect foreign language learners with low levels of oral proficiency than those with high levels of proficiency. That was to say, language learners may experience more anxiety in a highly evaluative situation, because of lack of proficiency.

Horwitz et al. (1986) considered test anxiety as a type of performance anxiety stemming from fear of failure. Test-anxious students often put unrealistic demands on themselves and regarde imperfect test performance as failure, and sometimes even the brightest and most prepared students make mistakes on tests. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) indicated that oral tests were complicated in a foreign language context because they may cause test anxiety and communication apprehension. Therefore, it was not easy for instructors to differentiate whether a student had test anxiety or communication apprehension or both.

The other component related to foreign language anxiety is fear of negative evaluation. Language learners may have a fear of others' evaluation, become distressed over their negative evaluation, and tried to avoid evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate themselves negatively (Watson and Friend, 1969. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), fear of negative evaluation is broader in scope because it is not restricted to test-taking situations, although it is similar to test anxiety. However, it may happen in any social, evaluative situation such as interviewing for a job or speaking in a foreign language class more than test-taking situation. In addition, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) proposed that fear of negative evaluation is closely related to communication apprehension. The reason is that fear of negative evaluation may cause communication apprehension. Students may be unsure of themselves and what they were saying. Therefore, when fear of negative evaluation occurs, they fail to produce a proper expression.

In a foreign language context, students perceive negative evaluations mainly from both their teacher and peers. The negative evaluation that students feared most was the real or imagined ridicule of their peers (Horwitz et al., 1986). Aida (1994) pointed out that students with fear of negative evaluation may sit passively in the classroom, withdrawing from classroom activities that could help them to improve their language skills. Sometimes they would think of cutting class to avoid anxiety situations, causing them to be left behind. There is no doubt that the effects of fear of negative evaluation on foreign language learning are very clear.

In terms of practical research on language anxiety, a growing importance has been placed on research in anxiety related to foreign language achievement in the last few decades (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, et al., 1986; Phillips, 1992). A number of research projects have examined foreign language anxiety in relation to foreign language achievement and showed a negative correlation (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, et al., 1986; Phillips, 1992). However, some researches had different findings in gender and foreign language anxiety (Aida, 1994; Abu-Rabia, 2004). The research results of gender differences are still in controversy.

When it comes to the relation of foreign language anxiety and foreign language achievement in Taiwan, a number of studies have also been done at several levels, such as in elementary school (Wu, 2002), senior high school (Ying, 1993), vocational senior high school (Lin, 2005), and college (Cheng, 2005). Among these studies, a negative correlation related to achievement was found in foreign language anxiety. However, there has been insufficient research on foreign language anxiety of junior high school students.

As a result, it is worth examining the relationship between English achievement, gender, and foreign language anxiety in the context of junior high schools in Taiwan to see whether foreign language anxiety is different when students are at different levels of English achievement with different genders. To be specific, the main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of English achievement and gender on foreign language anxiety of junior high school students, and it aimed to find out answers to the following questions:

1. Do students' English achievement and gender difference affect foreign language anxiety level in communication apprehension?
2. Do students' English achievement and gender difference affect foreign language anxiety level in test anxiety?
3. Do students' English achievement and gender difference affect foreign language anxiety level in fear of negative evaluation?
4. Do male and female students have any ideas about the reasons why they feel anxious in language classrooms in terms of communication apprehension, test and fear of negative evaluation?
5. How do male and female students deal with foreign language anxiety in terms of communication apprehension, test and fear of negative evaluation?

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were sophomore students (eighth grade) in junior high schools. Six schools were randomly selected from six administrative areas in Tainan city where English has been designated as a regular subject in the 2nd grade. Two classes were selected from each school, respectively. Three hundred and seventy-two participants, including 218 males and 154 females enrolled in this study.

According to the students' semester grades, the English achievement could be divided into three categories: high-achiever, intermediate-achiever, and low-achiever. Students whose grades ranged above 33.3% of the participants in that grade were the high-achievers. Students whose grades of English achievement ranged between 33.4% and 66.6% of the participants in that grade were the intermediate-achievers, and the rest (under 66.7%) were the low-achievers.

Instruments

(a) a Modified Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The FLCAS (See Appendix A) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was designed to assess the degree to which students felt anxious during foreign language classroom instruction. The FLCAS was divided into three parts: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. The scale demonstrated the internal reliability achieving an alpha coefficient .93. Its test-retest reliability yielded an r = .83(p＜.001) (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1991). In this study, some parts of the sentences were modified so that the participants could understand better. A pilot study was implemented and the internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's α of the questionnaire was .88. In the formal study, the Cronbach's α of the questionnaire was .94 for internal consistency reliability which showed high reliability in this study.

(b) Interviews

Based on the different levels of achievement and genders, 36 participants from the six groups were involved in the interview to answer questions derived from FLCAS (See Appendix B). In each school, six participants, including 3 males and 3 females, were chosen and they were high-achievers, intermediate-achievers, and low-achievers, respectively.

Results & Discussion

Communication Apprehension

To evaluate the extent to which English achievement and gender would affect foreign language anxiety level in communication apprehension, two-way ANOVA was employed. Table 1 showed that there was no significant interaction effect between achievement and gender (p = .738), nor was the main effect on gender (p = .060). However, the main effect was found significantly different on achievement (p = .000). Table 2, the result of Scheffe's post hoc test, indicates that the low-achiever

group was the most anxious.

Table 1

Two-way ANOVA Results for Communication Apprehension

Source	df	MS	F	p
Achievement	2	10.514	20.852	.000*
Gender	1	1.792	3.553	.060
Gender*Achievement	2	.160	.318	.738
Error	349	.504		

*Note. *p<.05

Table 2

The Results of Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Achievement in Communication Apprehension

	High achievers		Intermediate achievers		Low achievers	
	I-J	p	I-J	p	I-J	p
Low achievers	.63	.00*	.40	.00*	—	—
Intermediate achievers	.23	.03*	—	—	-.40	.00*
High achievers	—	—	-.23	.03*	-.63	.00*

Note. Low achievers > Intermediate achievers > High achievers.

*p <. 05

On the other hand, the main effect was found to be significant for differences in students' English achievement. The low-achiever group felt more anxious in terms of communication apprehension than the intermediate-achiever group or the high-achiever group. These findings are consistent with the results reported by Wu (2002) and Horwitz (1991), whose studies showed significant negative correlations between English learning achievement and foreign language anxiety. In the present study, a possible reason that low achievers were the most anxious in terms of communication apprehension may have been their lack of speaking and listening ability. A lack of social interaction ability and unwillingness to communicative with others may impede students in learning English. Students may discourage themselves or avoid communicating with others. What's more, the intermediate-achiever group was more anxious than the high-achiever group. A possible explanation is that the intermediate-achiever group was worse than the high-achiever group at speaking and listening and therefore the lower achievement students had higher anxiety. The low-achiever group was the most anxious group in terms of communication apprehension.

Test Anxiety

The results of the two-way ANOVA on text anxiety for gender and achievement are presented in Table 3, indicating there was no significant interaction effect (p = .663) and no main effect on gender (p = .410). The only significant main effect was found on achievement (p = .000). Also, based on the Scheffe's post hoc test in Table 4, the low-achiever group was the most anxious in test anxiety.

Table 3

Two-way ANOVA Results for Test Anxiety

Source	df	MS	F	p
Achievement	2	17.001	40.027	.000*
Gender	1	.290	.682	.410
Gender*Achievement	2	.175	.412	.663
Error	349	.425		

Table 4

The Results of Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Achievement in Test Anxiety

	High achievers		Intermediate achievers		Low achievers	
	I-J	p	I-J	p	I-J	p
Low achievers	.81	.00*	.46	.00*	—	—
Intermediate achievers	.34	.00*	—	—	-.46	.00*
High achievers	—	—	-.34	.03*	-.81	.00*

Note. Low achievers > Intermediate achievers > High achievers.

*p <. 05

Gender was not found to be a significant factor in test anxiety. It is likely that students in junior high school may be used to tests and examinations and both male and female students may be equally anxious about tests; therefore, a gender difference was not found to affect test anxiety.

On the other hand, the low-achiever group felt more anxious in terms of test anxiety than the intermediate-achiever group and the high-achiever group. These findings seemed to contradict the study by Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (1999), who found that high academic achievers tended to have higher levels of foreign language anxiety than low achievers. They explained that many high academic achievers were able to attain high levels of performance in foreign language classes, while they still experienced high levels of foreign language anxiety. However, these were different to the findings in the present study with the low-achiever group being more anxious than the intermediate-achiever group and the high-achiever group. The intermediate-achiever group was more anxious than

high-achiever group as well. It is likely that low achievers may not employ high-level of learning strategies for the tests which teachers usually give to evaluate students' performance in Taiwan. Therefore, they may become more and more anxious and stressed if they cannot perform well in tests. From time to time, they will lack confidence in learning English. Over a long period of time, students' motivation may decrease in learning English. Thus, they may become poor language learners because of test anxiety.

Fear of negative evaluation

As illustrated in Table 5, the results of the two-way ANOVA on fear of negative evaluation for gender and achievement displayed that the *P* value of the interaction effect between achievement and gender did not reach a significant level ($p = .343$) whereas significant differences were found in the main effects on the factors of achievement ($p = .000$) and gender ($p = .017$) regarding fear of negative evaluation. The results of Scheffe's post hoc test are presented in Table 6, showing the low-achiever group was more anxious than the intermediate-achiever group and the high-achiever group. Also, the intermediate-achiever group was more anxious than high-achiever group in terms of fear of negative evaluation.

Table 5

Two-way ANOVA Results for Fear of Negative Evaluation

Source	df	MS	F	p
Achievement	2	11.221	19.023	.000*
Gender	1	3.397	5.759	.017*
Gender*Achievement	2	.633	1.073	.343
Error	349	.590		

Table 6

The Results of Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Achievement in Fear of Negative Evaluation

	High achievers		Intermediate achievers		Low achievers	
	I-J	p	I-J	p	I-J	p
Low achievers	.66	.00*	.40	.00*	—	—
Intermediate achievers	.26	.00*	—	—	-.40	.00*

seemed to have a fear of negative evaluation in public in Taiwanese society. In light of the similar results to Huang's study, there are two possible reasons for the findings in the present study. One is that female students are more anxious than male students in terms of communication apprehension and test anxiety; thus, female students may be afraid of receiving a bad evaluation from their teachers and classmates. The other possibility is that female students are still in their adolescence and feel shy in class. They may feel sensitive to others' opinions, especially those of their peers. Therefore, a significant difference was found, with female students feeling more anxious than male students.

In addition, the low-achiever group felt more anxious in terms of fear of negative evaluation than the intermediate-achiever group and the high-achiever group. These findings are in line with Lin's (2005) study. Lin indicated that students with high language anxiety tended to earn low final grades

while those with low language anxiety tended to get high grades. These were similar findings in the present study, with the low-achiever group more anxious than the intermediate-achiever group and the high-achiever group. The intermediate-achiever group was more anxious than the high-achiever group as well. It is likely that students who are lower achievers may be afraid of making mistakes in class and having their errors corrected by their teachers. They also may be afraid of being laughed at by their classmates or receiving negative evaluation from their teachers. They may dread losing face in front of others; consequently, the lower achievement students are likely to have higher anxiety in terms of fear of negative evaluation.

Reasons of feeling anxious

A major source of anxiety for students in communication was speaking to native speakers. Students experienced test anxiety because of incomplete preparation for tests. Moreover, students would feel anxious about the possibility of negative evaluation when they were communicating with classmates and teachers in class (See Appendix C).

In terms of communication apprehension, high proportions of both male and female students reported that speaking to foreigners was the situation which made them feel the most anxious. This may be due to the fact that students seldom or ever have a chance to speak to foreigners in their daily life. All students in junior high school are taught by Chinese teachers. They were only used to speaking English to their teachers or classmates in class. Once they had chance to talk with foreigners, they were likely to feel more anxious than when talking to their teachers or classmates. They may be afraid of making mistakes when communicating. If students could have more opportunities to communicate with foreigners, their anxiety may decrease.

As for the test anxiety, both male and female students responded that the major cause of this was not being well prepared for tests. A possible reason was that students in junior high school need to take tests for different subjects from time to time. They would be too busy to prepare several tests in a day. They may not have enough time to prepare for English tests; therefore, they might feel anxious when taking tests.

On the other hand, in terms of fear of negative evaluation, speaking or having conversations with teachers or classmates in class were reported as the most common source of this by male and female students. The tendency for the personalities of students in Taiwan is to be shy and conservative, and so they may be afraid of losing face when making mistakes in speaking English in public. Thus, it was likely that having conversations with teachers or classmates in class may cause their anxiety through fear of negative evaluation. In addition, more male students (33.3%) reported that they did not feel fear of negative evaluation than female students (27.7%). This is consistent with the findings from the quantitative data in Research Question Three in which there was a significant difference between male and female students. Female students were more afraid of negative evaluation than males.

Strategies for dealing with anxiety

According to the interview results (See Appendix C), students would keep calm and speak out their answers when they felt anxious in communication. When students felt anxious during tests, they would skip questions they did not know. Students would also ignore the laughing when they perceived negative evaluation from others (See Appendix C).

Firstly, both male and female students would keep calm and try to speak out answers to deal with their communication apprehension. This matches Daly's (1991) findings that providing adequate opportunities for communication for learners could reduce their apprehension in communicating. It was helpful for students to encourage themselves to have communication with others. As time passed, they could overcome their anxiety by talking in English frequently. Also, these students showed more self-confidence than those who asked for help from their classmates and teachers.

More self-confidence may not only facilitate students' learning but also reduce their anxiety. Once students have more confidence, their "affective filter" may be lowered. When the "affective filter" is reduced, learners not only feel less foreign language anxiety but also receive more comprehensible input and have better language acquisition (Krashen, 1982). Students may become more motivated by increasing their self-confidence. In this way, they become better language learners.

On the other hand, to deal with test anxiety, both male and female students reported that they would skip the questions they did not understand first. After that, they finished those questions if there was still time later. In previous studies, researchers indicated that students with test anxiety often experienced cognitive interference (Sarason, 1984) and had a difficult time focusing on the task at hand (Aida, 1994). By using the strategy that students reported most in this study, they could decrease their anxiety. They would gain confidence by answering all the questions they understood first. Then, for those questions they did not know, they may have time to think, or they could look for some clues from the context. They may even take a guess at the questions they did not understand. By doing this, students may not only save time but also become more efficient when taking tests.

Besides that, the strategy which both male and female students used the most with regard to fear of negative evaluation was ignoring the laughter of others. By doing this, they could concentrate more on speaking English. They may also gain more self-confidence in speaking by ignoring others' ridicule. Some students said they would study harder after they had been laughed at by classmates. Although most students reported that they would ignore other's laughing, they still had feelings of fear of negative evaluation. The results of Research Question Three showed that both male ($M =$ 2.85) and female ($M = 3.04$) students received higher mean values in terms of fear of negative evaluation. Therefore, it is important for teachers to teach their students some strategies to cope with the negative feelings from others' ridicule. More female students (27.7%) than male students (22.2%) feared negative evaluation. This finding was in accord with the results of Research Question Three in the present study. Female students were more anxious than male students in terms of fear of negative evaluation.

Conclusions

Summary

The factor of achievement was found to have a significant influence on foreign language anxiety, including communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. As for gender difference, it was only significant with regard to fear of negative evaluation. Overall, low achievers felt more anxious than intermediate achievers and high achievers, and the intermediate achievers were more anxious than the high achievers.

Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the findings derived from the present study, some pedagogical implications are offered.

First of all, in the present study, a significant effect was found for differences in students' English achievement; therefore, providing a non-threatening learning environment for students can help to reduce their language learning anxiety. Since students regard speaking to foreigners as a source of anxiety in communication, it may be helpful to reduce students' anxiety by providing authentic English villages in schools. Schools can hire native-speaking foreign teachers to teach students once a week. Alternatively, schools can hold summer camps and invite foreign teachers to teach students. By offering various English activities from foreign teachers, students can become completely immersed in an authentic English learning environment. Students can also learn about cultural differences when they enjoy classroom activities. Having more opportunities to contact foreigners may decrease students' anxiety to a certain extent. When students meet foreigners, they have more chance to practice their English. What is more, schools can also set up a day as an "English Day" once a week. Students would need to speak English all day wherever they go and whoever they meet. For example, students would have to speak English to clerks when they go to the bookstore on campus. Students would need to greet each other speaking English. With more practice in English,

students could lower their anxiety as well.

Secondly, due to the fact that students with different English achievement levels have different levels of anxiety, teachers can use cooperative learning to facilitate students' English learning in class. Cooperative learning is beneficial in learning a foreign language because it can provide opportunities for increasing language production and allow students to negotiate meaning with peers in a low anxiety environment (Bailey, Daley, & Onwuegbuzie, 1999). Teachers can use heterogeneous groupings combining high, intermediate and low achievers into the same group. By doing this, students who are lower achievers can receive assistance from students who are higher achievers and vice versa. Students can work together to accomplish tasks assigned by their teacher. In the process of their cooperation, they have opportunities for naturalistic language acquisition through the use of interactive group activities. Also, students working in a group can have positive interdependence and individual accountability to achieve a common goal. This will not only enhance their motivation but also create a positive affective classroom climate. Students may devote themselves more to the English context rather than be distracted by anxieties or fears.

Finally, since a main effect was found for significant differences in gender, in that female students felt more anxious than male students in terms of fear of negative evaluation, it is important for teachers to reduce female students' feelings of receiving negative evaluation and to provide a psychologically secure environment in English class. From the viewpoint of sociolinguistics, females tend to be polite, quiet and passive in the processes of socialization (Meunier, 1994). Female students may also be more conservative and timid than male students when learning English (Huang, 2005). Therefore, teachers can give more compliments to increase self-confidence when female students perform well in an English class. In addition, teachers can facilitate students' learning by dividing male and female students into different groups since students regard having communication with those students who are opposite gender as a source of anxiety in communication. Through working with the same gender students in groups, female students may encourage themselves to participate more in class activities and speak English more in class. By doing this, their anxiety about fear of negative evaluation will decrease. Moreover, it may be helpful if teachers can help female students recognize their fears and symptoms in terms of fear of negative evaluation. Teachers can discuss and share experiences about foreign language anxiety with students. Through such discussions, students can understand how to treat each other when they experience anxiety in learning English. By doing this, they may be less likely to panic when they experience anxiety-provoking situations.

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Appendix A

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Directions: This scale contains items that may reflect your feelings about your English class. Please read each item and indicate whether you are (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neutral, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree.

Strong Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in languages class.

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready correct every mistake I make.

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.

22. I don't fell pressure to prepare very well for language class.

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

28. When I am on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Appendix B

Interview Questions

1. In what situation will you feel the most anxious toward communication apprehension?
2. In what situation will you feel the most anxious toward test anxiety?
3. In what situation will you feel the most anxious toward fear of negative evaluation?
4. If you need to speak or answer questions in English, but you feel anxious in the class, what will you do?
5. If you are taking tests but you don't understand some of questions and feel anxious, what will you do?
6. If other students laugh at you when you speak English in the class, what will you do?

Appendix C

Result from the Interview Questions

Responses from the Interview Question One

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Speaking to foreigners	61.1%	66.6%
Speaking to teachers	5.5%	11.1%
Speaking in public	5.5%	11.1%
Have difficulties in speaking or cannot comprehend others' speaking	22.2%	11.1%
Do not feel anxious	5.5%	0%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Responses from the Interview Question Two

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Taking formal tests, such as Basic Competence Test, or GEPT	16.6%	11.1%
Taking tests in school	16.6%	5.5%
Not being well prepared for tests	55.5%	44.4%
Facing specific questions such as listening or reading comprehension or grammar questions	5.5%	16.6%
Do not feel anxious	5.5%	22.2%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Responses from the Interview Question Three

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Speaking or having conversation with teachers or classmates in class	55.5%	44.4%
Regarding others as better than I	11.1%	5.5%
Speaking to foreigners	0%	22.2%
Do not feel anxious	33.3%	27.7%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Responses from the Interview Question Four

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Ask for help from teachers	22.2%	5.5%
Ask for help from classmates	33.3%	38.8%
Keep calm and try to speak out answers	44.4%	50%
Keep silent	0%	5.5%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Responses from the Interview Question Five

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Skip questions first, then finish them if time available	72.2%	33.3%
Find clues from context	11.1%	22.2%
Take a guess	11.1%	16.6%
Leave the question blank	5.5%	22.2%
Do not feel anxious	0%	5.5%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Responses from the Interview Question Six

	Male (*n* =18)	Female (*n* =18)
Ignore the laughing by others	77.7%	72.2%
Study harder after being laughed at by others	22.2%	27.7%

Note. The percentage has been rounded to the nearest whole number. Consequently, sum of the total percentages may be slightly below or above 100%.

Gender Differences affected by SSS and SSR in Extensive Reading

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Abstract

Extensive reading (ER) has been rapidly gaining popularity in Japan for the last decade, as ER is the most effective way to motivate learners to read and improve their reading fluency. It is said that the effectiveness of ER applies to learners of all ages and levels. However, there exist an abundance of studies that claim that female students read better than male students. This study examined the differences of reading performance and improvement in reading proficiency through ER between male and female students in an EFL context in Japan. A total of 120 university EFL students from two groups participated in extensive reading (ER) for one academic year: Group A: 72 freshmen (M = 53, F = 19), Group B: 48 sophomores (M = 48, F = 20). Students from Group A were provided with 15-20 minutes of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) in class and also required to read outside of the classroom. Students from Group B had no SSR, and required to read only outside of the classroom. Both gro

 ups of students were instructed to start reading with simple stories (SSS) using easy materials and gradually increase the level of books. After 10 months of the ER program, a great gap was observed between the two groups in regard to the amount of their reading and the improvement of English proficiency. When analyzed and compared the data between male and female students in each group, the results showed that the female students read more than the male students in both groups. The reading proficiency of the both male and female students in Group A (AM, AF) and female students in Group B (BF) showed a significant improvement in the post Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading (EPER) test, whereas the male students in Group B (BM) showed statistically insignificant gains. This difference was mainly due to the different levels of books they read and their reading attitudes. The BM students, who chose more difficult books than students from the other three groups, showed the l

 east gain in the post test, whereas the AF students, who read the biggest number of easy books, scored the highest gain. With some SSS and SSR, BM students might have improved their reading proficiency and attitudes toward reading. (375 words)

keywords: Extensive Reading, gender, motivation, SSS, SSR

Parsit_ESL: An automatic Machine Translation Approach for Motivating Reading Skill

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Abstract

In this paper, we develop a framework for accumulating student's confidence to learn English. We apply a machine translation which provides Thai translated output for students. Students have to verify English from the system and change the results into correct Thai. Based on this repetition, the system helps them to increase their confidence in reading. This will lead to the motivation on acquiring knowledge from various sources in English. We implemented this framework with a high school, Thammasart Klongluang Wittayakom School.

1 Introduction

English is recognized as an important language for communication in cross culture. Based on the statistics of ETS TOEFL score [2], the average of paper-based test score for Thai is 500. It is inadequate for studying in English program curricula, which requires score at least 550.

Thais are proficient in technologies such as electronic applications and, biological products. However, English language skills for Thai are deficient. This poses difficulty in knowledge sharing of specific resources with other countries [9]. IT valley in Maehongson province project that emerged under Thai government aimed to develop an IT community in rural area. While IT skills can be improved, it is difficult to apply the same approach to improve English language skills. This obstructs IT workers to acquire more knowledge and apply it in advance level.

After we surveyed the behavior of students in a high school by interviewing teachers, we classify students to three groups: talented, normal, and weak group. Considering the normal group, most students are lack of confidence to study English. When we assign documents for reading, students tend to be frightened, panic and finally de-motivated in learning English. There are a lot of reasons, such as lack of vocabularies, syntax and semantics gap between languages, lacking of experienced Thai teachers and so on. Based on the lack of vocabularies, we did an experiment on applying dictionary into e-learning system [4], we found that system helps them to learn English more easily and faster.

In this paper, we aimed to increase student's motivation on reading English by applying English to Thai automatic machine translation, called ParSit, into reading step. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 states background of our work and scenario of student's process. Section 3 illustrates our Parsit. Section 4 explains the system architecture. Finally we summarize the conclusion and future work in section 5.

2 Background

Motivation is the most important issue for improving language skill in Thailand. In Thai education system, students in public school start to learn English from grade 5. After we did a preliminary test on reading English in grade 9, we found that over 80% of students do not have a good skill on reading. We interviewed some students and found that they do not have a confidence on reading English. Self-regulation is an important skill which has been researched for a long period [10]. Self-regulated learners are cognizant of their academic strengths and weaknesses, and they have a repertoire of strategies they appropriately apply to tackle the day-to-day challenges of academic tasks. These learners hold incremental beliefs about intelligence and attribute their successes or
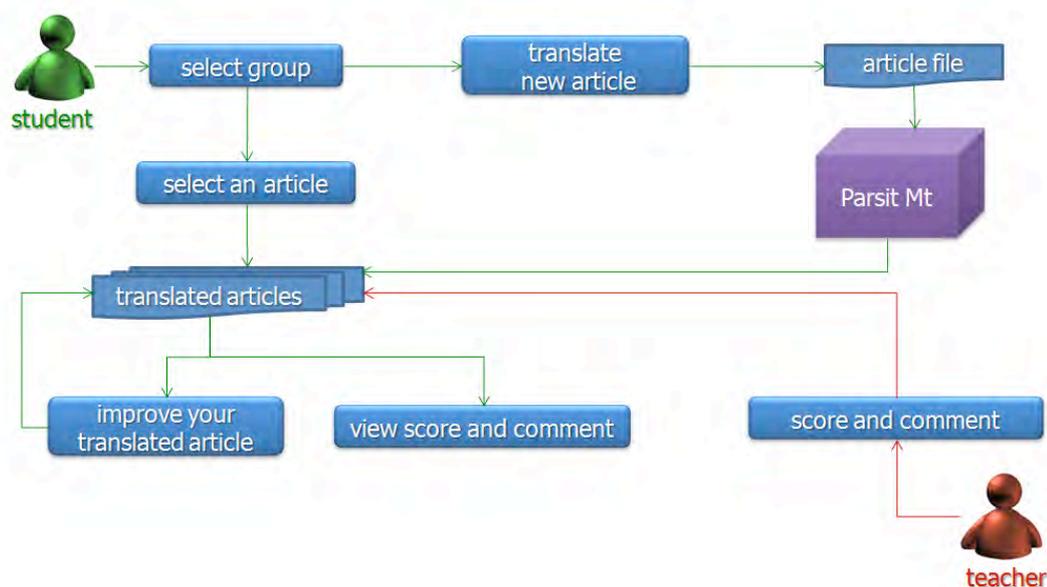
Figure 1. Self-regulation process for increasing language learning motivation

failures to factors (e.g., effort expended on a task, effective use of strategies) within their control [1]. Finally, students who are self-regulated learners believe that opportunities to take on challenging tasks, practice their learning, develop a deep understanding of subject matter, and exert effort will give rise to academic success [5]. It enables learners to acquire cognitive skill; moreover it is suitable for un-confidence students [6]. Our assumption is that if students get the results from machine translation, it will help them to roughly understand the content. Since the machine translation can not translate perfectly, we add correction process by assigning them to correct the Thai output. The repetition of this process will enable them to increase their motivation. As shown in figure 1, it illustrates the learning process. Students start from selecting group, article and then translating articles by using machine translation. After that, students will be assigned to correct the results from machine translation and submit to teacher. Teacher will comment and give a score to students and the process will finish.

3 An overview of automatic machine translation

Parsit [8] is English to Thai rule-based machine translation system (MT system). It composes of five main modules: English morphological analysis, English syntactic analysis, English semantics analysis, Thai semantics generation, and Thai syntactic generation. When Parsit receives a sentence, it will be sent to morphological module to stem and retrieve lexicon information. Next, English syntactic analysis, together with semantic analysis will be processed in order to construct an Interlingua representation. Word ambiguity will be resolved in semantic level. Thai semantics generation and syntactic analysis will finally be processed to generate an appropriate Thai sentence. Ordering will be treated in the syntactic generation level. The result of Parsit evaluation by applying BLEU score method is 0.0260 [3]. Parsit is now available at http://www.suparsit.com with more than 1,500 IP users per day.

3.1 Translation Memory

Automatic machine translation cannot fulfill the needs of users because of the unsatisfied accuracy. It is necessary to provide a tool for users to edit their own results. Translation memory (TM) is an environment for assisting translation by allowing the reuse of previously translated phrases and terms. We combine translation memory to Parsit which enables each user to keep his selected translation. Normally, translation memory database have to be prepared in order to collect sentence pair and update time for tracing the time sequence. Since our system has been designed for supporting cooperative work, we collect additional information, such as sentence owner, sentence original user.

3.2 Process in cooperative work environment
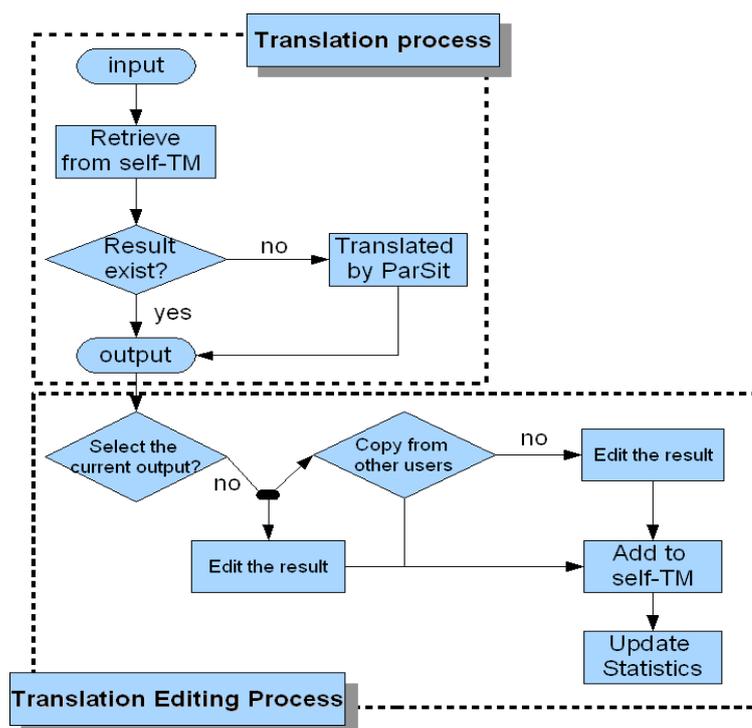
Figure 2. Process on cooperative translation work environment

Figure 2 shows two main processes in this system, translation process and translation editing process.

Translation process: When a user starts sending any sentences, it will be checked whether the sentence is previously translated or not by referring to individual TM database. If the sentence exists in TM database, the translation results will be directly retrieved as an output. Otherwise, Parsit will be applied for automatic translation and return it as an output.

Translation Editing Process: After a user receives the translation result, it is possible to customize based on his/her own desire. If the user is satisfied with the result, the process will be stopped. If a user does not satisfied with the results, it is possible to edit the translation result. However, we cannot guarantee the automatic result because of the uncertainty of input. There are some cases that difficult to get a good reference from machine translation. Our system provides a collaborating environment for applying other translation results within a community. Based on the collaborative tool, it is possible for user to edit the results from others by using a good reference.
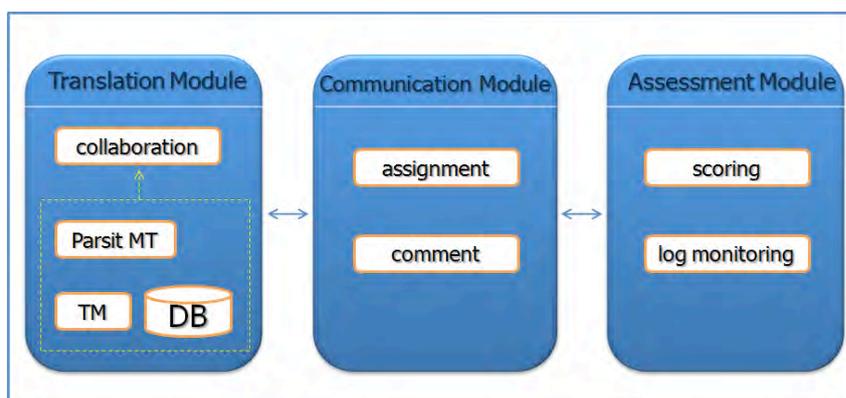
Figure 3. The overview of system in TUKL project.

The information in detail can be reached at [7]. After students apply machine translation and edit the results, teachers and teaching assistants will access in the cooperative environment to correct the output. Students acquire the correct output from teacher and learn the difference understanding between student and teacher. Moreover, it is possible to share knowledge among students based on each own translating documents.

4 TKL School Language assisted learning Project

We implement this framework with Thammasart Klongluang Wittayakom School under TKL Project. The main objective of this project is to motivate students learn how to apply technology to improve reading English skill, at the same time, increase their confidence on reading by assigning them to correct any mistakes from machine translation. Figure 3 shows the overview of the system. There are three main modules; translation module for automatic translation, communication module for teacher who want to communicate with students. Teachers can give assignment or comment to them, and assessment module for giving score and monitoring students' activity.

Figure 4 shows the snapshot of students' activity. Students are assigned to input English documents and then translate by using machine translation. After that, they have to correct the translated results.
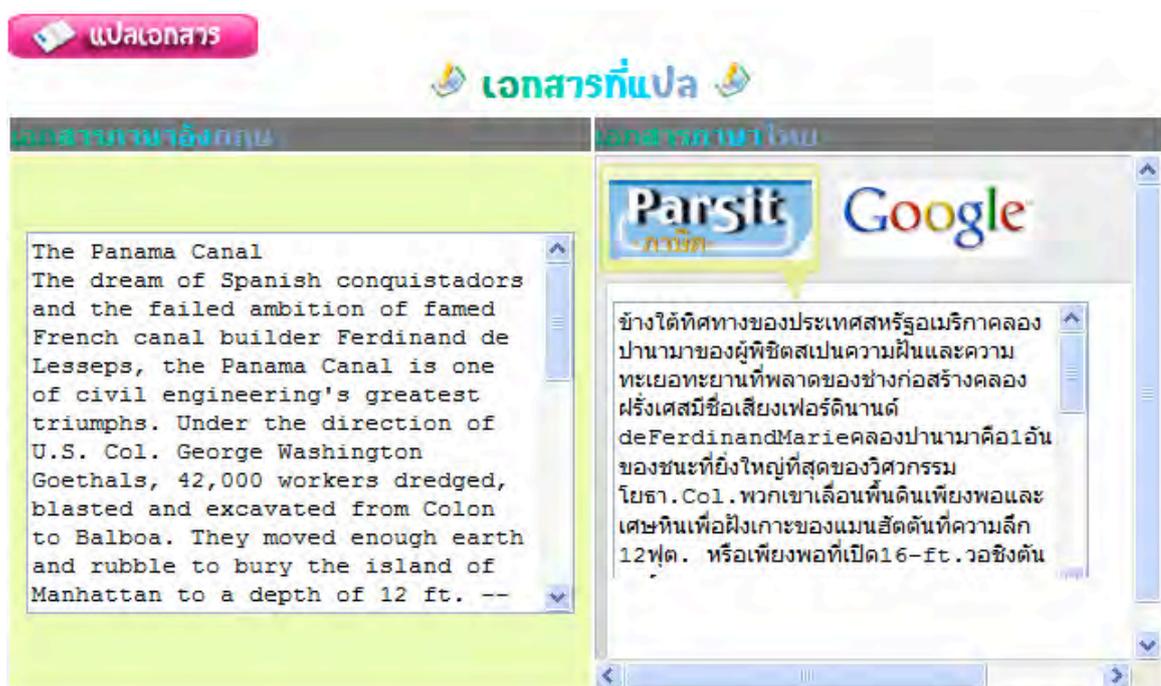
Figure 4. The snapshot on example of student activity : translation activity

Figure 5 shows the snapshot of teachers' activity. Teacher is required to give a score and comment to each student. Currently, there are seven groups who join this project. Each group has three members. Four reading documents are assigned into each group individually. Figure 6 illustrates the top ten activity score of student.

5. Conclusion and Future work

We implemented the web based machine translation for helping students to increase their confidence in learning English. This framework is a joint collaboration with Thammasart Klongluang Wittayakom School under TKL Project. It helped to motivate students learn improve reading English skill, at the same time, increase their confidence on reading by assigning them to edit any mistakes from machine translation. Students and teachers can communicate through web board, intranet mail. Teachers can view the translating results and monitor student's attendance. We found that students are interested in this system, and enjoy working on assignment from teachers. In the future, we plan to develop a systematic evaluation process for detecting the motivation for learning English and measure qualitative reading English skill. Moreover, we plan to add more features, such as a Thai to English machine translation, dictionary, and parser.

Figure 5. The snapshot on example of teacher activity: grading and comment activity

Figure 6. Top 10 Activity Score

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Use of Think-Aloud Protocol in Investigating the Dictionary Use Process

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Abstract

A study was conducted with 107 translation students in Hong Kong in 2007 to portray their dictionary use profile for Chinese to English translation. One of the triangulation methods used was the think-aloud protocol. The use of the think-aloud protocol can contribute to the teaching and learning of dictionary skills in relation to translation or language training, and to the research on dictionary use for specific purposes in terms of the language(s) concerned.

1.   Introduction

The dictionary is regarded as a tool that everyone uses since childhood. Its use is supposed to be familiar to all, the process of its use commonly understood. Its skills are so elementary that, in many people's mind, the training of them only belongs in the primary education curriculum. It is not worth occupying any place in the secondary school curriculum, let alone the tertiary. This concept is widely held until the present. However, if asked to explain the use process in detail, even language teachers may not be able to answer satisfactorily.

The dictionary use process is actually very complex, involving different levels of physical and mental operations, which also vary depending on the kinds of dictionary, and the purpose of its use. Many studies reach the same conclusion that a very low percentage of tertiary students were instructed to use the dictionary, no matter in which language under study; and that there is a serious gap in learners' need in this aspect (e.g., Atkins and Varantola, 1997; Cowie, 1999; Thumb, 2004). This situation is also found in Hong Kong (e.g., Li, 1998; Fan, 2000; Li, 2003).

Hong Kong is a city flourishing with translation studies. Over half of its nine universities offer translation programmes from the certificate to postgraduate levels. Considering the significance of the dictionary to translation, one would imagine that it would have a place in the translation curriculum. Nevertheless, universities regard dictionary use as basic skills which should have been treated in the secondary school curriculum. Unfortunately, this is not the case in Hong Kong. The use of the English to Chinese dictionary never finds a proper position in the secondary school curriculum, not to mention the Chinese to English dictionary. There is little formal training in the secondary school classroom, or in the university. Yet students use it regularly. This leaves a training vacuum in the continuum of learning for translation students. They have to pick up the skills by trial and error. Without a grip on the skills of dictionary use, their efficiency in translating is at stake.

From such backdrop comes this study, which hopes to draw the attention of teachers, students and curriculum designers to clarify the issue. They could understand more of students' process in using dictionaries in Chinese to English translation, their needs thereof, and find out what could be done to improve the situation (Atkins and Varantola, 1997: 36). **In relation to the theme of this conference, the purpose of this paper is to highlight the possible use of one of the instruments employed in the study, the think-aloud protocol, for exploring the dictionary use process in other language combinations and educational contexts.**

2. Methodology of the Study

By triangulation, including questionnaire survey, interview, think-aloud exercise and performance exercise, the study explored directly and indirectly Hong Kong translation students' patterns in

dictionary use, how they actually used the dictionary for Chinese to English translation, and the pedagogical implications. Over 100 students from 5 local undergraduate translation programmes participated. They were contacted through e-mail, in-class administration of the questionnaire, and individual meetings over a span of four months from December 2006 to March 2007. Substantial amounts of data were garnered consequently. While the first two methods have been widely used in dictionary research, and the fourth popular with studies on language acquisition for many years, the third just began to emerge as a useful instrument in disclosing the mind of the subject in the recent two to three decades. The following sections shall introduce its use in investigating the learner's thinking process.

2.1. Think-aloud Protocol as Research Instrument

The use of the think-aloud protocol is supported by the theory that information acquired by being attended to in the execution of a task is held in short-term memory and, while there, remains accessible to the subject, and, hence, to the researcher. Such an approach adds a new perspective to experiments in human behaviour, because the subject becomes a co-observer (Kiraly, 1995: 39 - 40). The data available for analysis is by its nature indirect, for it is to be used to investigate unobservable mental processes. All accounts have these features: (1) they give access to the processes actively and consciously involved in carrying out a particular task; but (2) they do not give access to automatized processes (Fraser, 1996: 67). Many highly over-learned processes operate automatically, thereby wholly unconscious, and thus no account can be given.

Think-aloud protocol manuals require that prior training be provided for research subjects. Such training not only gives the subjects an opportunity to practise and familiarize themselves with the method, but also gives the investigator an opportunity to train the subjects to verbalize but not interpret their thoughts (Li, 2004: 308). Before the subjects start with their translation, the task which they are to perform must be explicated (Lörscher, 1991: 39). The subjects produce their translations in situations in which generally they have neither any linguistic nor any non-linguistic contact with the only possible communication partner, the test leader. Nevertheless, it can be assumed that implicitly, in the minds of the subjects, the test leader is the addressee of the utterances produced (Lörscher, 1991: 57).

Thinking aloud makes demands on the subject's short-term memory capacity. It involves asking a translator to translate a text and, at the same time, to verbalize as much of his or her thoughts as possible. The performance is generally recorded on audio- or videotape (Fraser, 1996: 66). In order to make the observed phenomena accessible to further investigation, they have to be transcribed. The transcripts are segmented into "sense"-units, i.e., stretches of language, which suggest more or less discrete mental processes. After segmentation, the researcher labels those "sense"-units, which appear to represent comparable thought processes with the same description (Olk, 2002: 124).

There is nonetheless some difficulty in obtaining introspective data (Mann, 1982: 89). Subject training may bias the data towards the experimenter's desires and expectations, whereas no training may result in the loss of potentially relevant information through the subject's ignorance. The demands made on retrieval from short-term memory by the subject are likely to result in the loss, or addition, or change of information to the processes or strategies under investigation. Introspection demands that the subject observe the contents of their own mind, and infer from this observation the processes in operation. This suggests that the subject has a meta-cognitive awareness which is sensitive and developed enough to be able to do this. When subjects are asked to use any of these techniques, they are being asked to do something which they are not accustomed to doing. This is likely to make them stressful.

Kiraly (1995) points out that some researchers do not agree on the reliability and validity of subject verbalizations. The use of introspective data for the investigation of mental processes has been severely criticized by a few language researchers, notably Nisbett and Wilson (1977), and Seliger (1983). Nisbett and Wilson argued that conscious awareness is limited to the products of mental processes, and cannot reflect the processes themselves. But the problem is that no satisfactory definitions of product and process in terms of mental events exist (White, 1980: 105; quoted in

Kiraly, 1995: 40). Seliger (1983; quoted in Kiraly, 1995: 40 - 41) questioned the reliability of introspective data. His claim is that we cannot know to what extent such data reflect processing, or simply result from subjects guessing or inferring after the fact. This criticism may be valid for delayed or even immediate introspection, but true introspection, or thinking aloud, occurs simultaneously with the observed behaviour, so there should be no room for guessing or inferring. Sin (2002: 42) criticized that switching our focal awareness to our thinking process will disrupt the whole translation task, and as a result, distort our thinking process. Nonetheless, even if verbal reports are necessarily incomplete or possibly distorted, and do not reveal everything, what they do reveal is important.

3. The Think-aloud Protocol could Help Reveal Translation Students' Actually Use of the Dictionary

From the questionnaire survey and interviews, a general profile of how translation students use the dictionary for translation can be sketched. The actual process of how they use the dictionary for Chinese to English translation can be revealed from students' verbalizations, and their translations. But a system to analyze the think-aloud protocols produced in verbalization must first be established.

3.1. The Coding Method

Thumb (2004) studied the English-Chinese dictionary look-up strategies of 18 university students, who were asked to use the bilingualized (English-Chinese) dictionary that they habitually used during the think-aloud session. Thinking aloud was employed as the major method for collecting verbal data. Stimulated recall interview was carried out to achieve the goal of data triangulation, with "follow-up" questionnaires and observations to collect additional data. Hers is a systematic think-aloud coding scheme especially related to dictionary look-up. To the knowledge of the writer, there is no other coding scheme of bilingual dictionary "look-up operation codes" with think-aloud data. Its strength lies in the fact that it not only allows the researcher to interpret the think-aloud data by making qualitative statements about dictionary look-up behaviour, but also to make judgments about trends or inclinations that different users exhibit through quantification (Thumb, 2004: 108). Its weaknesses are twofold: (1) some codes only apply to Romanized languages, but not to ideographic languages like Chinese; (2) they are more for reception than production, the process of which involves different considerations and operations.

To Thumb (2004: 58), there are three types of mental operations in dictionary look-up: (1) **executive operations**, which refer to the physical and verbal actions in the look-up task; (2) **cognitive operations**, which focus on thinking about the word in the reading text, or about the headword in the dictionary text or both; (3) **meta-cognitive operations**, which concentrate on thinking about the look-up itself.

The coding scheme, based on Thumb's (2004: 62 – 65), has been modified for this research purpose. As her subjects used the English-Chinese dictionary for deciphering the meaning of an English passage, those codes related to the English features of the target words from the comprehension passage are sifted. Those related to Language Two to Language One equivalents in the English-Chinese dictionary are reworded to Language One to Language Two in the Chinese-English dictionary. Since the purpose for dictionary look-up is for translating the original text in the present study, but not just comprehending, the words "reading text" in some codes are changed to "original text". A few new codes pertaining to the translation process, but not particularly to any translation strategies, the use of the Chinese-English dictionary, as well as dictionaries of other language directions, are created.

The newly introduced codes to Thumb's system for this research purpose, the reasons, as well as examples of think-aloud protocols with these codes, are listed in the Appendix. The present coding system has adopted about half of Thumb's codes, with about one fourth newly created for the productive purpose of dictionary look-ups.

Having established the codes, the next stage is to analyze the protocols. There are generally four

main steps: (1) segmentation of the protocols; (2) coding of the segments; (3) search for patterns in the coded segments; and (4) revising the coding scheme, if necessary, and examining it for new patterns. Researchers usually segment their protocols into various units: lines, phrases, clauses, basic processes, and episodes (Thumb, 2004: 38).

To illustrate how the segments are analyzed and coded, two examples are taken from Subject One's think-aloud protocols:

Think-aloud protocol segment	Executive operations	Cognitive operations	Meta-cognitive operations
8. "Bi4jing4qian4que1"… "Gong1li4huo3hou2" is an abstract concept. I have to change it to a common English expression.	RT		PLT
42. "Zhao1shu4" can be rendered as "movement", I think. "Movement and posture" is better. "The movement and posture he learnt were of high standard."		CD, T	

Table 3.1: An Extract of Think-aloud Protocols from Subject One

In segment 8, Subject One referred to the text (RT: Referring to Text)   when she read aloud the sentence under consideration, "Bi4jing4qian4que1"… "gong1li4huo3hou2". She then planned on how to tackle the translation task there (PLT: Planning for Translation). In segment 42, she was translating (T: Translating) the original text, and chose the suitable definition from what she had found from the dictionary (CD: Choosing Definition). In order not to press them into verbalization, the subjects were allowed to pause at their own discretion, indicated by ellipsis (…), because frequent intervention on the part of the experimenter might distort the cognitive processes of the subjects (Krings, 1987: 162).

The think-aloud protocols are rendered into English, broken into segments, and the operations that they employed before or during their look-up tasks are analyzed. The dictionary use patterns are constructed by the coded segments.

3.2. How the Think-aloud Protocol Helps Reveal the Dictionary Use Process--A Portrait of One Hong Kong Student in a Chinese to English Translation Exercise

Subject Two made the most look-ups, and was also the most dependent on the dictionary among all subjects. He relied on the dictionary as authority, and expected to find equivalents from the Chinese-English dictionary for ready use in his translation, not only semantically, but also in usage. He made several look-ups for one search. He did not consider himself efficient in the use of Chinese-English dictionary, for "*I spend some time on the look-ups, but the results aren't satisfactory*" (Interview question). His process of using the dictionaries for translating a Chinese item into English is depicted in Figure 3.1, with 12 possible steps altogether. He did not use the English-Chinese dictionary. Instead of using *Pinyin*, the stroke and radical systems to access the entries in the printed Chinese-English dictionary, he simply input the Chinese characters to the web-based dictionary, which he made frequent use throughout the process, thus saving much time in search.

Figure 3.1: The Typical Dictionary Consultation Process of Subject Two for Translating a Chinese Item into English (The dotted lines indicate alternative routes.)

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│   The Dictionary User (Subject 2)    │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Identified a problem word for search. (Step 1) │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```

The Dictionary User (Subject 2)

Identified a problem word for search. (Step 1)

Found a word(s) from mental lexicon. (Step 2a)

Selected a web-based C-E dictionary (Step

Searched for the *Pinyin* of the problem word by direct input into a web-based C-E dictionary. (Step 3)

Selected a C-E dictionary. (Step

Searched for the headword in the macro-structure of the C-E dictionary by *Pinyin*. (Step 5)

Located the sought data in the micro-structure of the entry in the C-E dictionary. (Step 6)

Selected a monolingual English dictionary. (Step

Searched for the headword in the macro-structure of the monolingual English dictionary. (Step 8)

Located the sought data in the micro-structure of the entry in the monolingual English dictionary. (Step 9)

Not satisfied with the "equivalent" word(s). Tried and found another "equivalent" word(s). (Step 10a)

Chose a suitable option, taking the context of the original into consideration. End of search (Step 10b)

Step	Example segment
1: Identified a problem word for search.	24: Then I start with "e4dou4".
2a: Found a word(s) from mental lexicon.	33: I am thinking whether to use "meet" or "encounter" for "ou3yu4".
2b: Selected a web-based C-E dictionary.	29: Now I input "Hu2 Fei1" into Yahoo on-line dictionary.
3: Searched for the *Pinyin* of the problem word by direct input into a web-based C-E dictionary.	29: Now I input "Hu2 Fei1" into Yahoo on-line dictionary.
4: Selected a C-English dictionary.	43: Now I start to search in the *NACED*.
5: Searched for the headword in the macro-structure of the C-E dictionary by *Pinyin*.	43: I am now searching [w], the third tone.
6: Located the sought data in the micro-structure of the entry in the C-E dictionary.	45: In the entry there is a definition: "military feats".
7: Selected a monolingual English dictionary.	66: I am searching on Cambridge on-line E-E dictionary.
8: Searched for the headword in the macro-structure of the monolingual English dictionary.	65: I don't know the meaning of "posthumous" in "posthumous papers". I have to check it up from the dictionary.
9: Located the sought data in the micro-structure of the entry in the monolingual English dictionary.	67: One of the definitions says that it is an adjective, meaning "happened after a person's death".
10a: Not satisfied with the "equivalent" word(s). Tried and found another "equivalent" word(s).	73: Apart from "left", others like "hand down, pass, summon" aren't suitable.
10b: Chose a suitable option, taking the context of the original into consideration. End of search.	68: It seems right.

Table 3.2: Example Segments of the Steps in Subject Two's Dictionary Consultation Process in Figure 3.1

Subject Two's performance in the use of dictionaries showed his dependence on the dictionary, which may be due to his lack of confidence in his own language competence, but not laziness (Horsfall, 1997: 7), as he was willing to make more look-ups for a search than Subjects One and Three. In addition to taking fewer steps for each word search, the latter pair's more successful performance may be connected to their self-confidence and trust in their own abilities (Laukkanen, 1996: 263). At the same time, all four of them tended to look for English equivalents from the dictionary for the Chinese original. This is especially noticeable in Subjects Two and Four, which treated the bilingual dictionary as the authority for translation equivalence.

3.3. How the Think-aloud Protocol Reveals the Dictionary Use Efficiency of Individual Students in Terms of Dictionary Consultation Operations

Table 3.3 summarizes the numbers of segments in the think-aloud protocols of the subjects, the numbers and kinds of operations that they used with their dictionaries in the first 15 minutes for their translation task, and the average number of time of each operation used per segment.

Subject code	Number of think-aloud protocol segments	Executive operations	Cognitive operations	Meta-cognitive operations
1	58			
Total number of times used		25	29	28
Average number of times per segment		0.43	0.5	0.48
Total number of the kinds of operations used		7	10	6
2	86			
Total number of times used		50	22	50
Average number of times per segment		0.58	0.26	0.57
Total number of the kinds of operations used		9	10	8
3	38			
Total number of times used		23	22	12
Average number of times per segment		0.6	0.59	0.32
Total number of the kinds of operations used		5	7	6
4	41			
Total number of times used		26	13	33
Average per segment		0.6	0.3	0.75
Total number of the kinds of operations used		7	5	5

Table 3.3: A Summary of Figures Concerning the Think-aloud Segments of the Four Subjects

Subject Two produced the most think-aloud protocol segments, with 86. Subject One comes next, with 58, while Subjects Three and Four are close in number, with 38 and 41 respectively. Each segment of all subjects varies in the number of words. Subject One employed the operations quite evenly. Subjects Two and Four were the least involved in cognitive operations. This means that the

latter pair did not focus enough on thinking about the word in the original text for translation, or about the headword in the dictionary text, or both. They relied too much on the dictionary to solve their problems; once again demonstrating their lack of confidence in their own language competence.

Subject Three had the lowest number of meta-cognitive operation per segment, while Subject Four the highest. The latter concentrated on thinking about her look-ups very much; the former was not very aware of them. That she produced the least think-aloud segments in the first 15 minutes of the exercise is further proof that her meta-cognitive awareness was not sensitive and developed enough for introspection (Mann, 1982: 89). This is also in agreement with her attitude to the use of the dictionary for translation, that "*the most important of it* [the dictionary] *is to remind you how a word is used; otherwise it is not of much use*" (Interview question). This contrasts with Subject Four, who regarded it "*indispensable*" (Interview question). Out of the 30 kinds of operations, Subject Two was engaged in 27 kinds, followed by Subject One with 23, Subject Three with 18, and Subject Four with 17, the least. Although Subject Two is considered the most reliant on the dictionary, he was at the same time the most sophisticated in dictionary skills in terms of the total kinds of operations employed. Subject Four could be judged the least skilled in dictionary use.

The analysis from the data sheds light on the specific areas where dictionary use training is called for. The data also verify the interview results of informants. It has been shown that students with training in dictionary use (Subjects One and Two) seem to have been more sophisticated in dictionary use operations than those without. Another verifying instance is that, as Subject Four viewed efficiency in dictionary use as the pace in accessing the headword, but not finding the desired result of the word search, the analysis contradicts with her own claim that she was efficient in dictionary use.

In addition, the data demonstrate that the coding system for think-aloud protocols is very useful in analyzing the operations that the subject has undertaken in the dictionary use process for Chinese to English translation. It can also allow quantification of operations, so that the performance of specific aspects of dictionary skills of the subject can be evaluated, allowing diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses, as well as comparison with other subjects. It is a system that can be applied to other studies employing verbalization of the dictionary use process, thus building up the external reliability of such research method. At the same time, it powerfully addresses Bernardini's (2001: 251) concern about the lack of an established research paradigm of the think-aloud protocol.

4. Conclusion

The think-aloud protocols prove effective in exploring the thinking process of subjects in using the dictionary for translation. The coding system adopted from Thumb (2004) for Chinese-English dictionary use is useful for segmentation and analysis of the verbalized data from subjects. The methods can be duplicated to reap similar results. Many former studies (Hausmann, Reichmann, Wiegand, et al, 1989; Atkins and Varantola, 1997; Li, 1998; Cowie, 1999; Fan, 2000; Li, 2001; Chi, 2003; Li, 2003; Nesi, 2003) agree with the present study results. When process research advances, its aim will be to formulate theories which explain and predict, and not only describe (Tirkkonen-Condit, 1997: 70). For the dictionary use process, when dictionary look-up strategies for different purposes by different user groups in different languages are formulated, patterns of these uses can be formed, and user performance can thus be easier and more accurately explained and predicted. This can be the objective for further study.

Kiraly (1995: 113) suggests that think-aloud activities could be used in translation practice classes to enhance students' awareness of their own mental processes while translating. Students could translate a passage individually or in small groups, and record their thoughts on audio-tape. The quality of the translation product could be assessed by the instructor (or the other students), and the group as a whole could then analyze the results, including the relative effectiveness of various strategies used. Such activities would encourage students to think of translation in terms of process as well as result. This method is also recommended for use in the process of dictionary use for improving students' skills. The effectiveness of this method in enhancing students' skills in dictionary use and in translation should be further investigated for pedagogical reasons.

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6. Appendix

Coding 1: executive operations before/during dictionary look-up	
(RAEN)	Referring to Absence of Entry: referring to the absence of an entry of target headword in dictionary text.
	Reason: It is not unusual that a headword under search is not found

	in a Chinese to English dictionary.
	Example: Subject Four, Segment 22: "There is no such character on page 142. It's strange. The simplified form should be like this, but it is not found."

Coding 2: cognitive operations before/during dictionary look-up

(SSR)	Searching by Strokes: searching by strokes and/or radical of the target Chinese headword
	Reason: It is an access method particular to the Chinese-English dictionary
	Example: Subject Four, Segment 20: "I use the index to search for "e4dou4", for I don't know the simplified version of the character "e4". I am now searching the radical table. I turn to page 142 for a likely radical, but I am not sure if I can find the word."
(RED)	Rejecting Definitions: rejecting L2 translation equivalent and/or L2 definition in dictionary text which is/are considered not fitting the original text
	Reason: In the Chinese-English dictionary, L2 (English) equivalents or definitions are available. They are usually looked for ready use by translators; rejected when considered not suitable for translation.
	Example: Subject One, Segment 30: "'Kungfu' suggests strongly to foreigners that it is like that of Bruce Lee's, like '*Wing Chun* fists'. It doesn't suit the context here. I won't use 'kungfu'…."
(T)	Translating.
	Reason: The activity for which the dictionary look-up is made.
	Example: Subject Three, Segment 26: "His feats"… I think of… "His feats were not refined".

Coding 3: meta-cognitive operations before/during dictionary look-up

(PLT)	Planning for translating
	Reason: It is especially for the translation purpose.
	Example: Subject Three, Segment 10: "'Zhuan2xia4yi2shu1xiu1xi2er2cheng2, zhao1shu4….' [Babbling] I will start to translate."
(SLD)	Switching Language Dictionary: switching/using another language dictionary for the search for the target word
	Reason: The translator may use dictionaries of other language

	combinations for Chinese to English translation.
	Example: Subject Two, Segment 47: "I have to check up with the E-E dictionary, with Cambridge on-line E-E dictionary."
(SED)	Switching Electronic Dictionary: switching/using electronic or web-based dictionary for the search for the target word
	Reason: The translator may use both the printed dictionary and electronic or web-based ones for Chinese to English translation.
	Example: Subject Two, Segment 47: "I have to check up with the E-E dictionary, with Cambridge on-line E-E dictionary."

A List of Newly Created or Modified Codes to Thumb's (2004) System for Dictionary

Look-up for Chinese to English Translation

What kind of feedback affects slow learners in EFL writing?

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Abstract:

In this study, 25 sophomores are given English composition tasks for 14 weeks. The writer provides some hints, models, and appropriate feedback to them during the semester. Then, she analyzes their composition tasks and questionnaires statistically. There is no significant difference between the data, but the students' compositions have slightly improved qualitatively. Then the students' opinions toward writing English compositions have changed and they have become comfortable with doing it little by little.

1. Introduction

Recently university students' English proficiency has been deteriorating. The writer's students are all in the same situation; they do not like English, and do not have enough ability and motivation to study English at the college level. They spend 90-minute lessons, sitting down in their seats and waiting for the lessons to end. In these kinds of environments, teachers have to motivate the students by making appropriate lesson plans, and give their students attractive materials and tasks. Among them, it is better for their students to tackle the tasks which they have to do on their own. One of the good approaches is English compositions. The writer thinks that English composition tasks make her students consider their ideas earnestly. Many of her students have no confidence in their own English proficiency. Most of them think that they had been ignored by their teachers in their high school days because of insufficient English ability and motivation. Some of them think that they cannot do any tasks in English. They are not comfortable with writing both Japanese and English compositions and they do not have enough ideas to write compositions. They cannot write good, long English sentences, and some of them can only write two or three short sentences with errors. If they can write some more basic English sentences correctly, they will be confident in themselves. The writer tries to give English compositions with some hints, models, and appropriate feedback to her students and observes the changes of their proficiency and thoughts.

2. Review

Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986) gives four kinds of feedback – correction, coded, uncoded, marginal – to Japanese college students' compositions, and the results show that the differences are not found in the students' performance among these kinds of feedback. EFL teachers spend a lot of time responding to grammatical errors of students' compositions, but this study does not support the practice of direct correction of surface error. Then, it suggests that "less time-consuming methods of directing student attention to surface error may suffice. While well-intentioned teachers may provide elaborate forms of corrective feedback, time might be more profitably spent in responding to more important aspects of student writing (Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986: 91))." Similar research was done by Hatori, et al. (1990) involving high school students and Kanatani et al. (1993) involving junior and senior high school students. In these studies subjects are given three kinds of feedback – direct correction, underlining, stamping – and the results show no difference among the feedback effects. Hatori, et al. (1990) suggests that direct correction makes students lose their desire to write compositions.

Oi, et.al (2000) analyzes the effectiveness of two types of teacher feedback, grammar-based and content-based, on argumentative essays which were written by Japanese college students. The result shows that students who were given content-based feedback only improve the qualities and organizations of their compositions. Duppenthaler (2004) also investigates the effectiveness of three types of feedback – meaning-focused feedback, positive comments, and error-focused feedback on EFL journal writing written by Japanese senior high school students. The study finds that meaning-focused feedback is the most effective of all, which shows the same result as Oi, et.al (2000).

Shizuka (1993) gives four kinds of feedback, direct correction, uncoded feedback, peer feedback, and self-editing, to senior high school students, and analyzes the immediate effectiveness and the retention of feedback. As for immediate effectiveness, direct correction is the most effective, then, uncoded feedback, peer feedback, and the last is self-editing. Looking at retention, the order of the effectiveness is peer feedback, uncoded feedback, self-editing, and direct correction. Among the students with higher proficiency, direct correction and uncoded feedback are effective. As for the lower level students, only direct correction is effective. The results also show that students who have direct correction revise their compositions as their teacher corrects them and make the quality of their compositions better. Without the teacher's help, it is difficult for students to improve their English writing abilities – to edit and revise good compositions by themselves.

Oikawa and Takayama (2000) examine the effectiveness in four groups' improvement of EFL writing toward senior high school students: students in Group A are given error feedback and revise their composition, students in Group B are not given error feedback and revise their composition, students in Group C are given error feedback and write different composition tasks every time, and students in Group D are not given error feedback and write different composition tasks every time. The results show that the difference among the four groups is not statistically significant. Then the study suggests that students in Group A and B write more accurate English sentences than students in Group C and D, while students in Group C and D write more fluent English sentences than students in Group A and B. These researchers attempt to replicate their experiment for a longer period in Takayama and Oikawa (2001), and the study shows that a longer period of instruction leads students to improve accuracy in their compositions.

Baba (2002) gives grammar-based feedback in the spring semester and content-based feedback in the fall semester to Japanese college students, and then analyzes the quantities of their compositions, and the result shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test. Then the questionnaires are given to the students at the end of the year suggest that the students want both grammar-based feedback and content-based feedback. Furthermore, students given content-based feedback can write more fluent English sentences than students given grammar-based feedback.

Baba (2009b) provides different composition tasks to slow learners for 13 weeks, and then analyzes the total number of words written, the total number of T-units written, the number of words per T-unit, the total number of error-free T-units and the ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units in order to see the effectiveness of feedback on slow learners. The results show that students' compositions do not improve in quality and quantity. This study shows that the students can write better and use more sentences according to the themes of the compositions and that they need not only their teacher's feedback but also their teacher's direct and individual instruction during the lessons.

Then, Sumida (2005) and Aoki (2006) suggest that explicit feedback from teachers leads students to write better English sentences and revise their drafts appropriately.

As we see from the previous studies, explicit feedback affects students' English compositions. The question is how slow learners can improve their English writing ability after receiving teachers' feedback through revised compositions. In this study, the writer examines the effects of feedback on slow learners' EFL compositions.

3. Research Questions

The research questions in this study are as follows:

(1) How do the slow learners' compositions change through their teacher's feedback and their revising drafts?

(2) How do the slow learners' thoughts toward English compositions change?

4. Methods of this study

4.1 Subjects

The subjects of this study are 25 sophomores at a university in the Tama area in Tokyo. They belong to the School of Science and Engineering.

4.2 Procedures

(1) At the beginning of the semester, the subjects were asked to write a composition task as a pre-test and answer questionnaires about English compositions.

(2) The writer gave them an English composition task for 15 minutes once a week for 12 weeks. During the term, they were asked to write 6 kinds of composition tasks. The themes of the compositions were their hobbies, people they want to meet, their ideal room, their hometown, their university, and their treasure. One task was completed in 2 lessons. Before they started to write their tasks every lesson, the teacher provided mini-lessons about grammar points and sometimes some model sentences which are useful for the students' compositions were shown. During the lessons, she also walked around the classroom and gave some comments and feedback to the students. After they wrote their first draft, the writer gave some comments about grammar and contents. Then they revised their draft and completed it. They were allowed to use dictionaries.

(3) At the end of the term, they were given a composition task as a post-test and questionnaires about English compositions.

(4) The writer analyzed the total number of words written, the total number of T-units written and the number of words per T-unit in order to see the fluency of the compositions, and the total number of error-free T-units and the ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units in order to see the accuracy of the compositions. Then she analyzed the results between the pre-tests and post-tests.

(5) She analyzed the results of questionnaires to see the change of the students' thought toward writing English compositions.

5. Results

5.1 Quantity of Compositions

5.1.1 The total number of words written

Table 1 shows the average total number of words written.

	Pre-test	1	2	3	4	5	6	Post-test
words	17.56	23.96	24.72	22.36	29.84	22.64	28.16	21.12

Table 1: The average total number of words written

In order to see the improvement of the total number of words, the T-test was done, and there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test, but the total number of words has slightly increased ($t(24)= 0.06$, $p>.05$). During the semester, each 2 week composition was followed by grammatical feedback and occasionally content-based feedback, which the students were able to understand and use in the subsequent compositions, leading to an increase in the number of words in each assignment.

5.1.2 The total number of T-units written

Table 2 tells us the average total number of T-units written.

	Pre-test	1	2	3	4	5	6	Post-test
T-units	2.76	3.56	3.48	2.96	4.40	2.80	3.88	2.44

Table 2: The average of total number of T-units written

According to the T-test, a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test is not found statistically (t(24)= 0.30, p>.05). The results show that teacher's feedback does not affect the number of T-unit in the compositions.

5.1.3 The number of words per T-unit

Table 3 indicates the average total number of words per T-unit.

No.	Pre-test	1	2	3	4	5	6	Post-test
words	6.41	7.11	7.30	7.25	6.54	6.94	7.19	9.98

Table 3: The number of words per T-unit

There is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test by the result of the T-test (t(24) = 4.35, p>.05). Looking at the students' compositions, the more words they were able to write, the longer the sentences became. Also the total number of words per T-units increased. Gradual growth can be seen from the data.

5.2 Quality of Compositions

5.2.1 The total number of error-free T-units

Table 4 shows the average total number of error-free T-units.

No.	Pre-test	1	2	3	4	5	6	Post-test
T-unit	0.44	1.32	1.76	1.88	3.04	1.32	1.60	0.92

Table 4: The total number of error-free T-unit

A significant difference between the pre-test and post-test is not shown statistically (t(24) = 0.14, p>.05). While some students can revise their errors in response to the teacher, others cannot notice their errors and revise them correctly. This kind of situation leads to the results in table 4.

5.2.2 The ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units

The average ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units is indicated in table 5.

No.	Pre-test	1	2	3	4	5	6	Post-test

T-unit	14.00	38.92	41.53	69.29	67.39	45.47	40.59	27.40

Table 5: The ratio of error-free T-unit to total T-units (%)

Although there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test ($t(24) = 0.18$, $p>.05$), the ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units has increased little by little. Instructions for a longer period will lead the students' compositions to improve.

5.3 Questionnaires

The results of the questionnaires about English compositions are as follows:

4: Absolutely 3: Somewhat 2: Not particularly 1: Not at all

Questions								
Q1: Do you like writing compositions in Japanese?								
Pre-test	4	0%	3	52%	2	32%	1	16%
Post-test	4	12%	3	40%	2	44%	1	4%
Q2: Do you like writing compositions in English?								
Pre-test	4	0%	3	20%	2	24%	1	56%
Post-test	4	12%	3	12%	2	60%	1	16%
Q3: Are you good at writing compositions in Japanese?								
Pre-test	4	0%	3	8%	2	60%	1	32%
Post-test	4	4%	3	16%	2	48%	1	32%
Q4: Are you good at writing compositions in English?								
Pre-test	4	0%	3	4%	2	24%	1	72%
Post-test	4	0%	3	0%	2	44%	1	56%
Q5: Do you want to be able to write good compositions in Japanese?								
Pre-test	4	56%	3	40%	2	4%	1	0%
Post-test	4	44%	3	52%	2	4%	1	0%
Q6: Do you want to be able to write good compositions in English?								
Pre-test	4	32%	3	32%	2	28%	1	8%
Post-test	4	32%	3	48%	2	16%	1	4%
Q7: Do you want your friends to give you some comments about your compositions?								
Pre-test	4	4%	3	44%	2	36%	1	16%
Post-test	4	0%	3	48%	2	40%	1	12%
Q14: Are you comfortable with writing English compositions after practicing for 14 weeks?								
Post-test	4	0%	3	76%	2	24%	1	0%

Table 6: The results of the questionnaires about English compositions

The results show that there is no statistical significance between the pre-test and post-test, but students gradually began to like writing compositions in both Japanese and English. Then many of them feel that writing compositions in English is very difficult, and 14 weeks of guidance leads them to strengthen such beliefs. Seventy-six percent of them think that they have gradually become comfortable with writing English compositions after 14 weeks.

At this point, we will look at the comments which appear on open-ended questions no. 8 to no.13, and no.15.

Question 8: If you could write good compositions, what would be the benefit for you?

In April, some students answered that they could improve their ability to express something in English, that they could communicate with other people and that it would be useful for them to write compositions in society. The answers below are provided by only one student: to write a good report, to improve one's English writing ability, to get a lot of information, to be smart, and to be praised. In July, the answers provided by the students – the ability to communicate with others, being useful in society, expressing themselves, and improving one's English writing ability – had become more popular. One student answered that everybody had a favorable image of them.

Question 9: What do you have to do to write good compositions?

In April, one-third of the students answered that they should write as many sentences as possible, and some students thought that they need to study languages, and read many books. In July, after taking writing lessons, more students felt that they need to practice writing as much as possible. Some thought that they had to read more books than they had read, memorize English words and phrases, study English grammar, and learn how to organize sentences. They could understand what they needed in order to write good English compositions.

Question 10: What are your problems or difficulties while you write compositions in Japanese or in English?

In April, one-third of the students answered how and what to write are difficult for them, and some answered English words and grammar, organization, combining sentences, and *kanji* in Japanese. In July, some of them also felt it difficult to express their ideas in English. About half of all the students worried about a lack of their English proficiency and found that English words, phrases, and grammar are troublesome after they experienced writing English compositions.

Question 11: What is the worst thing while you write compositions?

In April and July, the students answered the same kinds of responses: organization, grammar, words, lack of ideas, and not having enough time. Many of them like writing about themselves, while some hate expressing themselves. An additional answer was that the themes given were not appropriate for the students or were not their favorite, they cannot write longer and better sentences.

Question 12: Please write down the titles you want to write compositions of in Japanese.

Students could imagine what they would write in Japanese in April. Only a few students gave answers such as recent events, *Kendo*, their lives, the things they think now, about biology, environment, war, and culture. However, in July, more of them could imagine what they wanted to write. They thought that topics about them such as self-introductions, their hobbies, their thoughts, and their favorite things were easy to write. Very few answers were about magic worlds, nature, history, and politics in Japan.

13. Please write down the titles you want to write compositions of in English.

Students could not imagine what to write in English in April. Some of them gave answers such as any simple topic, *samurai*, baseball, their lives, music, biology, liberty, and the WBC. However, in July, they became comfortable with writing compositions and some of them could imagine what they wanted to write, especially topics about themselves such as their hobbies, their future, their lives,

their favorite things, and how to spend holidays or summer vacations. One of them gave a unique answer: gradual changes of his English ability through lessons. Some of them wanted to write about machining techniques, magic worlds, history, baseball, and sportsmanship.

15. During the spring semester, what did you find or feel about writing English compositions?

The positive answers were as follows: "I can freely use words and grammar I already acquired." "English compositions are unexpectedly enjoyable tasks for me." "I can write sentences more easily than before." "First, I hated writing English sentences, but gradually I began to like it little by little." Every week's tackling of the tasks led them to be confident of their English writing. However, some students struggled with the tasks, and found difficulties with writing English compositions. Such students answered that they could not organize paragraphs, understand English grammar and how to use words. They are struggling in a long tunnel, so some more practice will lead them to reach the exit of the tunnel and find English compositions enjoyable.

6. Discussion

6.1 Quantity of Compositions

The results tell us that the instructions in only one semester do not lead to a higher quality of English compositions such as the total number of words, of T-units, of words per T-unit, by slow learners. Before improving their abilities, the writer had to lighten the students' worries. They struggled with how and what to write in their compositions at the beginning, and some told the writer that they worried about their composition tasks because of their insufficient English proficiency and the small number of words they could write. Thus, the writer informed that she watched their gradual growth during the year, and encouraged them to increase only a few words or sentences from the beginning. They felt relieved and tried hard to write their compositions. Some students who could understand how and what to write during the semester write more and better compositions. The examples are shown in 6.4.

6.2 Quality of Compositions

As for the quality of compositions, the number of error-free T-units has slightly increased, and the ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units has improved. When the students could find and use the appropriate sentences in the models which the teacher provided in her mini-lessons or could revise their compositions according to her feedback, they could write better sentences and did not make a lot of errors. On the other hand, they got confused when they are given the themes which were less desirable. They could not write their ideas smoothly nor choose the proper expressions, and became scatterbrained. Their compositions were completed by rambling sentences including a lot of errors.

On the whole, the students could revise their compositions as the teacher corrected them, and the quality of their compositions got better. In order to improve their composition accurately, they needed their teacher's help, and it supports the results in Shizuka (1993) and Takayama and Oikawa (2001).

6.3 Questionnaires

At the beginning of the semester, the students had no confidence in their English proficiency and they thought that they could not write English sentences. They also hated writing English compositions. Most of them lack experience in writing not only English but also Japanese compositions, and they did not know how and what to express about themselves in their compositions. During the 14-week instructions, their opinion had changed. They became comfortable with writing English compositions little by little, and did not feel anxious about working on the tasks. In the writer's class, she does not give Japanese compositions to her students, but writing English compositions leads them to think about writing good Japanese compositions, and their preferences in writing tasks changed. Although they have thought that they are poor at writing English and Japanese compositions, their wish to write good compositions in English and Japanese have strengthened.

As for peer feedback, more than half of them do not want their classmates to provide responses to their own compositions, because of a lack of their knowledge. In order to give good comments, students have to study English grammar, words, and organization in depth, so time is needed to perform peer feedback.

6.4 The tendency of the students who have improved their English writing abilities

In this section, the writer qualitatively watches some cases of students who made rapid progress in their compositions

Student A only wrote 8 words in his pre-test, and he struggled with writing tasks every week. He always told me that he did not have any idea about what to write, and how to express his feelings. Consulting a dictionary and receiving the teacher's mini-lessons and responses, he began to understand how to write, and then the total number of words in his compositions had increased. In his post-test, he wrote 20 words, and during the semester he could write a 43-word composition once. He always thinks that he is not good at English and is not comfortable with writing English compositions, but he tried hard, and unconsciously his proficiency has improved little by little.

Student B did not like writing English compositions, and could write only 19 words in his pre-test. He seriously tried to write his compositions every week, consulting a dictionary and asking me for some expressions. Then he revised errors in his compositions correctly. After that, he could use some words and phrases that he learned, and the quality of his compositions improved. In the questionnaires, he answered that he became able to use expressions and wanted to write more and better sentences.

Student C did not like writing in English and did not want to write English sentences better. He wrote only 26 words at the beginning. In the early period, he got the knack of writing English compositions, and the number of words he wrote had increased. He sometimes wrote over 60 words in his final draft, and reduced errors. The average total amount of words of his is 40.75, which is the best of all the students in the writer's class. The quality of his compositions also improved and the ratio of error-free T-units to total number of T-units is 66.1%, which is also the best result in the writer's class. Now he thinks that he is poor at writing English sentences, but unconsciously his English writing ability has improved.

Student D was interested in writing English compositions at the beginning of the semester, but he was not confident with his ability. Being different from other students, he has always had an idea about what to write. Although the average total number of words he wrote was 28 and it did not change for 14 weeks, the contents of his compositions became better, and he had reduced the number of errors he made.

Student E was a very serious student and he tackled all the tasks earnestly. He always wanted to write a lot, but he always made errors because of his insufficient knowledge of English grammar. After the teacher's feedback, he revised the part to which a response was provided. In the second draft, he added more and more sentences, and he made more errors. He is full of motivation, so he needs more practice and English grammar instructions.

7. Conclusion

In this study, the writer analyzes how the slow learners' compositions change through teacher's feedback and their revision. The results do not show a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test, but the learners' compositions have improved little by little. Continuing instructions will affect their compositions more and more. The teacher requires providing not only their teacher's feedback but also their teacher's direct and individual instruction during the lessons in order to check their situations and to encourage them to write good compositions.

Then, she analyzes how the slow learners' thoughts change toward English compositions. The answers of the questionnaires tell us that they have become comfortable with writing English compositions and they hope to be a good writer of English in the near future. Through the lessons, they observe themselves and understand what their good points and bad points are in their compositions. In order to bring up good English learners, this kind of instruction the writer does is appropriate.

8. Pedagogical Implications

Nowadays, a lot of university students do not like English and lose motivation to study English. In this situation, teachers require giving good instructions and tasks and encourage them to learn English. Providing English composition tasks gives teachers and students good opportunities to communicate with each other. Teachers can give them responses and instructions individually in the classroom and on their compositions, which strengthens the relationship between teachers and students, especially slow learners. It is very important for teachers to develop a good rapport with students. Teachers need to watch students' gradual progresses, leading them to understand their students' situations, as well as give appropriate feedback, and manage good classrooms.

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The Role of Translation on The Improvement of EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension at The Intermediate Level of Language Proficiency

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Abstract
The present paper attempts to investigate the role of translation on improving EFL learners' reading comprehension skill. To that end, 120 learners who were studying English at different Language Institutes were selected. The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (Corrigan, 1979) was administered to determine their level of English proficiency. The subjects were then randomly assigned to two control and two experimental groups. At the end of the instructional period a final achievement test was taken. It consisted of several unfamiliar reading passages. The results demonstrated that translation technique affects the learners' reading improvement at the intermediate level of language proficiency. The findings of the study will be applicable in teaching language skills, translation studies and lesson planning.
Keywords: translation, reading comprehension, teaching language skills, EFL learners

1. Introduction and background
Reading is the most important skill of all skills for language learners in general and for EFL learners in particular and it is one of the most useful and necessary skills for people (Farhady, 2005). On the other hand, one of the major problems of the EFL learners in learning a foreign language is their low comprehension in reading texts. It seems that teaching variables may play an important role in learners' reading comprehension.

The study will try to look at the results of two teaching experiences. In one group, reading passages will be translated for the students by the teacher and in the other group reading passages will not be translated. The ultimate goal of this study is to find out whether translation has any positive effect on EFL learners' reading comprehension.

According to Chastain (1988, p.217), "The reading goal is to read for meaning or to recreate the writer's meaning. Reading to improve pronunciation, practice grammatical forms, and study vocabulary does not constitute reading at all because by definition, reading involves comprehension. When readers are not comprehending, they are not reading."

Farhady (2005, p.1), stated that, "from a technical perspective, reading comprehension is a dynamic mental activity which interacts with the text to extract meaning."Barnett (1988) pointed out that a reading model provides an imagined representation of the reading process. Models of the reading process can generally be placed across a continuum of two opposing approaches in understanding the reading process, namely, bottom-up approaches and top-down approaches.

However, as Hudson (1998, p.46) noted; "most current researchers adhere to what has been termed as interactive approaches." These approaches are based on the reading activity that necessarily involves two elements: the text and the reader. In a way, reading strategies reveal the readers' resources for comprehension and indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand (Block, 1986).

Translation, by dictionary definition, consists of changing from one state or form to another, to turn into one's own or another's language (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary 1974). Translation is basically a change of form. When we speak of the form of a language, we are referring to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc., which are spoken or written. These forms are referred to as the surface structure of a language. It is the structural part of the language which is actually seen in print or heard in speech. In translation the form of the source language is replaced by the form of the receptor (target) language. (Larson, 1998, p. 3).

"The term translation itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text has been translated) or the process (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as translating). The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL)" (Munday, 2001, p. 4-5) .

The term "Communicative translation" according to Newmark (1981, p.30) is an attempt "to produce on his readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained by the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render as close as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original."

Cook (1992) argues further that all second language learners access their L1 while processing the L2. She suggests, " The L2 user does not effectively switch off the L1 while processing the L2, but has it constantly available" (p.571). Cook (1992) also maintains that when working with second language learners, teachers must not treat the L2 in isolation from the L1. In fact, according to Cook, one cannot do so, "The L1 is presented in the L2 learners' minds, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not. The L2 knowledge that is being created in them is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge" (p.584).

Despite the observations that L2 learners make of their native language, at least in the early stages of language acquisition, Cohen (1992) stated, "There has been little research on the extent to which non-natives' thoughts are in the TL (target language) and the effectiveness of thinking in the TL as opposed to thinking in the L1"(p. 100). Kern (1994) specifically points out that, "At present it remains unclear precisely what role the native language plays in L2 reading comprehension" (p. 441). Cohen (1995) used a survey given to bilingual and multilingual university students to explore factors influencing language of thought. He found that not only do people with access to two or more language shift frequently between them, these shifts can be either unintentional (e.g., it is easier to think in one language than another and so the brain automatically shifts language) or intentional (e.g., using another language to help understand the grammar or vocabulary of the target language).

"Meaning is a communicative and therefore a social phenomenon. Nothing bears meaning and makes sense unless it occurs in communication, which by nature is a social activity. Yet, meaning is encoded in and by language. The construction of meaning is therefore both social and linguistic at the same time. This is to say that meaning, although signaled by language, does not totally reside in it, but is created in part between people in every instance of language use" (Farahzad 2004, p. 79).

She also added that all target language texts have a static part of meaning to some extent, but differ in their interpretations of the source text and have more interpretations in the target language (p. 82). Chellapan (1982) believes that learners can develop their reading comprehension ability by translating target language text into their native language.

It is quite obvious that text carefully, is trying to make sense of its features like sentence structures, context and register. In other words, there should be a kind of textual analysis, which is very important in reading comprehension (Chellapan, 1982). Indeed the difference between translation and reading is the degree of attention paid by the reader or translator, that is; in translation attention weighs far more heavily than in mere reading.

2. Methodology
2.1. Participants
The participants for the research were selected from EFL learners studying at English Language Institute in Zahedan. 120 learners were selected out of 200 by taking Michigan Test of English Language proficiency (Corrigan, 1979). They divided according to their scores. It means, the obtained scores were converted to Z-Scores to indicate how many standard deviations an observation is above or below the mean. The participants then assigned to three groups; beginners (low), intermediates (mid), and advanced (high) learners according to their level of proficiency (two or three standard deviations below the mean was known as, beginner; one standard deviation below or above the mean was known as intermediate; and two or three standard deviations above the mean was known as advanced).

Beginners and intermediate learners were randomly assigned into four groups, two experimental and two control groups, each including 30 students. One experimental and one control group consist of

beginners and the other two groups consist of intermediate learners. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 both males and females.

2.2. Instruments

To fulfill the aim of this study, two testing implements were applied. The "Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency" was administered to distinguish the students' level of proficiency. The test included 100 items, including three parts: part one was a grammar test; part two was a vocabulary test; and part three was a test of reading comprehension. The participants had 75 minutes to finish the entire test. The second test was an achievement test which was taken at the end of the term from all participants. The other materials for the study consisted of reading comprehension passages extracted from the book "Active Skills for Reading" by Anderson, N. J. (2008).

The final achievement tests were some unfamiliar texts which the students did not practice them in the classroom. The learners had to answer totally 40 comprehension questions following the texts.

2.3. Procedure

The participants who were selected by Michigan Proficiency Test were randomly assigned to four groups, two experimental and two control groups. In the experimental groups the teacher translated reading passages while in the control groups the teacher did not translate the passages. The teacher was the researcher herself for all groups. She has taught English at different high schools and institutes for 8 years. The classes were conducted for 18 sessions, three times a week. Each session takes one and half hour. The term lasted 45 days.

In the experimental groups, for both beginner and intermediate learners, the teacher asked the students one by one to read the sentences of the passage and translate them. If they had any questions, they were asked in L1 which was Persian and the teacher answered in L1, too. This process went on until the passage comes to the end. Since the students had no more questions, the teacher asked them to write the answers to comprehension questions which appeared at the end of the passage. The questions were in English and the students wrote the answers in English as well.

The teacher speaking Persian, asked the students to stop and check their works. Each student read a question and then read his / her response. If he/she was correct, the teacher called another student to read the next question. If he/she was incorrect, the teacher selected a different student to supply the correct answer or the teacher himself gave the right answer.

The control groups, both beginner and intermediate groups, were taught without using translation. The teacher speaking English asked the students to read a sentence from the reading passage one by one. After the students finished reading the passage, they were asked in English whether they had any questions. If they had any questions about the vocabulary of the passage, the teacher tried to make clear the meaning of it using pictures, drawing on the board, using examples, and other realia.

After all of the questions were answered, the teacher asked some questions of his own about the passage. The question and answer practice continued for a few minutes. Finally the teacher invited students to ask questions.
All of the questions and answers were in English language. The students practiced vocabulary by using words in complete sentences.

To investigate the effect of the combination of the two independent variables of the teaching technique and the level of proficiency (beginner and intermediate) on reading comprehension a Two-way ANOVA was applied.

3. Data Analysis

At the end of the term a final achievement test was taken. It consisted of some unfamiliar reading passages which were suitable for the students with different level of language proficiency. After the administration of the test, the collected data were scored. The test included 40 reading comprehension questions from four unfamiliar reading comprehension texts.

To investigate whether there was any meaningful difference between the four groups a Two-way
ANOVA was run to estimate the effect of combination of translation and level of proficiency on the
students' reading comprehension.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to study the hypotheses, the first step was to specify four distinct groups as:
G1: No translation, Beginner (cont. group1)
G2: No translation, Intermediate (cont. group2)
G3: Using translation, Beginner (exp. group1)
G4: Using translation, intermediate (exp. group2)
As it was mentioned previously, at the end of the term all of the learners participated at a final
achievement test according to their level of proficiency.
The initial step to the analysis of the collected data was to investigate the significant differences among
the groups. For this reason means and standard deviations of groups are presented in the Table 1.

TABLE1. Means and Standard Deviation of two Independent Variables

ID1 ID2	M	SD	N
G1 beg. G2 inter. Total	28.93 29.53 29.24	2.567 2.501 2.529	30 30 60
G3 beg. G4 inter. Total	30.10 28.80 29.45	3.144 2.797 3.022	30 30 60
Total beg. inter. Total	29.55 29.17 29.36	2.890 2.656 2.771	60 60 120

To determine whether or not there is a relationship between the method of
teaching and the level of proficiency on the reading comprehension of the
participants a two-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was implied. Table 2
displays the results.

TABLE 2. Two-way ANOVA for ID1 and ID2

Source	DF	MS	F	Sig.

ID1	2	.932	.122	.886
ID2	1	3.562	.465	.497
ID1*ID2	1	26.734	3.490	.041
Error	115	7.659		
Total	120			

The findings indicated that the interaction of the two independent variables is significant at .05 ($P<.05$). Therefore, the interaction of teaching methods and the level of proficiency affects learners' reading comprehension.

The present study confirms Rivers and Temperly's (1978) finding that Translation of passages from literature in their first language (L1) offers students of English as a foreign language (EFL) a unique opportunity to explore the dimensions of both languages and to develop their skills and style of written expression in English. In an EFL setting, translation instruction can be an informative and instructive chance for students as well as serve as tools for language learning. As EFL students are deeply engaged with the meaning of the literary text and its meaning through the translation process, they increase their awareness and understanding of their own society and culture. Moreover, they learn to extend their knowledge and understanding of other peoples, cultures, and issues.

5. Conclusion and Implications

As this study indicates, there is evidence that translation has positive effects on reading comprehension of EFL learners at intermediate level of language proficiency. The results of a Two-way Analysis of Variance proposed that the combination of the method of teaching and the level of proficiency did have positive effect on learners' reading comprehension.

This study has undoubtedly pedagogical implications both from the stand point of theory and practice. This research has shed some light, to a certain extent, on the factors involved in teaching a second or foreign language. Teachers can use translation for comprehending the reading part of the book that they teach.

The results will also alert teachers to consider translation as an important device for promoting reading comprehension. Teachers have to consider this point that learners translate the reading text unintentionally in order to comprehend them because it is easy for them to think in one language than another and so the brain automatically shifts languages.

As using translation is inevitable, it is suggested that teachers teach the learners some basic elements of translation before starting the reading comprehension passages. Teachers are also responsible for observing different traits in their classrooms and make learners aware of their own problems on translation, while encouraging them to work more on their problems. As learners may translate some sentences in classes, the teachers should create such an atmosphere in the classroom to make learners feel self-confident and secure to express themselves freely. Therefore, teachers have very important role in reading comprehension of passages by learners. They have a positive and influential effect on the emotional state of the students.

The results of this research are also beneficial to teachers in their selection, presentation and gradation of reading materials. The fact that learners in each level of proficiency use translation for comprehending the reading passages would be of prime importance for material developers. The materials should not be beyond the learners' ability. In this case the learners would recognize their talents to handle the new materials.

As far as the learners' comprehending of the new texts may affect their learning a second or foreign language, the presentation of the materials would be of prime importance developers. The presentation should be in a way to enhance the learners' self-concept while they go further in the path of language

learning. Material developers can provide different techniques for presenting materials in the textbooks regarding the skill of reading comprehension and other related skills. An analysis of affective and personality factors will determine how the individual will probably respond to emotional, cognitive and interpersonal demands of language learning.

One goal of instruction would be to help learners identify and assess their individual learning. At one stream, the students would be able to justify their progress in language learning by themselves. This is partly due to the concept that they have about themselves. They should know themselves in order to assess their improvement, or to find out the change created in them by the process of education. At another stream no formal education would be possible without some form of testing. The fact that the learners' feelings and assumptions about themselves affect their response to language tests should not be overlooked by language testing authorities. The length of the tests, the time required for completing the tests and the level of difficulty of the tests are the factors which influence how successful the learners will be in the process of testing. A learner with a positive self-concept would be more aware of his or her capabilities and would feel more confident while language testing. On the other hand, a student with low self-concept though knowledgeable may not feel confident enough to complete the test easily. Therefore, in the process of the learners' assessment many factors namely personal factors are involved. The tests have to make the students enhance their self-concept. Teachers or testing authorities are responsible to create such an atmosphere for learners to feel secure and confident while language testing.

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**Pre-service EFL Teachers' Awareness of Their Own Classroom Actions
during Teaching Practice**

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1. Introduction

An effective foreign language teacher education program should provide teacher candidates with the knowledge of essential language teaching skills, methods and techniques as well as the subject matter knowledge and good command on communication and decision making skills (Richards, 1998). However, having the theoretical knowledge alone may not be enough for language teacher candidates for being effective teachers. Internalization and reconceptualization of the theoretical knowledge is also essential for a teacher candidate (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Richards, 1998). This internalization and reconceptualization is generally affected by teacher candidates' self-perceptions, beliefs and perspectives about language teaching and learning. Johnson (1992, p.509) states that "unlike experienced teachers, pre-service teachers have not developed a schema for interpreting and coping with what goes on during instruction, nor do they possess a repertoire of instructional routines upon which they can rely". Therefore, it is important to investigate whether pre-service teachers are aware of what they are doing during teaching practice and whether they have solidly grounded methodological knowledge about the rationale of their classroom actions. Johnson (1992, p. 510) addresses this issue as follows:

> "More often, the practicum reflects the notion that once pre-service teachers have mastered the required subject-matter content, they will be able to use that knowledge to lead their students to successful second language learning. Calls continue to be made for explorations into what takes place during the practicum in order to better understand the ways in which pre-service teachers conceptualize their initial teaching experiences, to recognize the unique instructional considerations of second language teaching, and, finally, to determine the contribution that such field experiences have on the professional development of second language teachers."

Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine whether Turkish pre-service EFL teachers reflect a solidly grounded methodological knowledge on their classroom actions when they teach as a requirement of their teaching practice courses. In other words, the main aim of the study was to identify whether Turkish pre-service EFL teachers were aware of the rationale of their own classroom actions or not.

2. Procedure

The participants of the study were 10 pre-service EFL teachers studying their last semester at Anadolu University, ELT Department. The data of the study were collected through non-judgmental classroom observations, and interviews made based on these observations. Each participant's at least two (some participants' three) classroom practices were randomly chosen to be observed. The researcher observed each pre-service teacher's teaching practice and noted down what s/he did and what happened in the class step by step without adding any evaluative comments. The interview sessions were conducted separately with each pre-service teacher within two or three days after the classroom observations. During the interviews the participants were first reminded of their classroom actions with the help of the observation notes, and then they were asked the rationale of each action. All the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions were analyzed in order to identify categories.

3. Findings

The analyses of the data yielded to two main categories. Category one consists of classroom actions for which most of the participants could express a solidly grounded methodological reason (rationale). More specifically, (a) eliciting; (b) using error-correction techniques; (c) putting the activities used in the lesson in a logical order (from simple to complex; from controlled to freer; pre-during-post); and (d) making meaningful transitions between the activities were the classroom actions for which most of the pre-service teachers could express a rationale.

On the other hand, the second category consists of classroom actions for which most of the participants of the study could not express a solidly grounded methodological reason (rationale). For the following classroom actions, most of the pre-service teachers who participated in this study could not bring a methodological explanation: (a) using beginning / warm-up activities; (b) using ending activities (e.g. reviewing the lesson) / giving homework; (c) using pictures / images / audio in the classroom; (d) encouraging students to use dictionaries / supplementary materials; (e) choosing different activity types (matching, fill in the blanks, role-play, pair work, group work, etc.); and (f) using L1 during the lesson.

4. Discussion and Suggestions

Results of this study indicate that there are some areas of teaching for which pre-service teachers could not always bring a solidly grounded methodological explanation, although they were provided with the necessary theoretical knowledge. One of the reasons for this might be the effect of their belief systems on teaching. In other words, pre-service teachers' belief systems (beliefs about English, beliefs about learning, and beliefs about teaching) might be affecting their perceptions of the rationale of classroom actions. In addition, their own experience as a language learner might be another factor which affects their belief systems and their understanding of what is going on in the classroom. Also, being inexperienced in teaching might be an important factor, too.

Golombek (1998) brings three suggestions to teacher educators for training better-developed and more effective teacher candidates. The first suggestion is to connect personal practical knowledge to empirical knowledge. Teacher educators should provide their students with the opportunity of filtering theoretical knowledge through experiential knowledge. This may be accomplished by giving pre-service teachers more opportunities of practicing their theoretical knowledge in classroom demonstrations, and by making them discuss their actions in these demos.

The second suggestion Golombek (1998) makes is to foster reflection to contextualize theoretical knowledge. Putting more emphasis on reflection might help pre-service teachers become more aware of their classroom actions. These reflection sessions might be better in a dialogical form, in which the mentor teachers (teacher educators) make comments to help the pre-service teachers think about the rationales of what they are doing in the classroom.

Golombek's (1998) third suggestion is to explore the role of emotions and beliefs. Teacher educators should be aware of the strong effect of pre-service teachers' belief systems on their classroom actions, and they should try to explore their students' underlying beliefs which might affect their perceptions of classroom actions.

Consequently, any teacher education program that wants to train teacher candidates who are aware of the rationales of all the classroom actions they employ should go beyond only providing the teacher candidates with the necessary methodological knowledge. Pre-service teachers' belief systems and past learning experiences as language learners should always be taken into consideration while designing language teacher education programs.

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Pre-Service Teacher Anxiety Throughout Teacher Practicum

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the level of student teacher anxiety that student teachers from different majors of study experience and whether the level of student teacher anxiety that student teachers from different majors of study experience change throughout the practicum. A revised version of Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS) was administered to 403 student teachers completing their teaching practicum in different departments at Anadolu University Faculty of Education. The reliability analyses showed that the new version of the scale has a high reliability ($\alpha=,916$).

The results of the first administration of the scale which was before the teaching practicum showed that student teachers were moderately anxious about the items in the scale. When each department is taken into consideration, it is seen that student teachers from the Department of Mathematics Teacher Training for Primary School form the less anxious group among all groups. On the other hand, student teachers from the Department of Social Sciences Teacher Training were the most anxious group. The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to see whether there were any significant differences among the departments showed that there was a significant difference among the level of anxiety of student teachers from different departments. Moreover, Scheffe's multiple comparison test was run to see the specific differences among the departments. The analyses revealed that the difference between English Language Teacher Training and Mathematics Teacher Training for Primary School was significant. The second administration of the scale was through the end of the practicum process while students were delivering their lessons as practice teachers. 348 student teachers from seven departments participated in the study by answering the STAS. Once again, student teachers were moderately anxious about the items in the scale. When each department is taken into consideration, it is seen that student teachers from the Department of English Language teacher Training form the less anxious group among all groups. On the other hand, student teachers from the Department of French Language Teacher Training were the most anxious group. . The results of the ANOVA analysis

showed that there was a significant difference among the level of anxiety of student teachers from different departments. Moreover, Tamhane's multiple comparison test was run to see the specific differences among the departments. The analyses revealed that the differences between English Language Teacher Training and German Language teacher Training, French Language Teacher Training, and Social Sciences Teacher Training were significant. In order to find out whether there is a significant change between the two administrations of the STAS, a paired samples t-test was run. The result showed that there was a significant difference between the two administrations, that is to say, the student teachers, regardless of department, were less anxious in the second administration. Furthermore, in order to find out the departmental changes between the two administrations, a 7X2 Mixed-design ANOVA was conducted. It was found that there was a significant difference when time X department relationship is considered although time itself did not yield any significance.

Keywords: student teachers, teaching anxiety, teaching practicum, teacher education

PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT CONDUCTING READING CLASSES

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Abstract

Beliefs of pre-service teachers play an important role in education programs as their belief systems have an effect on how they view the content of the program they study and the instructional materials, tasks, and teaching techniques they are exposed to. Any new information has to compete with the existing beliefs of pre-service teachers; therefore, teacher trainers should take these beliefs into account. Emphasizing the importance of knowing "where they (the pre-service teachers) are 'at' now" Wallace (2001) adds that "no training and supervisory procedures can function with maximum effectiveness without this information" (p.51).

However, identification of pre-service teachers' beliefs prior to their education is not enough. The changes in their beliefs, if there is any, should also be identified. If learning is "as a process of change" (Taggart and Wilson, 1998, p. 6), there should be changes in these would-be teachers' beliefs as they learn their profession by receiving two types of information: received knowledge and experiential knowledge. Received knowledge means "facts, data, theories, etc. which are either by necessity or by convention associated by the study of a particular profession (ibid., p.52); and, "the experiential knowledge" is "professional action (practical experience)" (ibid.). "Through simultaneous processes of assimilation and accommodation, new information is added to an existing repertoire of knowledge" (ibid.). If the mission of the program is to train good teachers, by the end of their education, these future teachers should develop a better understanding

of learning a language and the processes involved in all four skills and their teaching. Therefore, this is expected to have an effect on would-be teachers' beliefs.

Therefore, this cross-sectional study aimed at finding out ELT students' beliefs about teaching reading skill in a language classroom. An additional aim was to find out if the education students go through in the program caused any change in their beliefs about teaching reading. In total, 400 ELT students (100 students from 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th years) participated in the study. For data collection, a four-part questionnaire was used. This questionnaire included Likert scale items, ranking items, and open-ended questions.

In the presentations the findings related with pre-service English language teachers' beliefs about conducting reading classes and the changes in their beliefs throughout their education in the program will be shared. Besides the implications of these findings for pre-service teacher trainers and curriculum developers will be discussed.

Keywords: pre-service teachers' belifs,teaching reading, teacher cognition, L1 use, reading aloud

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Discovering Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs About Teaching Reading

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Abstract

Teachers hold some beliefs about teaching and learning, and bring these beliefs into the classroom with them. Different beliefs lead to different types of classroom practices such as activities, tasks, materials, and teaching techniques. The effect of beliefs on teachers' classroom practices also put pre-service teachers' beliefs on the agenda because their belief systems have an effect on how they view the content of the program they study and the instructional materials, tasks, and teaching techniques they are exposed to. Any new information has to compete with the existing beliefs of pre-service teachers, so teacher trainers should take these beliefs into account. Up to now, there have been several research studies on beliefs of pre-service teachers with regard to general issues such as teaching in general or classroom management specifically; however, the number of studies focusing on teaching language skills is limited. Therefore, the present study focuses on ELT students' beliefs about materials used in EFL reading classes.

The aim of this study was to find out pre-service teachers' beliefs about materials used in EFL reading classes and the effect of training they receive in the program on their beliefs. It was conducted at Anadolu University, ELT Department and 100 students from each year (1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year) participated in the study. For data collection, a three-part questionnaire including both Likert scale items and open-ended questions was administered. The items in the questionnaire focused on content and language—vocabulary and structure—of both intensive and extensive reading materials. For the analysis of quantitative data descriptive statistics was used and qualitative data was categorized according to their themes by two different raters independently. In the presentation the findings and their implications will be shared and discussed.

Keywords: TEACHING READING, MATERIAL SELECTION, TEACHERS' BELIEFS, PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS

Student Teachers' Views Regarding Primary Education Curriculum

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Abstract

2004 primary education curriculum was prepared in light of constructivist approach in Turkey. The main purpose of the present study is to determine student teachers' views regarding primary education curriculum. Consequently, it was found that student teachers thought that new primary education curriculum disapproves memorizing, requires using more resources and investigations. Student teachers expressed that they have sufficient theoretical knowledge about the curriculum, but they need more practical experience to develop their competencies.

Key Words: Student teacher, primary education curriculum

INTRODUCTION

The Ministry of Education redesigned primary education curriculum in Turkey. The newly designed curriculum was applied in 9 cities in 2004- 2005 academic year; and it was conducted all over the country in 2005-2006. The justifications of this curriculum are defined as reflecting the developments in science and technology to education studies, enhancing the quality and equivalence in education, providing sensibility to economics and democracy, development of individual and national values within global values; keeping the integrity of program for 8-year basic education and lastly adapting the teaching programs according to European Union norms. There are considerable changes in the new primary school curriculum. For instance, attainments include knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values besides observable behaviors in the new primary school curriculum. Curriculum was designed with flexibility to adapt changes dynamically. Alternative assessment approaches are considered in consistent with constructivist approach (MEB, 2005, p.18). Yasar et al., (2005) stated that themes are given more importance instead of units in the new curriculum. Eight main skills which are critical thinking, problem solving, being able to do scientific research, creative thinking, entrepreneurship, communication, using information technology, and using Turkish language accurately are placed into the curriculum. Moreover, sub disciplines as spor culture and olympic education, health, environment, counseling, natural disaster education, and earthquake are determined and related with courses. Gozutok et. al. (2005) indicated that new curriculum helps students be much more active in learning-teaching process, and expressing themselves.

2004 primary education curriculum was prepared in light of constructivist approach. Constructivism is a learning theory that identifies how structures and deeper conceptual understanding occur instead of only representing isolating learned behaviors through reinforcement (Fosnot, 1996, p.30). Roots of the constructivism can be seen in Vico's expositions. He expressed that "to know" refers to know how to make. In other words, one knows a thing only when one can tell its components (Von Glaserfeld, 1989, p.123). In today's educational understanding, Jean Piaget raised the basic idea that composes constructivism differ from other theories of cognition. The idea is based on the fact that knowledge cannot have the goal of producing representations of a distinct reality, but instead it has an adaptive function (Von Glaserfeld, 1996, p.3).
Constructivism explains learning process with questioning, interpreting, and analyzing information; using this information and thinking process to form, improve and change our meaning and understandings belong to concepts and ideas; and integrating current experiences with our past experiences regarding a subject (Marlow and Page, 1998, p.10). Constructivist learning settings require learners to take responsibility of learning and be more active. Therefore, constructivist learning settings are designed for the purpose of providing interaction between learners and their environment (Yasar, 1998, p.70).

Becoming a constructivist teacher is required to consider some principles as follows (Brooks and Brooks, 1999, pp. 103-117):
• support student autonomy and initiative,
• use cognitive terminology such as classify, analyze, predict, and create,

- allow student responses to drive lessons,
- examine students' perception of concepts before sharing their own understandings of those concepts,
- encourage students to participate in dialogue, both with the teacher and with other students,
- encourage student to ask thoughtful, open-ended questions
- investigate basis of students' initial responses,
- include students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion,
- wait some time after posing questions,
- provide time for students to construct relationships and create metaphors,
- nurture students' natural curiosity.

Richardson (1997, p.10) pointed out that constructivist teacher education can be seen in two different forms today. In the first one, instructors try to teach student teachers how to teach appropriately within the framework of constructivist approach. Generally, teaching of a particular subject is applied in this type including direct instruction in theory and practice. In the second form, it is important to encourage student teachers to do investigations of hypothesis and perspectives which may be used by them when they begin to teach. Both forms of constructivist teacher education have some advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, Richardson (1997, p.11) underlined the fact that constructivist teacher educators may develop an approach that is coherent with the content of the course and recognizes differences in the nature of constructivist teaching according to the subject matter that is being taught.

In our time, student teachers are expected to learn how to encourage students participate in teaching learning process and then use students' existing knowledge and ideas as a basis to help them construct new, more reasoned, more accurate or more disciplined understandings. Therefore, to learn how to engage students actively is the key principle for successful teaching (Holt-Reynolds, 2000, p.22). Selley (1999, p.3) pointed out that constructivism can be integrated with any curriculum. In this regard, student teachers can manage to do successful teaching with adoption of constructivist principles which give priority to children's own learning. Student teachers who will apply curriculum in primary schools are expected to know primary education curriculum very well. Also, they have to integrate their field knowledge with constructivist principles to realize student based active learning in the classroom.

The main purpose of the present study is to determine student teachers' views regarding primary education curriculum. The following research questions were addressed in the study:
- What do student teachers think about primary education curriculum?
- What do student teachers think about constructivist approach?
- What do student teachers think about difference between previous and current primary education curriculum?
- What do student teachers think about their competencies to apply primary education curriculum?

METHODOLOGY

This study aims to determine student teachers' views regarding primary education curriculum through semi-structured interviews using of a qualitative research approach. The participants of the study were 21 fourth grade student teachers enrolled in the Primary School Teacher Training Program at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education, in Turkey. Ten of the student teachers were male and eleven were female. The interview form was examined by field experts for content validity and one student teacher was interviewed for the pilot study. The final form was completed after student teachers' full range of perceptions regarding the questions in the interview form was determined. The interviews were conducted by using an audio-record instrument.

The data were analyzed descriptively. The data obtained from descriptive analysis were summarized and interpreted related to determined themes. For the purpose of calculating the reliability, the data were examined by two experts. Miles and Huberman's (1994) formula was used to calculate the reliability. As a result of this calculation, the reliability of the study was found as 89.2%.

FINDINGS

This section includes findings of the study. Frequencies of student teachers' were shown in the tables. Opinions were listed from the most repeated opinions to the least repeated ones and opinions were cited directly under the tables. Table 1 shows student teachers' opinions concerning primary education curriculum.

Table 1. Frequencies of Student Teachers' Opinions Related to Primary Education Curriculum

	f
Lack of equipment and background information make applying curriculum difficult.	12
Curriculum is student centered.	7
Entertaining learning via activities and enriched materials take place in the curriculum.	7
There are positive changes compared to the previous curriculum.	5
Curriculum is proper to constructivism and characteristics of primary school children.	4
Activities take too much time.	2

As seen in Table 1 most of the student teachers thought that lack of equipment and background information are the main obstacles which create difficulty in applying the curriculum. Regarding primary education curriculum, one student teacher said *"When I reviewed new primary education curriculum for the first time, I thought that it is very nice. But I think physical conditions of schools and background information of primary school teachers regarding constructivism are not appropriate to apply new curriculum. I think application of curriculum will be better over time."* Additionally, student teachers thought that curriculum is student centered, and entertaining learning via activities and enriched materials take place in the curriculum. Regarding this point one student teacher said *"I think this curriculum prevents students from memorizing knowledge. Students are active learners and focus on primary resources. Curriculum provides an investigative and active process for students in enriched learning settings with various resources."* Moreover, student teachers emphasized that there are positive changes compared to the previous curriculum. They said that curriculum is proper to constructivism and characteristics of primary school children. However student teachers said that activities might take too much time.

Table 2. Frequencies of Student Teachers' Opinions Related to Constructivist Approach

	f
Supervisory role of teacher	17
Student centered approach	16
Process and objective assessment with multi assessment tools and techniques	13
Entertaining and enriched learning settings	10
Active learning	8
Construction of knowledge by learners in their mind by themselves	5
Supporting multidimensional development of children	5
Learning by investigating	5
Requiring equipment and material	5
Proper to individual differences and necessities	2
Cooperative and interactive learning	2

Table 2 shows frequencies of student teachers' opinions related to constructivist approach which is the main theory the curriculum based on. Student teachers stated that supervisory role of teacher, student centered approach, and process and objective assessment with multi assessment tools and techniques are the most important point regarding constructivist approach. One of the student teacher said *"Constructivist approach is really an effective approach. It helps students learn and construct knowledge in their mind on their own. Teachers are supervisor in that approach. Interaction is very*

important. Teachers do not always give students instructions what to do. Students are telling their ideas, too. They answer questions, and participate in activities. They have many alternative activities." Another one said *"I can say that constructivist theory is perfect theory for me. Because it is completely student centered. I think it increases active participation time of students in the course. It makes students eager to do the activities."* According to student teachers entertaining - enriched learning settings and active learning are the other key descriptors of constructivism. Furthermore, construction of knowledge by learners in their mind by themselves, supporting multidimensional development of children, learning by investigating, and requiring equipment and material are the other themes regarding constructivist approach. Lastly, student teachers indicated that constructivism is proper to individual differences and necessities, and it provides cooperative and interactive learning for students.

Table 3. Frequencies of Student Teachers' Opinions Related to Differences between the Previous and Current Primary Education Curriculum

The previous primary education curriculum	f
Teacher centered approach	9
Lecturing and questioning method based on teaching-learning process	5
Result oriented assessment	4
Rote learning	4
Detailed and redundant knowledge	3
Intensive homework	2
Nonrecognition of students adequately	1
Current primary education curriculum	**f**
Process based assessment	13
Student centered approach	12
Learning by doing and living via activities	10
Courses and content changes	9
Instruction for individual differences and development	9
Supervisory role of teacher	7
Long terms studies and research assignments	5
Flexible program	4
Various teaching methods, techniques and materials	4
Entertaining and effective learning	4
Creativity and high level thinking skills	4
Interactive and cooperative studies	3
Association between courses and sub disciplines	3

Frequencies of student teachers' opinions related to differences between the previous and current primary education curriculum are shown in Table 3. Student teachers emphasized that the previous curriculum was teacher centered, and generally lecturing and questioning methods were used in teaching-learning process. For instances, one of them stated that *"When new curriculum is compared with the previous one, teacher was active in the previous curriculum applications, and generally lecturing and questioning methods were preferred for transferring knowledge to students. They did not find using various teaching methods and materials necessary. But now it is changed. Self impression of student is placed to forefront. Furthermore, assessment is different. Previously, student was given an exam, if s/he could manage to pass the exam, s/he was accepted successful. New curriculum requires doing assessment during the course process with multiple assessment tools and techniques."* Another one said *"Content of the courses was changed. For example in Life Science course it is aimed at relating real life with content of the course. Also subjects are tried to be connected with sub disciplines. Teachers are supervisors and students learn actively."* Student teachers believed that the previous curriculum focused on result oriented assessment, rote learning, detailed and redundant knowledge, and intensive homework. On the contrary, according to student teachers current primary education curriculum requires process based assessment, students centered structure, and learning by doing and living via activities. Current primary education curriculum brings courses and content changes. It provides instruction for individual differences. Student teachers pointed out that supervision of teacher, long terms studies and research assignments, flexibility, various teaching methods, techniques and materials, entertaining and effective learning, creativity and high level thinking skills, interaction and cooperative studies, association between courses and sub disciplines are important points about current primary education curriculum.

Table 4. Frequencies of Student Teachers' Opinions Related to Their Competencies to Apply Primary Education Curriculum

Needed **c**ompetencies	f
Teaching profession knowledge	15
Self-improvement and creativity	13
Professional satisfaction	6
Field knowledge	5
Being aware of individual characteristics and differences of children	5
Curriculum knowledge	4
Self-confidence and patience	4
General culture	4
Using technology effectively	4
Being aware of current events and environment	3
Student teachers' own competencies	f
I acquired required competencies	
Our education is adequate	14
Micro teaching studies are beneficial	3
Our program is consistent with constructivism	2
Instructors are efficient	2
I could not acquire required competencies	
I do not believe that our education is adequate	4
I am good at theoretical knowledge but I am not good at practice	4

As seen in Table 4, student teachers thought that teaching profession knowledge is the most important needed competency for applying primary education curriculum. One of them stated that *"Student teachers should have teaching profession knowledge and know how to put this knowledge into practice. How will they apply activities in the classroom? Which materials will they use? How will they use their creativity if they cannot find these materials in their schools? How will they assess students? Students teachers need to answer these questions."* Another one indicated that *"Initially, student teachers should primary school curriculum very well. Apart from this, they should know how to use educational materials. They should develop themselves for the purpose of being a good teacher."* According to student teachers, self-improvement and creativity, professional satisfaction, field knowledge, being aware of individual characteristics and differences of children, curriculum knowledge, self-confidence and patience, general culture, using technology effectively, and being aware of current events and environment are other needed competencies for applying primary education curriculum. When student teachers' own competencies examined, most of them stated that they acquired needed competencies. One of the student teachers indicated that *"I think I can apply constructivist approach in the classroom. Because all our education was constructivism oriented including micro teaching activities."* They emphasized that their education is adequate, micro teaching studies are beneficial, their program is consistent with constructivism, and instructors are efficient. But few of student teachers think that they could not acquire needed competencies. One of them said *"I think program does not prepare us for the real life. We have all necessary equipment and materials for teaching here. But we cannot apply our plans in primary schools. Absence of proper learning settings and teaching materials has an adverse effect on our teaching."* Student teachers pointed out that they do not believe their education is adequate. Also, they thought that they are good at theoretical knowledge but they are not in practice.

Table 5. Frequencies of Student Teachers' Suggestions

	f
Students teachers should be trained as individuals who investigate, produce, think, and develops themselves	3
Primary School Teacher Training Program should have much more practice	11
Students teachers should be educated regarding classroom administration adequately	2
In-service training should be organized for primary school teachers	4
Instructors should be model for constructivist applications	1
Numbers of teaching courses should be increased	3

Frequencies of student teachers' suggestions related to difference between previous and current primary education curriculum are shown in Table 5. In general, student teachers offered that Primary School Teacher Training Program should have much more practice. One of them said that *"Education of our university is very good. Also, our instructors are qualified. My only problem is lack of practice. I feel myself incompetent arising from lack of practice. I think it would be better teaching practice studies were conducted during the last two years in Primary School Teacher Training Program. There should be much more real practice opportunities in Primary Schools instead of observation activities."* Similarly, another student teacher said that *"Our instruction is good but not related to real life sufficiently. I wish we had much more chance to practice. I think we will have difficulties because of lack of practice."* Additionally, student teachers recommended that in-service training should be organized for primary school teachers. It can be said that student teachers focus on teaching methodology courses, classroom administration, qualities of student teachers, and instructors' constructivist applications.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Consequently, it was found that student teachers have positive views on current primary education curriculum. They thought that curriculum requires student centered understanding and entertaining learning with activities and enriched materials. On the other hand, the findings of the study underlined the fact that there are some obstacles for applying the curriculum in the primary schools perfectly. For instance, lack of equipment and background information make applying curriculum difficult. Besides, student teachers emphasized that activities take too much time which will make planning harder. Similar problems were found out by other researchers. For instance, Yaman (2009) investigated relationships between classroom overcrowding and the Turkish language education curriculum in terms of the applicability in overcrowded classes. Moreover, the study focused on the problems encountered in the teaching process and the sufficiency of time for the program. Results of the study showed that according to teachers, activities do not meet the objectives due to pressure of time resulting from overcrowding. In light of the findings, suggestions were offered such as doing group work to lower the effects of overcrowding. Birgin, Tutak and Turkdogan (2009) examined the primary school teachers' views about the new Turkish primary education mathematics curriculum. The results of this study showed that teachers have been aware of distinguishing the new and old mathematics curriculum sufficiently but, teachers have needed knowledge and skills for developing teaching material and implementing student-centered instruction and using alternative assessment methods. It can be said that although primary education curriculum has contemporary and student centered understanding, some factors as crowded classrooms, insufficient physical conditions of schools, and in-service training needs make applying curriculum difficult.

Student teachers' opinions regarding constructivist approach can be concluded that constructivism is a learning approach which requires supervisory role of teacher, student centered understanding, process and objective assessment with multi assessment tools and techniques, entertaining and enriched learning settings, and active learning. It can be said that student teachers are aware of structure and implications of constructivism. Dharmadasa's (2000) study titled "Pre-service Teachers' Perspectives on Constructivist Teaching and Learning" focused on how pre-service teachers perceived constructivist teaching and how they perceived students' learning. Findings of the study showed that pre-service teachers were more concerned about aspects of students' learning than aspects of teaching. Most of them appeared to integrate the theoretical knowledge they learnt from coursework in college with practice but not project their thinking to actual classroom teaching. Pre-service teachers believe that they should develop appropriate knowledge and skills to realize constructivist teaching with confidence. Karadag et al. (2008) found out that primary school teachers did not think that they are adequate to apply constructivist learning approach in the classroom. Researchers recommended that in-service training programs which are not only consist of theoretical knowledge but also have effective application cases should be organized for teachers. Moreover they suggested that student teachers should be educated with constructivist approach. In the scope of related literature it can be said that teachers and student teachers need to see much more example practices, and resources about constructivist approach.

When student teachers were asked to compare the previous curriculum with the current curriculum they stated that current one is better in terms of student activity, enriched teaching-learning process, and performance based assessment during the process. Changes are beneficial and important according to the student teachers. This finding of the study supports the finding regarding student teachers' views on current primary education curriculum which clarified that student teachers have positive views about curriculum and changes. Yangin (2005) examined primary education Turkish course curriculum and the guidebook by comparing it with the previous Turkish course curriculum. Findings of the study revealed that both curricula include similarities as well as differences. The current curriculum is more explanatory than the previous one. Although the current curriculum offers many positive suggestions in theory, problems of insufficiently qualified teaching staff and inadequate equipment might be encountered in practice. Lastly, revising the current curriculum is recommended in the study in accordance with the outcomes of the curriculum in practice. Generally, it can be said that the new curriculum aimed at bringing positive changes. But this positive understanding should be supported with sufficient equipment and in-service training for teachers and student teachers.

Generally, student teachers believe that they acquired needed competencies to apply primary education curriculum which was prepared in light of the constructivist approach. However, they suggested much more practice should be taken place in primary school teacher training program. The study revealed that student teachers have positive views about their pre-service education. This finding is consistent with the findings of other studies. For example, Ozturk, Deveci and Karaduman (2007) examined primary school student teachers' self-efficacy perceptions regarding social studies curriculum. Findings of the study showed that primary school student teachers have high level of self-efficacy in terms of applying primary school social studies curriculum. Gurol and Serhatlioğlu (2007) determined self-efficacy levels of the 4th grade students enrolled in primary school teacher training program about applying new primary school curriculum. Results of the study showed that student teachers have information about new primary school curriculum, and they feel competent to apply curriculum. Arslan and Ozpınar (2008) found out that in education faculties, student teachers acquire necessary qualities and competencies which are expected from the Ministry of National Education. It can be said that although teacher training programs meet student teachers' needs, programs can be developed with more practice opportunities.

To conclude, it might be stated that student teachers have positive views about primary education curriculum, but they prefer to do much more teaching practice to apply curriculum better in their professional life. Additionally, they would like to learn how to manage real life professional problems in their pre-service teacher training process.

Following suggestions can be made based on the findings of this study:
• The close partnership between universities and primary schools can be developed for the purpose of practicing curriculum better.
• Lecturers from university can give courses for in-service training programs for primary school teachers regarding Primary Education Curriculum.
• Number of teaching methodology and practice courses can be increased in Primary School Teacher Training Program.
• Student teachers can be given opportunities to go and teach at different primary schools in different socio- economic regions.

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AN ACTION RESEARCH IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TURKISH COURSE RELATED TO HELPING CHILDREN GAIN CRITICAL LITERACY THROUGH ADVERTISEMENTS

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since democracy has a common and long standing place as a life style, it pushes people to behave actively in the search of the most suitable one among the choices. In this respect, individuals should be able to make the most accurate decision by thinking critically while buying a product, signing a contract, watching an advertisement and reading newspaper articles. This equipment needs critical literacy. Thus, one of the most important duties of our education system is to educate individuals who are critical readers.

With the help of critical literacy that is possible to teach starting from the first years of primary school, it is aimed to help children to see hidden meanings other than the ones provided to them by questioning written, oral or visual messages. Critical literacy teaching would provide students with the opportunity to question the conditions, events and people that they face during their life. Thus, students would have a chance to recognize incorrect information provided to them when they come across in books, written and visual media, and their social life, or social and global subjects.

Critical literacy activities are kinds of activities that could be held in many courses from social sciences to science and technology. However, having reading, writing, and visual reading and visual presentation skills among language skills which are aimed to be taught in language art course would help teach critical literacy primarily in this course and then to be transferred to other courses.

In Turkey, language art is held with the name of Turkish. How to teach critical literacy in Turkish Courses was seen as a problem in this study. In this respect, during the application process, discussions-debates depending on questioning are held through advertisements having the theme of "Production-Consumption and Effectiveness" were shown, and structured teaching activities like social action projects were conducted. With the help of this, students were able to question the visual images and their messages.

1.2. The Purpose of the Study
In this study, it is aimed to investigate how advertisements could be used in order to help students gain critical literacy in Primary School 5th grade students.

2. Methodology
2.1. Research Model
This study will be designed as an action research because of the features of the stuation to be investigated.

Participants-Atmosphere
The participants of the study are class 5/A students attending to Ticaret Odası İlköğretim Okulu (Chamber of Commerce Primary School)in Eskişehir in 2008-2009 spring term. The class consists of 22 students who are sitting in U design in the classroom.

2.2. Data Collection Tools
In big part of the study, which aims to help students gain critical literacy skills in Turkish courses in fifth grade students in primary school, the application process of the activities which are used to help students gain critical literacy skills through advertisements were video recorded. Students were also asked about their opinions related to the process. During the study, students were asked to write about what they experienced that day, what they learned, and their feelings and thoughts about the activities in the last five minutes of the lessons. On the other hand, homework, notebooks, rubrics and self-evaluation forms of the students were accepted as documents and investigated by the researcher. In this

way, the reliability and validity of the study were tried to be provided using more than one data sources and types. During the presentation or interpretation of the results some excerpts will be taken from these data to emphasize some part of statistical data.

2.3. Data Analysis
The analysis of the data in this study will be held in two phases as analysis during data collection and analysis after data collection together with descriptive analysis of the qualitative data. In the descriptive analysis of the data, first, the inventory will be formed, and then a framework for the descriptive analysis will be prepared, analysis of the data according to the prepared framework will be held, findings will be defined, and lastly, the findings will be interpreted.

Key words: Critical literacy, Turkish course, advertisements, visual reading, action research.

RURAL EDUCATION APPLICATIONS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TURKEY

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to describe the applications of multi-grade classroom, transported education and areas based boarding schools and analyze the reseach findings obtained under this topic in Turkey. As a result of the study carried out, it is found out that the application of multi-grade classroom application in the primary education system should be decreased and the number and effectiveness of transported education and area based boarding schools should be increased.

Key Words: Rural education, primary education

INTRODUCTION

The National Education System in Turkey, determined by National Education Basic Act (No: 1739), consists of two main parts, namely "formal education" and "non-formal education". Formal education includes pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education and higher education institutions. Primary education involves the education and training of children in the age group of 6 to 14. Primary education is compulsory for all citizens, boys or girls, and is given free of charge in public schools. Primary education institutions are schools that provide eight years of uninterrupted education, at the end of which graduates receive a primary education diploma. The purpose of primary education is to ensure that every Turkish child acquires the basic knowledge, skills, behaviors, and habits to become a good citizen, is raised in line with the national moral concepts and is prepared for life and for the next education level parallel to his/her interests and skills (MEB, 2002). According to 2008-2009 acdemic year data of Ministry of National Education, in Turkey, primary education consists of 33.769 schools, 10.709.920 students and 453.318 teachers.

THE WAYS USED IN ORDER TO MEET THE NECESSITIES OF PRIMARY EDUCATION OF THE STUDENTS IN RURAL AREAS IN TURKEY

Since there are a lot of small and scattered allocation units in Turkey, it is very difficult to provide eight-year primary education opportunity in all units because providing eight-year compulsory education in 79.319 units would cause education costs to increase to a level that cannot be afforded, and a decline in quality of education. In this respect, some ways are utilized in order to provide better education possibilities to pupils living in small allocation units, spread primary school education sufficiently throughout the country, provide opportunity and possibility equation in education, and increase quality. These are; transporting primary children in rural areas to school, Regional Boarding Primary Schools, or YIBOs, Primary Schools with Hostels, or PIOs, and Multigrade Classrooms.

Transported Education: Transported Education or transported primary education is an application for students in scattered or with less populated areas having no school or doing teaching in multigrade classes to help them benefit from equal opportunities and to provide more quality in education by transporting them to central primary schools on a daily basis (MEB, 2002). In Turkey, transported education is an application which was started in order to help children who are at an age to start education and students who are at schools, where multigrade classes applied in areas having no school, low population and being scattered, to help them have high quality education, to provide equal opportunities in education and to help them benefit equally from eight-year compulsory and continous education possibilities.

Transported education is regulated according to "Transported Primary Education Regulations". Following criteria is considered according to regulation (MEB, 2005a) in choosing allocation units whose children will be taken into transported education:

- Having no school in the allocation unit,
- Having a school building which is made unavailable by natural disasters or other reasons,
- Having less than 10 students in total in 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grades,
- Having insufficient number of classes, and less than 60 students in 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades in the primary school at the allocation unit,
- It is necessary for the allocation unit to have at least 2 kilometers distance with the transport centre primary school according to weather conditions and road safety regulations. If needed lowering this distance to 1.5 kilometers is due to the decision taken by Planning Commision.

The transporting costs and lunch costs of the students are covered by government.

Regional Boarding Primary Schools (YIBO) ve Primary Schools with Hostels (PIO): According to Ministry of National Education Primary Institutions Regulation, students in compulsory education age, who reside in units with no schools or complete first five grades in schools with multigrade classes, are accepted in regional boarding primary schools (YIBO) and primary schools with hostels (PIO) (MEB, 2002).

Regional boarding primary schools are the ones which are established to provide eight-year compulsory education needs of the students who are at compulsory education age and reside in low populated and scattered places. These schools provide opportunities for students, such as accommodation and food during their education. *Primary Schools with Hostels*, on the other hand, is a school in central residential areas without schools, having scattered and low population, or where primary education services cannot be provided. Children at compulsory education age are boarded there free of charge and others living around the school attend daily.

In order to provide primary education services for poor families' children living in villages and towns with no school in rural areas, food, clothing, school books, notebooks, allowences, classroom tools and every needs of the students attending YIBOs and PIOs are paid by the government. Students, who are aged between 6 to 14, and attend YIBOs, benefit from equal opportunities in education under the supervision of the government, this way; it is aimed to develop the area, at which students stay, economically. Covering all the services provided by YIBOs under one centre is an important application to use facilities and human resources effectively and to improve the quality of educational services. PIO's were converted into YIBO's in 2006-2007 academic year.

Education in Multigrade Classrooms: In the Turkish educational system, the term "multigrade classrooms" is used for the case in which one teacher teaches more than one class of different grades at the same time in the same classroom (Aksoy, 2008). Teaching in Multigrade Classrooms is implemented in order to provide primary education to all the students in the society in Turkey.

The reasons for the existence of multigrade classes in Turkey are mostly related to the insufficient number of students, school buildings and teachers (Koksal, 2005). Because in low populated villages having only 45-50 students, it is not possible to build up a school building with five classrooms and nominate five teachers; however, because of the need a building with one or two classrooms is built and one or two teachers are nominatead. On the other hand, in some places, although the number of the students and classrooms are sufficient, the number of the teachers to nominate is insufficient, thus, it becomes an obligation to combine the classes. Moreover, in some other areas, although the number of the students and teachers is sufficient, insufficiency of classrooms makes it an obligation to combine the classess.

2005-2006 academic year in Turkey, a total number of 561.795 students were educated in multigrade classrooms as 214.398 students in 2 grades, 167.053 students in three grades, 16.035 in four grades and 164.309 in five grades together (MEB, 2006).

Numerical data related to education in transported education, regional boarding primary schools and multigrade classes are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Numerical data related to the applications of multigrade classrooms in primary education, transported education and regional boarding primary schools in turkey in 2004-2005 academic year

Applications	Number of Schools	Number of Students
Transported Education	6337	698.061
Regional Boarding Primary School	299	142.788
Multigrade Classrooms	16.379	587.379
Total	23.015	1.428.228

As seen in Table 1. 587.379 student were educated in multigrade classrooms in 2004-2005 academic year in Turkey. The total number for regional boarding primary schools was 299, and number of students attending these was 142.788. 698.061 students from 29.145 schools were transported to 6.337 schools and continue their education via the transported education. According to this data, 1.428.228 students in 23.015 schools attended to multigrade, transported or regional boarding primary schools in Turkey.

According to data related to 2008-2009 academic year, on the other hand, total number of YIBOs is 593 and number of students attending these schools is 262.838. The number of transported schools is 5851 and student number is 683.415 (MEB, 2009a; MEB, 2009b). According to this, the number of YIBOs and students attending to these schools is increased.

In Turkey, Ministry of National Education aims to increase the quality of education in primary schools (Transported, YIBO, PIO) which educate students who live in small allocation units, increase the number of YIBO and PIOs by improving them, and decrease the number of multigrade schools at the lowest number possible (MEB, 2005b).

RESEARCH RESULTS ACCORDING TO TEACHING APPLICATIONS IN TRANSPORTED EDUCATION, REGIONAL BOARDING PRIMARY SCHOOLS/ SCHOOLS WITH HOSTELS AND MULTIGRADE CLASSES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Transported education, regional boarding schools, schools with hostels and multi-grade classes which are among the models developed and applied in order to create equal opportunities for education in Turkey, promote quality and contribute to the development of individuals and different regions are still valid. These applications have a crucial function to provide primary education to students in places where allocation units are scattered and the number of students is scarce. Especially with the passing to continuous eight year education, these applications have been accelerated and there have been many studies conducted. These studies give important information about the effectiveness and problems of the applications mentioned above. The studies in the literature about the transported primary education have put forward these results:

Studies related to transported Education, reveal results that transported education is, in fact, beneficial. It is also observed that with the help of "Transported Education", which affects schooling rates positively and provide effective participation in education, increased the success level of the students continuing their education through it (Kaya and Aksu, 2009, s.177). Principals, teachers and

parents are satisfied with transported education and expects it to be continued (Koc, 2000; Buyukboyaci, 1998; Ozkan, 1997; Karakutuk, 1996; Altunsaray, 1996). Studies related to transported education shows that it assumes an important role in eliminating opportunity and possibility unequality (Kaya ve Aksu, 2009, s.186), and that students who are transported are affected by it positively, have more qualified education, and showed significant increase in their school success (Bulut, 2003; Koc, 2000; Yilmaz, 1998; Buyukboyaci, 1998; Ozkan, 1997; Karakutuk, 1996; Altunsaray, 1996). Related to these, with the help of transported education, students have the opportunity to speak and write better in Turkish. Moreoever, transported education helps eight-year compulsory education to spread, and multigrade classrooms to be decreased (Bulut, 2003; Koc, 2000; Buyukboyaci, 1998;Yilmaz, 1998). Furthermore, it is also indicated that, opportunity and possibility equality was mostly formed, students had their schools where they would continue their education with better opportunities, they attended social and cultural activities more, and they benefited from health services sufficiently (Buyukboyaci, 1998; Yilmaz, 1998; Ozkan, 1997; Karakutuk, 1996). In addition to all these, it is stated that mostly, girls and poor-family children obtained education opportunities, they were provided with more qualified teachers, sufficient number of classrooms, laboratories and education areas, also, student numbers increased, multigrade classroom numbers decreased and the cost of education was lowered with transported education (Karakutuk, 1996).

Although there are findings suggesting that transported education is beneficial, there are also other findings that it is not beneficial. As a matter of fact, it was found out that most of the parents do not want the transported education and states that discontinuing the transported education and opening the schools back would be more beneficial (Isik ve Maya, 2003). Moreover, another finding claims that sense of efficiency of staff working at primary schools carrying out transported education is less than the ones working at primary schools doing normal education (Bastepe, 2002). The other negative finding claims that students in a central school are better than the transported students in reaching the goals of Primary School Mathematics Program for 4th and 5th Grades (Cereno, 1998).

Studies also reveal that transported education has a lot of problems. Most of the students in transported education suffer from headaches. Teachers have difficulty in motivating students to the lesson, especially in the first hour in the morning. Most frequently experienced problem is that students come to classes unprepared. Similarly, the attendance level of parents to meetings at school is very low and parents do not pay much attention to their children's education (Ari, 2003). It is also observed that transported students have problems such as, clothing and allowance (Yilmaz, 1998). Students who benefit from transported education also have problems with nutrition, especially related with lunch. Needed support, related to this issue, cannot be provided by Management of National Education and Governorship (Kucukoglu 2001; Buyukboyaci, 1998; Yilmaz, 1998; Ozkan, 1997; Altunsaray, 1996). Physical facilities, tools and supplies of the schools which are central to transported education are not sufficient. Especially, the lack of classrooms put school management in difficulty (Ari, 2003; Bas, 2001; Yilmaz, 1998; Ozkan 1997 and Altunsaray, 1996). The teachers' and personnels' who work at transported education centre schools' being inexperienced, supervision staffs' not being educated about transported education, and not having a policy concerning transported education causes problems, as well (Kucukoglu, 2001). Moreover, it is also claimed that along with having inappropriate transportation vehicles and uneducated transportation staff increase the risk of accidents (Bas, 2001; Buyukboyaci, 1998; Ozkan, 1997; Recepoglu, 2009, s.427). Furthermore, together with leaving school buildings dormant because of transported education (Koc, 2000), high cost of transportation is seen as an important issue (Pusmaz, 2000). Not asking for the opinions of the parents related to transported education (Bas, 2001; Koc, 2000) is mentioned as another issue.

When the results of the studies concerning Regional Boarding Primary Schools and Schools with Hostels are concerned, it is stated that the physical facilities, educational tools and thechnology used in YIBOs are insufficient (Ari, 2002; Yetim, 2001; Erkul, 1997). Staff working in YIBOs is also inefficient both qualitatively and quantitatively (Aras, 2002; Erkul, 1997). As a matter of fact, there is a need for health care personnel, technical staff and cooks along with education staff (Yetim, 2001). Because of these inadequacies, it is revealed that teachers do not want to work at these schools (Ari, 2002). It is also found out that directors of education do not pay much attention to these schools and most of the principals who face problems are not happy with working in those schools (Aras, 2002). According to the findings of the studies, YIBO principals are not educated for management skills, they have low seniority, they are not experienced enough and change places very often, do not have under graduate and graduate leve education in management science and educational management fields, inspectors do not have seniority in inspection, did not work as inspectors or principals in YIBOs, and

did not attend conferences and seminars related to productivity (Erkul, 1997). As a matter of fact, parallel to these findings, it is also revealed that the realization level of social functions for YIBOs is lower than normal primary schools (Kilic, 2001). In another study, on the other hand, the realization of services provided to students in YIBOs was found high (Yetim, 2001).

Recents studies also claim that family support for students educated in YIBOs is dramatically low (Senol ve Yildiz, 2009, s.375). Psychological uneasinesses like homesickness, reluctance and anger in YIBO students are observed very frequently (Ari, 2002). Likewise, depression and despair level of YIBO II level (6th., 7th., and 8th grade) students is found out to be higher than normal primary school II level (6th., 7th., and 8th grade) students (Cetinturk, 2001). Moreover, aggressiveness to self and antisocial aggressiveness level of YIBO II level (6th., 7th., and 8th grade) students appear to be higher than normal primary school II level (6th., 7th., and 8th grade) students (Ay, 2004). Furthermore, it is also observed that writing skills of YIBO 6th. grade students is lower than normal primary schools students (Yesil, 2003). According to another study, there is no significant difference in concept of self of students who study at YIBOs and students who study at normal primary schools. Likewise, it also found out that writing skills of YIBO 6th. grade students is lower than students of normal primary schools (Guven, 1996).

In one of the studies concerning regional boarding primary schools, parents stated that since there is no regional boarding primary school in their village, all the needs of students is being paid by the government, YIBOs having more facilities, doing more qualified teaching and students' being more successful so that they could continue higher education, they send their children to regional boarding primary schools (Sonmez, 2000).

According to studies held in multigrade classes, teachers stated that this application is beneficial in terms of increasing the students sense of helping each other and sharing, and socializing them (Dursun, 2006, s.53). However, success level of students in multigrade classes is lower than the ones studying in normal primary schools. Findings suggest that 4th and 5th grade students in normal primary schools are more successful in Turkish and Mathematics courses than the ones in multigrade classes (Kilinc, 2005). Similarly, there are a lot of problems in first reading and writing in multigrade classes, thus, success level do not come to the desired level (Cinar, 2004). As a matter of fact, the problems faced in first reading and writing teaching are; teachers are not educated enough in pre-service training, parents are careless, methods and techniques which are used in first reading and writing teaching is not known sufficiently and not applied by the teachers, there is lack of time in first reading and writing teaching, and all the students cannot be dealt with individually, first reading and writing teaching is not supported by inspection and guidance system (Kaya, 2005). There are findings concerning problems related to social sciences course (Bugday, 2003). The realization level of environment-related aims of the social sciences course is found to be lower than the other aims (Aydin, 1997).

In a study which aims to reveal school and student factors affecting student success and to find out what should be done to increase success in science courses in multigrade classes, it is observed that 5th grade students are more successful than 4th grade students, and doing research about the course in science classes, using workbooks, doing experiments, bringing tools to do experiments, writing down the results of the experiments done, repeating the instructed topics, relating them to the real life, using tools, forming level and interest groups, doing self-study, using projects, discussion, show and drama techniques increase success (Ucar, 1997). According to another study which determined the effects of mastery-learning application on learning products in multigrade and normal primary schools in villages, mastery-learning is effective both in multigrade classes and normal classes in village schools (Sonmez, 1998).

There are very important problems that teaching in multigrade classes has. Some of the most common problems are that teacher candidates are not prepared well for this kind of teaching; families are uninterested; the methods and techniques of first reading-writing are not known sufficiently and not used appropriately; students cannot get individual care; and they cannot get used to their classes (Kaya ve Tasdemirci, 2005, s. 1). At schools where multigrade classes are, the teachers cannot spare enough time for each grade (Cinar, 2004; Dursun, 2006, s.53). Multigrade classes application has negative effects on teachers' professional enthusiasm and motivation, thus, they do not want to teach in multigrade classes (Sahin, 2003; Ari, 2002). Schools do not have enough teaching tools (Cinar, 2004).

Teachers who are nominated to multigrade classes do not have enough knowledge and skills related to teaching and managing these classes, and they are not given enough knowledge and skills about multigrade classes teaching at educational institutions they graduate from (Ozben, 1997). Similarly, Teaching candidates do not have enough knowledge and skills related to teaching in multigradae classes. Moreover, existing format of teaching in multigrade classes course that teacher candidates take during their university life do not make any contribution to their level of knowledge and skills about teaching in multigrade classes, thus, they do not know how to behave in classes when they start their teaching career (Izci, 2008, s.111; Sag, 2009, s.20). Moreoever, parents do not provide any contribution and support expected from them (Kaya, 2005; Cinar, 2004). In addition to the application process and results, there are some difficulties in providing sheltering, social life, and basic needs (Sahin, 2003). Other than these, teachers who are appointed as principals need professional counseling. Moreover, while teachers who are appointed as principals see the communication process as a problem, others who are experienced and accept themselves as qualified enough in their career see the evaluation process more problematic (Kaykanaci, 1993).

Research results are summarized according to advantages and disadvantages of transported education, regional boarding primary schools and multigrade classes.

Table 2. Research results according to advantages and disadvantages of transported education, regional boarding primary schools and multigrade classes

	Transported Education	**Regional Boarding Primary Schools**	**Multigrade Classes**
Advantages	• affects schooling rates positively. • provides effective participation in education. • increased the success level of the students.	• all the needs of students is being paid by the government. • YIBOs having more facilities • Teaching is more qualified	• increases the students sense of helping each other and sharing and socializes them.
Disadvantages	• parents do not want the transported education. • efficiency of staff working is less than the primary schools doing normal education. • has high cost of transportation.	• physical facilities, educational tools and technology are insufficient. • psychological uneasiness like homesickness, reluctance and anger are observed very frequently.	• all the students cannot be dealt with individually. • has negative effects on teachers' professional enthusiasm and motivation.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, transported Education, YIBO, PIO and Multigrade Classes which are applied commonly in primary school teaching have separate and common problems. When limited number of studies is concerned, transported education is more beneficial than YIBO, PIO or multigrade classes. Considering this finding, students who do not have a chance to get education in normal primary schools should be registered to Transported education, if this is not possible, then they should be registered to YIBOs; and teaching in multigrade classes should be ended gradually in time. However, it should also be taken into consideration that studies about multigrade classes, which is the oldest application in the country, are very rare. On the other hand, for transported education, YIBO and PIOs to be successful, basic facilities should be strengthened, physical facilities, tools and equipment of these schools should be restored, precautions to solve students' problems like clothing, allowance, health and nutrition should be taken, and transporting vehicles should be made appropriate and drivers should be educated.

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ICT @ AN EARLY AGE (A NEW CHALLENGE FOR NIGERIA)

PROVIDING E-LEARNING CAPACITY TRAINING COURSES TO TEACHERS WORKING IN EARLY CHILD CARE CENTRES (A CASE STUDY)

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A primary focus of this paper is to highlight why the problem of Teachers ICT skills needs to be addressed and what experiences exist in using ICT for this purpose and the impact on children.

ICT can be effectively used in the area of Early child care Education in Nigeria.

The paper concludes by identifying strategies and planning elements that need to be taken into consideration when ICTs are used for Teachers Literacy programmes.

PURPOSE

No real attention is given to Early Childcare Education (ECE)

Nigeria's Universal Basic Education (UBE) targets, 2004, stipulate that 50% of the teachers should be trained in computer skills. The national government regards ECE more as a primary responsibility of parents and other care givers. Its responsibilities are limited, rare in practice and often non-existence. Moreover, the skills and experiences of many teachers are in doubt as many of them are not professionally qualified.

SUMMARY

The project contributes to improve the teaching knowledge and skills of teaching staff in order to help them develop appropriate educational tools and methodologies to deliver better quality education to children aged between 2 and 6 years in the targeted communities.

The advantage of E-Learning is that the trainees can access as much information as possible according to their own needs at their own pace. It also offers them a large range of opportunities to access other source of information as well as invites them to network with different kind of professional sectors all

over the world who have the same aspiration. They will be able to share experiences and expertise to improve their professional skills.

Making ECCC environment more child friendly

The project will work towards improving the learning environment of the two communities of Surulere and Amuwo-Odofin making it more child-friendly. 10 Early Child Care Centres (ECCC) will be selected in each community benefiting in total 20 ECCC. Two teachers will be trained per ECCC, one senior and one junior teacher, who in a second stage will have to train each 3 new teachers in the same ECCC. The teachers will be inclined in using more developmental and interactional teaching methodologies such as participatory approach to children, adjusting to the individual need of the child according to his / her personality and developmental stage and needs.

By the end of the project 160 ECCC teachers will be trained, it is expected that about 2400 children will directly benefit from an improved learning environment within 20 ECCC. The final outcome of this first year is to set up an E-Learning Child Care Network in Lagos (ECCNL) which will allow the consortium to keep track and monitor the evolution of the trained teachers and provide them with refreshing training to enhance their performance in class rooms online.

Actions

1. A Baseline Survey
2. Community Sensitization
3. Selection of qualified ECCC
4. Running e-learning training workshops

OBJECTIVES

1. Promote a healthy hygienic working environment
2. Provide new pedagogical approach
3. Facilitate interactive and participatory communication
4. Introduce time and activity management methodology

GOAL

The training will enable the participants apply and evaluate their attitudes and skills in relation to the professional requirements of an early Childhood educator

Feedback as dialogue: exploring formative assessment practices in distance learning

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Abstract

Feedback is a significant attribute of formative assesment. The view of feedback as an active, participative process, contrasts with the notion of feedback as a transmissive process that involves 'telling' or passing on information. This understanding of feedback as dialogue is fundamental to the process of "closing the loop' (Sadler, 1989). Communication forms part of the mechanism by which the learner monitors, identifies and then is able to 'bridge' the gap in the learning process. The outcome of this dialogue can be disconcerting for the students as there is no 'pre-determined' handed-down set of judgements but a mutually constructed set of targets that they need to act upon. In other words, communication becomes a vital part of the feedback cycle that enables students to actively construct their own understanding of what can be, complex and difficult messages to decipher (Higgins et al. 2001). This notion of feedback can also empower the student and 'disempower' the tutor by redressing the balance of power.

In addition, the above considerations on feedback as dialogue and student empowerment dictate putting the emphasis on assessment strategies that involve the learner at various stages of empowerment. Open and Distance Learning (ODL) environments despite lacking usually in face-to-face communication allow the development of this dialogue by the use of e-assessment.

The paper draws from two projects that explored the significance of formative assessment in higher education by establishing and comparing attitudes to assessment amongst tutors and students within three ODL environments: King's College London (ODL programmes); University of London (external programmes) and the Open University. The paper will put forward a conceptual model of formative assessment based on the literature and will examine how formative assessment can be made to work purposefully within the specific constraints of ODL environments.

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MALAYSIAN WORKFORCE AND OPEN & DISTANCE EDUCATION: DETERRENTS AFFECTING NEEDS TO PARTICIPATE

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ABSTRACT

With the advancement of information and communication technologies, learning among workforce is more flexible and accessible, and at any time as well as at a reasonable cost. This paper discusses the current practices on workforce learning and assesses the deterrents faced by Malaysian human resource enrolled in open and distance education. Deterrents have potential for influencing workforce learners' participation in continuous education. These deterrents have to be identified and be provided for to ensure the achievement of their learning goals.

Keywords:

Workforce Learning, Open and Distance Education, Knowledge-based Manpower, Deterrents, Participation

Introduction

Malaysia's national education policy was formulated in the context of the country's aim to attain fully developed nation status by the year 2020 by implementing knowledge-tailored planning documents such as the Third Outline Perspective Plan or OPP3 (2001-2010), the Ninth Malaysia Plan or 9MP (2006 to 2010), the Second Industrial Master Plan (1996 to 2005), Multimedia Super Corridor Project and Malaysia's Vision 2020. The education system has been reformed to ensure the development of a highly educated, highly skilled professional workforce to transform Malaysia from the production-based economy to the knowledge-based economy. The government has facilitated changes and sought innovative approaches to expand the educational base, covering not only schoolchildren but also adults who are working by promoting higher education at all levels to improve their academic background and competencies.

Trained, skilled and well-educated workforce is critical in enhancing work and economic performance and sustaining competitiveness as Malaysia transforms into an ICT-driven and knowledge-based society (Zainol, 1999). As Proenza (2001) aptly says "… In today's k-based economy, human capital is business capital. And staying close to the source of knowledge creation is not just a good idea; it is a business necessity." Needless to say, many adult learners face a number of problems such as domestic responsibilities, absence from employment, time management and financial liabilities when participating in full-time higher education. Fortunately, accessibility to education programmes through public and private universities and colleges offering part-time higher education are being provided so that Malaysian workforce has the opportunity to acquire new skills and qualifications. One such avenue is Open University Malaysia (OUM), which is offering degrees and diplomas right upto PhDs to adult students via open and distance education (ODL). ODL appeals to many Malaysian workforce because of the weekend day-time classes, flexible lecture time, low programme fee, convenient location of learning centres, wide choice of university learning centres, the proximity to home and familiar surrounding of people and neighbourhood. In addition, courses offered by OUM are carefully designed for the Malaysian workforce in mind. With the knowledge that this ODL provider has the support from the government and private sector, the enrolment among working adults is overwhelming. In just 9 years, due to its flexibility, the number of courses in OUM rose from 5 programmes with 753 students, to 71 programmes offered, with about 89,000 students enrolment (OUM Statistics, September 2009). Because the global economy requires a better-educated worker (Keegan, 1998), and due to the increase in the use of technology in the workplace, many adults seek more schooling (Burns 2001). According to Kachar (2003), adult learners are now the new majority in Malaysian higher education.

Learning via ODL has its own sets of problems: cost and affordability, lack of confidence, support services, inaccessibility to online learning, lack of time, domestic responsibilities, etc. Conditions in most workplaces are also not conducive either, due to unreasonable employers who often do not grant released time-offs, uncooperative peers, as well long working hours and stressful pace. The main investigation carried out here is to explore the deterrents affecting ODL for workforce, which is the underlying structure of the many reasons the working adults give for not being able to participate effectively in ODL.

The research carried out indicates that all respondents (100%) experience somewhat situational, institutional, dispositional and informational deterrent towards participation in ODL. Fortunately, the finding indicates that overall, the workforce learners in this study do not perceive the deterrents listed

to be of major concern. Nevertheless, in response to the need of accelerating the development of future knowledge-based Malaysian workers, recommendations to overcome the deterrents faced are also given for the workforce learners, educators, policy makers, and all those concerned in the formulation of educational policies for workforce learning.

Literature Review

The concept of ODL is becoming more popular nowadays in the traditional university setting as universities reform to face local and global changes in human resource (Santhi et al, 2005). The term 'traditional' is used to describe full-time courses offered in higher education (Lawton & Barnes, 1998) where lectures are held behind closed doors, where face-to-face lectures and tutorial sessions are delivered on a frequent basis with extensive use of teacher-directed teaching. ODL, whereas, consists of the learner being in charge of his/her own learning and self-development where courses are flexibly designed to meet individual requirements, and it also suggests a learner-centred philosophy. The major differences between traditional on-campus programmes and ODL programmes are the instructional models being used to instruct students, the degree of maturation of the two learner groups, the physical location of the students, and the degree of responsibility placed on the two student groups.

Houle (1961) published the first significant study on motivational orientations by adults toward education (Merriam & Caffaralla, 1999). Numerous studies have been conducted that supports the continued use of Houle's typology and Boshier's (1971) Education Participation Scale (EPS) which can be used to determine the needs of adult students who participate in an educational setting (Dirkx, 2000; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Truell & Turner, 1997; and Fujita-Starck, 1996 and Boshier, 1982). Cervero (1995) also argues that educational programmes are intended to benefit the individual learner as much as their employers and thus, it is essential that the needs of individual learners be high on the priority list.

The Deterrents to Participation Scale (DPS), developed by Scanlan & Darkenwald (1984) has been used for researches by Hubble (2000), Rezabeck (1999), Nahdi (1999), Hansen (1999), Galusha (1998), Murphy & Terry (1998), Quigley (1998), Belzer (1998), Miller (1997), and others, who have developed almost similar typologies or classification to identify what factors deter the participants from participating in adult education. The deterrents classifications are situational, dispositional, institutional and informational.

Situational and institutional are structural barriers, those that exist external to the learner and beyond his or her control. Situational barriers are such as lack of day care centres for the learners' children, lack of transportation, lack of family support for learning, health problems, financial or legal difficulties, and personal or family problems, which may not be under their control (Belzer, 1998). Institutional barriers are matters such as scheduling of classes, locations of programmes, and institutional red tape that may discourage participation or retention. Institutional barrier had the widespread support of researchers through their use of this categorization (Rezabeck, 1999; Garland, 1993; Brindley, 1988; Brookfield, 1986; Charner & Frazer, 1986; Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985; Scanlan & Darkenwald, 1984; and Thiel, 1984).

Dispositional deterrents describe barriers that are within the learner, such as fear of failure, unwillingness to try something new (Cross, 1981), lack of self confidence (Rezabeck, 1999), self-esteem and prior educational experience (Hubble, 2000). Quigley (1997) notes that dispositional barriers are the most significant for determining participation and retention in any adult learning programmes. He adds that early identification of at-risk learners in a programme, with appropriate interventions, can significantly reduce drop-out rates and increase retention. "At-risk" learners here

means, those learners who probably have the highest chance of dropping out in the first few critical weeks (Latifah & Mansor, 2007) by virtue of the dispositional barriers than others (Quigley & Kuhne, 1997). In Darkenwald & Merriam's (1982) study, the fourth deterrent was used: informational deterrent, arising from lack of information from faculty among learners regarding educational opportunities in the faculty and difficulty to accessing information from faculty staff.

Thus, there are many deterrents to successful ODL – some are new and many have plagued ODL since it was first conceived.

Methodology

This study applies an exploratory survey which integrates Boshier's (1982) EPS and Scanland & Darkenwald's (1984) DPS as the basis for the research framework. These established scales are applicable in a university setting, and its test-retest reliability and construct validity has been previously certified in countless other studies.

This research utilizes the quantitative research methodology involving a sample of working adults participating in undergraduate programmes in OUM. In addition to examining who participates and why, the objective of this study is to address what deters them from participating effectively. The dependent variable adopted in this study is the participation need and the independent variable is the deterrents. Participation needs variables consist of Boshier's EPS seven factors: communication improvement, social contact/social relationship, educational preparation, professional advancement, family togetherness, escapism/social stimulation and cognitive interest. The questions were formulated to be answered using a seven-point scale, 1 = 'It is not a need at all', 4 = 'Average need', and 7 = 'It is a very strong need'. The deterrents variables four: situational, institutional, dispositional and informational deterrents. Respondents answer each item based on the seven-point scale, namely, 1 = 'I don't agree at all', 4 = 'Average', to 7 = 'I very strongly agree'. Higher scores indicate greater needs and greater deterrents.

Total population of open and distance learners studying in the OUM University Learning Centres at time of study was 24,000. A stratified sampling design was used. The survey sample covered all states in Malaysia and the Krejcie & Morgan (1970) formula was used to determine the minimum sample size, at 95% level of confidence. A pilot study to validate and improve the instrument was conducted in Science University Malaysia (USM) and International Islamic University (UIA). Cronbach alpha more than 0.7 was shown in all the components tested in this study. This was followed by a survey using the validated and improved instrument via direct administration. A total of 454 valid responses (83% of return rate) were used from 550 questionnaires sent. Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) was first used to explore the data, followed by a reliability test. Descriptive and inferential statistics were then employed using the SPSS.

Findings and Discussions

Firstly the socio-demographic profile of the Malaysian workforce participating in ODL is identified. Secondly, the levels of participation needs are determined. Lastly, the strength of the relationship between the four deterrents and seven participation needs are identified. The frequencies, percentages and Pearson Moment Correlation were applied to the entire data. All tests of significance were conducted at alpha = 0.05.

Socio-demographic Profile

Majority (78%) of the respondents are younger adults aged below 39. The average age of the respondents is 33 years. This finding supports Valentine's (1997), MacBrayne's (1995) and Johnstone and Rivera's (1965) studies that students who choose to enrol in distance education are aged in between of 18 to 40 years old. Older workforces are less likely to participate primarily because they are less likely to be promoted in their employment even though new qualifications obtained from ODL. In accordance with human capital theory, these older adults gain less from investments in education.

69.4% of Malays, 13.2% of Chinese and 9.3% of Indians had participated as respondents. Respondents from other races are represented by the percentage of 8.1%. This is not in accordance to the proportion of Malaysian population documented in Census 2000, where Malays comprised 65.1%, Chinese 26.0%, Indians 7.7% and others 1.2% (Population and Housing Census, 2000). Both Malays and Indians have a slight increase in participation rate as compared to the proportion of population. The Chinese demonstrated lower participation rate. What is interesting to note here is the higher participation rate demonstrated mainly by the indigenous people of Sabah and Sarawak. Their participation rate is 8.1% even though they constitute only about 1.2% of the total Malaysian population. This could be due to the availability of ODL in the many parts of rural and remote Sabah and Sarawak. Direct higher education is not easily available for the working adults there.

Married learners constituted the majority workforce learners in ODL. About 78.6% of the respondents were married, 19.8% were single, 0.2% was widowed and 1.3% was divorced. Majority of the respondents (86.6%) had dependents to care for. Earlier studies have found that adult students were more likely to having families (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999; MacBrayne, 1995; and Ross & Powell, 1990). About half of the respondents (49.8%) belong to the lower level of education (SPM and STPM which is equivalent to O-level and A-level) and had not completed tertiary education. A common need may underlie these findings; those who do not have basic higher education such as diploma or degree are more likely to pursue to the formal tertiary education. Findings in previous studies by Valentine (1997), Kim et al. (1995), Courtney (1992), Merriam and Caffarella (1991) and Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) have indicated positive relationship between education level and participation in adult education. In their findings, adults with higher levels of education participated in adult education at a higher rate than those with lower levels of education.

Majority of the respondents (94.8%) earn less than RM3000 per month. It was also found that more than half of the respondents (56.8%) have less than 10 years working experience. Majority (87.0%) have less than 20 years working experience. The distribution of the respondents by monthly income indicated that the sample was relatively not affluent since a high percentage (94.8%) had monthly income of less than RM 3000. Majority of the respondents (93.0%) are made up of permanent workforce where 64.5% respondents are from the government sector. These findings reinforce the important role that employment plays in motivating participation in adult education. A majority of them (89.2%) also travelled less than 100 km to their University Learning Centre.

The Level of Participation Needs

Respondents were asked to indicate the level of need on a seven point scales, ranging from (1) 'It is not a need at all' to (7) 'It is a very strong need' and was recoded to 'Low = 1.0 - 3.0, Moderate = 3.1 - 5.0 and High = 5.1 - 7.0'. The findings showed that younger adults (ages < 39) have higher needs than those in any other age group. Older adults (ages >40) participate with a moderate need. This moderate need towards participation does not appear to be due to education level, income differences, or labour status. It is rather linked to the interests of older adults or the programme offerings.

It is interesting though to know that mid-aged and older adults (ages 40-49, 50-59 and >60) have moderate needs (5.01, 4.83 and 3.98 respectively) towards participation that seem to decline as they get older. The findings also show that all races have almost similar need for participation, ie Malays (mean=5.15), Indians (mean=5.06), Chinese (mean=5.02) and others (mean=5.01). Both married and single respondents have high participation needs (mean=5.12 and mean=5.12). It was also found that both widowed and divorced had moderate participation needs (mean=4.91and mean=4.80). Participants with or without dependents have high level of needs. Interestingly, the level of needs seem to decline as the dependents get lesser.

The findings also showed that SPM, certificate and diploma holder have high participation needs (mean= 5.30, 5.06 and 5.29 respectively), whereas STPM and 'Others' have moderate participation needs (mean 5.03 and 4.87 respectively). The fact that underlies these findings may be that those who do not have basic higher education such as diploma or degree may be more likely to continue their formal tertiary education. This is again in contrast with findings in previous studies by Kim et al. (1995) and Valentine (1997), where positive relationship between education level and participation in adult education was evident.

Table 1: Characteristics of Individual Participation Needs (n = 454)

Variables	Level	f	%	$\bar{x}$	SD	Level
Communication Improvement	Low	8	1.8	5.30	1.02	High
	Moderate	170	37.4			
	High	276	60.8			
Social Contact	Low	52	11.5	4.61	1.23	Moderate
	Moderate	236	52.0			
	High	166	36.6			
Educational Preparation	Low	13	2.9	5.10	0.96	High
	Moderate	193	42.5			
	High	248	54.6			
Professional Advancement	Low	11	2.4	5.36	1.05	High
	Moderate	171	37.7			
	High	272	59.9			
Family Togetherness	Low	15	3.3	4.57	1.34	Moderate

	Moderate	181	39.9			
	High	258	56.8			
Escapism/Social Stimulation	Low	117	25.8	3.99	1.36	Moderate
	Moderate	237	52.2			
	High	100	22.0			
Cognitive Interest	Low	9	2.0	5.31	0.92	High
	Moderate	159	35.0			
	High	286	63.0			
Total Participation Needs	Low	6	1.3	5.11	0.90	High
	Moderate	190	41.9			
	High	258	56.8			

Note: $\bar{x}$ = Low = 1.0 - 3.0   Moderate = 3.1 - 5.0   High = 5.1 - 7.0

Table 1 reveals the means and standard deviations for the seven factors of participation needs. The highest reported need was the professional advancement (mean=5.36). Obviously, workforces participating in this study are motivated to participate in ODL when that involvement will result in professional advancement. This is followed closely by cognitive interest (mean=5.31) and communication improvement (mean=5.30). The lowest reported needs was moderate need for the factors social contact (mean=4.61) and escapism/social stimulation (mean=3.99) respectively. About 98% of the respondents fall in the category of moderate to high level of participation needs. The result achieved is similar to the findings by Truell & Turner (1997). Previous research based on surveys also showed that job-related reasons have often been cited by adults as their main reason for participation in adult education (Merriam and Cafferella 1999; Valentine, 1997; Kim et al. 1995).

The lowest reported needs were the moderate needs for social contact and escapism/social stimulation factors. These results are similar to the findings by Truell & Turner (1997). Social interaction of any kind was of little interest to the participants in this study. Hence, ODL programme planners and administrators, should be aware of this fact when they plan for the professional and cognitive advancement programmes for the workforce learning.

The Level of Deterrents towards Participation Needs

Table 2 indicates that all respondents (100%) experience some form of deterrent in their quest for education through ODL. This means that the workforce experience moderate level of situational, institutional, dispositional and informational deterrents (mean=3.61, mean = 3.68, mean = 3.38, and mean = 3.58 respectively). Specifically when looked into each type of deterrent, more than 90% of respondent experience low to moderate level of deterrent. About 10-12% of respondents face high level

of situational, institutional and informational deterrents and 7.7% respondents face high dispositional deterrent.

Table 2: Characteristics of Deterrents (n = 454)

Variables	Level	f	%	$\bar{x}$	SD	Level
Situational	Low	146	32.2	3.61	1.22	Moderate
	Moderate	263	57.9			
	High	45	9.9			
Institutional	Low	136	30.0	3.68	1.22	Moderate
	Moderate	263	57.9			
	High	55	12.1			
Dispositional	Low	187	41.2	3.38	1.17	Moderate
	Moderate	232	51.1			
	High	35	7.7			
Informational	Low	166	36.6	3.58	1.39	Moderate
	Moderate	237	52.2			
	High	51	11.2			
Total Deterrents	Low	148	32.6	3.56	1.14	Moderate
	Moderate	265	58.4			
	High	41	9.0			

Note: $\bar{x}$ = Low = 1.0 - 3.0   Moderate = 3.1 - 5.0   High = 5.1 - 7.0

Supported by the total deterrent mean of 3.56, most of the respondents were found to be "Average Agree" with almost all items of the scale. Participants seem to perceive moderate deterrence to participation. The mean score of deterrent level is able to indicate the ranks of the deterrents for descriptive purposes. Institutional deterrent is higher than situational and informational. Dispositional has the least mean score.

Relationship between Deterrents and Total Participation Needs

Table 3 below shows the relationship between the four deterrents and total needs to participate. Situational deterrent has weak and negative relationship with participation needs. This shows that the lesser the situational deterrent, the more need the respondents have towards participating in open and distance education. Institutional deterrent has weak but positive relationship with needs to participation. This data means that when the institutional deterrent increases, the need towards participation also increases.

Table 3: Relationships between Deterrent Variables and Total Participation Needs

Variables	r	p
Situational Deterrent	-0.010	0.832
Institutional Deterrent	0.038	0.416
Dispositional Deterrent	0.003	0.955
Informational Deterrent	-0.119	0.011*

Dispositional deterrent has weak but positive relationship with needs to participation. This data means that when the dispositional deterrent increases, the need towards participation also increases. Informational deterrent has weak and negative relationship with participation needs. This shows that the lesser the informational deterrent, the more need the respondents have towards participating in ODL.

Since the p value is not below alpha=0.05 for situational, institutional and dispositional deterrent, there is no significant relationship between these three deterrents and participation needs. However, only informational deterrent is significantly correlated with participation needs.

Relationship between Deterrents and Individual Participation Needs

The seven components of participation needs employed in this study were communication improvement, social contact, educational preparation, professional advancement, family togetherness, escapism and cognitive interest. Table 4 below reveals the relationship between the deterrents and individual participation needs. Pearson Product Moment Correlations were employed in determining the strength of the relationships.

As the p value is not below alpha=0.05, there is no significant relationship between situational deterrent and needs, as well as between institutional deterrent and needs. The p value is below alpha=0.05 for "educational preparation" (r=0.119). Therefore, there is weak, positive and significant relationship between dispositional deterrent and educational preparation need. This means the higher the dispositional deterrent is, the more inclined the respondent is for educational preparation need.

Table 4: Relationship between Deterrent Variables and Individual Participation Needs (n=454)

Variable	Communication Improvement		Social Contact		Educational Preparation		Professional Advancement		Family Togetherness		Escapism		Cognitive Interest	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
Situational Deterrent	0.090	0.055	0.198	0.000	0.125	0.008	0.069	0.144	0.208	0.000	0.370	0.000	0.039	0.405
Institutional Deterrent	0.032	0.501	0.162	0.001	0.091	0.052	0.022	0.642	0.145	0.002	0.340	0.000	-0.007	0.877
Dispositional Deterrent	0.128	0.006	0.196	0.000	0.119*	0.011	0.012	0.792	0.159	0.001	0.387	0.000	-0.016	0.732
Informational Deterrent	0.083	0.076	0.173	0.000	0.109*	0.020	-0.007	0.878	0.583	0.008	0.314	0.000	-0.035	0.454

The p value is also below alpha=0.05 for "educational preparation" (r=0.109). There is significant relationship between informational deterrent and educational preparation needs. This relationship is both weak and positive. The more informational deterrents the respondents experience, the more inclined they are towards educational preparation need.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the Workforce Learners

The self-perceived learning needs and suitability of learning styles of the learning workforce are very often confined by their own experience and knowledge of the current courses. Without recognizing their real learning needs and style, intention to participate in organized learning activities is bound to be low. Learners should therefore understand better their learning needs and style through a more

systematic planning for their needs. They also need to expose themselves to innovative possibilities in terms of course content, learning environments and instructional methods.

Recommendations for the Programme Planners

One important ingredient in needs assessments and programme design is to involve the learners and would-be learners in the process. Such exercises can serve two purposes: Firstly, is to help the programme planner better grasp and interpret the needs and make the programme more relevant to the clients. This would very well remove any particular institutional and information deterrents the workforce learners might encounter. Secondly, is to help the learners themselves better understand their own needs and relate it to the relevance of the programme. This can be done by involving the workforce learners to recruit would-be learners. These workforce learners, who are living and convincing examples of the fact that "the older working adults can learn", could establish rapport and share experiences, whereby for some of the non-learners who have doubts about adult learning, such peer influence could possibly be enough to help break their belief in the myth about ageing and learning.

Recommendations for the Education Providers

To overcome situational deterrents, some deterrents to participation such as cost, financial assistance for courses, transportation problems, and child care, may be beyond the control of education providers to intervene. What could be adopted are for example, child care facilities could be made available at the University Learning Centres, transportation problems could be solved by car-pooling or bus/taxi vouchers, and part-time work could be provided to learners who may want to find extra money to cover cost.

To overcome institutional barrier, the availability of effective learner support services to the ODL students is essential (Birnbaum, 2001; Rezabek, 1999; Galusha, 1998 and Berge & Mrozowski, 1999). A lack of feedback and instructors contacts have been identified as deterrents (Zirkle, 2003; Flowers, 2001; Grace, 2001; Dooley, Patil, & Lineberger, 2000). Hillesheim (1998) has found that the quality of ODL depends on two-way communication between students and faculty. Some suggestions to improve institutional barriers are to provide:

1. toll-free telephone support to all areas of the campus.
2. online provision of learner services such as advice and counseling, library services, admissions, and financial aid which is a critical aspect of any ODL programme.
3. online office hours by faculty.
4. a database system for two-way communication use.
5. continuous monitoring on technical support to determine if deterrents exist that may keep students from accessing courses and programmes.

Interaction among students and between students and the instructor, and a high quality of content and instruction, are desired features of all courses (Mowen and Parks, 1997; Schrum and Berge, 1998). In order to maximize learners' interaction during an ODL course, the workforce learner, instructor, and the instructional designer needs to be very familiar with the characteristics of the delivery system being used. Based on the thorough understanding and competence with these tools, they can plan high quality, stand-alone, interactive learning experiences. Nevertheless, record-keeping of learners' interaction in ODL settings is an essential source for evaluating workforce learners' achievement and participation in a course, as well as evaluating their reaction to the course itself.

Concerning informational barrier, it is difficult for workforce learners as well as education provider to keep pace with technological change. Many adult students lack the knowledge and skills to learn through ODL courses. Flowers (2001) describes the need for institutions to better advertise their courses to facilitate awareness. The educational providers too may lack support staff to assist with

technical problems, to develop distance learning course materials (Dhanarajan, 2003), or to provide distance learning training to students. The technology-enhanced classrooms or laboratories and the infrastructure required to use them may also not be available in most University Learning Centres. Many workforce learners lack access to necessary hardware, software, or the internet. There are concerns over equal access to courses offered via newer technologies such as web-based instruction. Instructors also may lack access to the necessary equipment and courses. High costs to obtain these could also be a deterrent. Among ways to overcome lack of access to information are:

1. Negotiate with the local telephone company to reduce telephone charges could be one way to have easier access to information via internet or telephone.
2. Provide constant and similar messages via multiple channels, such as SMS, email alerts, management and team briefings, high quality catalogues, or on-demand videos of site information and resources.
3. Distribution of organisational, programme and course newsletters, flyers and wall posters.
4. If special infrastructure is built, it is necessary to have planned maintenance and resources to sustain the network over its lifetime.
5. Host an 'open day' for the programme, or course.
6. Reducing users' technical problems regarding access to courses by selecting the simplest courseware to meet the course goals
7. Provide easier access both with internet connection to the server and via direct dial to the server
8. A web page providing information regarding registration, admission, study skills, credit transfers, help-lines, etc.

In dispositional deterrent, adult participants in ODL can feel isolated and alienated due to lack of person-to-person contact, lack of feedback (Galusha, 1998) or may be uneasy about their own sense of competence, strength and weakness to continue learning. As the sense of isolation persists, the students may perceive themselves as unimportant when compared with the full-time, on-campus students (Zirkle, 2002). They may also experience fear in the increase use of technologies and may be lost or intimidated in the learning process.

Some learners are uncomfortable with the use of student-centered, group learning and collaborative online learning activities because they change the traditional social structure of the classroom. They may have adopted external locus of control that could lead to experiencing psychological factors that may impede learning. Solutions are to:

1. encourage participation and elicit feedback among workforce learners in their educational and social interaction so as to increase interactions with each other to establish a community of learners , either web-based or face-to-face.
2. identify workforce learners with external locus of control during the programme orientation, and stream them into small groups to be instructed in skills that would help in changing their external behaviours and attitudes.
3. provide counseling session on continuous basis to workforce learners to elicit and share information from the university and faculty. This will also humanize the information flow to and from the organisation, faculty and the workforce learners. This too can be done either web-based or otherwise. It may be possible to counsel workforce learners with external locus of control in increasing their feelings of self-efficacy, thereby raising their chances to complete the programme of study.
4. offer courses for workforce learners which are interaction-based, either web-based or face-to-face to encourage lack of interest among learners.
5. develop train-the-workforce learner sessions specifically for learning how to use e-tools.
6. improve workforce learners' self-image by conducting seminars on leadership, self-grooming, study skills, time management, etc.

Conclusion

The mean level of deterrents indicates that all respondents (100%) experience *moderate* level of situational, institutional, dispositional and informational deterrent towards participation in ODL. This finding indicates that overall, the workforce learners in this study do not perceive the deterrents listed as major concern. The mean score of deterrent level is able to indicate the ranks of the deterrents for descriptive purposes. Institutional deterrent is higher than situational and informational, which is similar to Rubenson's (2001) research. Dispositional has the least mean score. Partnerships among different units within an organisation or among different organisations require agreements on many fiscal issues. Consideration of these variables help leaders of other open and distance education providers find solutions to reduce or to minimize obstacles in their own organization when they use ODL.

An idea has been proposed that different business organizations are at different stages or levels of maturity regarding the capabilities that they have to conduct distance education (Berge, 2001; Schreiber, 1998). A hypothesis that was tested by Berge and Muilenburg (2001) states that when an organization is in the earlier stages, like OUM, it will face many deterrents. As the organization's competency in ODL as a whole matures, the overall number or intensity of perceived barriers to ODL will be reduced.

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A STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING PERSONNEL OF DISTANCE LEARNING SYSTEM IN INDIA

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INTRODUCTION

The clarion call of the current century culminates the cult of universalisation of higher education to reach all residing in every nook and corner of the country, interested in attaining higher education with a reasonable cost that necessitates a drastic change in the system of higher education. Since formal and conventional system of higher education is costly and meant for a chosen few, there is urgent necessity of revitalizing and rejuvenating the alternative mode of higher education i.e. through distance mode to democratize higher education with low cost to make available a big slice of our total population including those residing in quite remote inaccessible and far-flung areas.

Democratization of higher education and making higher education easily accessible to the growing population in India is the need of the hour. Alternative system and modality of instruction, learning and training are considered essentially inevitable which is employed all the possible and available means, materials and media to bridge the gulf of differences between teacher and learner beautifully is termed as distance learning. Communication, mediated through a host of media, is non-contiguous and carried out at both proactive and interactive stages through pre-produced self-learning packages and other media. For dissemination of academic

inputs effectively in distance teaching institutions (DTI), teachers, who come from the conventional system of education (with probably and unconscious culturally induced bias) or those who join a distance teaching institution afresh (without any background on the area of distance teaching or teacher training): need to learn the knowledge, skills and attitude involved in this novel system of multi-media teaching. To operationalise functioning of teacher effectively the new system requires knowledge of and skills in preparation of self -instructional materials (SIM), curriculum design and development, media selection and media-mix, development of multi-media packages, printing and production, adult-learning and student support, counselling, tele-conferencing, assessment and evaluation, project management and programme evaluation, R&D, planning and management, quality assurance and the like. Development of these complex skills demands rigorous and continuous training, exposure, roundtable and interaction, collaboration and network, and continuing professional development (including development in one's field of disciplinary specialization). This is necessitated further in a situation (like that of distance education) in which educational technology /development methodologies and process as well as the multi media development are in a constant state of flux and innovation.

For academics entangled with higher education in India, two short-term programmes (orientation and refresher) are being organized by the UGC through a large number of university academic staff colleges meant for higher education pedagogy and subject up gradation respectively. The school of education of IGNOU also offers a Postgraduate diploma in higher education for professional development of college and university teachers. For distance teaching institutions, the refresher programmes earlier offered by the UGC through the distance education Academic staff college at university of Poona and Central Institutes of English and Foreign Languages, (CIEFL). Hyderabad are now being offered by Distance Education Council (DEC) at the Staff Training and Research Institute of Distance Education (STRIDE) at Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), New Delhi.

Further, STRIDE also offers Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education (PGDDE) and M.A. in Distance Education (MADE). Along with, it organize refresher and advanced level workshops for varieties of functionaries including teachers in the system. The Yashntrao Chouhan Maharastara Open University (YCMOU) also offers a master programme for training distance teacher and some Open Universities (OUs) and Correspondence Course Institutes (CCIs) also organize orientation and training programmes for distance education functionaries including teachers.

It is high time now to have glance seriously and comprehensively on the staff and professional development needs of distance teachers, the activities and programmes organized by few institutions and those who are involved in multimedia teaching, learning and training.

OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of the study are to trace out the continuing professional development needs and perceptions of teachers and academics of OUs and CCIs, analyzing the present staff development programmes to meet these needs; and to develop a framework for continuing and lifelong professional development of distance teachers in India.

Sample of the Study

Sample for the present study was determined at various stages and it comprises the following.

All the teaching and supporting members in teaching process of all OUs and CCIs for studying their perceptions, needs, expectations, contents and strategies of staff development.

All the teachers working in distance learning programmes of OUs and CCIs who have completed any certificate/diploma/degree programmes or orientation and training activities, research training like M.Phil and Ph.D in distance education and to find out the adequacies and efficacies of these programmes in meeting the professional development needs of teachers.

On the basis of mentioned population, sample was chosen at random in order to collect data needed for the present study.

Tools employed and Techniques of data collection.

For collection of data two Faculty questionnaires and one interview schedule was developed which are described below.

Questionnaire for faculty members

This questionnaire was developed with the objective of gathering data from the teachers of open universities and correspondence course institutes on the characteristics of teachers, their training and professional development needs, perceptions of Distance Education and training in Distance Education, their views on contents and methodologies of training, continuing professional development including the feedback and reward system.

Collection of data

The researchers visited five open universities like Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi, Vardhaman Mahavir Open University (formerly known as Kota Open University) Kota, Dr. B.R.Ambedkar Open University, Hyderabad, Karnataka State Open University, Mysore, Netaji Subash Open University, Kolkata and seven correspondence course institute at Shimla, Hyderabad, Delhi, Annamalai, Kurukshetra, Bhubaneswar and Sambalpur. Interview was conducted simultaneous by the investigator during collection of data.

Findings of the Study

Three hundred distance educators both from open universities and correspondence institutes attached with conventional universities were taken as sample for the present study, out of which 20 institutional heads and distance educators were interviewed by the investigator for the study which are critically analysed later on. The details of sample are described in table 1.

Table 1

Academic Staff taken for the Studies

Category of Staff	Open Universities	Correspondence Course Institutes
Professor	29	25
Associate Professor/ Reader	68	32
Asstt. Professor/ Lecturer	81	45
Total	N= 178	N= 102
Institutional Heads and Distance Educators	20	

$$\sum N = 300$$

The number 2 item of questionnaire for faculty was about the distribution of faculty by age. All the faculty member were divided in 4 categories like less then 56 years, 46-55 years, 36-45 years and more then 35 years. All the samples for the study were distributed accordingly which are mentioned in table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Faculty by Age

Age Range	Open Universities	Correspondence Course Institutes	Total
56 >	20 (11.23%)	15 (14.70%)	35 (12.5%)
46-55	60 (33.70%)	34 (33.33%)	94 (33.57%)
36.45	79 (44.38%)	41(40.19%)	120 (42.85%)
< 35	19(10.67%)	12(11.76%)	31(11.07%)
	N = 178	N = 102	$\sum N = 280$

It is evident from the table 2 that only 35 staff (12.5%) are above 56 years and 245 staff are between the age group of 36 to 55 which comprises 87.5% and they have come to the field of distance education very recently. Thus, necessity arises of providing training   to them.

The next item is regarding to qualification of teaching personnel obtained through conventional system and distance mode and their responses have been presented in the table 3

Table 3

Qualifications acquired through Conventional System and Distance Mode

Types of System	Open Universities	Correspondence Course Institutes	Total
Conventional System	178 (100%)	102 (100%)	280 (100%)
Distance Mode	27 (16.29)	16 (15.68)	43 (15.35%)

It is evinced from the table 3 that only 43 staff (i.e. 15.35%) both from OUs and CCIs have acquired certain qualifications through distance mode and a majority number of staff (86.64%) were new to the system. So, in this circumstance the importance of staff training cannot be ignored.

In the next item, the respondents were requested to state their experience in the teaching profession. The types of experience and numbers of years of the respondents have been presented in table 4.

E-learning Systems and HCI: Issues in replicating the classroom online

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ABSTRACT

Due to an increasing use of the Internet as a delivery mode in education, training and business, Human-computer interaction (HCI) is an important consideration when developing curriculum or professional development programs for the online environment. Human-computer interaction is a branch of science concerned with studying the interaction that occurs between human users and computers, as well as the users and the system, the network and the virtual spaces/environment delivered via the computer screen. When studying online human-computer interaction is much more than how the user interacts with the information on the screen. In many cases the virtual environment and how users interact in and with this environment, presents barriers to student engagement. This is particularly true in technical subjects where teaching and learning in an online environment is even more challenging. This paper considers human-computer interaction in the teaching and learning of online Computer Science programs and the barriers and enablers presented by the technology and the online environment.

Keywords: Human Computer Interaction, HCI, Computer Programming, Elearning, Computer Science, Online Learning

1. Introduction

Due to an increasing use of the Internet as a delivery mode in education, training and business; human-computer interaction (HCI) is an important consideration when developing curriculum or professional development programs for the online environment. HCI is a branch of science concerned with studying the interaction that occurs between human users and computers. However, HCI is much more – it is also about the interaction that occurs between human users and the system, the network and the virtual spaces/environment delivered via the computer screen (DePaula, 2003). When studying online, the virtual environment and how students interact in and with this environment, presents barriers to student engagement. This is particularly true in technical subjects such as programming languages, where teaching and learning in an online environment has proved to be very challenging (Gulatee & Combes, 2006).

In the US 'in the academic year 2001-2, five million people took at least one course online, and three million were enrolled in online degree programs' (Kazmer & Haythornthwaite, 2005, p.7). These figures indicate that online distance education has become a popular alternative to face-to-face instruction. However, recent findings indicate that many of these initiatives have had mixed success (Zemsky & Massey, 2004). While research about elearning is still an emerging field, current studies indicate that there is still much work to be done. Other issues include 'the achievement and maintenance of quality in online learning delivery; ensuring access and equity in the delivery of programs; and establishing practices which can enable online learning to be sustained and to grow as a mainstream activity in university teaching and learning' (Oliver, 2001). In order to ensure that quality assurance goals are met, universities need to look carefully at the programs, the technology and how students respond to this new learning environment. HCI and students' emotional response to using technology and a virtual environment for study is therefore, an important component of successful elearning programs and an aspect that is often ignored. How students interact with the technology and the learning environment created are an important factor in student achievement and retention.

In highly technical subjects such as computer programming courses, students find elearning programs more difficult and time consuming. The technical nature of programming in Computer Science and how this type of content is presented via the online delivery mode may impede students' ability to learn independently. This paper examines some of the HCI issues when developing effective teaching and elearning programs in Computer Science topics, particularly in technical subjects such as programming languages.

2. Definitions of e-learning

E-learning can be defined as learning how to use technology, where content is provided by information communications technologies (ICTs), and teaching is carried out over the Internet. Sharifabadi explains e-learning as "the term used to describe teaching and learning resources or experiences that are, in some way, delivered electronically" (2006, p.391). Peltier, Schibrowsky & Dargo, (2007, p.140) propose that a major "characteristic of online education is that it allows students access to learning without the constraints of time and location". However, e-learning is meant to be more than just websites that contain educational content or linear drill and practice computer software. It includes all aspects of electronic delivery. So watching an educational video; using a digital camera or a computer to edit pictures, text or sounds for a presentation or project; or using an interactive whiteboard in a lesson, can all be considered implementations of e-learning. Therefore, e-learning has been variously described as learning using a range of different delivery technologies and methods such as Computer Based Training (CBT), Web Based Training (WBT), electronic performance support systems, webcasts, listservs and learning management systems (LMS). Learning management systems manage the learning environment and use the technology to "register the learner, schedule learning resources, control and guide learning processes, and analyze and report on the performance of the learner" (Brown, 2006). According to these definitions, e-learning then, is much more than just the delivery of content online via a computer screen. It attempts to emulate the learning environment found in the face-to-face traditional classroom. How students interact with the technology is an important consideration in the development of effective e-learning programs, particularly if students fail to engage with the programs because the delivery mode is an issue.

E-learning is becoming an integral part of the educational scene, with students being offered a range of delivery modes and options for study, particularly blended study where all students have access to learning programs online. Research by the International Data Corporation (IDC) and *Online Learning Magazine* (OLM) found that eighty percent of respondent institutions used online learning courses and planned to expand these by more than forty percent over the next two years (Asgarkhani, 2003). Over ninety percent of US public colleges offer at least one course online and enrollment in these courses is increasing (Litecky,et al, 2006, p.362). However, research by Werry (2002) and Zemsky and Massey (2004) found that there are major issues with e-learning and the success of e-universities and online courses in the US has been mixed. While current emerging research indicates that there are issues with the online delivery of tertiary subjects, e-learning as a delivery mode does appear to be an increasingly popular alternative to traditional face-to-face classrooms. Davis and Wong (2007, p.97) maintain that "while numerous studies have focused on the effectiveness and benefits of e-learning, few have focused on understanding and measuring the user experience and relating this to the actual student usage of the e-learning system". The user experience in online learning is closely related to HCI and the issues that using technology as a vehicle for learning brings to the educational experience.

3. Issues: teaching programming languages in computer science

Computer Science courses such as programming, database development and artificial intelligence (AI), are more difficult to teach and learn than other courses in a wholly online environment (Linschner, 2002), because students are required to develop a range of technical and practical skills, and conceptual understandings, in order to be able to apply this knowledge to different applications and workplace challenges. During their study students communicate with their lecturers and peers via the computer which provides access to a range of information, exemplars and activities to develop the programming language skills. The computer is also a vehicle for communicating directly with lecturers and other students for feedback and sharing, both synchronous and asynchronous, via email, discussion forums (bulletin boards), chat and social networking programs such as wikis and blogs. Online learning programs use the computer interface to present learning materials as well as a communication channel in an effort to emulate the face-to-face educational experience.

Research shows that students in face-to-face programming courses have difficulty visualising abstract concepts (McSporran & King,2005). Computer Science is recognized as an area of instruction that requires complex conceptual knowledge and understandings, and is potentially both highly technical and practical in nature. The understanding of essential abstract concepts that underpin the development of a 'programming mindset' present more challenges to teaching and learning than in other courses (Jehng & Chan, 1998). Students need to develop strategies and utilise their problem-solving skills to creatively solve programming problems or to create new programs (Bayman & Mayer, 1998). Even in a face-to-face teaching-learning environment, students find these units extremely challenging. Therefore, Computer Science students, particularly those working

in programming subjects, are at significant risk when attempting an online course compared to traditional classroom students. In the online environment where the student is physically isolated and where none of the body language and ready/immediate access to the lecturer's knowledge at the point of need is available, teaching and learning becomes even more difficult. Thus, teaching and learning via the computer in these subjects is particularly problematic (Gulatee & Combes, 2008; Gulatee & Combes, 2007).

4. Traditional classrooms versus online learning

The traditional classroom or face-to-face teaching provides students with opportunities to work with experts in their field of study. In a traditional classroom setting conceptual understandings may be immediate and personal through students' interactions with both their lecturers and other students. These traditional interactions contribute social and emotional focus that gives students a chance to compare themselves in terms of performance, problems and priorities with other students. Traditional classes also give students a chance to benefit from other students' questions, mistakes and insights. In the broadest definition, face-to-face tutorials tend to have two main parts:

1. a diagnostic component, in which instructors clarify students' progress with respect to coursework, answering questions, and reflecting on a previous assignment;
2. a lecture or problem-solving component, in which instructors elicit discussion on examples and issues, or in which students solve and discuss problems (Petre & Price, 1997, p.126).

In the wholly online environment the student is physically isolated. None of the body language and ready/immediate access to the lecturer's knowledge at the point of need is available. A major problem with teaching Computer Science topics on the Web is the lack of direct interaction in teaching and learning activities and immediate access to the lecturer. Matzen and Alrifai found that forty-five percent of the students in their research agree that it is more difficult to teach Computer Science on the Web than most other disciplines, especially introductory programming (Matzen & Alrifai, 2006). Another factor affecting the delivery of online teaching and learning includes slow Web-based e-learning systems, which lead to student frustration and course abandonment (Weippl, 2005). Klienman and Entin suggest that the most critical factor in the distant learner's success or failure is the technology setup. They refer to this as the technology hurdle at the start of the semester. If software has not been properly installed and the hardware not functioning smoothly, this tends to affect whether the students remain in the course. Their research also found that some students were overwhelmed with the amount of material to download before even getting started on course content. Therefore, the presentation and release of content in an online course is also a factor affecting success and student completion.

It is clear that an online course's viability is dependent not only on strong teaching-learning support from the university, but also technical support. The university must provide timely and consistent technical assistance throughout the online study period if students are to feel adequately supported (Kleinman & Entin, 2002). Research by Flowers (2001) also found that appropriate technology resources were available for only a percentage of the potential student body and not for the majority of students studying online. While current predictions that " high performance computing will gradually enable virtual communities to make use full of actual face-to-face interactions" (Deek & Espinosa, 2005, p.427), this reality may still be a long way into the future. The National Science Board's *Science and Engineering Indicators* (2006) reporting on science, mathematics and engineering education at all levels, found that many institutions also have low Internet connection speeds (71%), which limits the types of resources that can be provided online. Low bandwidth connections mean that students cannot easily access resources such as streaming video, seamless chat, multimedia simulations and specialist development environments which may be an integral part of the on campus classroom learning environment. Use of specialist resources and development environments is often required in programming for Computer Science. Thus, how students respond and interact with the technology being used for learning and the environment created, is an important component of the learning equation. Successful e-learning programs depend heavily on the technology available and the learning environment created. Students who are hampered by lack of access, issues with infrastructure and equipment and bandwidth, are more likely to have negative experiences and abandon their studies (Hara & Kling, 1999, 2000).

In his research Santally (2005) also focused on the barriers of online education for staff and students. Barriers included technology support, the cost for access to the Internet especially in a developing country, different teaching and learning cultures, and professional and social commitments. An example of technology support problems identified in this research include computer breakdowns and system crashes which affect the students' learning experience (Santally,2005). This research is supported by Combes and Anderson (2006) who found that one third of students studying wholly online experienced technology problems outside the control of the university. The cost of Internet access is also an issue for some students who

cannot afford these costs easily. Differences in learning cultures, especially where students are studying online courses at universities in other countries, cause difficulties for some students who may have serious communication problems (English as a second language), resulting in some students who do not communicate online at all. These issues affect students' learning progress in online courses. Professional and social commitments for both staff and students are also an issue. E-learning research indicates that it is difficult to adjust to and fit in the exigencies of an online study program into already heavily loaded lifestyles (Santally, 2005). Gibson et. al. (2001) found that most students were interested in studying online due to the flexible class timetable, the convenience of attending classes from anywhere and at any time, and the time and cost savings to be gained by not having to travel to university.

For online classes, the most influential negative aspect is instructor and student interaction and hands-on studying. Eom (2006, p.985), suggests that "…instructors' individual attention to students and responsiveness to students concern is the most influential factor to significantly increase the satisfaction of students talking online classes". Just how do students view online learning versus the on-campus experience? Kleinman and Entin (2002) found that learning outcomes between the students in traditional classrooms and online classrooms showed no significant difference. Moreover, the online students were more positive about the value of the course (Kleinman & Entin, 2002). However, these results may have been affected by the students' reasons for taking the course and the age of the students, since older students returning to study are often more committed (Honigsfeld and Dunn, 2006). This research also found that the online environment was preferred for this particular sample group of online students, because they had to study and work at the same time. Therefore, flexibility in scheduling was the most important deciding factor when choosing a course. This result indicates that the students in this online class appreciated the flexibility that allowed them to study, rather than the notion that the traditional classroom is better than the online classroom. In addition, most of the online students in the sample group were older than the on-campus students and had skills and experience in Computer Science before they began the course. They had clear career objectives closely related to the workplace and were, therefore, highly motivated. In this research, the results appear to be closely related to the particular set of students in the sample group and their reasons for studying online, rather than their preferred learning environment.

Honigsfeld and Dunn (2006) also found that the age of the students affects their learning. Older students who return to complete degrees after considerable life experiences, have more self-motivation to complete the course and be successful than traditional classroom students who may be younger. As a result, these older students may be more satisfied with courses than students in traditional classrooms. Students who enter courses with workplace skills and life experiences may also find courses easier. This research also found that the instructors teaching online felt the online environment introduced a greater workload that needed more support from administration, collection and the returning of student work, especially where assessments were not being uploaded online. Santally (2005) found that a major advantage of the Web-based delivery of education materials is that content can be delivered to a number of students and accessed with no restrictions on time and place (2005). Santally also found that "there is a wide belief that using the Web as the only delivery medium for educational materials, does not add significant value to the teaching and learning process" (2005, p1). Spallek et al. (2001) identified the most significant reasons for students choosing to study online are because they can study at home and work to flexible schedules. This research confirms findings by Kleinman and Entin (2002). The research by Lin and Overbaugh (2007) found that most students chose this mode of study due to personal time management issues. Thus, the successful transition from the traditional classroom to online is also influenced by other factors, such as convenience and flexibility, rather than the content or on-campus learning experience.

While first year experience (FYE) studies have identified isolation, anxiety and lack of identity as major impediments to success at university in the first year (McInnes et. al., 1995; McInnes et. al., 2000, Oliver, 2003), the literature does not consider lack of confidence as an issue for first time students. The findings from research into the first year experiences of online students (Combes and Anderson, 2006), suggest that lack of confidence, feelings of isolation and anxiety are closely related. In this study the lecturer is a central figure in the online learning environment. The presence of a pro-active lecturer who gives prompt feedback and maintains early and consistent contact with students, appears to counter-balance the students' need and preference for face-to-face instruction. While factors identified in the FYE on campus studies are evident in the emotional response of online students, lack of confidence and self-efficacy also appear to be key factors. Are HCI and the online learning environment factors for successful student learning and integration into university life? This question is particularly important as more and more universities turn to blended learning programs and the online delivery mode to provide an environmentally friendly and easily accessible alternative to the provision of curriculum and resources. Certainly, the findings in this study suggest that first experiences online do create difficulties for some students and leave lasting impressions of feelings of isolation, lack of confidence and anxiety. In this study the students' HCI and emotional response to online study and their feelings of anxiety and confidence are closely related to feelings of isolation and their ability to connect with the university and the online/on campus community. For online learning to be a satisfying and successful experience for students, information about courses and expectations need to be transparent, the technology easy to use and accessible, two-

way communication between the lecturer and the student consistent, and the development of lecturer-to-student and peer-to-peer asynchronous and synchronous discussions and feedback encouraged. Only when additional support structures, embedded into the online learning experience are provided, will the anonymous and isolationist aspects of working with technology as a vehicle for learning cease to be major impediments to success when studying online at university.

5. E-learning, something new or the same as face-to face?

Most online systems include the delivery of lecture materials, workshops, links to other learning materials and readings, discussion forums, and email. Synchronous and asynchronous methods of communication are used to deliver online materials and tools. Asynchronous methods use collaborative tools that enable students to communicate with their lecturer and their peers at any time. This communication method allows lecturers to put content, course materials and feedback into the online learning system at any time that is convenient or timely for the teaching and learning program. Students can access the materials anywhere and at any time. Instructors and students can also communicate with each other at their own convenience. Gibson, Blackwell, & Hodgetts (2001) found that synchronous communication is an effective online communication tool, in that it allows students to ask questions and get feedback in real time, just like students in the on-campus classroom. The benefit of a synchronous learning environment is that it provides immediate interaction and can mimic the timely feedback loop that is provided in a face-to-face classroom. According to Goldsmith (2001), students tend to have different attitudes toward asynchronous communication. Most students point to positive aspects such as time management and feedback which enhances their ability to learn, as well as convenience for the learner who can study either at home or at work. However, negative reports from students highlight the lack of interaction, with many learners believing that they can better express themselves directly with face-to-face communication (Goldsmith, 2001). Thus, the online delivery model should include a range of student resources, facilitator resources and facilitator support such as online course materials, discussion groups, real-time lectures, learning guidelines, textbooks and access to facilitators. Curriculum designed for the online environment should be holistic and contain a range of learning materials using different formats. While learning management systems such as BlackBoard and WebCT provide the facility for instructors to upload a variety of learning materials with a range of interactivity, instructors not only need to develop and include these types of materials, but they also need to have the skill to moderate and work as online tutors to enhance interaction with students and the online learning experience as a whole.

Results of Leung's (2003) research into online and on-campus versions of the same unit show that students attending traditional classroom lectures have a higher pass rate, even though the satisfaction ratings from both the online and the on-campus class were quite similar. The methods and tools for delivering the online course included both asynchronous and synchronous communication techniques between students and lecturers, and students and their peers (Leung, 2003). However, since most of the students in the sample group for this research had very strong backgrounds and experience in information technology, what might be considered easy for these experienced users may be very hard for beginners attempting to study programming courses online. Gibson et. al. (2001) found that another negative aspect of online learning is the length of time required by the student to complete activities and tasks and learn. He found that students took longer to complete readings and learning tasks online than in a traditional classroom. Other research has found that to successfully design online educational programs, the instructor must ensure that there is a balance between guidelines provided by the system and the human facilitator; learning materials need to include a visual process of inquiry; learners are motivated with the right questions, they should be engaged with a variety of learning activities, and need to be provided with clear guidance (Lim, 2001). Smith and Taveras (2005) also identified interaction with the instructor as the most important factor for students in an e-learning environment, with eighty-five percent of students reporting that they felt insecure, isolated or confused because of the absence of an instructor in online study. In this research project ninety-five percent of instructors said they spent a lot of time replying to online student queries. Since synchronous methods emphasize/simulate a one-to-one style of communication, researchers found that this delivery mode created a lot of intensive work for the instructors, far more than the oral exchange in a face-to-face class. Research by Gibson et al. (2001) also found that in many cases assessments and workshop activities have not really translated well from face-to-face classes into the online learning environment. These researchers and others (Zemsky & Massey, 2004) also found that many e-learning environments have fallen short of student expectations.

Current research findings such as those mentioned above, suggest that we need to consider e-learning as a new paradigm rather than as a substitute for the traditional, face-to-face classroom experience. Certainly online learners are faced with challenges when operating in the virtual environment which requires a range of different skills to engage with and interrogate e-learning materials. Clearly, students and lecturers also need to approach this learning experience differently. Interacting and engaging with learning presented in this medium is very different to face-to-face instruction and curriculum should be designed so that learning materials are rich, varied and provide students with support structures to ensure successful and deep learning takes place (Duderstadt, 2005). Rich online curriculum should contain synchronous and asynchronous facilities, a range of document

formats, links to other online resources, a variety of activities and assessment items based in real world, problem-solving contexts.

6. Is structure enough? The role of audio/visual content and feedback

The delivery mode and the differences between face-to-face and wholly online classrooms affect all learners, not just those studying Computer Science topics. Research by Combes and Anderson (2006) found that most online students felt extremely frustrated by using technology for group discussions, and felt they were missing the sense of rich opportunities often experienced in face-to-face groups. The issues of communicating in a virtual environment where there is no body language or immediate feedback loop so students can evaluate the sense and context of the discussion, are very real for online students. Students also reported that online discussions were time consuming, while lecturers felt that learning activities using virtual, text-based interaction required more effort from the instructor to push students to communicate with their peers. Students were sometimes confused by email IDs and found it difficult to relate to their peers in a wholly online environment. Research about students' reactions to online learning has been criticised as anecdotal rather than systematic or critical by Hara and Kling (1999, 2000). They also suggest that "the researchers who study distance education may be biased toward technology. The field has not critically addressed negative implications, especially from students' perspectives in distance education" (Hara and Kling, 1999, 2000). Tu and Corry identify a number of weaknesses in the research including the following: 'differences between online and traditional communities are not clearly addressed; the focus is usually directed at end products, not the level of self; and most of the data has been derived from short-term studies' (2001).

Even e-learning programs which try to mimic the face-to-face experience that occurs in traditional classrooms fail to address students' needs when they have problems completing workshop activities or an assignment. Frustration plus isolation from the learning experience and a sense of 'not belonging' to a community of learners is a major problem for online students (Combes & Anderson, 2006). E-learning programs where most of the learning materials are text-based and do not contain other formats types such as graphics, multimedia simulations, audio (podcasts) and visual representations, do not provide rich learning experiences for students, who might as well be studying only from a text book. Certainly as technology improves, lecturers have opportunities to provide a wealth of resources to all students, not just those studying wholly online, to augment their teaching-learning programs. Providing audio instructions to students alongside multimedia resources emulates the classroom experience while catering for audiovisual learners. This extra component of the learning experience may assist in making communication clear and enhance understandings for all learners. In this way the technology can be used to develop curriculum that pre-empts problems and provides support for learners at the point of need. This is especially useful in Computer Science programs such as programming languages where students often need immediate feedback to solve problems, create new programs or understand difficult language syntax. Since the audiovisual feedback is provided at the point of need and is available 24/7, students don't have to wait for the lecturer to log in and provide a response. Lecturer workload can be significantly reduced, an important consideration when teaching large classes. Using the technology available in this way provides students with a similar feedback loop as experienced in the face-to-face classroom. Online curriculum that is rich, multi-format and engaging is also available to students throughout the course and provides opportunities for review and revision, to consolidate understandings and conceptual development.

7. Conclusion

E-learning programs are currently in a state of transformation as curriculum designers and lecturers try to emulate the classroom experience. Perhaps it is now time to recognize the importance of HCI and the impact working with technology as a vehicle for learning has on student achievement. HCI is more than just the interaction that occurs between human users and computers. It is also about the whole e-learning experience and how students interact with and their emotional response to the technology and the virtual spaces/environment delivered via the computer screen. Barriers to successful student engagement include their feelings of isolation, anxiety and confidence, often engendered by the technology and technical issues they often have with access and bandwidth. Other barriers to successful student engagement in e-learning programs include feedback and consistent interaction with lecturers and their peers. To encourage deep learning e-learning programs must contain a range of different learning materials and formats, use audiovisuals as well as multimedia and text, include real world assessments designed for the online environment and provide learning support documents/ software. This is particularly the case when teaching technical subjects such as programming languages online, where students need to acquire a range of technical and practical skills, and conceptual understandings, in order to be able to apply this knowledge to different applications and workplace challenges. Due to the rapidly changing nature of technology, technical Computer Science subjects present greater challenges in the e-learning environment. Programming students must acquire practical skills and understandings of essential abstract concepts that underpin the development of a 'programming mindset if they are going to be adequately prepared for the workplace.

Perhaps it is now time to separate e-learning and consider it as a new learning paradigm rather than as a substitute for the traditional, face-to-face classroom experience. Current research into e-learning and virtual learning communities certainly indicates that we need to consider the whole environment, HCI and how students respond to the e-learning experience if we are to create successful curriculum programs. Online students require a different level of support and access to a wide range of rich learning materials. With the current move towards the provision of blended programs, e-learning is no longer just about off campus students either. More and more on campus students are also taking part in the e-learning experience. Since technology is such an integral part of online learning, e-learning programs need to be designed which approach learning as an holistic experience.

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A COMPARISON OF STRING INSTRUCTION BETWEEN AMERICAN AND TURKISH UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract

In this study, the researcher's concern was determining main common problems in string education at the collegiate level both in the United States and the Republic of Turkey. At the end of the study, the results showed that although these countries had such different historical backgrounds and different systems regarding string instruction, professors at universities in both states faced with similar problems, and they offered solutions that would be used globally in such area.

Introduction

The origins of string instruction in the United States (particularly at public schools) date back to the 1800s. A flourishing interest in string pedagogy during the second half of the nineteenth century motivated American music educators to adopt and develop methods originating in Europe. Lewis Benjamin, Charles H. Farnsworth, and Albert Mitchell were among the first educators who systematically introduced string instruction methods to American students. Later, pedagogues such as Joseph Maddy and Paul Rolland made significant contributions to the improvement of string education nationwide. Organizations such as the Music Educators National Conference (MENC), the National School Orchestra Association (NSOA) and the American String Teachers Association (ASTA) were instrumental in coordinating the implementation of string methodologies.

On the other hand, string education in the Republic of Turkey has a short history; however, its development has been rapid. Although the interest in western music began during the eighteenth century in Ottoman Empire period (the so called "westernization" or "modernization" movement) these efforts became broader after the foundation of the Republic of Turkey in October 29, 1923. Music education and string education (as a part of music education) has been influenced and developed by these efforts. Another big influence on string education in the Republic of Turkey is the politics. Often-changing Turkish politics has affected such area.

History of String Education in the United States

During 1850s (until 1900s) Lewis Benjamin was one of the first influential figures in string education. He began teaching private lessons in 1847 and published his own method book *The Music Academy* in 1851. He also operated a free violin school in New York in 1877. Benjamin and other string educators were operating free violin schools in New York, Philadelphia, Camden, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Chicago during the late nineteenth century, and during this time Benjamin decided to hold annual *Children's Carnivals* in Brooklyn and other cities. Increasing public interest led to the establishment of conservatories. These were in New England, Peabody, Oberlin, Boston, Chicago, and Cincinnati at first and were all in European type. At this time, Theodore Thomas was an important figure because he founded the Chicago Symphony Orchestra.

After-school orchestras at high schools existed as early as 1878 in the midwestern and northeastern sections of the country. The first elementary school orchestra was founded at Nathan Hale School in New London, Connecticut, in 1896. By 1898, schools in Richmond, Indiana began to offer high school orchestras as part of the regular school curriculum.

Between 1900 and 1918, Charles H. Farnsworth, a professor of music education at Columbia University, introduced the Maidstone Movement to American music teachers after his observation of the string classes in London while he was on a sabbatical leave in 1908. As another development during this period, Albert Mitchell established the first public school violin class at the Thomas K. Hart School in South Boston in 1911. Therefore, The Boston Public schools became the first school district in America to offer group violin classes as part of the regular curriculum by 1911. Beginning of 1918, schools in several parts of the United States offered string instruction as part of the regular school curriculum.

String instruction was offered in school districts throughout the United States between 1918 and 1929. Approximately 60 string class methods were published during the 1920s (Sollinger 1970: 165). Joseph Maddy organized the first National High School Orchestra and arranged for it to perform at the Music Supervisors National Conference in Detroit, Michigan in 1926. After two

years, and Maddy founded the National High School Orchestra and Band Camp at Interlochen, Michigan with Thaddeus P. Giddings and provided a permanent home for this ensemble.

During the 1930s, two important events occurred in the United States that made negative effect on the development of string education: the great economic depression and the development of talking motion pictures. String programs continued to grow during the early 1930s and orchestras were dominant in most schools. In 1939, The Music Educators National Conference identified two possible reasons for the decrease of public school string programs as follows (Grover 1960: 98):

1. There was a critical shortage of public school string teachers, and
2. Bands were associated with school athletic programs.

The number of school orchestras continued to decline during World War II (1939-1945) because bands were building a national spirit. The most important event about string education that occurred during this time period was the foundation of the American String Teachers Association (ASTA) in 1946. This organization became active in the 1950s, and it created a positive effect on public school string programs.
Between 1950 and 1960, string programs were added in school districts throughout the United States, and many colleges and universities added string teacher education courses. This act resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of trained string teachers. As another development, string instrument manufacturers developed smaller size instruments for school use. The National School Orchestra Association (NSOA) was formed in 1958 and contributed to the growth of school orchestras during this time period.

Many drastic social changes occurred in the United States during the 1960s. For example, the middle class continued to move to the suburbs, and, as a result, increasing economic disparity developed among the socio-economic classes. This movement led to a dramatic decline in funding for urban schools. ASTA sponsored two projects in the 1960s: the establishment of an Orchestra Day at the Midwest International Band and Orchestra Clinic, and the sponsorship of the Suzuki tour group to perform at the ASTA Conference in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1964. ASTA also sponsored a series of Suzuki workshops in different parts of the United States arranging a Talent Education tour to Japan to observe Shinichi Suzuki's teaching.

String programs began to decline in the mid 1970s due to the economic recession that occurred in 1974. Many school districts were forced to eliminate their string programs because of budget cuts; however private Suzuki string programs continued to grow throughout the United States. Most of the students in private Suzuki programs were from upper-income families.

The economic situation continued to deteriorate in the 1980s because of high inflation, high unemployment, and high property taxes. Taxpayers refused to pass bond issues to support the schools; therefore, more string programs disappeared from the public schools.

The 1990s were marked by a rebirth of string programs in many school districts as a result of the rising economic prosperity among the middle and upper classes. ASTA was involved in several projects during this time period, and it created a major impact on the future of public school string education.

In the new millennium, there are two main problems in American public school string education: the critical shortage of qualified string teachers, and economics. It is expected that 2500 future string teachers will graduate from these programs in the next ten years. By the year 2030, it is predicted that the minority student population in the public schools will be at least fifty percent of the total school population (United States Department of Commerce. *Population Projections of the United States by Age, Race, and Hispanic Origins* 1993: xvi-xviii).

History of String Education in the Republic of Turkey

The beloved leader in the Republic of Turkey, who is the "Father of Turks," Mustafa Kemal Atatürk (1881-1938) was enthusiastic about gathering role models (mostly Western) for the new educational system in Turkey after he founded the Republic on October 29, 1923. He invited renowned educators from other countries to visit Turkey and offer their suggestions for educational reform. Among these notable scholars who visited Turkey were John Dewey from the United States in 1924, Alfred Kühne from Germany in 1926, Omar Buyse from Belgium in 1927, and a team led by Walter Kemmerer from the United States in 1933. Another important educational reform initiated by Atatürk was the changing the alphabet in Turkey from

Arabic to Latin. His new government strongly supported this transformation. The Turkish adaptation of the Latin alphabet became mandated by law on November 1, 1928.

Although official music teacher education began in the Republic period in 1924, the need for music teachers had also been noted during the Ottoman Empire period. The need for music teacher education became apparent after the establishment of higher education institutions for teacher training. Music was included in the curriculum of the Girls' Teacher Training School in 1875. Other teacher training schools added music to their curricula in 1910. In 1917, the first music school *Darül Elhan* (Music School) was opened in İstanbul. The school was closed in 1926 (after the Republic), and reopened later as a conservatory in the Republic period.

Today, there are two types of music instruction in Turkish schools as follows:

1. General Music Instruction, which is compulsory at the primary level and optional at the secondary level, and
2. Instrumental/Vocal Music Instruction, which is taught at the Anatolian high schools of fine arts, conservatories, and university music schools.

Since the foundation of the Republic, three types of educational institutions have served string instruction: Anatolian high schools of fine arts at public school level, conservatories (to train professional performers), and university music teacher training schools (to train music teachers for public schools).

Public school string instruction is currently offered only at the Anatolian high schools of fine arts in Turkey. There is no string instruction at elementary and middle school levels and no group-class instruction at secondary level. All instruction at the Anatolian high schools of fine arts is provided in studio settings similar to the instruction that can be found at the conservatories. After students graduate from these schools they continue their education either at conservatories or university music teacher training schools. Those who attend conservatories usually play in professional orchestras and who graduate from university music schools usually become music teachers.

The first university music school was founded in Ankara in 1924, under the name of *Musıkî Muallim Mektebi* (Music Teacher School). The purpose of this school was to prepare music teachers to teach at secondary schools. One of the founders of the Music Teacher School was Professor Eduard Zuckmayer (1890-1972), who was a German composer, pianist and music educator. He was invited to organize the foundation of the institution along with the famous German composer Paul Hindemith (1895-1963). Zuckmayer stayed in Turkey to teach at the Music Teacher School in Ankara until his death in 1972, and Hindemith lived in Turkey for total five months between 1935 and 1937. In 1938, the name of *Musıkî Muallim Mektebi* was changed into *Gazi Terbiye/Eğitim Enstitüsü ve Müzik Şubesi* (Gazi Education Institute and Music Branch). This school provided music teacher training until 1978. After 1978, all music teacher training took place at *Gazi Yükseköğretmen Okulu Müzik Şubesi* (Gazi Higher Teacher Education School – Music Branch) whose curriculum was similar to that of *Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Müzik Eğitimi Bölümü* (Gazi Faculty of Education Music Department), which was a four-year institution reestablished after 1982. There are currently twenty-three university music teacher training schools in Turkey that prepare students to teach music at the secondary school level. Some of these schools also offer master and doctoral degrees in music.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive study was to find out whether common problems in string instruction at the collegiate level would exist in the United States and the Republic of Turkey even though their cultural heritages and histories did not match. Contemporary scholars in Turkey (such as Süer, 1980; Uçan, 1982; Yayla, 2003; Özeke, 2003; Uslu, 2000; Tebiş, 2004; Özen, 2005; Kasap, 2005; Söker, 2006; Göktürk, 2008) have identified several weaknesses in undergraduate string teacher education at the collegiate level. These researchers indicated that insufficient facilities, the lack of well-trained instructors, outdated teaching methods, and student's lack of spirit to become string teachers were among these problems.

Methodology and Procedures

The research took in place in spring 2007 in Turkey and in spring 2009 in the United States. All the string professors taught at university music teacher training schools in Turkey (*N*= 71) and four string education professors (from different states and regions) in the United States have participated to the study. The reason that four American string educators were selected was because of the high number of American universities that offer such education. These professors were chosen as the

representatives of the American educational system regarding string instruction at the collegiate level based on their reputations in the area.

The questionnaire was developed after a preliminary study, which was also developed through an extensive review of the literature related to music education and string teacher education in Turkey. For the preliminary study, five open-ended questions were sent to eighteen randomly-selected string professors in Turkish universities. Based on the responses of this survey, the questionnaire, which was divided into six sections, was developed. Each section covered a different topic as follows:

- *Section 1* (String Skills/Techniques Courses)
- *Section 2* (String Methods/Pedagogy Courses
- *Section 3* (Private Lesson Instruction
- *Section 4* (String Laboratory Courses)
- *Section 5* (Strengths and Weaknesses of the Current Undergraduate String Education Degree Program)
- *Section 6* (Suggestions for Improving the Undergraduate String Education Degree Program)

The obtained data was presented in two different categories. The closed-format questions were presented as quantitative data, and the open-ended questions were presented as qualitative data. The findings regarding the responses by the participants from both countries were compared. Based on the comparison, the similarities and the differences in string teacher education between the United States and the Republic of Turkey were drawn, and possible global solutions for the existing problems in both countries were stated at the end of the study.

Results

Four American and a total of sixty-one out of seventy-one Turkish string professors (from twenty-two universities) responded to the study. The first part in this section includes the quantitative findings (#1 through #18 the questionnaire). The second part contains the qualitative findings for the open-ended questions (#19 through #26 the questionnaire).

Quantitative Results

Section 1: String Skills/Techniques Courses

This section of the survey consisted of the first five questions. According to the results, all four respondents from the United States indicated that their schools offered String Skills/Techniques courses while only ten Turkish universities offered such instruction.

Both American and Turkish participants indicated that one String Skills/Techniques course was given at their schools, and this course was offered two to five hours per week and mostly taught by string education specialists. According to the professors from both countries, the following skills are taught in such courses: (a) correct playing posture for each of the four string instruments, (b) correct instrument hold for each of the four string instruments, (c) correct bow holds for each of the four string instruments, (d) correct method of tone production for each of the four string instruments, (e) basic bowing patterns and articulations, (f) fingering patterns in first position for each of the four string instruments, (g) correct tuning procedures for each of the four string instruments. American professors further indicated that (a) full range of all instruments in 1st position (b) method book reviews, ensemble experience, repertoire review, (c) finger patterns for each of the four instruments through 5th position, (d) techniques of volume manipulation, (e) introductory experience in shifting and vibrato, and (f) introductory coverage of Suzuki and Rolland were taught in such courses. The method books used in these courses at American universities were listed as (a) *Essential Elements for Strings 2000*, and (b) Dillon, Kjelland, & O'Reilly *Strictly Strings*, Books 1 and 2. They also stated that students were required to prepare their own arrangements to teach this class, and a lab component also existed once a week, where Grade-1 and Grade-2 orchestral literature was rehearsed. On the other hand, for violin, *Kreutzer*, *Sevcik*, *Hans Sitt*, *Rodionov*, Fortunatov's *Young Violinist, Mazas, Fiorillo, Rode, Wohlfahrt*, *Keman Eğitimi* by Ömer Can, *Yaylı Çalgılar (Keman)* I, II, III [String Instruments (Violin) I, II, III] by Edip Günay and Ali Uçan, *Keman Eğitimi İçin Özgün Parçalar* [Original Pieces for Violin] by Ali Uçan, *Anadolu Güzel Sanatlar Liseleri İçin Keman Ders Kitapları Sınıf 1, 2, 3, 4* [Violin Instruction Books for Anatolian Fine Arts High Schools 1, 2, 3, 4] by Ali Uçan, and *Crickboom*; for viola, *Viyola Metodu I-II-III* [Viola Method I-II-III] by Ayfer Tanrıverdi; and for cello, *Sebastian Lee*, *J. Werner Violoncello School*, and *Dotzauer Exercises* are used in Turkey.

Section 2: String Methods/Pedagogy Courses

Questions #6 through #10 in the questionnaire requested information about String Methods/Pedagogy courses. According to the results, three respondents from the States and four schools in Turkey offered such instruction.

Both American and Turkish professors indicated that only one String Methods/Pedagogy course was given at their schools, and this course was offered one to three hours per week, and mostly taught by string education specialists. According to the respondents from both countries, the following skills are taught in such courses: (a) identifying fingerings in all positions for each of the four orchestral string instruments, (b) selecting appropriate bowings, care and maintenance of string instruments and accessories, (c) how to make minor adjustments and repairs of string instruments, identifying intonation problems and prescribing corrective procedures, (d) selecting instructional method books, and (e) selecting repertoire for solo instruments. In addition, American professors indicated that (a) Students prepared three orchestral scores from the *Teaching Music Through Performance In Orchestra Series* and rehearsed this music during class; (b) *Bob Culver Master Teacher Profile* was used; (c) Two secondary instrument solo recitals were mandatory; (d) Students designed a curriculum to teach either vibrato, spiccato, or shifting based on five or more sources; (e) 15-hour field experience in the public schools was mandatory; and (f) Paul Rolland's *The Teaching of Action in String Playing* was used as a source in such courses. The method books used in String Methods/Pedagogy courses in American schools were listed as (a) *Essential Techniques for Strings* Book 3, (b) Suzuki Books 1-3 for each of the instruments, (c) the Textbook, (d) *Teaching Music Through Performance in Orchestra,* (e) Paul Rolland's *The Teaching of Action in String Playing*, and (f) *Essential Elements for Strings 2000*. Turkish respondents listed *Keman Eğitimi* by Ömer Can, *Çevreden Evrene Keman Eğitimi – I: Birinci Konum/Birinci Kitap* by Edip Günay, *Sebastian Lee, Fevillard, Dotzauer, Popper, Grutzmacher, Duport, Keman Eğitimi İçin Özgün Parçalar* [Original Pieces for Violin] by Ali Uçan, *Yaylı Çalgılar (Keman) Sınıf I, II, III* [Strings (Violin) Grade I, II, III] by Edip Günay and Ali Uçan, and *Anadolu Güzel Sanatlar Liseleri İçin Keman Ders Kitapları Sınıf 1, 2, 3, 4* [Violin Teaching Books for the Anatolian Fine Arts High Schools Grades 1, 2, 3, 4] by Ali Uçan as the sources used in such courses.

Section 3: Private Lesson Instruction

Questions #11 through #15 dealt with private lesson instruction. All respondents from both countries answered the questions in this section. Two of the American respondents indicated that three years were required for such instruction at their universities whereas the other two American and all Turkish professors stated that four-year private lesson instruction was the requirement. According to the responses, students meet once a week for these courses in the United States, while the weekly meetings range from one to two hours at Turkish universities. Neither American nor Turkish students learn how to play all string instruments in private lesson instruction. Regarding the skills, (a) correct playing posture, (b) correct instrument hold, (c) correct bow hold, (d) basic bowing patterns and articulations, (e) fingering patterns for all the positions, and (f) correct tuning procedures are taught in such courses in both countries. American teachers listed *Mazas*, *Kreutzer*, *Dont*, *Wohlfahrt*, *Sevcik*, *Rode Caprices*, *Schradieck*, *Korgouff*, *Ysaye* while Turkish professors included some additional sources to the previous list of method books used in these courses such as *Keman Eğitimi* by Ömer Can, *Mazas*, *Fiorillo*, *Anadolu Güzel Sanatlar Liseleri İçin Keman Ders Kitapları Sınıf 1, 2, 3, 4* [Violin Instruction for Anatolian High Schools of Fine Arts 1, 2, 3, 4] by Ali Uçan, *Komarovsky, Hoffmaister, Compagnoly, Palashko, Leopold Auer, Ivan Galamian,* for violin; *Viyola Metodu I-II-III* [Viola Method I-II-III] by Ayfer Tanrıverdi, and *Viyola İçin Dizi ve Yay Çeşitleri* [Scales and Bow Techniques for Viola] by Oktay Dalaysel & Fatih Yayla for viola; and *Feuillard, Werner, Dupport, Grutzmacher, Popper, Schroder Technique Exercises, Werner, Dotzauer I-II-III, J. Stutuchewsky, H. Becker, Feuillard, Mainardi,* and *J. Merkb-Cossmann* for cello.

Section 4: String Laboratory Courses

Questions #16 through #18 in the questionnaire requested information about string laboratory courses that were offered at the respondents' universities. Based on the responses, such instruction was given at two Turkish and two American universities. The American participants stated that four String Laboratory courses were given at their schools (offered two to five hours per week), while the amount of such courses was one to two in Turkish universities (offered three hours per week). The materials that both American and Turkish string professors use in String Laboratory courses were listed as standard orchestral literature, and public school arrangements of orchestral literature. The participants from the United States further indicated that their students received a minimum of six semesters of these courses, and the skills included (a) knowledge of repertoire, (b) lesson planning, (c) rehearsal skills, (d) score study, (e) teaching conceptually, (f) teaching effectively, (g) assessment and grading procedures, and (h) classroom management. They also stated that they used a substantial amount of original music composed

for public school string orchestra, and a bulk of this literature had been pulled from the *Teaching Music through Performance in Orchestra Series*. Arrangements and original pieces by Turkish composers were also listed by Turkish respondents as sources used in such courses.

Qualitative Results

Section 5: Strengths and Weaknesses of the Current Undergraduate String Education Degree Program

Participants were asked in questions #19 and #20 about the strengths and weaknesses in string teacher education in their countries. Professors from the United States listed following strengths in string teacher education area: (a) the use of more contemporary instructional materials such as alternative styles material, which is best taught by ear so that students should regularly find and create their own arrangements, (b) the increased use of string teaching methods such as Rolland and Suzuki, and (c) changes in the curricular structure such as increased contact in laboratory classes.

The respondents from Turkey listed the following strengths: (a) increased use of string teaching methods from other countries such as *Popper* and *Grutzmacher*, (b) increased motivation of string education students to become better performers, (c) the establishment of Anatolian high schools of fine arts, (d) improved university teaching facilities, (e) the inclusion of more Turkish music in string method books, (f) increased number of string education specialists, (g) a rejuvenated interest in curriculum development, (h) a marked improvement in evaluation tools, and (i) increased number of high quality string faculty at universities.

American professors mentioned about following weaknesses in string teacher education programs: (a) too much theory and lack of practice in the area, (b) the need for additional semester of advanced string methods for the string majors to develop additional secondary instrument skills, (c) a better understanding of appropriate solo and etude material for high school and middle school students, (d) need for more conducting opportunities and more chamber music, and (e) the balance between the performance and pedagogy course requirements.

The respondents from Turkey indicated that (a) the general level of the applied string instruction, (b) the quality of the teaching methods and materials, (c) the balance between the performance and pedagogy course requirements, and (d) the length of the degree program late beginning age of string instruction, (e) the lack of a musical environment to demonstrate musical abilities (for students) and the lack of inclusion of musical knowledge into their daily lives, (f) poor physical conditions at some schools, (g) the heavy course load of instructors and professors, (h) the lack of quality in standardization in measurement-evaluation tools for auditions, (i) motivational problems of college music students, (j) the limited length of the program at university music teacher training schools, and (k) lack of research in the area were stated were main weaknesses in string teacher training area (Göktürk, 2008).

Section 6: Suggestions for Improving the Undergraduate String Education Degree Program

Participants were asked in questions #21 through #26 of the questionnaire whether they had suggestions to improve the string teacher education degree program in their countries. These suggestions are discussed in detail in the "Conclusion" and "Recommendations" sections in the article.

Conclusion

Several problems were identified in this study that university string professors and researchers in the string teacher education area in both the United States and Turkey should address. These issues in the United States are as follows:

1. lack of pedagogy instruction/guidance in the context of real, authentic string playing and teaching
2. lack of string pedagogy courses
3. lack of use of Paul Rolland's method
4. the need for more string workshops
5. More world music and folk music should be included in books.
6. More research studies should be conducted.
7. String faculty, who are specifically dedicated to train young string teachers, should be hired.
8. More string specialists with public school teaching experience teaching string education classes are needed.
9. It is very important to differentiate between teaching orchestra and band. Often in the United States, these two ensembles are treated as if they are the same when future teachers are being trained. The skills needed to be a successful orchestra teacher are somewhat different than the skills needed to be a successful band teacher.

In Turkey, the issues about the topic are as follows (Göktürk, 2008):

1. the lack of pedagogical courses in the string curricula at the collegiate level, such as String Skills/Techniques, String Methods/Pedagogy and String Laboratory Courses
2. technical problems and poor playing habits of students
3. the late beginning age of string instruction
4. the lack of research in the string teacher education area
5. the need for more string teacher workshops
6. the need for the inclusion of more Turkish music in string methods and the curriculum
7. the need for the adaptation of contemporary string method books and approaches from other countries
8. insufficient class time for private studio instruction
9. the questionable quality of string teachers at university music teacher training schools in the eastern region (particularly, string professors who do not know about recent developments in the area and pedagogical approaches to teach strings; string professors who are attached to their outdated approaches in string teaching)
10. substandard facilities in eastern university music teacher training schools
11. an insufficient number of string professors at eastern universities
12. the need for an organization for string teachers at the national level (to exchange ideas and knowledge)
13. the need for more Turkish string method books (particularly for lower string instruments)

Based on the issues in both countries as stated above, the following section of the article will present global solutions that can also be used by other countries which struggle with similar problems.

Recommendations

Based on the results, while they have different challenges, both the United States and Turkey have also similar problems in string teacher training area, although they have completely different historical backgrounds. As the similar problems, it is believed that the following recommendations can be global solutions for these common challenges in string teacher training area not only in both countries but also in others which struggle with similar inconveniences:

1. More weekly hours for string area courses (especially, string pedagogy courses) are needed.
2. More string faculty should be hired at the universities.
3. The methods by Paul Rolland and Shinichi Suzuki are not used as widespread as they could be. Both methods should be used more in both public school and university levels.
4. More folk music and world music should take place in method books, and new sources for string teaching should be developed by experts in the area.
5. More string workshops need to be offered to raise the quality level of string faculty.
6. More research studies need to be conducted in the string teacher education area to offer solutions for the existing problems.

7. Financial sources should be searched for the improvement of string teacher education. Grants need to be pursued by researchers in the area to upgrade the facilities and the quality of string education.
8. String education majors should be encouraged to perform more and to attend more concerts by professional symphony orchestras.
9. Exchange student/scholar programs should be established between the United States and Turkey so that both countries can learn about each other and develop better solutions for the existing challenges in the area via more interaction.

The future of string teacher education in the United States and in Turkey is predicated upon continual reforms in the area. By presenting the findings of the present study, new educational policies can be created and new solutions can be offered in the area through the collaborations among researchers in both countries. The United States has a long history in string teaching, and Turkey has strong musical traditions and a distinctive national identity. One of the ways to strengthen string teacher education globally is to develop effective practices in the educational system with the support of sources and teaching methods from both countries. In general, a combination of both national and international sources will be the most effective path to achieve excellence in music education in the world.

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CORREPETITION AS THE PROBLEM AT TURKISH MUSIC TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

Correpetition is an important problem at music teacher training schools in Turkey. Correpetition is not included as a course in the curriculum. Piano teachers at these schools accompany others because they are asked or asssigned, and this situation creates several problems. Therefore, students either play with no accompaniment or limited rehearsals before concerts or exams. In this study, the correpetition problem at Turkish universities was identified and possible solutions for the existing problems were stated.

Key Words: Piano, accompaniment, correpetition, piano instruction in Turkey.

1. INTRODUCTION

As in many countries, music education is also divided into three types in Turkey: (a) general music education, (b) amateur music education, and (c) professional music education. General music education begins in preschool, and the first eight years of schooling (in elemantary school and middle school levels) it is a mandatory subject of the curriculum. The purpose is to earn or to develop musical behavior through music. Amateur music education is usually used for out-side-of-school activities at private organizations, private music schools, libraries, public education houses or for local festivals.

Professional music education is given to individuals who want be to be trained as professional musicians. At the university level, professional music education is provided in the following main areas: to train composers or performers at conservatories; to train same types of musicians as in conservatories and music scholars (e. g. musicologists) at schools of fine arts; to train musical instrument makers at conservatories and at music teacher training schools; and to train military band musicians at Ankara State Conservatory and at Military Music School in Ankara. There are currently twenty-four conservatories, twenty-three colleges of fine arts (at the university level), and twenty-three music teacher training schools in Turkey. Music teacher training schools train music teachers for public schools. Music teachers are individuals who are the musician-educators teaching students general music and musical knowledge at public schools.

During the early years of the Republic of Turkey[1], the first school to train professional musicians was opened in Ankara in 1924 with the name *Musiki Muallim Mektebi* [Music Teacher School]. *Musiki Muallim Mektebi* became *Gazi Terbiye Enstitüsü* [*Gazi* Education Institute] in 1937. After this first music teacher training institution was opened in Ankara, several others have followed in time. Today, twenty-three music education departments exist as parts of colleges of education at universities in Turkey. In these departments, centralized curriculum that *Yükseköğretim Kurulu* (YÖK)[2] (Higher Education Council) prepares is used. The latest curriculum currently used at these music teacher training institutions was developed in 2006. This recent curriculum consists of 165 credit hours and total of 208 hours of course load (124 credit-hours are theoretical and 84 credit-hours are practical

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[1] This period begins on October 29, 1923 and still continues on present day. Since the foundation of the Republic, Western Classical Music has been given more importance in Turkey, and many "firsts" in musical area was achieved during the early years of this period. Meantime, the five-hundred-year musical tradition in the West was modeled, and a modern perception in musical life was created in only thirty to forty years.

[2] Higher education has been reestablished academically, instiutionaly, and administrative-wise with the 2547 Higher Education Act that became effective in 1981. With this legislation, all higher education institutions were assembled under the roof of *Yükseköğretim Kurulu* (YÖK) [Higher Education Council]; academies became universities; education institues became colleges of education; and conservatories and vocational two-year schools became parts of universities. Therefore, YÖK is the only institution that is responsible for all higher education institutions with the authorization of the acts #130 ve #131 in the Constitution (http://www.yok.gov.tr/content/blogcategory/204/40/lang,tr_TR/)

courses), and it spreads into eight academic semesters (four years). These courses are in musical, educational and general cultural areas[3] (See the curriculum as the appendix).

2. PURPOSE of the STUDY

The purpose of the present study was to examine the place of correpetition in the curriculum used at music teacher training schools. Existing problems in correpetition were identified through the interviews with randomly-selected piano professors from seven different universities. At the end of the study, possible solutions were offered for the challenges in such area.

3. METHODOLOGY and PROCEDURES

As a qualitative type of study, descriptive anaysis method was used in the current research. Qualitative research is in-depth analysis of the data (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2000). In the present study, data was collected via individual interviews, and a mixture of semi-stuctured and unstructured interview techniques were used. Interview technique is the shortest way used to learn individuals' knowledge, ideas, attitude and behavior and the reasons behind these actions (Karasar,1995).

The interview questions were prepared based on the literature survey even though the lierature is very limited in the area. Indeed, only two studies about the role of correpetition at music teacher training schools were reached during this search. This study is called as *Yeniden Yapılanma Sürecinde Müzik Öğretmenliği Programlarındaki Korrepetisyon Dersi Eksikliği* [The Absence of Correpetition Course in the Music Teacher Training Curriculum in the Process of Constructivism], and it was presented at the symposium named "Türkiye'de Müzik Eğitiminin Sorunları ve Çözüm Önerileri" [The Problems in Music Education in Turkey and Recommended Solutions] on the dates of September 23-25, 2009. The paper was prepared by Professor Cemal Yurga and Research Assistant Zeynep Kaya. Both authors were reached through the phone and were asked general information about the paper before they presented it at the conference. As another source, the paper that was presented by Professor Selmin Tufan and Associate Professor Enver Tufan, Ph. D. was titled as *Yaylı Çalgılar ve Piyanoya Ait Eşliklerin Bilgisayar Yardımıyla Stüdyo Ortamında Çalışılmasının Stüdyo Öğrenci Performansına Etkisi* [Preparing Accompaniments for String Instruments with Piano in Studio with the Help of Computer and the Effects of these Types of Accompaniments on Student Performances]. This paper was presented at 18th National Educational Sceinces Convention on October 1, 2009. The authors of this paper were also contacted, and necessary information about the relationship between correpetition and the computer technology was obtained.

For the data collection, as a total of seven piano professors from all different regions in Turkey were randomly selected and each represented a different region. The piano professors who were also serving in administrative level were prioritized as the interviewees because of their both pianist/pedagogue sides and administrative skills. These selected participants were contacted to be informed about the topic and to determine the date of the meetings. Four of the professors requested having face-to-face interview while two of them preferred using phone for the interview. Only one of the respondents chose Internet option and answered interview questions via e-mail, and afterwards, the researcher contacted with him/her through the phone to talk more about the responses.

The interview questions consisted of five main sections: (a) the importance of accompanying with piano (correpetition), (b) the place/role of correpetition in music teacher education curriculum, (c) the applicaton of correpetition at music teacher training schools, (d) the problems/challenges in correpetition, and (e) possible solutions for existing problems in correpetition.

Two of the participants allowed their answers to be recorded on a tape-recorder while others asked the researcher to take notes. Only one professor responded via e-mail. All recorded answers were transcribed carefully, written down and analyzed through content analysis. During this process, QSR Nvivo 8.0 computer program was used.

4. RESULTS

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[3] http://www.muzikegitimcileri.net/

After an exhausting research on the topic, the researcher realized that there was almost no sources about the subject in Turkey. The first study found in the area was a conference paper titled as *Yeniden Yapılanma Sürecinde Müzik Öğretmenliği Programlarındaki Korrepetisyon Dersi Eksikliği* [The Absence of Correpetition Course in the Music Teacher Training Curriculum in the Process of Constructivism], which was presented at the symposium named "Türkiye'de Müzik Eğitiminin Sorunları ve Çözüm Önerileri" [The Problems in Music Education in Turkey and Recommended Solutions] on the dates of September 23-25, 2009 by Professor Cemal Yurga and Research Assistant Zeynep Kaya. Both authors were reached through the phone and were asked general information about the paper before they presented it. The authors of this paper indicated that their study was about correpetition and the problems that its absence in music teacher training curriculum creates. The authors pointed out (a) the problematic situation of the lack of correpetition course in the curriculum, (b) the necessity of such course, and (c) the need for the addition of correpetition course to music teacher training curriculum.

The other source found during literature review process was another conference paper titled as *Yaylı Çalgılar ve Piyanoya Ait Eşliklerin Bilgisayar Yardımıyla Stüdyo Ortamında Çalışılmasının Stüdyo Öğrenci Performansına Etkisi* [Preparing Accompaniments for String Instruments with Piano in Studio with the Help of Computer and the Effects of these Types of Accompaniments on Student Performances] written by Professor Selmin Tufan and Associate Professor Enver Tufan. Ph. D., who presented at 18th National Educational Sceinces Convention on October 1, 2009. Both authors were contacted by the researcher, and they indicated that they developed a project on the computer in studio settings. They indicated that this computer program consisted of recorded-accompaniments for string students and pointed out that this project made good effect on the performances by string students.

The data that was drawn from interviews with seven randomly-selected piano professors were divided into five sections, and each section was examined with content analysis.

4.1. Findings Related to the Importance of Playing with Piano Accompaniment
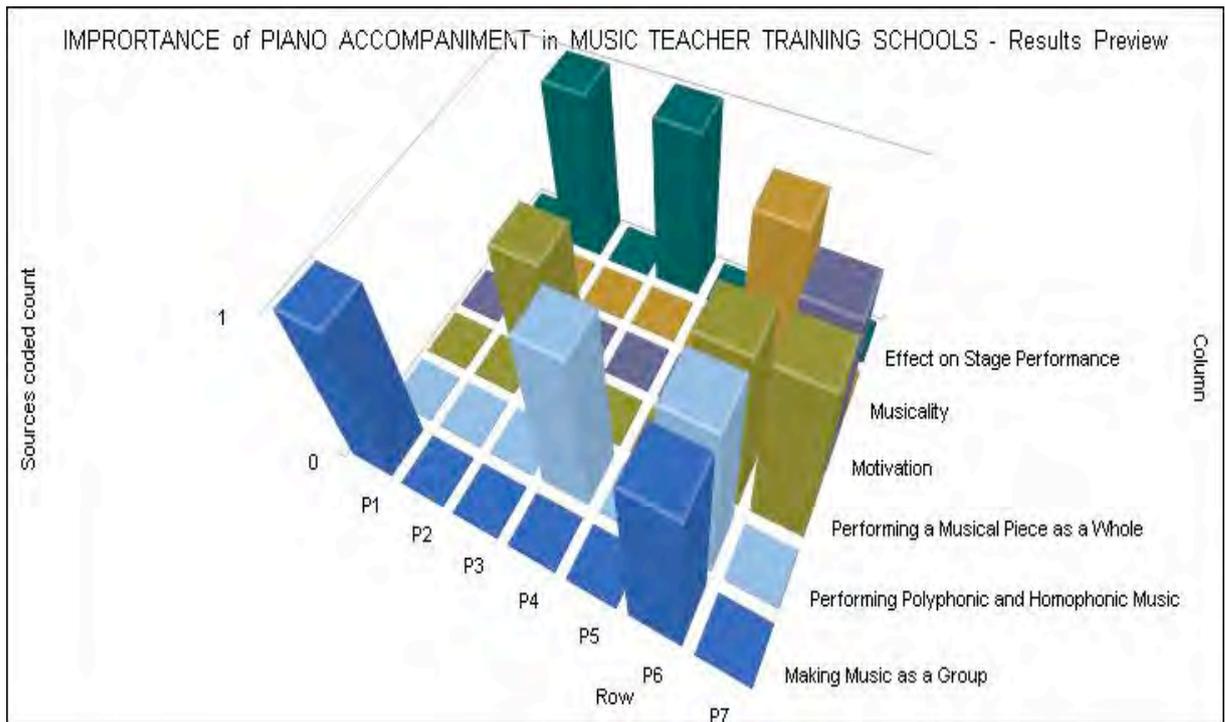
Table 4.1.-1 Importance of Piano Accompaniment in Music Teacher Training Schools.

According to Table 4.1.-1, the following results were found:

4.1.1. *Performing Musical Piece as a Whole:* According to the participants, solo player and the accompanimist complete each other. "For example, [accompanist] gives the entrance to the soloist and helps him/her to continue..." (P6). "Without accompaniment, [solo piece] sounds incomplete and meaningless." (P3).

4.1.2. *Making Music As a Group:* For this column in the table, the following statement makes it clear: "While the student plays his/her instrument, s/he learns many things such as hearing complete harmony through playing with accompaniment; and the accompanist learns how not to perform as a soloist but to perform together completing each other in a musical ensemble.

4.1.3. *Performing Polyphonic and Homophonic Music:* The analyzed-data in this column of the table shows that a solo piece performed with its accompaniment is an action that occurs with a complete harmonic structure that a solo work never has, and it is important to understand the concept of harmony in music."

4.1.4. *The Effect on Stage Performance:* Based on the findings here, concerts are the most important parts of performing together because performers who practice with piano accompaniment regularly are usually more successful at concerts.

4.1.5. *Motivation:* Data indicated that playing with accompaniment motivates the solo player better. Accompanists, regardless of teachers or friends, make performers to play their instruments more. Also, piano students who are successful but having motivational problems can have the opportunity to practice and make music with their friends.

4.1.6. *Musicality:* Performing with accompaniment strengthens musicality because when two people make music together they work together to phrase musical sentences and ups and downs in music; even more, they start breathing together, which helped their musicality to grow.

The frequency chart is as follows:

Results	Frequency
Performing Musical Piece as a Whole	3
Making Music As a Group	2
Performing Polyphonic and Homophonic Music	2
Effect on Stage Performance	2
Motivation	1
Musicality	1

Table 4.1.- 2. Importance of Piano Accompaniment in Music Teacher Training Schools Frequency Chart

4.2. Findings Related to the Place of Accompaniment Course in the Curriculum Used at Music Teacher Training Schools

In last two curricula used at music teacher training schools were examined and found that correpetition was included as a course in 1997-curriculum, in which it was one-hour theoretical course with one credit hour in the fifth semester. In the last music teacher training curriculum developed in 2006, "Playing with Accompaniment" is a course in fifth semester, and it is two-hours per week with one-hour credit.[4] The same curriculum has two courses under "Accompaniment" title:

Harmony–Counterpoint–Accompaniment I; Harmony–Counterpoint–Accompaniment II; Harmony–Counterpoint–Accompaniment III; Harmony–Counterpoint–Accompaniment IV (offered in third, fourth, fifth and sixth semester) These courses have two-hours for theoretical work and two credit-hours. The contents of these courses are as follows: "Musical forms; harmonic and contrapuntal analyses in Turkish and Western music; examples of school songs, their analyses and rhythmic structure."

[4] http://www.muzikegitimcileri.net/

The contents of the course titled "Playing Accompaniment" that is offered only in fifth semester are as follows: "Knowledge and performance of school-music accompaniments and basic chamber musical works."[5]

Through the examination of the contents of the courses and the data in the sudy, indeed, correpetition is seen as a course with the same name in the music teacher training curriculum; however, the definition of the course does not have the actual meaning that is expected from this particular course. Such course in the curriculum requires the skills (a) to write, (b) to create, and (c) to play accompaniments for school-songs or children's songs. At this point, this course is not related to correpetition; that is, although it is named as "Correpetition" the content of such course is simple accompaniments, not performance-based correpetition.

Today, correpetition is not a term used widely; instead; accompaniment is preferred. The course titled as "Correpetition" is far from the idea of performing. The main idea of such course is writing or creating accompaniments for school songs so that music education students can learn how to accompany their students in classroom settings in the future. The results related to this secton are seen in Table 4.2.-1. below:
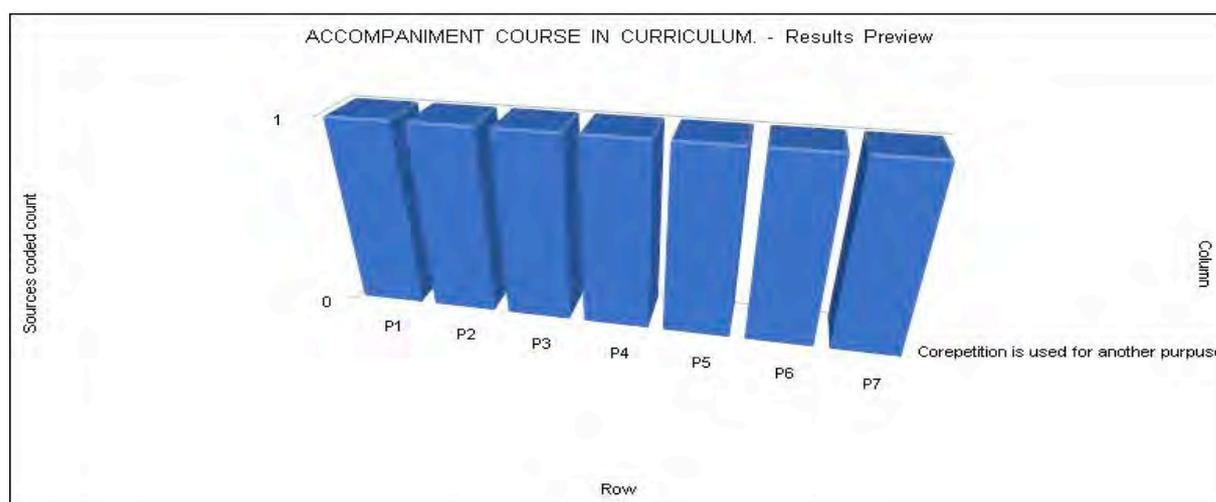
Table 4.2.-1. Accompaniment Course in Curriculum.

4.3. Findings Related to the Accompanists Working at Music Teacher Training Schools
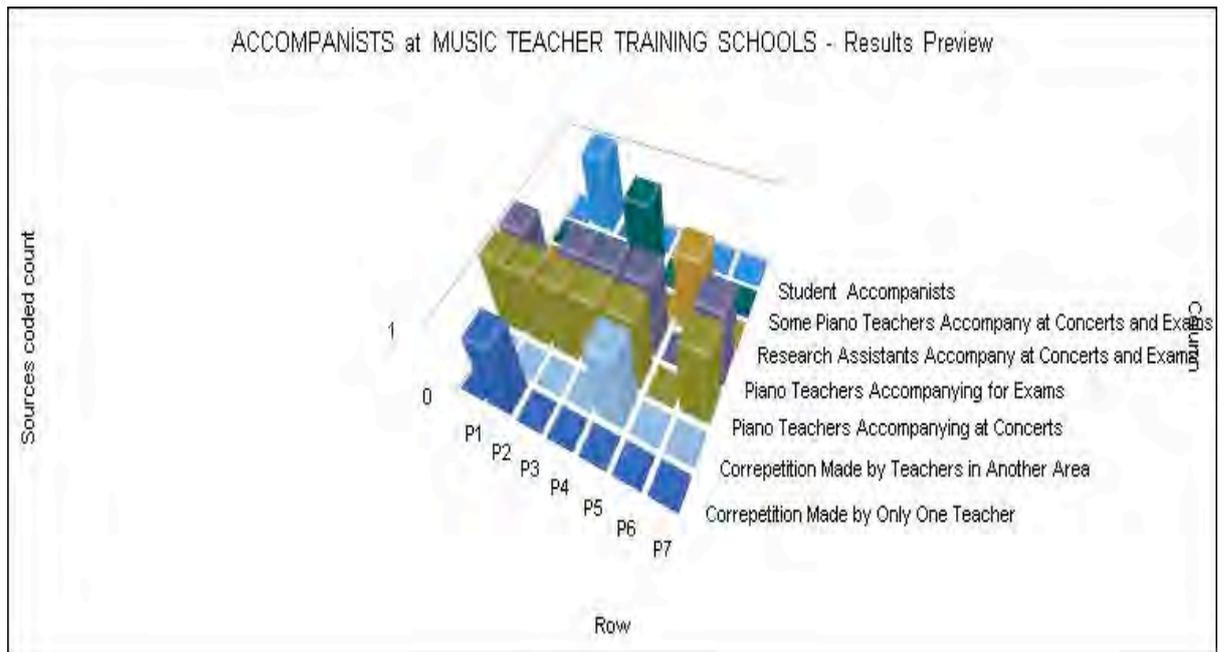
Table 4.3.-1. Accompanists at Music Teacher Training Schools.

Based on the data in Table 4.3.-1., the following results were found:

4.3.1. *Piano Teachers Accompanying for Concerts:* The content analysis showed that piano teachers accompanied at concerts but they were not officially responsible for being accompanists and were asked/requested to do so. Piano teachers were usually asked/requested to do accompaniments by the solo-playing students or by the teachers of these students.

4.3.2. *Piano Teachers Accompanying for Exams*: This data shows the most-insisted situation in correpetition that piano teachers experience at music teacher training institutions.The data showed that this task was not standardized in all shools. For instance, in one school, piano professors organize a meeting and distribute assignments to accompany students for exams equally among all teachers. These piano professors determine the rehearsal hours before exam week and play for the exams. On the other hand, all piano teachers are assinged by the department head in another institution, they are scheduled with at least two rehearsals before the exams. Then, they accompany students during exam week. In another music teacher training institution, instrumental teachers ask piano instructors to accompany their students. As another example, piano teachers take the scores in advance, and they plan only one rehearsal because of the heavy course load. At this school, rehearsing with the accompanist piano teacher makes an effect up to 20% of the final grade.

4.3.3. *Some Piano Teachers Accompanying at Concerts and Exams:* Here, the data indicated that not all piano professors accompanied but they were selective.

4.3.4. *Correpetition Made by Only One Teacher:* According to the data shown here, only one piano teacher takes the whole responsibility to accompany everybody at school for all concerts and exams.

4.3.5. *Research Assistants Accompany at Concerts and Exams*: Based on the data, the research assistants are assigned to accompany for concerts and exams. (These research assistants come to this particular institution with the 35th Act[6] from another university and those of whom will have to go back to the schools where they come from.) All students whom they will accompany are determined at the beginning of the semester, they are expected to study with them every week, and to accompany for concerts and exams all semester long.

4.3.6. *Correpetition Made by Teachers in Another Area:* When there is not enough piano professors at an institution, teachers in other areas who have enough piano skills also accompany based on requirements by their colleagues.

4.3.7. *Student Accompanists:* When students have good piano skills, they may be asked to accompany their friends, or their teachers encourage them to take accompaniments as extra work. Therefore, these students pay more time and effort to accomplish this task.

4.4. Findings Related to the Problems of Correpetition at Music Teacher Training Schools

As shown in Table 4.4.-1., ten basic problems were identified in accompanying with piano at music teacher training institutions. Some of these challenges do not allow correpetition task to work properly in some schools while some accompanists were affected negatively by these problems in their universities.

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[6] **Act 35 –** Higher education institutions train individuals either in Turkey or abroad for the needs of institutions that are newly established or will be established based on the principles and goals of development plans and the needs and fundamentals of Higher Education Council. (http://www.yok.gov.tr/content/view/435/183/lang,tr)

	A : P1	B : P2	C : P3	D : P4	E : P5	F : P6	G : P7
1 : Absensce of Correpetition Course in the Curriculum	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
2 : Difficulties and Negative Sides of Accompaniment by Students	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
3 : Free Work by Accompanists	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
4 : Increasing Loud of Accompaniments on Better Pianists	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
5 : Lack of Positions for Accompanists	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
6 : Negative Effects of Correpetition on the Accompanist Students	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
7 : Negative Effects on Teachers' Academic Life	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
8 : Problems about Time	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
9 : Too Much Course Work for Teachers	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
10 : Too Much Physical Energy Used by Teachers	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Table 4.4.-1. Problems of Correpetition at Music Teacher Training Schools (Matrix Coding)
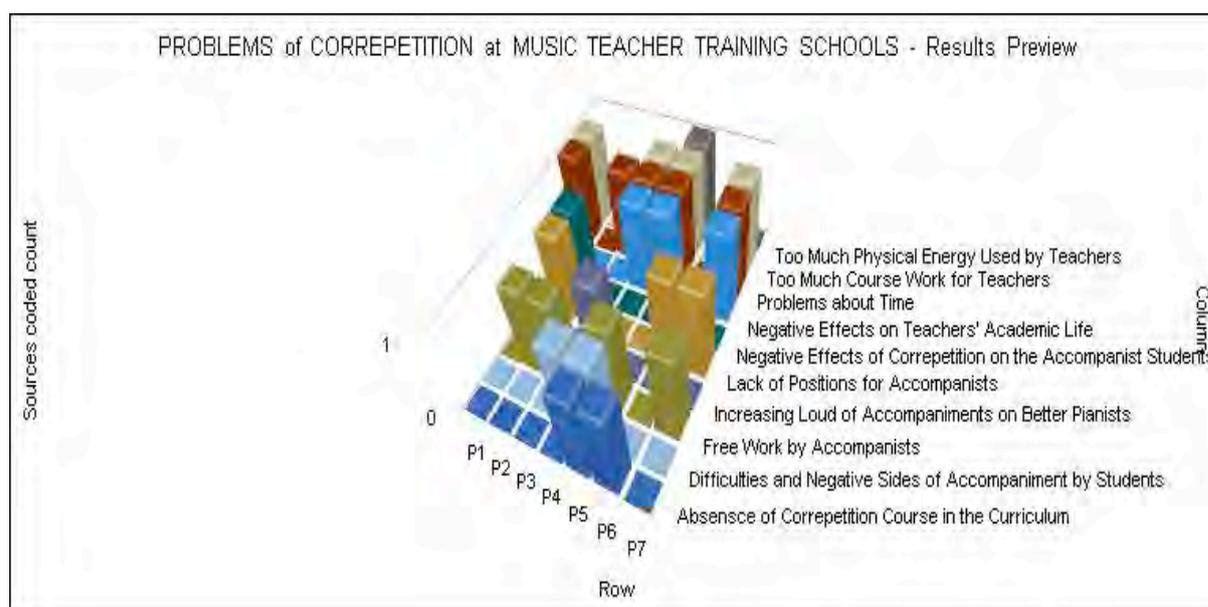
Table 4.4.-2. Problems of Correpetition at Music Teacher Training Schools .

4.4.1. *Problems About Time:* This has the highest frequency. Respondents indicated that they had to find extra time to accompany. As the biggest problem, this also is the most important reason for pianists not to be able to accompany.

4.4.2. *Too Much Course Work for Teachers:* Participants who chose this stated that they had approximately thirty-hour course work. Therefore, finding time to accompany is diffucult fo them.

4.4.3. *Free Work by Accompanists:* With no compensation, all accompanists are requested or assigned by the administration to accompany.

4.4.4. *Lack of Positions for Accompaniments:* In Turkey, there is no correpetitor is hired only to work as the accompanist.

4.4.5. *Negative Effects on Academic Life of Teachers:* Pianists are expected to do academic works such as earning their Master's and doctoral degrees. To be able to achieve these goals, they have

to have high scores on standardized tests such as ALES[7] , ÜDS[8] and KPDS[9]. They are also expected to present papers at conferences, to do publications (articles and/or books), and to concertize. When they accompany, this will take their time away these academic works.

4.4.6. *The Absensce of Correpetition Course in the Curriculum:* The main reason that correpetition cannot be performed is because such course does not exist in the curriculum used at music teacher training schools. Therefore, piano teachers are either asked to accompany or assigned to do such task by the department head. On the other hand, "Correpetition" course is included in the curricula used at conservatories and colleges of fine arts with the following contents: "This is a course that strengthens the musical union through the use of piano accompaniment for other instruments. For the final exams, students practice their pieces in this course and perform in the final exam."[10]

4.4.7. *Difficulties and Negative Sides of Accompaniment by Students:* Students must have necessary piano skills to be able to accompany. Participants in the present study indicated that there were indeed very few students who were capable of doing accompaniments. They further stated that majority of students were not equipped to do such task, and under these circumstances, expecting students to act correpetitors would create problems.

4.4.8. *Too Much Physical Energy Used by Teachers:* Accompanists always pay extra effort and time to help their friends/colleagues/professors.

4.4.9. *Negative Effects of Correpetition on the Accompanist Students:* Most students have aproximately twenty hours[11] of clourse load forcing them to pay extra effort and create additional time to be able to accompany.

4.4.10. *Increasing Load of Accompaniments on Better Pianists:* The respondents indicated that "The better the piano teacher, the more the accompany load." This situation shows that better pianists are required to do more correpetition work than others.

4.5. Findings Related to the Possible Solutions for Existing Problems in Correpetition at Music Teacher Training Schools

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[7] "Academic Personnel vand Graduate Education Entrance Test (ALES): #78 of the Higher Education Institutons Instructional Personnel Positions Act, based on the Additonal Article #8 through the #5538 Code, this is a standardized test that is required for assigning instructors, lecturers, specialist, interpreter and educational planner who will work at higher education institutions, and for whom intend to begin graduate work in or out of Turkey." (http://www.osym.gov.tr/BelgeGoster.aspx?F6E10F8892433CFFF88F742D0D711251AE3866D3F016E184)

[8] "Intercollegiate Council Foreign Language Test (ÜDS): A standardized test based on #24 and #65 of the Higher Education Law (#2547) prepared on September 1, 2000 and published on the Official Newspaper (#24157). "Legislation for Tenure Track Positions" mandates tenure-track candidates to take this test. Also, those of whom intend to begin their doctoral work and D.M.A. have to take this test. In addition, since ÜDS scores can be used for master's programs, those of whom have undergraduate degrees and seniors can also take this test." (http://www.osym.gov.tr/BelgeGoster.aspx?F6E10F8892433CFF6407999D5EC50F89092004961DD83DC C)

[9] "Public Personnel Foreign Langauge Knowledge and Level Evaluation Test (KPDS), which measures the foreign langauge level of Public Workers, who intend to receive Foreign Language Compensation is conducted by Student Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM) based on #2 in the Constitution (#375) and the Act prepard on June 23, 2007 published on the Official Newspaper (#26561) by the Ministry of Treasury. (http://www.osym.gov.tr/BelgeGoster.aspx?F6E10F8892433CFFD4AF1EF75F7A796866511C433C64FDDA)

[10](http://sbe.istanbul.edu.tr/default.asp?icerik=7&dos=UFLEMELIVEVURMALIYUKSEKLISANSSANATTAY ETERLIK.htm)

[11] http://www.muzikegitimcileri.net/

Table 4.5.-1. Possible Solutions for Existing Problems

Possible solutions for the existing problems in correpetition are as follows:

       4.5.1. *Solution for Hiring Accompanists*: Most of the respondents suggested this solution. They stated that one or two pianists should be hired only to accompany at each institution. For this solution, "Specialist" position, which does not give the specialists the responsibility to teach[12] would be suitable for correpetitors. As another important point which participants also indicated that these accompanists should be trained as professional correpetitors.

       4.5.2. *Adding Correpetition Course into the Curriculum:* According to the professors: (a) Correpetition course should be included in the curriculum at music teacher training schools; (b) A systematic work to improve the current situation should begin in such area; and (c) As a course, correpetition should not be a burden on pianists but it should become a course with expert teachers in the area.

       4.5.3. *Using Technology for Correpetition:* Respondents indicated that if there was no accompanist the technology could be used for the same purpose. The positive sides of the technology use for the correpetition are as follows: (a) recorded accompaniment can be used anytime and anywhere, and (b) orchestral parts can be reduced and be recorded for the use to accompany. On the other hand, it limits musicality and togetherness in making music. Two of the participants indicated that they used such technology for accompaniment purpose but they experienced problems because of the lack of facilities and students who could not catch the rhythm in recordings. A project was developed and a software was created for such purpose at one of these institutions. This project was successful because every musical details such as fermata and nuances were included. A concert was also organized with the use of this program.

       4.5.4. *Providing Permanent Solutions*: The necessity of finding permanent and general solutions rather than offering solutions for individuals is necessary in the area. Also, schools should identify their problems in such area and search for possible solutions. Offered solutions should be practical and they should be reported.

       4.5.5. *Adding Correpetition and Stage Performance Courses to the Curriculum:* In many music teacher training programs, not only a course about performing with accompaniment but also a

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[12] Higher Education Law and Higher Education Personnel Law #657 Instruction Assistants Act 33 b- Specialists are assistant instructors who are directly or indirectly related to instruction, knowledgeable in particular areas, working at laboratories, libraries, studios, and other practical fields.

course offering skills to perform in fornt of the audience should be included. The reason for this suggestion is that because many music students do not have the opportunity to perform enough while others have such opportunity several times. With the addition of correpetition course in the curriculum, students who do not have opportunities to perform enough will be able to play for audience via this course. This experience will make them more confident, and also they will be able to learn how to act on the stage.

4.5.6. *Training Students to Accompany:* With this recommendation, it was suggested that accompaniment skills of students should be strengthened so that (with the encouragement) they could accompany others. Therefore, students can understand the idea of "musical work" conceptually and practically. To achieve this goal, the importance of the existing accompaniment course in the curriculum should be strengthened. During the first semester, students can develop their skills and the folowing semester they can start accompanying. They can be encouraged to play either their own works or pieces by other composers. However, the overall level of piano students at several music teacher training schools make such solution to be put in practice impossible.

4.5.7. *Understanding the Importance of Correpetition:* The necessary background related to correpetition is more important than anything. The necessity of correpetition and understanding the importance of such skill are essential for finding possible solutions for the existing problems in the area.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In instrumental education, solo and the accompaniment are two parts in a whole. Performing with correpetition increases motivation, makes the music heard as harmonic/polyphonic, develops musicality and improves the quality of stage performance.

The types of accompanists vary in different schools. There is no standardization in practice, and every piano teacher organizes his/her own accompany schedule. Through the examination of the practices in accompanying at different schools, three important points rise:

1. No correpetition course is included in music teacher education curriculum.
2. The accompanists at these schools are not trained as correpetitors.
3. There is no standardization in the area.

The points stated above create problems at music teacher training schools as follows:

1. Because the correpetition course is not included in the music teacher training curriculum, accompanists at these institutions make sacrifices (such as finding extra time and effort) to play for soloists. This situation creates negative effect on these piano professors (e.g. taking their time away of doing academic works).
2. There is no standardization in correpetition because of the lack of such course.
3. Accompanists at these institutions are not specialists in the area. Particularly, students accompanying students is a bigger problem because they are still students and are not trained to do accompaniments professionally.

The participants suggested following solutions for the challenges about the correpetition at music teacher training schools:

1. *Understanding the Importance of Correpetition:* Although few respondents suggested this solution, it is essential to understand the importance of such course.
2. *Training Students to Accompany:* This solution seems yo have a positive side to encourage students to be better pianists and to have better friendships but the positive effects of such training is still questionable. First, students who are not trained professionally to do such task might be problematic. Second, having the responsibility to accompany to other friends make the student to try to find extra time to practice in addition to the course load. Therefore, these circumstances might effect the piano student negatively regarding his/her academic achievement.
3. *Using Technology for Correpetition:* Many respondents indicated that technology could be used for correpetition. It is important to analyze advantages and disadvantages of the technology use. Teachers should be trained well to use technology in such area. Playing with a recording may not give the same affect to the solo player as playing with a real accompanist. Slowing down/accelerating together, the eye-contact during the performance, and feeling the music together are the important characterisitics of playing as an ensemble. Recorded-accompaniments may not give the same affect. In this case, technology can be used as subordinate help.

The following problems can be solved with the addition of correpetition course in the curriculum:

1. Correpetition course will be standardized.
2. Students will be able to study and perform with piano accompaniments during the semester, and in final exams they will be evaluated.
3. Piano professors will not have to find extra time to do accompaniments but they will be able to put correpetition in their weekly schedule and will be compensated for their effort.
4. Although it has positive sides, the lack of faculty members in the area may create challenges in practicality.
5. Faculty who will only do correpetition should be hired so that they have enough time to accompany everybody without having time problems.

The common solution for such problem by the respondents was hiring correpetition faculty (or specialists) or assigning one or two piano professors (depending on the number of students at the school) who will only acccompany. They also indicated that even research assistants might do such task. At the beginning, conservatories may provide correpetitors for music teacher training schools because some conservatories have the programs to educate pianists as correpetitors. Among these conservatories are at Haccetepe University in Ankara (in master's program), İstanbul University State Conservatory (Master's and D.M.A programs), and Mimar Sinan Fine Arts University State Conservatory in İstanbul (undergraduate degree).

Based on the presented data above, the following solutions are offered:

1. It is important to understand the importance of the correpetition at music teacher training schools.
2. The use of technology can be solution at some schools.

3. Adding correpetition course in the curriculum is necessary.
4. Hiring accompanists can solve such challenge easily.
5. It is also important to determine existing problems, searching possible solutions for these problems at each institution and preparing reports (including these efforts) should be considered by the administrators at music teacher training schools

APPENDIX

Undergraduate Curriculum of Music Teacher Training Programs (2006)

First Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training I	2	2	3
A	Piano I	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument I	1	0	1
A	Studio Singing I	1	0	1
A	School Instruments I (Guitar-Bağlama-Recorder)	0	2	1
MB	Introduction to Music Education	3	0	3
GK	Music Culture	2	0	2
GK	Introduction to Philosophy	2	0	2
GK	Turkish I: Writing	2	0	2
GK	Atatürk's Reforms and History of Revolution I	2	0	2
GK	Foreign Language I	3	0	3
Total		**19**	**4**	**21**

Second Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training II	2	2	3
A	Piano II	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument II	1	0	1
A	Studio Singing II	1	0	1
A	School Instruments II (Guitar-Bağlama-Recorder)	0	2	1
A	Choir I	0	2	1
GK	General Music History I	2	0	2
GK	Turkish II: Speaking	2	0	2
GK	Atatürk's Reforms and History of Revolution II	2	0	2
GK	Foreign Language II	3	0	3
MB	Psychology of Education	3	0	3
Total		**17**	**6**	**20**

Third Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training III	2	2	3
A	Piano III	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument III	1	0	1
A	Studio Singing III	1	0	1
A	Choir II	2	2	3
A	Harmony Counterpoint - Accompaniment I	2	0	2
A	Traditional Turkish Folk Music I	2	0	2
A	School Instruments (Guitar-Bağlama-Recorder) III	0	2	1
MB	Instructional Methods and Approaches	3	0	3
GK	General Music History II	2	0	2
GK	Computer Skills I	2	2	3
Total		**18**	**8**	**22**

Fourth Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training IV	2	2	3
A	Piano IV	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument IV	1	0	1
A	Studio Singing IV	1	0	1
A	Choir III	2	2	3
A	Harmony Counterpoint-Accompaniment II	2	0	2
A	Traditional Turkish Folk Music II	0	2	1
A	History of Turkish Music	2	0	2
A	Electronic Keyboard	0	2	1
MB	Guidance Counseling	3	0	3
GK	Computer Skills II	2	2	3
Total		**16**	**10**	**21**

Fifth Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training V	2	0	2
A	Piano V	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument V	1	0	1
A	Harmony Counterpoint-Accompaniment III	2	0	2
A	Choir IV	1	2	2
A	Orchestra/Chamber Ensemble I	1	2	2
A	Traditional Turkish Art Music I	2	0	2
A	Instrument Care and Repair Skills I	0	2	1
A	Accompaniment Skills	0	2	1
A	Repertoire of Educational Music	2	0	2
MB	Instructional Technologies and Production of Materials	2	2	3
GK	Contemporary and Popular Musics	2	0	2
Total		**16**	**10**	**21**

Sixth Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Ear Training VI	2	0	2
A	Piano VI	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument VI	1	0	1
A	Harmony Counterpoint-Accompaniment IV	2	0	2
A	Choir V	1	2	2
A	Orchestra/Chamber Ensemble II	1	2	2
A	Traditional Turkish Art Music II	0	2	1
A	Instrument Care and Repair Skills II	0	2	1
A	Musical Forms	2	0	2
MB	Educational Methods I	2	2	3
MB	Administrative Skills	2	0	2
GK	Aesthetics	0	2	1
Total		**14**	**12**	**20**

Seventh Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Piano VII*	1	0	1
A	Main Instrument VII	1	0	1
A	Choir VI	2	2	3
A	Orchestra/Chamber Ensemble III	1	2	2
A	Turkish Music Arrangement *	0	2	1
MB	School Experience	1	4	3
MB	Educational Methods II	2	2	3
MB	Measurement and Evaluation	3	0	3
MB	Scientific Research Techniques	2	0	2
GK	Practice in Serving for Society**	1	2	2
GK	Games, Dance and Music	0	2	1
Total		**14**	**16**	**22**

Eighth Semester

	Name of the Course	Th	Pr	Cr
A	Choir VII	0	2	1
A	Orchestra/Chamber Ensemble IV	1	2	2
A	Project-Thesis	0	2	0
A	Approaches in Early Childhood Music Education*	0	2	1
MB	Compositional Skills in Educational Music	2	2	3
MB	Conducting Musical Ensembles	1	2	2
MB	Teaching Experience and Practice	2	6	5
MB	Teaching Piano	1	0	1
MB	Teaching Main Instrument	1	0	1
GK	Turkish History of Education *	2	0	2
Total		**10**	**18**	**18**

Total	Theoric	Practice	Credit	Hours
	124	84	165	208

A: **Major (required) musical courses,** MB: **Courses on music teacher education,** GK: **Cultural courses**

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An Analysis of Music Materials Taught at the Primary School between Macau and Taiwan

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The purpose of this study is to investigate the current status of music class and music materials used at the primary school in Macau and Taiwan in order to promote music education efficiently in the both mentioned Chinese societies. By analyzing the primary school music classes, the researcher revealed the weaknesses of the current music class taught in Macau. By analyzing the music materials which are currently used in the both cities, the researcher suggested a systematic music contents and music methods which the author believes will motivate students' interest in music and make music classes become enjoyable and efficient in both mentioned Chinese cities.

Despite the government of Macau has been promoting music education and art education in the past years, the research is aware the initial problems and challenges in music education in Macau is that the music class at primary school doesn't have a systematic contents and methods for the students. Although the government has provided different forms of professional development and many other music training workshops for the current teachers, the government neglects the most important issue which is the absence of the music textbooks at the primary school. Instead of publishing its own music textbooks, the local schools have been using the music textbooks from the neighborhood regions, such as Hong Kong, Taiwan and mainland China. However, due to the limited learning spaces and efficient teaching methods at most of the schools in Macau, the teachers can't apply others neighborhood successful teaching methods. These facts cause that not only do the local Macau students can't enjoy the efficient music learning like neighborhood regions, but the students also lack of the opportunities to learn their own musical and cultural heritage from their own belonging music textbooks.

The textbooks reflect the values, cultures and educational levels. The absence of the region's own textbooks would causes students neglect their own culture and heritage. (Chang, 1994) As well, not only do the students misses the chances to communicate with the world; but the students also the missing chance to adapt the most update knowledge in time.

On contrast, not only has Taiwan government has several governmental and non-governmental textbook publications; but the textbooks publications all include the world most update and current knowledge in the textbooks so that students can learn the first hand information and increase the worldwide competitiveness imperceptibly. Moreover, the contents of music textbooks are organized systematically without much confusion. The music concepts are introduced step by step at each grade in the textbooks so that the students' learning potential can be motivated and developed under the best circumstance

The textbooks at primary schools used in Macau are all from the neighborhood regions, such as: Hong Kong , Taiwan and mainland China and Macau does not have its own textbooks or any curriculum related publication. According to the survey, "Long Man Music", "New Primary School Do Re Mi", and "Today Music" are the most used top three primary school music textbooks in Macau. The "Long Man Music" textbooks package which were published in Hong Kong, included student music textbooks (12 volumes), teachers guide books (12 volumes), creative flash cards, computer software, recorder music textbooks (8 volumes), Children's Musical textbooks (8 volumes). (Long Man Music http://music.ilongman.com/index.php). However, according to the survey, the music teachers from more than 40% surveyed primary schools in Macau used their own teaching materials in their music classes rather than followed the curriculum guidelines which were designed by the Department of Education in Macau.

The current music textbooks used in Macau stressed on the international folk songs, such as, African, Japanese, Korean children nursery songs and folk songs. The folk songs from different provinces of mainland China are also included in the textbooks. (Figure 1) It is important to provide the global point of view for children and let children appreciate the different cultures and arts in the music class.

Moreover, introducing different small percussions, having enough percussion exercises for children to practice and designing various musical creative activities in the music textbooks can not only attract elementary school students' interest but also motivate their music learning and stimulate children's improvisational skills (Wang 2003). However, the whole set of the textbooks lack of systematic arrangement on music theory, such as, key signatures, rhythmic progression, and basic musical notation. For example, the music used in the 1st grade music class is supposed to be inspired, introductory and progressive in order to attract students' interest and motivation rather than introducing complicated rhythmic patterns and key signatures (Yao, 1993). The non-progressive introduction of musical rhythms and music notations twist perception of the 1st grade students learning progression. Furthermore, repeating the same music concepts and music theory at different levels music classes cause the confusion of music concepts for children and redundant of music learning.

On contrast, the textbooks at all school levels in Taiwan; Republic of China has been all edited, compiled and published by the National Institute for Compilation and Translation. Since 1988, nongovernmental publishers were allowed to publish and compile school textbooks as the selection textbooks by the local schools but the textbooks must be examined and verified by the National Institute for Compilation and Translation in Taiwan. (Chen, 1986)

The current selection of songs from the elementary school music textbooks stress on local Taiwanese and Chinese folk songs and the three major music teaching approaches, such as "Orff Music Approach", "Kodaly Music Approach" and "Dalcroze Music Approach". Among all of the governmental and nongovernmental textbook publishers, "Han Lin publisher" and "Nan-I publisher" are the two most popular and common used music textbooks used at the elementary school in Taiwan. Not only do the textbooks included the concepts of the global most successful and popular three music teaching approaches, but the recorder training is also requested as one of the fundamental music training at the elementary school. Before graduating from the elementary school after 6 years training, not only do students have concrete and systematic music knowledge, but they are also able to play the recorder fluently. Moreover, the students are acquainted with western and eastern music knowledge and composers. (Fan, 1998) The most importantly, the textbook compile officers adapt the "Orff Music Approach", "Kodaly Music Approach" and "Dalcroze Music Approach" and let students learn music under a fun and interesting environment and have connection with the follow the most popular trended in music learning.

The New Course of Study and its implications for the improvement of English Education in Japan

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The New Course of Study and its implications for the improvement of English education in Japan

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1

Fish Bowl Model

1. Reliance on Others
   The water must be changed
   The fish must be fed
2. Preservation of an Ideal Environment
   The water temperature kept constant
   Bowl cleaned—fungi & molds cleaned away
   Best feed used
3. Isolated—Artificially Limited Environment
   Isolated from other fish
   Artificial/limited living space

1. Reliance on Others
   Teacher-centered, passive learning
2. Preservation of Ideal Environment
   Intolerance of errors
   Use of 'other' models (native speaker)
3. Isolation—Artificially Limited Environment
   Communication with outside not required
   Applicable only to given environment

Open Seas Model

1. Reliance on Self
   Choosing own water to live in
   Finding own food to eat
2. Adaptation to existing environment
   Constant change in quality of water
   Existence of fungi and other alien substances
   Food provided naturally by the environment
3. Co-existence—naturally selected habitat
   Co-existence with different kinds of fish, etc.
   Natural, shared living environment

1. Reliance on Self
   Learner-centered, active learning
2. Adaptation to existing environment
   Tolerance of mistakes & non-native forms
   Acceptability & Diversity of values as norm
3. Co-existence—naturally selected habitat
   Importance of cross-cultural understanding
   Communicability in international setting

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iBT TOEFL (2008)—Asia の結果

ASIA	Reading	Listening	Speaking	Writing	TOTAL
Afghanistan	12	16	21	19	69
Azerbaijan	17	18	20	20	75
Bangladesh	19	20	21	22	82
Bhutan	18	21	23	23	85
Brunei Darussalam	*	*	*	*	*
Cambodia	14	15	18	19	65
China	20	18	18	20	76
Christmas Island	*	*	*	*	*
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	*	*	*	*	*
Hong Kong	18	20	20	22	80
India	21	22	22	22	87
Indonesia	19	20	19	21	79
Japan	16	16	16	18	66
Kazakhstan	16	19	20	19	74
Korea, Dem. People's Republic of	17	17	18	19	72
Korea, Republic of	20	19	18	20	78
Kyrgyzstan	18	20	20	20	79
Lao, People's Democratic Republic	12	12	17	17	59
Macau	15	16	17	19	66
Malaysia	22	23	20	23	88
Maldives	*	*	*	*	*
Mongolia	17	19	18	19	72
Myanmar	14	16	18	19	68
Nepal	17	18	19	20	74
Pakistan	20	22	23	23	87
Philippines	21	22	22	23	88
Singapore	25	26	24	26	100
Sri Lanka	19	21	21	22	83
Taiwan (Republic of China)	18	18	18	19	73
Tajikistan	13	16	20	18	67
Thailand	17	18	18	19	72
Timor-Leste	*	*	*	*	*
Turkmenistan	17	20	21	20	79
Uzbekistan	15	18	20	19	73
Viet Nam	17	16	17	20	70

TOEIC results 2005 by country

Country	# of Test Takers	Listening Mean (SD)*	Reading Mean (SD)	Total Mean (SD)
Germany	3,072	421 (79)	356 (93)	776 (165)
Philippines	4,728	413 (66)	361 (77)	774 (135)
Canada	6,298	401 (84)	344 (87)	745 (164)
India	673	389 (85)	337 (87)	725 (159)
Romania	574	384 (110)	334 (111)	718 (214)
Spain	515	373 (103)	334 (101)	707 (196)
France	100,129	357 (91)	336 (81)	692 (166)
Portugal	834	376 (114)	309 (116)	685 (224)
Russia	616	361 (95)	309 (102)	670 (188)
Turkey	1,837	364 (97)	305 (106)	669 (197)
Morocco	1,776	339 (96)	305 (90)	644 (180)
Czech Republic	544	330 (110)	311 (101)	641 (203)
Brazil	926	353 (101)	273 (105)	626 (199)
Costa Rica	562	340 (111)	285 (113)	625 (216)
Switzerland	2,929	336 (111)	281 (108)	617 (211)
Colombia	629	334 (111)	275 (106)	609 (208)
Mexico	16,980	329 (105)	274 (99)	603 (196)
Greece	5,580	338 (96)	242 (96)	581 (183)
Libya	586	338 (96)	242 (102)	580 (189)
China	1,763	307 (98)	266 (116)	573 (203)
Hong Kong	1,184	301 (96)	267 (100)	569 (186)
Korea (ROK)	150,605	287 (100)	248 (107)	535 (197)
Taiwan	62,617	287 (94)	243 (97)	530 (181)
Thailand	54,616	284 (99)	217 (94)	501 (185)
Japan	821,510	259 (86)	198 (91)	457 (168)
Chile	7,274	204 (105)	166 (94)	369 (190)
Saudi Arabia	2,561	234 (114)	133 (98)	367 (203)

* SD = Standard Deviation

First Survey of Parental Attitudes towards English in Elementary Schools (Benesse 2007)

回答者数 4718

Q Do you like English?
Very much / So-so / Not very much / Not at all
7.5 | 36.1 | 44.3 | 10.6 | 1.4
無答不明

Q Do you have confidence in using English?
Very much / So-so / Not very much / Not at all
1.1 | 8.5 | 42.7 | 46.3 | 1.4
無答不明

Q Has the English you learned in school been helpful to you?
Very much / So-so / Not very much / Not at all
1.2 | 16.9 | 54.3 | 26.0 | 1.6
無答不明

Q Have you encountered problems in using English?
Very much / Sometimes / Not very much / Not at all
19.8 | 36.4 | 34.3 | 7.7 | 1.8
無答不明

Need for 'Language' Ability

Language ability: ability to use language to deepen one's capacity for thinking and communicating with others, on the basis of knowledge and experience, reasoning ability, and sensitivity and affection towards others.

With Japanese Language at the core, through the use of language in all subjects, teaching plans should be made to enhance the development of the ability to think rationally, etc.

Committee to Discuss Development of Language Ability 言語力育成協力者会議

7

Foreign Language Activities (Elementary School)

I. OVERALL OBJECTIVES
To form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing the understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences, fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages.

II. CONTENT
1. Instructions should be given on the following items in order to help pupils actively engage in communication in a foreign language:
   (1) To experience the joy of communication in the foreign language.
   (2) To actively listen to and speak in the foreign language.
   (3) To learn the importance of verbal communication.
2. Instructions should be given on the following items in order to deepen the experiential understanding of the languages and cultures of Japan and foreign countries:
   (1) To become familiar with the sounds and rhythms of the foreign language, to learn its differences from the Japanese language, and to be aware of the interesting aspects of language and its richness.
   (2) To learn the differences in ways of living, customs and events between Japan and foreign countries and to be aware of various points of view and ways of thinking.
   (3) To experience communication with people of different cultures and to deepen the understanding of culture.

8

Junior High School

I. OVERALL OBJECTIVE
To develop students' basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, deepening their understanding of language and culture and Fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages.

II. OBJECTIVES AND CONTENTS FOR EACH LANGUAGE
1. Objectives
   (1) To enable students to understand the speaker's intentions when listening to English.
   (2) To enable students to talk about their own thoughts using English.
   (3) To accustom and familiarize students with reading English and to enable them to understand the writer's intentions when reading English.
   (4) To accustom and familiarize students with writing in English and to enable them to write about their own thoughts using English.

Other details:
1. treatment of grammar: consideration should be given so that instruction does not center on issues like explaining grammatical terms or differentiating between usages, but on actual use of grammatical items. At the same time, instruction should be provided in the awareness of the differences between English and Japanese in terms of word order, modification relation and other aspects.

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2. Teaching Materials :
   a. should be useful in enhancing the understanding of various ways of viewing and thinking, fostering the ability to make impartial judgments and cultivating a rich sensibility.
   b. should be useful in deepening the understanding of the ways of life and cultures of foreign countries and Japan, raising interest in language and culture and developing respectful attitudes toward these.
   c. should be useful in deepening the international understanding from a broad perspective, *heightening students' awareness of being Japanese citizens living in a global community and cultivating a spirit of international cooperation.*

3. Connection with Elementary School:
   a. Language activities in Grade 1
   A certain extent of the foundation of communication abilities, such as a positive attitude toward communication focusing on speech sounds, is formed through foreign language activities in elementary schools. In light of this, language activities should be carried out with familiar language-use situations and functions of language taken into account.

   b. The syllabus should be designed in an appropriate manner with due heed paid to the connection with Foreign Language Activities at elementary schools.

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Senior High School English

On the basis of what one hears and reads, speaking and writing activities will be appropriately introduced, thereby teaching English holistically by integrating the language activities in all fours skill areas systematically

Communication English I
   a. listen to introduction of objects and dialogues, comprehend information and ideas, and grasp general ideas and main points
   b. read descriptions and narratives, comprehend information and ideas, and grasp general ideas and main points
   c. discuss and exchange opinions about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced
   d. write succinctly about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced

Communication English II
   a. listen to dialogues and debates, about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced
   b. read descriptions, *critiques*, narratives, *essays*, etc. extensively or intensively, according to objectives of reading
   c. discuss and reach conclusions about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced
   d. write coherently about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced

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English Expression I
   a. Speak spontaneously on given topics. Speak concisely according to given objectives and needs of the listener
   b. Write concisely according to given objectives and needs of the reader
   c. give presentations about information and ideas gained through what one has heard, read, learned or experienced
   d. Actually use what one has learned about methods and language used in presentations
   e. Based on what one has heard and read, sort and arrange similarities and differences from other opinions, and put together own idea

   English Expression II
   a. Speak spontaneously, given certain conditions. Sort and arrange content and speak rationally
   b. Decide on theme and write in various genres
   c. Listen to presentations , ask questions, and give own opinion
   d. On topics with various possible interpretations, take a stand and exchange arguments to persuade the other person to your side
   e. Giving clear arguments and evidence, write with organization, graphs and other materials and appropriate expressions
   f. Actually use what one has learned about methods and language used in presentations and debates
   g. Respecting other's points of view and ideas, and by considering both positions, expand own way of thinking and utilize the ideas in resolving issues

12

Global 30 (Creating Centers of Internationalization)

[Purpose]
Strengthening Japanese university education for international competition, and preparing attractive levels of education to foreign students

Preparing systematic basis for teaching courses in English
・ Taking courses in English and obtaining degrees through English
・ Accepting international applications in hiring faculty

Preparations for accepting foreign students (300,000)
・ Counselors, tutors, creation of programs in JSL, etc.
・ Accepting incoming students in both April and September

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All Japan High School English Debating Championships

Motions

2006   Japan should make English an Official Language.

2007   All elementary and secondary schools in Japan should have classes on Saturdays.

2008   Japan should lower the age of adulthood to 18.

World Championships Motions

2007 Seoul
Final: This House would abolish the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty

2008 Washington
Final: This House would Expand the number of permanent members of the UN Security Council

2009 Athens
Grand Final Motion:
This House believes that governments should grant amnesties to all illegal Immigrants

15

Met's Continuum: Content-driven to Language-driven

CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING: A CONTINUUM OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATION					
Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Sheltered Courses	Adjunct Model	Theme-Based Courses	Language classes With Frequent Use of content For Language practice
Content-Driven			Language-Driven		

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Setting Goals for Foreign Language Education

Fish Bowl Model   **Open Seas Model**

Internal Model   External Model

GOALS

| Limited /Artificial Non-communicative | Intranational Communication needs | International Communication needs |
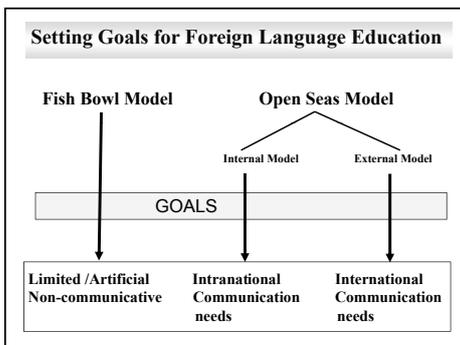
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言語力の育成方策について（報告書案）【修正案・反映版】
    (http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/shotou/036/shiryo/07081717/004.htm)
文部科学省(2008)「高校学習指導要領」
    (http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/youryou/kou/kou.pdf)
文部科学省(2008)「中学校学習指導要領」
    (http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/youryou/chu/index.htm)
文部科学省(2008)「小学校学習指導要領」
    (http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/youryou/syo/index.htm)
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Marketisation of Education: Appealing or Appalling?

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Abstract

As marketisation is likely to play an increasingly important role in future education policy, it is important that any decisions that lead to marketisation are evidence based. This paper examines the complex relationships between the various stakeholders in the debate about the marketisation of education. Based on an objective analysis of the literature, the author attempts to determine whether or not marketisation of education is a good policy to pursue.

Fundamentals Of The Debate

In recent decades, the marketisation of education has been a much-proclaimed political aim in many countries. Both ends of the political spectrum have put a lot of political capital into their attempts at persuading the public to adopt the marketisation of education (West 2002). Does the marketisation of education represent an area where both political ideologies agree on policy? More importantly, does the marketisation of education have the potential to simultaneously enrich the entire population or will it result in there being both winners and losers?

To participate in the debate on the marketisation of education, one must have a clear understanding of the meaning of the following two terms:

1)   Marketisation of education

2)   Basic educational rights

Marketisation Of Education

The marketisation of education operates within a quasi-market. A quasi-market has some resemblance to, but is not, a real market (Collins 1990). A quasi-market is a public sector institutional structure that is designed to reap the efficiency gains of free markets without losing the equity benefits of traditional systems of public administration and financing. Instead of operating as a completely free market, a quasi-market operates within a controlled government market. Quasi-markets operate within tight boundaries that are set by government.

Within the quasi-market of marketisation, the government still continues to be the primary funder of education. However, each school's funding becomes dependent on that school's ability to attract student numbers. In marketisation, funds follow students. Schools that are successful in attracting students receive more funding.

In education, the terms marketisation and privatisation are often mistakenly treated as meaning the same thing. However, marketisation and privatisation are not the same (EdInvest 2001). Marketisation refers to the adoption of market practices in education. Privatisation is the transfer of the ownership or administration of schools to private hands. Marketisation does not mean that all schools become privatised. Marketisation means that each school takes greater control of its own affairs, that each school competes for student intake and that each student gets to choose the school that they wish to attend.

Marketisation does not mean that the government ceases to play any role in determining education policy. The government continues to determine education policy and it continues to regulate schools to

ensure that national standards of education are maintained. Monitoring, assessment and curriculum are still controlled at the centralised level.

Basic Education Rights

In the current debate, there is general agreement among educationalists that certain ***educational rights*** must be catered for in any educational system (Lawson 1992). Educational rights consist of both the ***common needs*** of all students and the ***individual needs*** of specific students.

Common needs relate to commonalities in education that should be afforded to an entire population. They include:

1) There should be free and compulsory education for all between the ages of 5 and 16.

2) As well as being concerned with training for work, education should also be concerned with general social, moral and intellectual development.

3) A minimal level of education (in the form of the national curriculum) should be available to all. Additional choices can also be made available to some.

Individual needs relate to needs of specific members of the population. They include:

1) **Social needs:** These include the legitimate ethnic and religious traditions of minority groups (within the framework of an educational system that is concerned with general social, moral and intellectual development).

2) **Personal differences:** These include a child's tastes, aptitudes, abilities and styles of learning.

To have any credibility, all arguments either in favour of or against marketisation need to ensure that the basic educational rights of a population are maintained. Therefore, the debate on marketisation of education should focus on the twin pillars of whether or not marketisation ensures that the educational rights of citizens are met and whether or not marketisation has the potential to deliver a better education to all citizens. The debate should focus on evidence rather than on subjective, emotive, arguments.

Arguments In Favour Of And Against Marketisation

This paper examines the complexities of marketisation in education by considering the work of authors who have researched in this field. The arguments both in favour of and against marketisation in education are presented.

Arguments In Favour Of Marketisation

Marketisation is necessary so that parents and students are given real choices in education (Lauder 1991). Ball claims that the system of state education does not sufficiently satisfy the needs of parents or students (Ball 1994). Under marketisation, different schools will target different types of students. Marketisation will lead to a wide variety of educational alternatives being made available (Tooley 1998). To differentiate themselves from other schools in their local market, individual schools might decide to specialise in niche areas of education, such as in languages or sciences. Specialisation will be driven by demand from students. As a result, more students should be provided with an education that better suits their abilities and requirements.

Marketisation will not lead to a system where all schools are run for profit (Bartlett 1991). Instead, most schools will be run as charitable trusts. Any profits that these schools make, as a result of attracting sufficient numbers of students or by being run efficiently, will be put back into providing better school resources.

State education represents bad value for money. State education generates an inefficient bureaucracy, which encourages waste and inhibits responsiveness to the concerns expressed by students and parents. Under marketisation, schools have a strong incentive to be responsive to the needs of both students and parents. Unresponsive schools will be unpopular with both students and parents. Switching between schools will move students and resources from unpopular schools to more popular schools. As unpopular schools lose students, they will be forced to adapt to the market and become more responsive to students' needs. Otherwise, these schools will face closure. Therefore, marketisation should bring about an increase in responsiveness in all schools. Marketisation will force all schools to operate to the highest standard. It is only through the freedom of parental choice, in a market of competing schools, that good schools will flourish and badly performing schools will be forced to improve or be removed (Ball 1993). Marketisation forces all schools to up their standards in the same way that providers in other markets are forced to supply better products or services. With marketisation in education, there is a real incentive for schools to compete with each other in the excellence of their product and in the reduction of their costs (Tooley 1998). Tooley suggests that, under marketisation, the problem of deteriorating schools might not arise at all. Lauder agrees with this argument, stating that students being given a choice of school is sufficient to force a raise in standards for all schools (Lauder 1991). If a school does not provide a service that is relevant to its potential students, then it will lose those students to other, more pro-active schools, and will ultimately go out of business.

The competitive process of any market provides incentives and so evokes effort. Markets promote the replacement of less desirable with more desirable. Markets give choice to the individual. Ball states that the absence of profit or loss motives for school managers leads to conservative, self serving, minimalist, survival strategies (Ball 1994).

Marketisation will help meet countries' economic needs. Given a choice, students will pick courses and subjects where there is a demand for labour, therefore filling skills shortages (Streeck 1989; Deakin 1991). As long as the state ensures that all students receive an adequate education, it should not interfere with the running of individual schools.

The state education system will always be geared to suit the educational needs of the office holding section of society and of vested interests, such as teachers (Ball 1994). All other groups within society will be obliged to accept and help finance a system that does not provide them with the maximum benefit for their children. Marketisation will remove this minority grip on education. Marketisation results in an overall decline in socio-economic stratification between schools (Gorard 2001). In particular, marketisation allows poor families to attend schools in areas where they cannot afford to live (Gorard 2001).

Vast state intervention in education has never been able to achieve equality. State education cannot guarantee that all students receive the same quality of education, despite claims by those in favour of state education that it does. It is impossible to ensure that all students receive exactly the same education. Even if they have the same funding available, no two schools will use their resources in the same way. Each school will have different priorities for spending. In addition, no two students will have the same level of motivation. What is important, however, is that all schools provide an adequate standard of education, so that no student is given a sub-standard education. Rather than trying to achieve the unobtainable goal of absolute equality in education, governments should focus their effort on ensuring that all students receive an adequate education. By doing this, governments will allow schools and students to gain from the benefits of marketisation.

Even if governments attempt to force all schools to be the same, they will not correct the inequalities that exist in society. Forcing the same education on all students will simply cause the middle classes to focus on other, extracurricular, means as a way of providing their children with better life opportunities. There is a vast over-estimation of the impact that education has in relation to other areas that affect how young people succeed in later life (Levin 1994; Tooley 1998). Studies consistently find that variations in family circumstances, not variations in school quality, make the difference in children's educational achievement. This is hardly surprising. More than 90% of the waking hours of a

child from birth to the age of 18 are spent outside school, in an environment that is heavily conditioned, both directly and indirectly, by their family (Belfield 2003). Even if it were somehow possible to provide all students with the same education, these other factors would still have a significant impact on how successful individuals become in later life. If middle class people cannot buy into better schools, then they will buy into opportunities outside of school. Parents will always use any means they can to help their children to get ahead in life.

Irrespective of the outcome of the debate, marketisation is a fact of life for many state schools today. Falling student numbers are effectively providing a quasi-market, where schools must compete for the limited number of available students (Lawson 1992). A further effective quasi-market exists in the provision of elitist, private schooling. Private schools meet the demands of the middle and upper classes to be educated separately from the working classes (Levin 2001). This policy reflects the fact of life that wealth inequality exists in every aspect of society.

Tooley argues that there is too much state interference within marketisation (Tooley 1998). Government interference destroys the ability marketisation to work effectively. By rigorously controlling the distribution of education, governments are not allowing marketisation to reach its full potential. Tooley believes that, in the market of education, there is no incentive for schools to do well. Schools are restricted by regulation from recruiting the types of students that they want to recruit. Even the most successful schools are not allowed to expand. Staff in the worst schools are paid the same salaries as those in the best performing schools. Badly performing schools tend not to be closed down. Instead, these schools are given extra government money in the hope that they will be able to improve. In a proper educational market, successful schools would be allowed to expand and bad schools would be allowed to close.

State education has utterly failed very many students. For these students, there is nothing to be lost in trying a market system. It could not be worse than their current situation.

Arguments Against Marketisation

The role of education is more than teaching students how to read, write and calculate. It also provides the state with an opportunity to teach people how to behave as citizens and how to interact within society. Education is a powerful force for the nurture of moral, social and community values and responsibilities. The very principles of equality and democracy are embedded into education. Education is fundamental to the effective operation of a democratic society and for the enhancement of civic intelligence and participation. Education produces better citizens, more caring parents and more efficient workers (Lawton 1992). School is the one place where a state can guarantee that all its citizens are afforded at least some understanding of the importance of society and tolerance. To treat individuals as consumers of education rather than as citizens in the education process causes fundamental changes in the nature of education (Grace 1994). Consumers are concerned to maximise the individual return in their transactions. The concept of citizen implies a set of wider social and political responsibilities. A danger for education in the marketplace is how to deal with issues to do with social values, democracy and tolerance. The benefits that individuals get from education affect others in society (Lawton 1992; Tooley 1994). There are likely to be benefits to the community or society at large if there are educational opportunities available, in terms of equality of opportunity, social cohesion, democratic benefits, law and order and economic growth. Ball believes that it is wrong to assume that these educational values will remain unblemished by the demands of the market (Ball 1994). As a result of competitive pressure brought on by marketisation, schools are focusing primarily on the measurable output of academic achievement (Woods 1998). As a result of this focus, other outputs, such as the personal, social and pastoral aspects of schooling might be progressively weakened over time. In their attempts to increase student intake, schools operating under a marketisation regime will be more likely to provide subjects that are seen as relevant to the market. Browne states that market lead education tends to produce non-rounded individuals (Brown 1996).

What individual parents want for their children is not always in the best interest of the community as a whole (Lawson 1992). Marketisation aims to place the individual's needs and wants above all else. Marketisation does not recognise the importance of society (Ball 1994). Therefore marketisation is at odds with the functioning of a civil society and is at odds with a fundamental aim of education in building such a society. Marketisation can lead to a loss of social cohesion (Lawson 1992). If there is a demand from within a population for a particular type of schooling, then the market will be eager to provide this schooling. This schooling may be provided, even if it is at odds with the functioning of a civil society. For example, there is much contention within the UK at present regarding the role of Islamic religious schools. Secularists argue that religious schools increase ethnic segregation. A report commissioned by the local authority in Bradford pinpointed separation in schools as one cause of the riots by Asian youths in that city in 2001 (Economist Sept. 7th, 2006). Trevor Phillips, chairman of the UK Commission for Racial Equality, fanned the flames when he said that religious schools were 'schooling people to be strangers to each other'. Those in favour of such schools argue that parental satisfaction and social justice outweigh the loss of social cohesion.

Marketisation discriminates against the poor and further advantages those families who are already financially or culturally privileged. Ball claims that the marketisation of education is essentially a class strategy, which has, as one of its major effects, the reproduction of relative social class advantages and disadvantages (Ball 1994). The appeal of self-interest and free enterprise mask the political interests of the most privileged sections of society (Brown 1996). Marketisation is meant to enable free and fair competition between individuals. However, individuals have very different starting points on their journey through life. Whereas a state system of education attempts to treat all students equally, parents with a higher cultural capital will be better placed to maximise advantages for their children in a market system (Barr 1993). Marketisation will lead to a wider gap being formed between the learning opportunities that are afforded to the well off and to the poor (Fitz May 2000). Allowing parents to choose schools will additionally privilege those who are already privileged, since making a good choice, perhaps making any choice at all, requires families to have resources such as literacy, confidence, taste, knowledge of legislation, leisure time, and private transport. Poor families will not be able to 'play' the market successfully. Poor parents are more likely to keep their children at badly performing schools (Lawson 1992). A major assumption in support of marketisation is that, when given a choice, parents will move their children from bad schools to better schools. However, this is not necessarily the case. Even when schools do not provide ideal learning environments for their students, many parents tend to keep their children at these schools anyway. Lawson says that parental

apathy, lack of access to informed data and lack of confidence to act are reasons why parents keep their children in bad schools. In addition, Lawson says that the potential emotional effects that changing school can have on their children often stops parents from pursuing a change.

One of the main arguments in support of marketisation is that it provides choice by allowing parents to choose the school that they wish their children to attend. However, irrespective of social class, proximity to a school is cited as the most common reason for picking a particular school (Lawson 1992). Lawson states that 90% of parents choose their local school. Bagley confirms this finding, stating that distance from a school is the most common reason that parents give for not selecting a particular school (Bagley 2001). As parents become better informed, the percentage of parents opting to exercise choice increases only slightly. In general, parents who do chose to send their children to non-local schools do so for reasons of safety and access or because of the perceived quality of an area, rather than for better academic standards. Lawson states that there is no evidence that choosing non-local schools is confined to middle class parents. There is no reason to believe that marketisation will dramatically alter these patterns.

Within marketisation, students might find themselves excluded from their local school, as popular schools will have a much greater say in which students they admit (Lawson 1992). Parents might find themselves having to make long journeys to school every morning. Under marketisation, primary school children will not necessarily go to their local school. Primary schools, in particular, play a crucial role in community building. Primary school children tend to make friends with other children who attend their own class and who live in their own locality. They engage in the various childhood interactions, such as play and parties with these friends. In a school where students do not live close to each other, many of these childhood interactions will not exist or will be highly restricted. This could have a significant negative impact on the mental and social development of the nation's children.

In normal markets, it does not matter who the customer is. However, in education, it does matter who the customer is (Ball 1994). A principle of marketisation of education is that the best schools will attract more students. To become the best, a school must maximise the impact of resources on outcomes. Under such a system, it is not in a school's self interest to cater for special needs or disruptive students. The needs and preferences of special education needs students are being increasingly marginalised and devalued (Bagley 1998). Even those in favour of marketisation concede that educational markets can only ever be quasi-markets (Tooley 1994). A safety net to guarantee an adequate education for all students needs to be incorporated into marketisation. Tooley does not attempt to suggest how the affects of marketisation would impact on this loss making section of education or how the unfortunates, who are adversely affected by the market, would be catered for in an inclusive way.

Good markets only exist where there is sufficient competition in the marketplace (Lawson 1992). This is not the case in education, where parents and students face various barriers to choice. Chief amongst these barriers is geography and transport links (Bagley 2001). Although markets might work in the major population centres, it is difficult to see how they could function in rural areas. In small communities and rural areas, the number of children may be too small to justify more than one school of reasonable size. In such cases, competition cannot be relied on to protect the interests of parents and children (Friedman 1955). Clearly, these small rural schools operate outside of any market forces. In a free market, many small local schools might well be forced to close, as they are highly inefficient. If several small rural schools are closed, then the remaining school is likely not to face any competition for student enrolment. It will therefore operate as a monopoly service provider within its own geographic area. Monopoly service operators have a history of abusing their position (Whitty 2000; Whitfield 2006). They tend to exploit contract niceties, ignore service failures and – within education – avoid involvement with, or get rid of, difficult or resource-intensive students.

Conclusion

It is clear that marketisation of education is a complex and emotive issue. Each side of the debate has its strengths and weaknesses. Many people on both sides of the argument take a blinkered view of the debate. Marketisation is too important an issue to be decided by emotive, subjective, opinions. Education is a once-and-for-all experience, which cannot be repeated (Lawson 1992). Whereas the

effects of a bad hamburger or an uncomfortable jumper are quickly remedied, the effects of a bad educational experience remain with a person for life. Both sides of the debate agree that providing individuals with a good education benefits both the individual and the country. Providing individuals with a bad education adversely affects both the individual and the country.

There are several contradictions in the arguments that are presented by the opposing sides of the debate in marketisation. For example, Brown states that schools specialising in subjects as a result of market forces will lead to less rounded students (Brown 1996). Tooley argues that schools specialising in subjects as a result of market forces will lead to students being provided with an education that better suits their abilities and requirements (Tooley 1998). Those on both sides of the debate need to acknowledge the positive contributions that the other side might have to offer.

It is clear that state education has not provided for the needs of all students (Tooley 1998). Perhaps marketisation will provide better education opportunities? Perhaps it will not? However, based on the evidence in support of marketisation, it is certainly worth trying marketisation out on a pilot section of the community. However, marketisation needs to be introduced in a way that is not threatening to any stakeholders in education. People need to be made aware of both sides of the argument in a transparent and civilised debate.

The only argument presented by either side of the debate that infringes upon the educational rights of any student is the one made by anti-marketisation secularists who oppose religious schools (Lawson 1992). So long as marketisation can ensure that the educational rights of all students are met, then there is no compelling reason to oppose the marketisation of education. The fact that marketisation might offer the potential of a better education for children only adds to the argument in favour of marketisation. A properly regulated market in education will not only ensure that the educational rights of all students are respected. It might also offer the potential to deliver a better education to all students.

The evidence suggests that marketisation has the potential to provide people with choice and provide efficient services (Lauder 1991; Tooley 1998). Therefore, it should be considered as a viable option in education policy. In order for marketisation to work, the following two conditions must be met.

- The state must continue to regulate education. Marketisation needs to happen within the context of the basic educational rights of the population. The state must maintain a strong, central level of regulation to ensure that all students receive an adequate education. Many other markets, from cars to banking, are regulated to ensure adequate standards are adhered to. Indeed, in many markets, competition forces the actual standards that being achieved to be far higher than the adequate standards regulated by the state. There is no reason to believe that the educational market should be any different.

- The state must continue to fund education to ensure that all students are provided with an adequate level of education.

Like so much else in life, education policy in affected by the environment that it exists in. The version of marketisation adapted in each country will be different to the marketisation policy implemented in other countries. Over time, marketisation in any country will evolve to take on its own characteristics that respond to satisfy the requirements of that country's population.

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EDUCATION IN A GLOBALIZED ECONOMY

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Abstract

Education helps to develop a Scientific outlook of the world resumed us and discover the laws of development of Nature and society.

Our World is ever changing; therefore, the system of education and training must also change to meet the needs of the globalized systems of production, exchange and distribution.

The on-going revolution in Science and technology outdates some of the crafts and trades, and in their place new ones come up demanding new labour skills. Hence, education must be geared up to meet new challenges.

The direction of change in the present system of education has to be discussed in retrospect and prospect of globalization.

Globalization is understood as a cross border flow of goods and capital. This phenomenon is not new, but began in the wake of the Industrial Revolution in England. This revolution ushered in capitalist mode of production whose defining feature was wage labour based on division of labour.

In course of time, division of labour, when combined with mechanization of production, led to mass production. Because of small populations in England and the Continent, and less purchasing power with the workers, the size of the home markets remained small, as a result of which the whole

output was not sold. To solve the problem the industrializing countries sought overseas markets and secured them by colonial conquests.

During the periods of two World Wars and rehabilitation, and the Cold War in the second half of the 20th century globalization was on low key. However, the emergence of a unipolar World with the fall of the USSR, globalization renued with an accelerated pace. Disinvestment, privatization and liberalization has led to neo – laissez – faire.

The compulsions of globalization – increased competitiveness in the World market – have forced industry to adopt labour saving methods, which led to cutback in regular employment and to resort to casualisation of labour in the developing countries. Further, it is observed that as automation takes possession of labour process, 'de-skilling' of labour takes place, as automation does not require any special skills.

Against this background, education should be reoriented towards vocational training for self – employment in order to reduce poverty. Once the self – employed gain entrepreneurial experience and accumulate capital with state assistance, they can enter small and medium scale enterprises, and able to provide employment for others. Such a system of education is not only inclusive but also generative of employment opportunities. This also bestows a human face to globalization.

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The importance of education need not be over emphasized. Education helps to extend our Scientific outlook of the World, and sharpens our mental faculties to cognize and understand the laws of Nature and Social development. Our society and the world are not static; they are ever changing. Therefore, education system should also change in time and space to accommodate the changing needs of society, specially production and its diversification in a globalizing world.

Section – 1

Globalization in Retrospect

Any change in the present system of education has to be discussed in retrospect of globalization – its history and nature. Globalization is generally understood as an ever increasing cross – border flow of Commodities and capital and thereby the emergence of an interdependent and integrated world economy. This is not a new development. It began way back in the wake of Industrial Revolution of the 18th Century in England and the Western Europe. The Industrial Revolution ushered in a new mode of production, namely capitalism.

The defining feature of the capitalist mode of production is commodity production, with division of labour based on wage – labour. Adam Smith, the founder of the classical school of political economy, stated that division of labour improves the dexterity of the workers, and thereby increases the productivity of labour. Further, he highlighted the relation between the division of labour and the market by saying that division of labour depends on the extent of the market, and the expansion of the market, in its turn, extends division of labour[1].

As the market expanded to meet the demand, division of laour was combined with machine production, leading to mass production. But due to the relatively small population and the subsistence wages of the workers, the size of the home markets remained small. As a result, a sizable portion of the output used to remain unsold i.e., market gluts (such a situation was anticipated by T.R. Malthus in 1822, and the first glut was experienced by England in 1825. Since then, market gluts became a recurring feature). A solution to the problem was sought in the overseas markets. Consequently, trading companies were floated, e.g., The East India Company, the Dutch East Indies Company, etc. These companies exported manufactured commodities and imported raw materials to feed the expanding home industries. This two – way traffic of merchandise had contributed greatly to expand international trade, and thereby the formation of a world market.

The formation of a world market is of a historical significance. The goods produced in one country are being consumed by other countries, and the raw materials of a country are consumed by others, thus production and consumption have become globalized. This new development has greatly eroded narrow nationalism, ethinic isolation and religious predijuces, with the result that a secular and cosmopolitan culture began to develop[2].

The cross – border flow of commodities was followed by the inter – state flow of capital. Compared to the export of commodities, export of capital has an advantage. When commodities are exported, the trader gets profits at once, while the export of capital enables the exporter to earn not only profits, but also interest and royalties over a long period. Moreover, export of capital by way of loans to the local governments and investment in production will help the capital exporter to get a foothold in the economy of the capital – importing country.

Once a foothold was established, the capital – exporting countries, for the safety of their investments and for secured markets, made colonial conquests of Asia and Africa. This phase of globalization was characterized by the complete domination of world market by the Metropolitan Countries. So, the inter-state capital market began to expand.

According to Sir George Paish, British investments abroad in 1914 amounted to $ 20,000 million, or 23 per cent of the total investments at home. In the same year British investments in India reached to $ 1845 millions, and in the USA close to $ 3674 million. In 1912 France was estimated to have loaned abroad over $ 8000 million, mainly in the Far East and Russia. Germany did not lag behind, its overseas investments totaled $ 6500 million. Foreign capital was mostly invested in mining,

mineral oils, railways, plantations and public utilities. Sir Paish called these investments as financial imperialism[3].

By the export of capital European powers acquired vast overseas territories as their colonies or spheres of influence. Between 1870 and 1900 Britain's spheres of influence was extended to 5 million square miles, with a population of 88 million, that of France to 3.5 Million square miles with a population of 37 million, and of Germany one million square miles with a population of 14 million[4].

The USA had not lagged behind the European metropolitan powers in respect of capital exports. Until 1870 capital was an inward flow, but by 1898 US capital exports amounted to $ 1210 million, which increased to $ 3 billion by 1914. In this process it acquired spheres of influence in Portirico and Cuba. After defeating Spain, the USA had reduced the whole Latin America as its backyard[5]. In this context we recall the observation of Maurice Dobb.

"Imperialism requires creating such conditions as to ensure profitable investments abroad. The first among these conditions is the availability of plentiful and cheap labour, and where this requisite does not exist, pre-capitalist relations need to be modified but destroy them not completely in order to ensure the supply of wage labour by dispossessing the tribals as in Africa or the running of the handicraftsmen as in India. The fulfillment of these conditions required effective political control over the protectrates' by annexation by military conquest[6]". Long before in , 1902, J.A. Hobson wrote.

"Colonial economy must be regarded as one of the necessary conditions for capitalist expansion. Its trade, enforced by the use of armed force, was in a large measure little other than robbery, and in no sense an equal exchange of commodities[7]". Hobson's view was endorsed by the sociologist, Sombart by saying: "The great trading companies of Europe may be described as semi-war like conquering undertakings to which sovereign rights, backed by the forces of the state, had been granted[8]".

The above observations were true in the case of East India company in india. During 1757-1815 the company shipped home an amount of about £ 1000 million. A measure of this amount can be gauged if we note that the native capital amounted to only a mere £ 36 million during the second half of the 18th century[9]. According to an estimate during the first decades of the 20th century Britain appropriated under one title or another about 10 percent of the national income of India[10]. The same

was true of other British colonies. That is why Andre Gunder Frank said that capitalism was associated with both development and underdevelopment through the exploitation of the overseas territories[11].

Present phase of Globalization

With the collapse of the colonial system during the first decade of the World War-II and the emergence of the USSR as a super power, things have radically changed. The former colonies and semi-colonies (e.g. India, Egypt, Indonesia, China etc.) have taken independent path of development aimed at economic self-reliance. Unreconciled with the change, the former metropolitan countries devised a subtle method of exploitation of the developing countries, namely neocolonialism. One of the chief methods of neocolonialism was economic and military aid with conditionalities. During the 1960s and 1970s foreign aid to the developing countries amounted to an annual average of $ 20 billion, but during the same outflow amounted to $ 100 billion on account of repayments, interest and royalties. Commenting on such a kind of aid Jan Timbergen exclaimed: 'who in fact aids whome[12]'. As we see below, the situation has not changed due to the free flow of foreign direct investments (FDI) under the present phase of gobalisation.

With the fall of the USSR (1990), globalisation has gained an accelerated pace, the WTO acting as the cart-pusher. The developing countries are forced to privatize their economies by disinvestment of public sector and adopt an open-door policy to FDI, and the entry of MNCs into key sectors, industry, banking and insurance. Special economic zones (SEZs) are created to FDI, where labour laws are relaxed and tax concessions granted. There is apprehension in India that these SEZs may sooner or later become foreign enclaves, resembling of the East India company's creating a dual economy.

Expectations of employment growth are belied. While output in India is growing at 7-8 percent during 2002-2007, the growth of employment in organized sector has decreased from 2.4 to 1.04 percent during the same period[13]. What is worse, is the increasing casualisation of labour to save in the wage bill, and thereby to increase the competitiveness in the world market. This type of employment has increased in Africa from 44 to 48 percent, in Latin America from 29 to 44 percent and in Asia from 26 to 32 percent (ILO 2002). This situation was aptly commented upon by a participant in the dialogue organized by the World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalisation (WCSDG) in the Philiphines, 2004: "There is no point in a globalization that reduces the price of the child's shoes but costs the father his job"[14].

An Assessment

The present phase of globalization is variously interpreted. The World Bank welcomed it as a powerful instrument of economic growth and reduction in poverty. The WTO see in it a vehicle to level up development by an increased cooperation between nations. But facts are otherwise. As to poverty, Harve Kempf, editor of Le Monde, writes:

"Switzerland by any standard is one of the wealthiest countries in the world, but the percentage of its poor, in relative terms, was at 14 percent in 2005. In Germany, it was as much in 2003, and in UK 22 percent in 2002. In the US, the richest country on the earth, 23 percent of its population earns less than half of the median income. In Japan the number of households with no savings doubled in five years to reach a quarter of the population and in France one in every four is in a precarious position[15].

Two decades of globalized Indian economy could not mitigate poverty. As of today, about 30 percent of the population, or 300 million, a number equal to the population of Europe (excluding the states of the former USSR), are living below the poverty – line. The prospects of lifting them above the poverty – line seems to be bleak in the near future because of the decreasing rate of employment opportunities.

By way of concluding this section, we cite the openions of three writers.

Prof. F.R. Pizzati defined the present phase of globalization. "It is a movement of goods and capital across national boundaries under a new paradigm of neo-liberalism". Therefore, he called it as neo-globalisation[16]. Douglas Doud says that "Globalization is an ideological and economic tendency of global expansion of capitalist mode of production ... in order to shift the periodical burden of overproduction on to the developing countries[17]. Prof. V.V. Reddy Characterises the present phase of globalization as "a new version of neo-colonialism in a unipolar world[18]."

Therefore, commenting on the present phase of globalization, Joseph Stiglitz a noble laurate in Economics, says that "Globalization is neither good nor bad. It has a power of immense good. The countries of East Asia have embraced it on their own terms and at their own pace. But, to much of world it has not brought comparable benefits. For many, it seems closer to unmitigated disaster[19].

Section – II

<u>Education and skill Formation</u>

Academics say that education is a continuous process of learning and unlearning. This is because of the fact that some of the things we have learnt in the school and college may become outdated due to the 'explosion' of knowledge on account of latest scientific discoveries and inventions. Every new invention and discovery are a stepping spring for the growth of further knowledge. That is why **<u>Bhagavadgeeta,</u>** the holy script of Hindus, likeness knowledge to an occasion with no bank.

In the process of changing techniques of production, specially its diversification, some of the acquired labour skills become obsolete, and demand grows for new skills to meet the development needs. This is the experience of the West as well as of India,   of late.

Commodity production, the characteristic feature of capitalism, with simple division of labour in which each worker or group of workers, without any specialized skills, are employed in single operation. The repeated performance of a single operation (e.g. Adam Smith's example of Pin-making) would improve the dexterity of the workers, and thereby raised labour productivity. Therefore, the early phase of commodity production did not require any special training through formal education.

However, when division of labour was combined with machine production, education became necessarily specialized for the training of those skills in demand. Later, when the whole production process was mechanized, and production became more diversified, the demand for higher technical personnel, e.g., engineers and managerial cadre arose. Here, comes the importance of specialized higher education.

Capitalism by its very nature is innovative, and never content with the achievements already made. It continuously modernizes productive forces, with the result of the old industries are destroyed, and in their place new industries come up. This is described as 'creative destruction'. At a higher stage of development, the whole production process is automised with remote control, so much so that labour-output ratio declines. For, automation and conveyer – belt require relatively small number skilled workers, and the new recruits if any, can be trained on the work – spot. This stage is marked with a general 'de-skilling' of the labour force[20]. This also co-insides with a fall in the demand for white – collar jobs in banking and insurance as book-keeping and documentation is increasingly computerized and memory 'stored' for instant reference. This leads to 'jobless growth', which is a contradiction in the capitalist mode of production. Such growth is reflected in the recurring crises of overproduction[21].

Today, India is a full-fledged capitalist economy; therefore, experiences of all the ills of capitalist development – concentration of private wealth on the one hand, and poverty on the other. (See Annexure-I) During the last one decade, growth of G.D.P. amounted to 6 – 8 per cent, it is a 'jobless growth', for the backlog of unemployed has steeply increased (See Annexure-II) accompanied by casualisation of wage labour, whose continued employment is uncertain. Given the present trends of growth, secured employment is likely to fall on the one hand, and a rise in the casualisation of labour, on the other. Moreover, in India and other developing countries higher technical education is beyond the reach of most of the youth because of its high cost. For example, in India a four year engineering course costs a minimum of $ 2000 per annum, while the per capita income (in current prices) is only $ 600 (2008). Even then because of, the general de-skilling many of the highly skilled may not get a placement for the highly educated.

Against this background, education needs to be revamped in such a way that it is more and more oriented towards self-employment i.e., post-school vocational training in the emerging crafts and trades. Once the self-employed gain experience in entrepreneurship and accumulate capital, they can enter into small and medium scale industries, using local resources and talents. Self employment may take the form of self-help groups, specially of women, to make edibles and other articles of common use in the households. Such self-help groups are already successfully experimented in some states of India, with state assistance in the form of low interest bearing loans.

To encourage self-employment state funding of vocational education should form the budgetary policy of the developing countries. This seems to us, in the given conditions, the only possible solution to the negative effects of globalization on employment in organised sector and the casualisation of wage labour.

ANNEXURE-I

UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA (in Millions)

1. Backlog in 1990	28
2. New entrants into labour force	37
3. Total unemployed (1991-95) (1+2)	65
4. New entrants into labour foce (200-006)	49
5. Total unemployed (3 + 4)	114

Source: Projections of Planning Commission, Government of India, 1998, and India

Development Report (ed.) R. Radhakrishna, New Delhi, 2008.

ANNEXURE-II

INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN INDIA (in percentages)

Area	1983-84	1987-88	1990-91	1992-93	1994-95	2000-02
Rural	46.6	39.1	35.0	41.7	40.7	44.5
Urban	42.2	40.1	37.0	37.8	36.6	38.6
Total:	**44.8**	**39.3**	**35.6**	**40.7**	**39.6**	**41.1**

Source: Report of the Expert Group of Planning Commission, Government of India and

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18.   Reddy, V.V. History of Economic Thought, New Delhi, 2009, p.162.

19.   Stiglitz, J., Globalisation and Discontents, New York, 2002, p.198.

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Economic Research at the Czech universities: A Decade of Wasted Hope?

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Introduction

The Czech Republic became a member of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) on the day 1995-12-21 as the first of post-socialist   countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEECs). A year later Poland and Hungary joined OECD and then Slovakia in 2000. These four countries along with Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Slovenia joined European Union in 2004 as well. The mentioned events suggest that the process of overall economic and institutional transformation was not only in the Czech Republic in principle completed and therefore it is not necessary to talk about transition economies in these cases.

But as Ciaian et al. (2008) mentions, some sectors in former socialist CEECs have not passed fundamental reforms yet. Besides health services it concerns especially the university sector.

The causes can be sought in the fact that there are strongly represented public goods and an asymmetrical access to information in this sector. This leads to a natural dependence on the administrative regulation, simplifying operation of pressure groups.

In the era of socialist centrally planned economy the universities played particularly the role of educational institutions whilst basic research has been concentrated in the institutes of the Academy of Sciences and applied research in institutes at various branch ministries (Moore, 1994; Balasz et al., 1995; Kamenicek, 2005). University teachers had to concentrate on education and promotion of the ideology of Marxism-Leninism. The situation was significant especially in social sciences. In this context Turnovec (2002, p. 7) states that in Czechoslovakia in seventies and eighties of the last century the mandatory part of dissertations in economics was a chapter called "Criticism of bourgeois economic theories". After the fall of communism and acceleration of reform processes the pressure groups interested in the conservation of "old order" succeeded in a penetration into the administration regulating university sector and successfully settled in these regulatory bodies. These groups of people were not interested in exposing universities to the competition and adopting principles of research realized at universities. That is their human and social capital, built in the environment of politicized education and marginal research with soft criteria of valuation, would suffer by this. If the economic research at universities, about which we speak in our paper, at least managed to partially develop and gradually expose to an international confrontation, it was often due to an inflow of "new blood" from the rank of fresh graduates of top foreign schools and due to a help of economists living abroad. It means it was rather despite of ruling academic elites and the institutional arrangement pursued by them than due to their significant merit.

Although in there is a long time discussion in the Czech Republic about the need of fundamental change in the system of tertiary education, and despite the impulse of the Ministry of Education from 2008 when the material "White book" containing reform concepts and strategies for next 15 - 20 years was prepared, an approval of this material is obviously not awaited. The reason is a strong resistance of the academic lobby. Czech universities disagree with the way it was treated with the conclusions of "Thematic Review of Tertiary Education: Czech Republic" of OECD expert group from November

2006 (File et al., 2006), containing among others a criticism of the management system of human resources and research. But looking at the results of economic research at Czech universities since the beginning of transformation, the view is gloomy. On the one hand, it is clear that the globalization and revitalization process of economic research has been started in the Czech Republic. If in the year 1993 Czech government database registered only 7 papers of domestic economists in foreign journals included in the Journal of Economic Literature (JEL) database and the number of these papers was never higher till the year 1997 (a year earlier it was even zero), in the year 1998 the number of papers jumped to 53 and the following year even to 67 (Turnovec, 2002). Presented numbers of course include also the outcomes of economists working out of academia. Unfortunately the growth trend has not continued and the stagnation both in the quantity and the quality of publications has occurred in recent years. This fact is now perceived as a problem even officially.

For instance, in 2008 the Research and Development Council, an advisory body to the Czech government, warned that the Czech Republic's long-run relative citation index (RCIO) value for economics amounted to only around 10 percent of the Thomson Reuters ISI National Science Indicators database average. Our own previous research showed that high-ranking positions in Czech economic departments, government advisory boards, and public agencies providing research grants are mainly occupied by professionals without any publications in journals with an impact factor (Machacek and Kolcunova, 2008). According to Turnovec (2005) an average number of publications in journals from databases JEL and Web of Science (WoS) per an academic economist in Czech Republic had been only 0.85 in the period 1994 to 2003. According the database WoS it had not been even 0.75 (Ciaian et al., 2005) in Slovakia in the period 1990 to 2004.The report produced by Accreditation Committee of Czech university sector appointed by the government acknowledges that "in a significant measure still some problems come out in the quality of scientific research and publication activities at habilitations and professorships. So far there are only a few publications in journals with an impact factor and numbers of foreign publications are low. This responds also in low citation responses (In addition they are not followed in many economic branches at all)" (see the report produced by Accreditation Committee about evaluation of habilitations and procedures to professor appointments in the area of economics, 2005).

Machacek and Kolcunova (2005) revealed that of the economics professors tenured in the Czech Republic from January 1999 to June 2005, almost 54 percent had not published a journal paper with an impact factor before their appointment. At the same time, some 85 percent had not published a paper in a foreign academic journal with an impact factor. Similar results held for those who were made associate professors in the same period. We conclude that due to continuing debates about "White book of tertiary education" the date is mature for coming back to the earlier realised research and either actualising either upgrading this research using the grant of Czech Science Foundation (GA402/07/0342). Specifically, this paper expands on Machacek and Kolcunova (2005) by significantly updating the existing Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) dataset, analyzing the SCOPUS dataset, and focusing on the publication patterns of full and associate professors before and after their appointments. In doing so, we gain a better understanding of the evolution of research activity at Czech universities, as well as contributing to the international literature on the academic life – cycle (i.e. Baser and Pema, 2004). As for the data, our sample now consists of all the 100 full professors and 207 associate professors of economics who were appointed in the Czech Republic between January 1999 and June 2009. From our data analysis we conclude that the R&E activities at Czech universities still remain underdeveloped and sector competitiveness has not improved, even with reform efforts from the Czech government. This conclusion provides some additional support to the existing literature reviewed above.

Methods

Data on 100 professors and 207 associate professors appointed between January 1999 and June 2009 in the Czech Republic were obtained from web pages of Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/habilitacni-a-jmenovaci-rizeni). As the report is oriented to the economic research, the focus is on appointments in branches as follows: Economics, Finance, Public Economics Economic Policy, Econometrics and Operational Research, National Economy, International Trade, Business Economics and Management, Management, Sector Economy and Management, World Economy, Accounting and Financial Management (incl. Business), Economic and Social History.

At individual academics we search for the number of their publications using international databases Web of Science (WoS) – Social Sciences Citation Index and Conference Proceedings Citation Index - Social Sciences & Humanities, and Scopus. The publications are found to the date of professor or associate professor's personal appointment and within two years after the year of appointment and also to the date of the research completion (June 2009). Publications are further split in "papers" and "foreign papers". While the first category does not comprise reviews, information, lead articles, etc., the second one moreover excludes papers published in the Czech Republic and Slovakia. The reason for excluding publications published in Slovakia from the sample of foreign papers is a matter of fact that the Czech Republic and Slovakia formed one state entity until 1993 and Czech and Slovak are very closely related languages. In assigning of found publications to the persons a shared responsibility is taken into account. In these cases we proceed in a strictly egalitarian way. It means if a certain publication is a collective work of n authors, the author's share of each person is expressed as a fraction of 1/n.

Unlike the earlier research (Machacek and Kolcunova, 2005) we do not present results of specific Czech universities where professor and associate professor appointments in the period under review was carried out. We conclude that these results are not interesting for an international scientific community, but they are available upon request. In contrast with the earlier research we compare results from the two "competitive" publication databases (WoS and Scopus). This step, among others, responds to complaints of some Czech scholars of the previous analysis for narrowing it to journals with the impact factor. Newly we also observe the rate of "feminization" in individual branches of professor or associate professor appointments. Compared to the earlier research the next innovation is watching publication activities of professors and associate professors within a period of two years after their appointment.

Results and discussion

The following two charts show how the total numbers of successfully topped professorial appointment procedures, respectively habilitations (i.e., procedures for the appointment of associate professors), are involved in various economic fields.

It is evident that in the past decade has been by far the most popular branch of professorship and habilitation the branch of Business Economics and Management (26 %, resp. 36 % share). Other favourite branches are Economics, Finance and Sector Economy and Management. Altogether these branches' share in professorships is 66% and in habilitations even 73%. On the contrary there are branches where the appointment procedure takes place only seldom (World Economy, National Economy, Economic and Social History**,** etc). The comparison with the earlier study (Machacek a Kolcunova, 2005) shows that presented differences among branches remain stable in time and are

obviously caused by natural needs of academic sphere that are derived from the demand of university clients (students, business sector, public sector).

Chart No.1
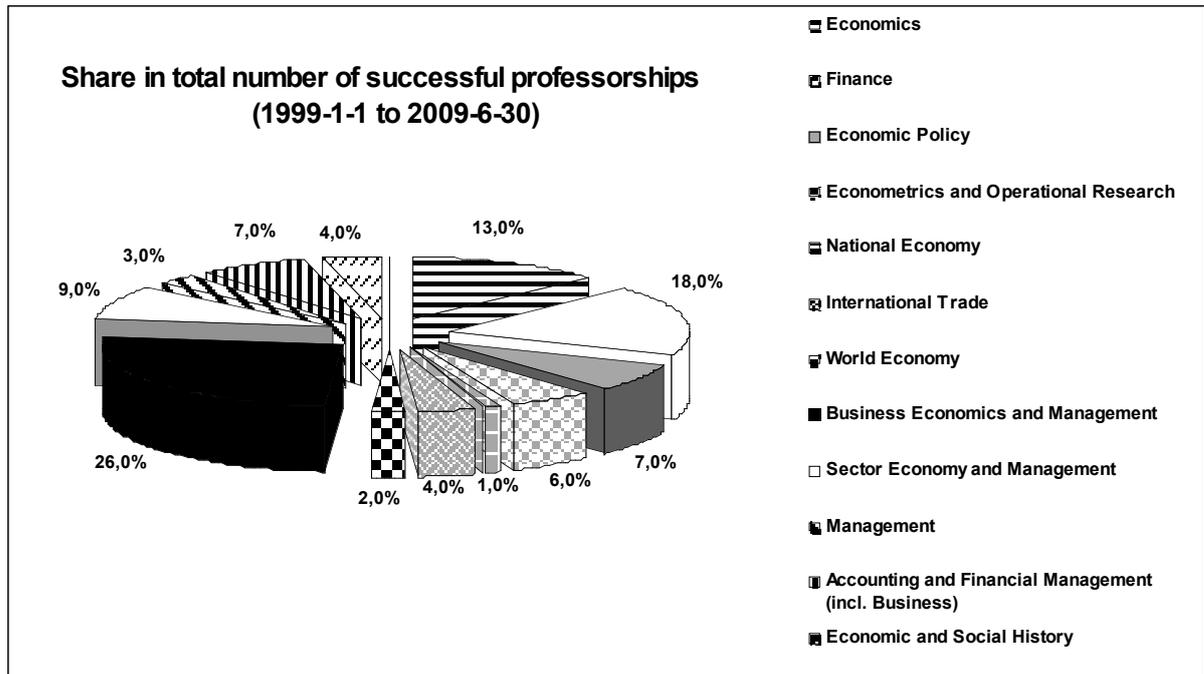
Chart No. 2
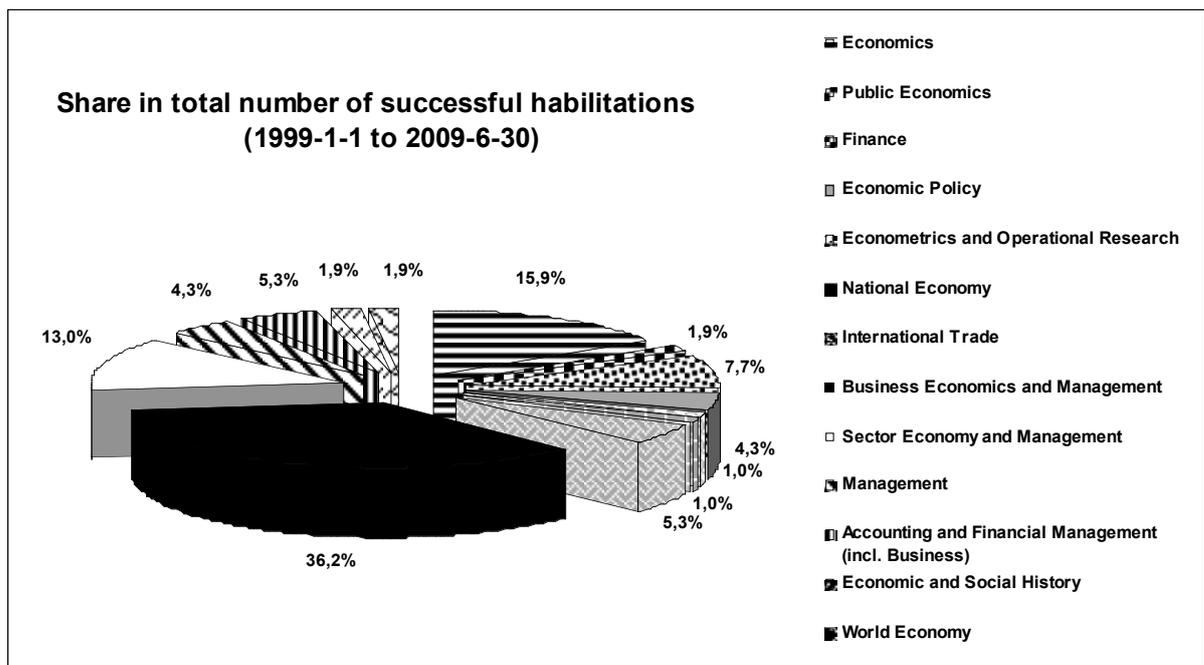
In connection with differences in popularity of individual branches of professorship and habilitation question arises whether there does not come into play a factor in inter-disciplinary perspective of requirements for candidates' publishing activity. In other words, whether candidates in popular branches are not subject to fewer requirements than in the less popular branches. The Charts No. 1 and No. 2 describe this problem. In these charts it is possible to observe the shares of habilitations and

professorships according to branches that were successfully completed without any publication listed in international databases WoS and Scopus. Although the results are according to databases insignificantly different, in both cases it is evident that in some branches really exists an above-average share of successful procedures without publications and in the other branches it is just vice versa. If we focus only on the popular branches Business Economics and Management, Economics, Finance and Sector Economy and Management we can see that according to both databases the branches Business Economics and Management and Sector Economy and Management rank among branches with "soft" publication criteria whereas Economics and Finance are branches with under average share of procedures without publications. Again we see no change comparing the findings in the year 2005. Though in past there were objections in Czech Republic against the findings that successful habilitations and professor procedures without publications are concentrated in the branch of Business Economics and Management, these objections were focused on the use of database containing only journals with the impact factor, the use of an alternative database (Scopus) puts these objections aside. The hypothesis that some tolerance of application reviewers contributes to the popularity of some branches between aspirants, with lack of publication performance, for professorship or habilitation, cannot be categorically rejected.

Chart No. 3
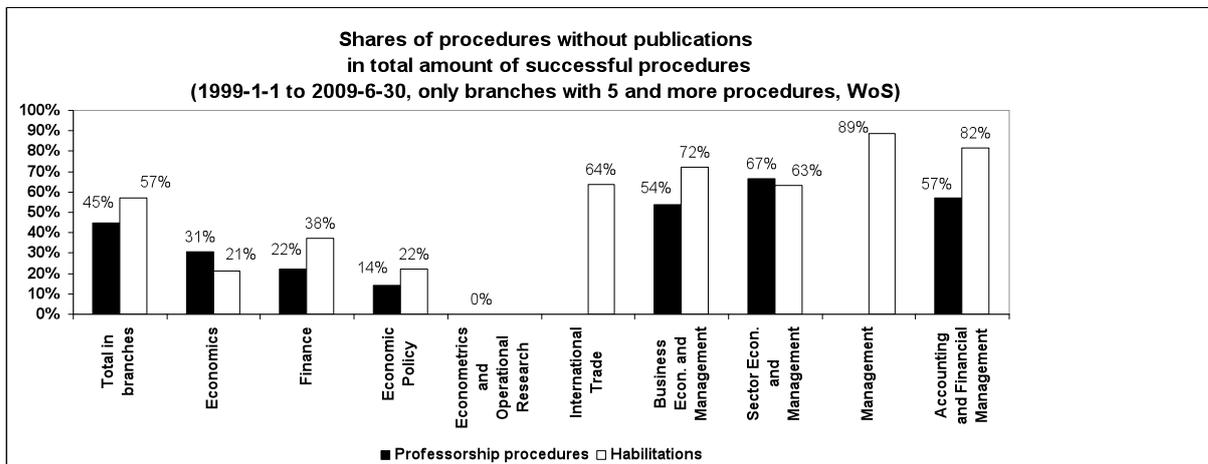
Chart No. 4
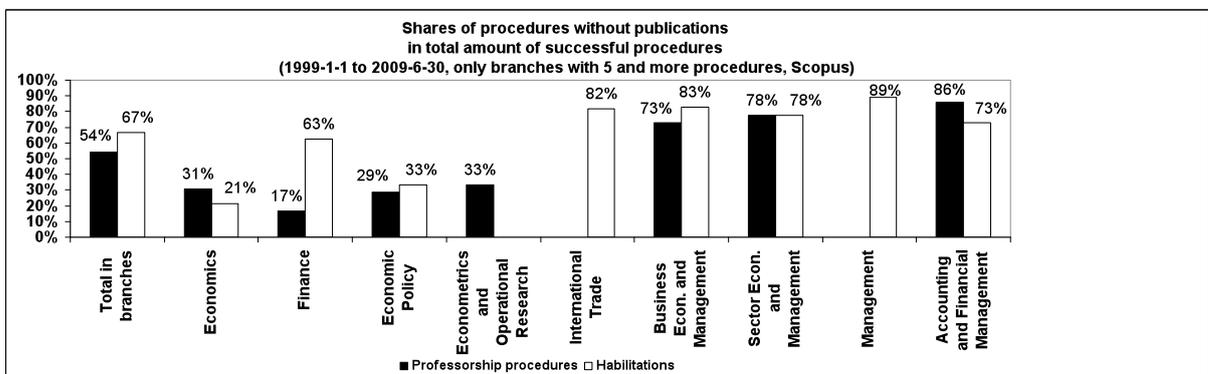
Table No. 1 provides interesting information about the research results. This table summarizes data for individual subjects of habilitations and professorships procedures according to database and type of publications. E.g. this table implies that only 26% of newly appointed professors in economic disciplines were women in the Czech Republic during the past ten years. In case of newly appointed associate professors this share was only a little higher and gave 29%. When compared with data from earlier research (Machacek and Kolcunova, 2005) it shows that the proportion of women among those

appointed professors decreased by 5.5% and the one in appointed associate professors decreased by even significant 26%. This does not expose the Czech university sector too flattering card, especially when there is domestic "Humboldtian" (File et al., 2006) career system under which the rank of associate professor is a precursor to obtain the standard professorship.

Table No. 1: Aggregate results of research

	Professors	**Associate professors**
Internal procedure	83	164
External procedure	17	43
Women	26	60
Men	74	147
Total	100	207
Without publications to 2009-6-30 (WoS)	30 %	46 %
Without papers to 2009-6-30 (WoS)	37 %	57 %
Without foreign papers to 2009-6-30 (WoS)	83 %	89 %
Without publications to the appointment date (WoS)	45 %	57 %
Without papers to the appointment date (WoS)	50 %	65 %
Without foreign papers to the appointment date (WoS)	84 %	91 %
Without publications to 2009-6-30 (Scopus)	40 %	57 %
Without papers to 2009-6-30 (Scopus)	42 %	58 %
Without foreign papers to 2009-6-30 (Scopus)	75 %	83 %
Without publications to the appointment date (Scopus)	54 %	67 %
Without papers to the appointment date (Scopus)	55 %	68 %
Without foreign papers to the appointment date (Scopus)	81 %	88 %

Chart No.5 follows information on the share of women in new professors. This chart features the data on masculinisation in individual branches of procedures. It is evident that the only two branches with at least five habilitations and majority of women are branches Finance (56% women) and Accounting and Financial Management (incl. business, 64% women). An equivalent share of men and women is in the branch International Trade concerning professorships. All other significant branches show a majority of men although some of them are above average masculinised (e.g. Economics or Sector Economy and Management) and the others vice versa (Business Economics and Management, etc.). Next interesting finding, in the Table No.1, is that full 83% of professor procedures and 79% of habilitations took place at the home university of aspirant (category "internal procedure") and only small amount of procedures took place at the university where the aspirant was not employed (category "external procedure"). Likewise in this respect the differences have become deeper since the year 2005. It

confirms well known reality that Czech university sector is rather impenetrable and shows a low mobility of academic workers.

Chart No. 5

Shares of men in total amount of successful procedures
(1999-1-1 to 2009-6-30, only branches with 5 and more procedures)
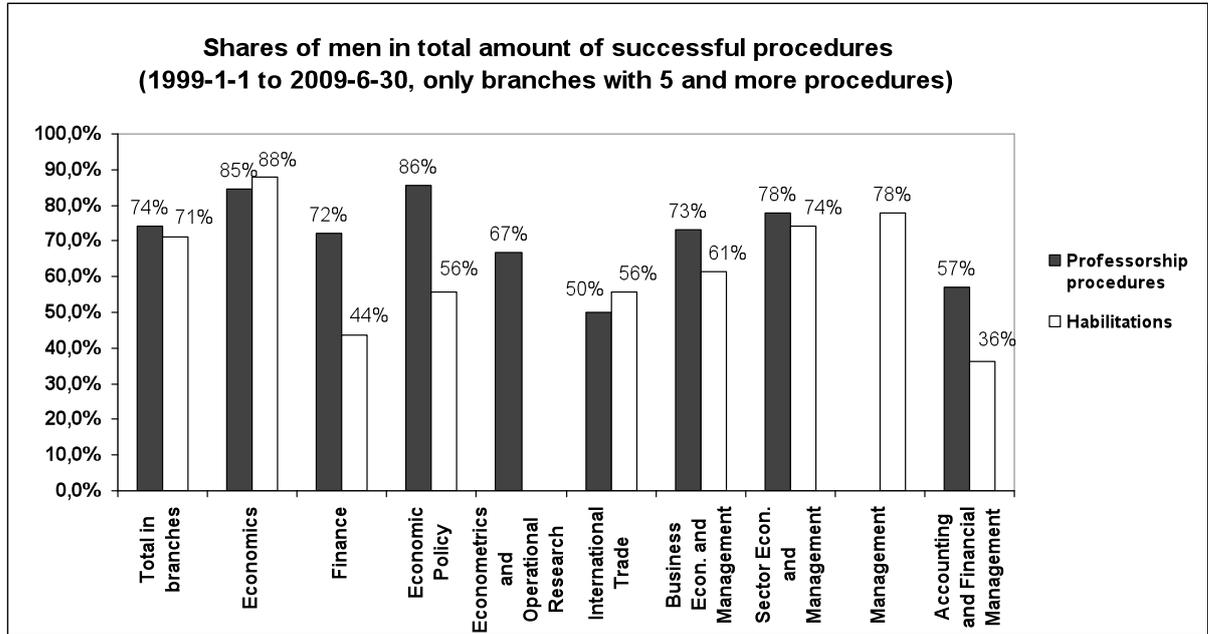
As far as the publication activity of newly appointed professors and associate professors is concerned the aggregate results of the investigation is possible to read also in the Table No.1. By the end of June 2009 30% professors and 46% associate professors appointed in years 1999 to 2099 (according WoS), resp. 40% professors and 57% associate professors (according Scopus) has not had a single publication record in international databases. In the case of foreign, i.e. aside the Czech Republic and Slovakia published papers the shares are 75 to 83% (professors) and 83 to 89% (associate professors). If we focus on publication records to the year of professorship or habilitation capping the stated numbers are even higher and amount 45 to 54% (professors) resp. 57 to 67% (associate professors). More than 80% professors and about 90% associate professors obtained their degree without any foreign publication filed in reputable international databases. In the case of data obtained from WoS some improvement occurred comparing the study from year 2005. But this improvement does not exceed 5% of procedures and does not change a negative impression owing to findings fundamentally anyway.

It was said, this report also follows a time profile of publication activities of professors and associate professors appointed in the analysed decade. We specifically focus on what happens with these activities within two years after the appointment. It is logical that in this research we must be satisfied with a smaller sample of procedures as the selected two years term still does not invoke the procedures completed in the years 2008 - 2009. In the case of professor procedures we work with 84 procedures from 100 in total. In case of habilitations we work with 173 procedures from 207 in total.

Results of analysis of publication activity time profile based on data from WoS are presented in the Chart No.6. This chart shows that only 29% professors and 23% associate professors have been publishing in journal or proceedings with the impact factor within two years after their appointment. Above average it was in the branches Economy and Finance, in case of professor procedures also in the branch Econometrics and Operational Research, in case of habilitations in the branch Economic Policy. Other significant branches show vice versa very second rate results. In case of branches Sector

Economy and Management and Accounting and Financial Management (incl. Business) for example any of professors has not been publishing within two years after his appointment. The same can be said about associate professors in the branch International Trade. The more precise view would for example show that professors who published papers listed in WoS within two years period after their appointment in 83% cases had already published before. And on the contrary 48% professors, who have not published papers within two years period after his appointment, had not published before. Also there is a difference among braches. While in the branch Economics all professors publishing after their appointment had already publication in WoS in past, in the branch Business Economics and Management 58% professors without publication had not published even before this appointment. As far as associate professors are concerned those who published papers listed in WoS within two years period after their appointment in 83% cases already had published before. And on contrary 68% associate professors, who did not published papers within two years period after their appointment, had not published before. It seems so that as professors and associate professors make a progress in the professional career and reach desirable degree then they significantly limit their publication activities. This can be of course caused also by the fact that their administrative duties increase (sessions in evaluation committees for doctoral and habilitation theses, examination of inceptors, preparation of opponent reviews, other expert activities, etc.).

Chart No. 6

Shares of procedures with publications in total number of procedures in horizon 2 year since successful completion (1999-1-1 to 2009-6-30, only branches with 5 and more publications, WoS)
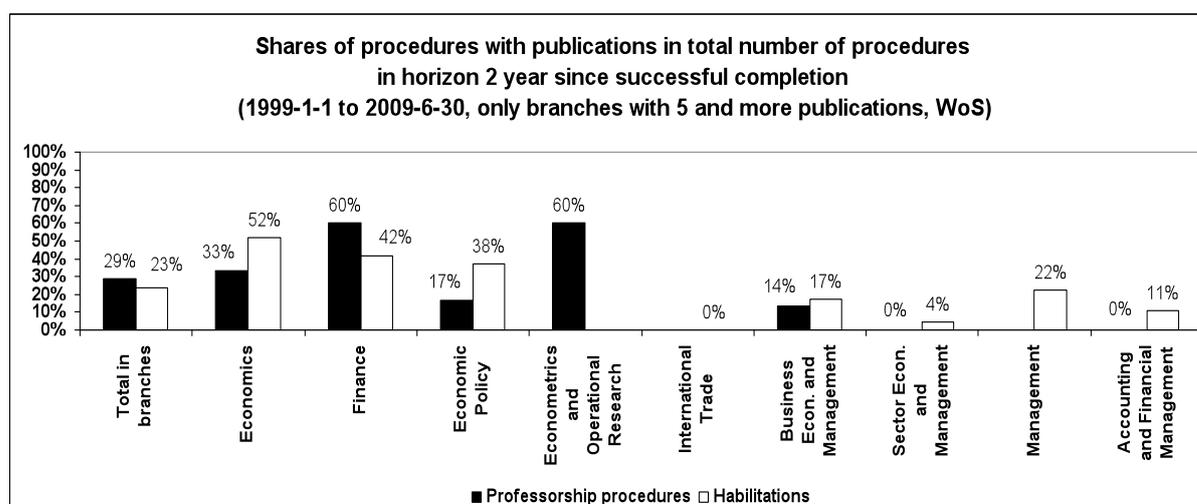
Conclusions

Within days from 2009-5-22 to 2009-6-18 the Ministry of Education of Czech Republic realised a vast survey amongst academics. The aim of this survey was to find out their expectations in connection with the reform of tertiary education and to identify better the problems in the sector of university education. 24% of all Czech academics (6099 persons) of which 11% were professors and 19% were associate professors actively participated in this survey. This survey also revealed that according to 72% of academic workers Czech university education needs an in-depth reform. It emerged though that the support of reform decreases with a qualification classification of respondents and their position in the school management (www.msmt.cz). This seems to confirm the thesis – presented in the introduction - about a prevailing distrust to more radical changes among influential academic officials.

This report withal confirms for the area of economic research that recent domestic development is unfavourable and deserves a stronger action. Since nineties the situation has still existed that more than 80% professors and associate professors have no publication in a prestigious foreign periodical and one third to a half of them has not any internationally listed publication. Since the outbreak of the so-called Velvet Revolution, while this year expires just 20 years. The more alarming is the fact that the situation has not gradually improved but at least stagnated or got even worse. It is clear from the comparison of the results of the performed research with the ones of our original study (Machacek and Kolcunova 2005).

It is obvious that the academics, who know that they can obtain professorships and habilitations without more publication efforts, are not motivated to the standard scientific work. This attitude, once appointed, professors or associate professors subsequently transfer to the doctoral students, which reproduces the problem in time. As many of Czech professors and associate professors are not used to publish in recognized international journals and proceedings, as it is a reputable practice in economic branches, and they are not therefore forced to watch current development trends and to use them in their students' education. So there is a blending of the lack or the low quality of economic research with teaching outdated and useless knowledge. Through the lack of education and poor economic education the efficiency of the economy is decreasing and its growth potential and international competitiveness is reducing. The problem of university economic education in the Czech Republic is also a low mobility of professors and associate professors from the perspective of their qualification growth.

Described difficulties are not inherent only to Czech Republic but also to Slovakia (Ciaian et al., 2008) and probably to other post-socialist CEECs. Just as the area of health service the sector of tertiary education in these countries waits for penetrative completion of reforms started during the transformation period. Without stronger reform effort in the observed area the post-socialist CEECs will barely be able to face the challenges of global knowledge economy of 21st century and to resist the pressure of "more aggressive competitors" in international markets.

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Abstract

This paper expands on Machacek and Kolcunova (2005) by updating the existing SSCI dataset, analyzing the SCOPUS dataset, and focusing on the publication patterns of full and associate professors after their appointments. Our sample consists of 100 full professors and 207 associate professors of economics appointed in the Czech Republic between January 1999 and June 2009. We conclude that the R&E activities at Czech universities still remain underdeveloped and sector competitiveness has not improved.

The Interference of Filipino in the Use of English Prepositions in Written Compositions of Students of the University of the Philippines

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ABSTRACT
This paper analyzes the extent of the interference of Filipino in the use of English prepositions in compositions written by college freshmen of the University of the Philippines. Using Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis, it describes and categorizes the errors in preposition committed by the students and explains the difficulties and the causes of these errors. This study concludes that most of the errors are not interlingual but intralingual.

A preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being represented by the prepositional complement of the various types of relational meaning (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1990).   These relationships include those of time, position, direction, and various degrees of mental and emotional states. Studies have shown that the preposition is one of the most problematic categories that students encounter in learning English (Richards, 1974)

In the Philippines, one major grammar error observed in both students' speech and writing is the prepositional error. Corder (cited in James, 1998) defines **errors** as the result of some failure of performance. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) state that **errors** are the flawed side of a learner's speech or writing. An **error** is any deviation from a selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristics or causes might be. The problems of the Filipinos with the preposition may be grouped into three: 1) using incorrect (unidiomatic) preposition; 2) non-use of a preposition when one is needed; 3) using a preposition when none is needed (Guzman and Arcellana, 2004).

It is not uncommon to find the use of English preposition reflecting Filipino structures—that is to say, literal translations from Filipino to English. The differences between the prepositional systems of English and Filipino are believed to constitute the difficulty of the Filipino learner in learning and using the English prepositions. While English has numerous prepositions denoting various kinds of relationships, Filipino generally uses only three—*sa, ng, kay.* Overwhelmed by the numerous prepositions to choose from, the Filipino learner is said to base his understanding of English on his first language (L1) resulting in grammar errors.

Statement of the Problem

It is within this context that this paper poses the major problem: ***To what extent does Filipino (L1) affect the use of English prepositions in written compositions of students of the University of the Philippines?***

To answer this query, some sub-problems must be addressed:

1.   How does the prepositional system of Filipino differ from the prepositional system of English?
2.   What are the prepositional errors found in the data?
3.   How much of the errors can be attributed to the students' L1(Filipino)?

Hypotheses

This paper hypothesizes that the prepositional system of Filipino has minimal effect on the use of English prepositions in the students' compositions. Many of the errors are not due to L1 interference (interlingual errors) but due mainly to intralingual transfer, i.e., generalizations made within the target language English.

Objectives of the Study

This paper evaluates the extent of Filipino's interference in the use of English prepositions as reflected in written compositions of students of the University of the Philippines. Using Contrastive Analysis as a method of describing the prepositional systems of English and Filipino and Error Analysis as a method of diagnosing the errors in the compositions, this paper undertakes the identification, description, and categorization of the errors and the determination of the sources of errors.

Conceptual Framework

As mentioned earlier, this paper uses the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) as a means of describing the differences in the prepositional systems of English and Filipino. Proponents of the strong version of CAH claim that by comparing systematically the native language and the language to be learned, one can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty. A more moderate version of CAH which this paper adopts does not imply a prediction of degrees of difficulty. Instead it recognizes the significance of interference across languages and the fact that these interferences can explain the linguistic difficulties of the learners (Brown, 1994).

This paper also uses Error Analysis to identify, describe, classify errors and to determine their causes. There have been a number of error taxonomies presented in second language (L2) literature. Corder (1973) classified errors into four categories: omission of some required elements; addition of some unnecessary elements; selection of incorrect element; misordering of elements. James (1998) noted that errors may be **interlingual**, i.e., mother-tongued influenced. These are errors resulting from the learner indulging in a literal translation from L1 to L2. The target language may also cause **intralingual** errors. The learner may also resort to some **communication strategies-based errors** such as approximation and circumlocution errors. Lastly, **induced errors** are errors that result from the language situation rather than the learner's incomplete competence of the target language or the interference of the mother language.

For the purpose of diagnosing the errors found in the data, this paper adopts an eclectic framework culled from the frameworks of Corder and James (see table 1).

Table 1.

Categories of Errors

1. Interlingual
  - Literal translation
  - Features of L1 are transferred to the target language
	3. Communication strategy-based
	  - filling the gap
	  - incorrect use of an L2 expression that involves a preposition
	  - coinage

2. Intralingual
   - omissions
   - additons
   - misselection of L2 preposition
   - redundancy
   - cooccurrence restrictions
   - overgeneralization
	4. Induced
	   - teacher-talk induced
	   - material-induced

Methodology

Two hundred seventy eight (278) compositions were collected from ten (10) sections English General Education (GE) courses. The data were guided compositions, meaning to say, the teacher provided the topic for the writing session. The teachers confirmed that all the students speak Filipino as the first language. Of the 278 compositions, 163 or 58% contained errors in prepositions. These 163 compositions comprised the corpus of the study. Sentences with prepositional errors were isolated and the errors were described and categorized using the frameworks of Richards (1974) and James (1998).

Results and Discussion

Descriptions of the Prepositional Systems of Filipino and English

FILIPINO

Guzman and Arcellana (2004) describe the prepositional system of Filipino as having only three prepositions—sa, ng , and kay. These three are multifunctional in the sense that one preposition may convey locative, directional, or even spatial relations. The determination of the distinct sense of a Filipino preposition depends on preceding phrases in addition to the preposition itself as illustrated in the box below:

FILIPINO	ENGLISH
SA ilagay SA kahon ipatong SA mesa nagpunta SA palengke galing SA palengke patak NG ulan kinain NG pusa basa NG pawis ibigay KAY Anna kunin KAY Anna tungkol KAY Anna para KAY Anna	 put (it) **in** the box put (it) **on** the table went **to** the market came **from** the market drops **of** rain eaten **by** the cat wet **with** sweat give **to** Anna get **from** Anna **about** Anna **for** Anna

According to EnglishClub.com, (http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/prepositions-list.htm) there are about 150 English prepositions. The English prepositions can be grouped in categories such as:

1.　　　Those indicating direction (to, towards, into)
2.　　　Location (in, at, on, by)
3.　　　Spatial relationship (above, across, around)
4.　　　Time, place, and object (on, in, within, about, for, etc.)

The nine most frequent prepositions in English are at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to, with. However, this grouping is misleading as each form has multiple meanings (may denote time, space, location, etc.) and functions (agentive, dative, benefactive, etc.). Thus, each of these frequent prepositions must be studied in detail to isolate a small but optional number of meanings that it performs in English. There are also variations in the use of prepositions. More than one preposition may be acceptable in certain contexts. For instance , *a quarter to/of ten, from 9 to/till 5 pm,* etc (Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman, 1983, 1998). All these contribute to learners' difficulty in learning and "mastering" the English prepositions.

Following the comparison between the English and Filipino prepositional systems is a description of errors found in the data. According to James (1998), it is necessary to include a description of errors for the following reasons:

1.　　　To make explicit what would otherwise be tacit and on the level of intuition;
2.　　　To provide a basis for counting errors;
3.　　　To create categories.

This study adopted Lennon's categories (cited in Brown, 1994) to describe the learners' errors.

These categories are substitution, addition, omission, and misordering.

The data yielded the following results:

Description of Errors	Frequency	Percentage
Substitution	139	62%
addition	53	23%
Omission	35	15%
Misordering	0	0
TOTAL	227	100%

Substitution ranks highest with 62% while misordering is last with no incidence at all. It is evident that the large number   of English prepositions compared with the number of prepositions in Filipino contributed to contributed to the learners' difficulty   in processing relationships   between the grammatical elements and choosing the appropriate English prepositions.

At this point, it can be hypothesized that L1 interference caused the errors but it is also possible that the internal make-up of English caused much of the learners' difficulty. These possibilities necessitate what James calls error diagnosis.

Error diagnosis tries to ascertain the factors that cause learners to commit errors. Primary diagnosis simply explain why errors occur while secondary diagnosis discusses the forms that these errors assume. This paper attempts to do both.

There is a general agreement over the main diagnosis-based categories of error (James, 1998). The four major categories are 1. Interlingual errors; 2. Intralingual errors; 3. Communication strategy-based errors; and 4. Induced errors.

Interlingual errors are errors caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue. Learners engage in over-literal or word-for-word translation. The origins of the intralingual errors are found within the structure of the target language itself and through reference to strategies by which a second language is acquired or learned. These are errors that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning. Under this category of errors, Richards talks of faulty generalization, incomplete application of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized. James (1998)) , on the other hand, has false analogy, misanalysis, incomplete rule application, exploiting redundancy, overlooking cooccurrence restrictions, hypercorrection, overgeneralization. Lacking the required form, the learner resorts to using another near-equivalent L2 item resulting in communication strategy-based errors. Induced errors are the result of being misled by the ways in which teachers give definitions, explanations, examples, and arrange practice opportunities (James, 1998).

Using Richard's and James' taxonomies, the following categories are derived:

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Interlingual		
-direct translation	22	10%
Intralingual		
-misselection of prep	107	
-inc. application of rules	42	
-simple addition	26	
-redundancy	12	
Overlooking cooccurrence rest.	4	
Total		84%
Commmunication strategy- based		
-misuse of L2 expression	14	6%
Induced	0	
TOTAL	227	100%

Interlingual Errors

The interlingual errors comprised 10% of the total errors. These errors are the result of prepositions directly translated from L1 to L2. The learners made use of L1 repertoire to process meanings and structures in L2.

Example:

1.   I was usually forced to write essays and articles OF English journalism teacher.

        This sentence is the direct translation of : *Ako ay madalas mapilit magsulat ng mga sanaysay at artikulo NG aking guro sa English Journalism.*

        NG can be both *of* and *by* depending on the preceding word. NG after a verb signals a passive voice and denoted by BY in English.

        Example:

        Kinain NG bata   (eaten BY the child)
        NG after noun is usually denoted by OF in English. It signals possession or the fact that the object of the preposition has reference to the noun.

        Example:

        Kamay NG bata (hand of the child)

        Pagmamahal NG ina (love of a mother)

        What happened in the preceding example was that the proximity of the noun ARTICLE to the position of the preposition prompted the learner , who was thinking in Filipino, to write OF instead of BY.

2.   I have to share the learnings TO others, directly or indirectly.

        This sentence is the direct translation of: *Ako ay nakakapamahagi ng aking mga nalalaman SA iba.*

        SA is always associated with something locative and directional. Its equivalent English prepositions are IN, ON (locative) TO, FROM (directional). The use of TO instead of WITH must have stemmed from the idea that sharing is directional, that is to say, someone gives something TO someone else.

Intralingual

Misselection of Preposition. These are errors that do not conform to TL norms but cannot be traced to the L1. The high frequency of misselected prepositions gives credence to Brown's observation that intralingual transfer is a major factor in second language learning. Researchers have found that that the early stages of language learning are characterized by interlingual transfers but once the learners have begun to achieve parts of the new system, more and more intralingual transfers are manifested (Brown, 1994). The learners in this study have studied English for at least 10 years and the occurrence of many intralingual errors only reaffirms the findings of earlier studies.

Examples:

1.   It takes me a whole lot of time to finish a text on something that I don't have a clear idea WITH.
2.   I tend to be hesitant WITH the ideas I wrote.
3.   It is usually comprised WITH at least two or more characters.
4.   I don't entertain problems and I never get affected WITH them.
5.   People are talking WITH me because they realized that I have that characteristics.

One error that surfaced many times is the use of WITH instead of by, of, to. This misselection often results in unidiomatic expressions like *talk with.* One can also hypothesize that the learners associated TALK with SPEAK (both of which are oral language productions) and generalized that if speak is used with WITH; talk (which is also oral production) could also be used with WITH.

Conversely, different prepositions are used when WITH is needed as seen in the following examples:

1.   I 'm really disappointed OF what I have done.
2.   …the wind blowing through my hair is what I am most likely to associate TO dried leaves.
3.   I'm drawing a tiger but I have nothing to color it ON.

There also a number of instances involving the locative prepositions ON and IN. Although the learners were not able to make distinctions between the two related prepositions, the sense/intention of the learners was, nonetheless, comprehensible. These errors are what Burt and Kiparsky call "local errors." Local errors do not prevent the message from being understood. Usually these are minor violations of one segment of a sentence still allowing the reader to make an accurate guess about the meaning of the writer.

Examples:

1.   The hero will triumph ON the end.
2.   Some poems may look ridiculous when written IN paper.
3.   Sumptuous food and sweet desserts awaits IN the table to be eaten.
4.   On days when I put peppermint candy ON my mouth….
5.   I hum a tune a heard IN the car's radio.

Incomplete Application of Rules

These errors occur when learners fail to perform certain operations. This error category is evident in the omission of prepositions in the phrasal verbs/idiomatic expressions requiring the use of prepositions and must be learned as one unit.

Examples:

1.   I am really open with what going _____in my life….
2.   …and I don't have a hard time relating _____the topic.
3.   If a person feels extreme anger and has no one to share it____ he can "dispose"___ almost all his anger though writing a poem.

Simple Additions

Addition errors are characterized by the presence of a preposition which must not appear in a well-formed sentence.

Examples:

1.   You can feel my knuckles swelling but I won't let you feel for you may end up being the reason OF why it is swollen.
2.   In fact, I also consider this as a reason ON why I have lots of friends.
3.   The problem is WITH me.

The sentence, *The problem is WITH me*, is a little ambiguous. Without looking at the context, one can say that the sentence is correct in the sense that 'the problem" may refer to someone or something that

is WITH the speaker. An examination of the text , however, showed that the writer meant "the problem is ME." In such case, WITH is not needed.

Redundancy

Redundancy manifests the learners tendency to overelaborate the target language which often results in verbosity.

Example: 1. A smile forms on my face and my eyes can't help but wandering AROUND.

> The term *wandering* already implies 'moving or going around." The learners probably wanted to highlight 'circular movement" of the eyes as they examine the area; hence, the addition of *around.*

Example 2: …and all that boosted up the company sales.

> In the second example, the learner attempted to foreground the increase or the "rise" in sales; hence, the addition of UP.

Overlooking Cooccurrence restriction

This error refers to the failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply.

Example 1: Taking it seriously will just end up to let them do it again.

Example 2: I embraced myself, a useless attempt at protection from the cold…

In both examples, the learners failed to recognize the fact that the phrasal verbs *end up* and *attempt at* select the –ing complement rather than the infinitive nor a noun form.

Communication strategy-based errors

Misuse of L2 expression

This error results from the learners attempt to use the English idioms but not able to realize the correct form.

Example 1: I put everything I know and discuss about it.

The addition of ABOUT must have come from the learner's association of expression TALK ABOUT with DISCUSS. The learner generalizes and assumes that like TALK ABOUT, *discuss* would also require the preposition 'about."

Example 2: No, not the kind of novel that one can read in one sitting, over the night.

The use of *over the night* instead of the expression "overnight" reflects the learners "over attempt" at approximating the L2 expression. Not wanting to miss out on any words, he over monitors his L2 output adding the article THE , presumably because the next structure is NIGHT which is a noun. This over monitoring of L2 output is what James called "hypercorrection."

Example 3: If I were a literary piece, I would be a poem because I already took up English 11 and I found poetry really interesting.

In contrast to the previous examples where the addition of prepositions resulted in the misuse of the L2 expression, example 3 deletes an entire noun phrase (the expression took *a course in*) and replaces it with UP.

Conclusion and Implications to Language Learning and Teaching

The results of the study showed there are a number of differences between the English and Filipino prepositional systems in terms of number and sense. Despite the common notion that Filipino affects the use of English prepositions, this study revealed that most of the errors are intralingual—errors that originate from the target language, English.

This research debunked the common notion that L2 learning is primarily affected by the L1. The difficulty in learning the English prepositions necessitates classroom strategies and techniques (early on, as early as the basic education level) that will distinguish the various senses of the prepositions. These strategies and techniques call for using the preposition in context; giving semantic explanations for various uses of prepositions instead of simply asking students to memorize verb+ preposition or adjective+preposition constructions; and engaging learners in authentic communication to promote their learning. It is hoped that this early exposure to the forms and functions of the English prepositions will result in their imbibing the target forms without much reference to the L1.

There is a need to re-evaluate the teachers' command of the English language and this evaluation must be done in all levels. Although there was no way that this study could establish the teacher-induced errors, there is the possibility that some of the errors originated from the teacher talk. For the non-native speaker teacher, the command of English is always a serious concern. There is a constant need for the Filipino teachers of English to undergo methodological and language proficiency trainings to meet the language demands of the ESL classroom. This is a tall order considering the limited resources given to education in our country. Inevitably, this reevaluation will have to be aided by the NGOs and the private sectors and supplemented by the institution and proper implementation of educational policies and reforms.

Recommendations of the Study

Considering the premium given to English learning and teaching, there should be more action research done in the area of *errors*. These future studies must consider more accurate and more varied data elicitation techniques, increased number of data and more precise categorization of errors for more generalizability and refinement of the findings. It was observed that some errors can be diagnosed with two or more causes requiring not just the evaluation of the linguistic context but also the pragmatic context of the errors.

This study is synchronic focusing on the learners' language at a given time. A diachronic, longitudinal study can be considered to further illuminate on other important aspects of second language learning.

For now, let this study be the seed of more classroom research that will take up the challenge of venturing into the analysis of the different levels of errors.

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Constructing a Reading Comprehension Test for General Education ESL Courses

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Who dares to teach must never cease to learn.

--John Cotton Dana

One of the things that make teaching general education (G.E.) English courses challenging is the difficulty of choosing appropriate materials for each class—the kind of materials that are **a little above** the students' current reading comprehension ability (to provide room for learning and to make reading more challenging) and likewise deal with topics which are within the students' interest and experience (to make learning more enjoyable and meaningful). Because the materials are also for a G.E. class, these should lend themselves to helping students develop not only their critical thinking abilities but also their reading and writing skills, so as to prepare them for more academic challenges, particularly in taking their major courses.

Choosing such reading materials becomes somewhat easier when an instructor knows the students' present level of reading ability. One way of determining this ability is to give the students a diagnostic reading comprehension test. Yet, such a test is not readily available. This is the reason why the present study has been done—to provide instructors of G.E. English classes with a validated diagnostic reading comprehension test which they can use to gauge their students' reading comprehension abilities.

Theoretical and applied research for the past few decades have recognized reading comprehension as a cognitive and *constructive* activity in which three factors—text, reader, task—act and interact during comprehension. Thus, it has to be emphasized that a diagnostic reading comprehension test is not the only measure that can gauge reading comprehension; it is just one of several. There are four major types of measures that can assess reading comprehension: **product** (recognition tasks, recall tasks), **process** (miscue analysis, cloze procedures, eye movement analysis), **metacognitive** (think-alouds, intruded text or scrambled text, error-detection), and **interview/observation**. The multiple-choice items constructed for this study are examples of product measure, specifically of recognition tasks. In recognition comprehension task, a reader must examine several answer choices and then select the one believed to be the best response. Such a recognition test requires memory, but a student need not generate a response.

Test Construction and Validation: Process and Challenges

Constructing and validating the test has been one long (and sometimes tedious) process consisting of the following stages:

1. Formulating objectives
2. Choosing the reading materials
3. Writing the test items
4. Encoding and editing the reading materials and test items
5. Field-testing
6. Doing the item analysis
7. Revising the test based on the item analysis
8. Field testing the revised test
9. Doing the item analysis of the revised test
10. Preparing the "final" copy of the diagnostic reading comprehension test

Formulating Objectives

The test construction process started with formulating objectives—answering *why* and *how* the study had to be done and *for whom*. Initially the main objective was to construct and validate a diagnostic reading comprehension test which instructors of G.E. English courses at the University of the

Philippines can use to gauge their students' reading abilities—this is the *why* part of the study. Since the results of the study are to be used in the context of the Revitalized General Education Program (RGEP) of the University of the Philippines (UP), the test has to be one that can be taken by **any** G.E. English student—regardless of year level. This answered the question *for whom* and partly answered the question *how*. Because there are no more prerequisites in the RGEP and because students can take their G.E. English courses even if they are already in their sophomore, junior, or even senior years, the field testing had to be given across the different year levels and not to be limited to the freshmen. Since the test was meant to help *any* G.E. English instructor—one who could be teaching English 1 (Basic College English), English 10 (College English), English 11 (Literature and Society), English 12 (World Literatures), English 30 (English for the Professions), or even Creative Writing 10 (Creative Writing for Beginners)—the test had to include both literary and expository texts and had to cover different levels of reading comprehension—literal, inferential, interpretative.

Choosing the Materials

The objectives that were formulated in the beginning of the study became the basis for choosing the reading materials to be used in constructing the test. Since the test is meant for students of different year levels who are taking any of the various G.E. English courses, the materials have to include both literary and expository texts and have to be of different levels of readability. This is to ensure that the test would be within the decoding ability range of both "good" readers and "poor" readers.

To determine the readability of the chosen texts, the Fry Readability Formula was used. This readability formula is computed based on the average number of syllables and the average number of sentences per 100 words. It has to be emphasized that the readability formula is useful in determining the appropriateness of a text for a particular grade or year level and the level of language sophistication it exemplifies in terms of word length and sentence length. The readability formula does **not** determine how complex the ideas are or whether or not the vocabulary is appropriate for the target readers.

In addition to the genre (literary or expository) and the readability considerations, the materials were also chosen based on variability of subject matter and familiarity of the topic. Variability of subject matter was considered because the students to be tested would come from different fields and would therefore have different academic backgrounds. To ensure that the test would not be biased against students from a particular field, the texts chosen cater to different areas: philosophy, linguistics, statistics, ecology, humanities, general interest, etc. Likewise, some of the passages provide more familiar contexts (i.e. Philippine) while others do not (e.g. stories by a Thai writer, an American writer). To further ensure that the passages were neither too long nor too short, they were limited to around 400 to 460 words per passage. An exception to this range is the poem, which only had 147 words.

After taking into consideration the characteristics of the passages given above, a final list of passages was prepared. A total of twelve passages were chosen—one taken from a Philippine short story, one taken from a novel by a Thai writer, one taken from a novel by an American writer, eight expository texts taken from different fields of study, and a complete lyric poem. The passages have different levels of readability but have more or less the same number of words. In the test, these passages were arranged according to their readability level, so that the students would start with the most readable text. These passages are described in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of selections used for the diagnostic reading comprehension test

Passage	Genre	Readability	Number of Words
A (Philippine, story)	Literary, fiction	Grade 5	455
B (Thai, story)	Literary, fiction	Grade 6	451
C (American, story)	Literary, fiction	Grade 6	456

D (Philippine)	Expository, essay	Grade 7	432
E (Philippine)	Expository, essay	Grade 8	416
F (Philosophy)	Expository, essay	Grade 9	457
G (humanities)	Expository, essay	Grade 10	428
H (ecology)	Expository, essay	Grade 12	412
I (linguistics)	Expository, essay	College	408
J (general interest)	Expository, essay	College	436
K (statistics)	Expository, essay	College	455
L (lyric poetry)	Literary, poetry		147

Writing the Test Items

Before the test items were written, a list of skills and concepts to be tested was prepared. The list included literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, interpretative comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and knowledge of writing as a craft. The twelve items (with the exception of one passage which had thirteen items) written for each passage tried to cover all these skills and concepts. A total of 145 multiple-choice items were written for the twelve passages. Each question was provided with five choices.

Encoding and Editing the Passages and the Test Items

After the test items were written, decisions had to be made as to the format and layout of the test. Arial Narrow 11 points was used for each passage while Palatino Linotype 9 points was used for the test items. Different fonts were used for the passage and the test items to help the reader visually distinguish the two parts of the test. Each passage was labeled with a capital letter. The passages and the test items were found in the same set of papers—with the passage printed before the continuously numbered test items. A separate answer sheet was also provided.

Field-Testing

Field-testing took one and a half weeks. The test was given in the middle of the first semester of school year 2007-2008 to the five classes handled by the researcher: two sections of English 1 (one of which was the "bridge" section) and one section each of English 12, English 197, and Comparative Literature 172. The test, which had 12 passages and 145 items, was rather long and the students could not finish it given the less than one and a half hours allotted for each class meeting. Thus, the students were told on the first day of the test that the test was only diagnostic and not graded and that the students are to try to answer as many items as they could. During the second day of the test (the next class meeting), the students were allowed to finish answering the test. A total of 127 students took the test. From these students, the scores of those who were not able to finish the test (because they were absent on the first or second day of the test) (n=5) and the scores of the exchange students (two Koreans, one Japanese) (n=3) were not included in the scores that were ranked for the item analysis, so as not to invalidate the results. Thus, only the scores of 119 students were ranked and considered for item analysis.

Item Analysis

Item analysis, simply put, is a kind of relatively simple statistical computation that is made of each test item to determine if it has an optimum level of difficulty and if it discriminates well enough between the "high" group and the "low" group.

The answers of the 127 students were checked, totaled, and encoded in Excel—this serves as the master list. The scores of those who did not finish the test and those of the foreign exchange students were removed from the data. The remaining total scores (n=119) were then ranked—this served as the highest to lowest list. From this list, the scores of the highest 27% (n=32) and the lowest 27% (n=32) were taken and their individual answers for each item encoded and considered for item analysis. Using Anastasi and Urbina's (1997) definition of **index of difficulty (p)** and **discrimination index (D),** the test was subjected to item analysis. Thus two indices were computed for each item—the index of difficulty (p) and the index of discrimination (D)—using the following formula.

$p = \dfrac{H + L}{N_H + N_L}$

$D = \dfrac{H - L}{N - (.5)N}$

where   H = the number of students from the HIGHEST group who correctly answered the item

L = the number of students from the LOWEST group who correctly answered the item

N = the combined number of students in the HIGHEST and the LOWEST groups

N_H = the total number of students in the HIGHEST group

N_L = the total number of students in the LOWEST group

The following table of values was used in distinguishing the good items from the bad items:

Table 2

Values for the index of difficulty and the discrimination index

Index of Difficulty		Discrimination Index	
.29 and below	very hard	.19 and below	poor
.30 to .45	hard	.20 to .29	marginal
.46 to .75	**optimum**	.30 to .39	reasonably good
.76 to .90	easy	**.40 and above**	**very good**
.91 and above	very easy		

Based on the values found in Table 2, an ideal item should have an **optimum** level of difficulty (neither too easy nor too difficult) and a **very good** discriminator between the highest scorers and lowest scorers; such an item will definitely be included in the revised test. The discrimination index is the crucial measure here. For instance, even if an item has an optimum level of difficulty but scores .19 or below in the discrimination index, such item has to be either rejected or considerably improved; it cannot be readily considered for inclusion in the revised test.

After subjecting each of the 145 test items to item analysis, the following results were obtained:

Table 3

Results of the item analysis of the original test

Index of Difficulty			Discrimination Index		
Description	Number of Items	Percentage	Description	Number of Items	Percentage
Optimum	69	47.6 %	Very good	21	14.5 %
Hard	27	18.6 %	Reasonably good	13	8.9 %
Very hard	29	20 %	Marginal	22	15.2 %
Easy	17	11.7 %	Poor	89	61.4 %
Very easy	3	2.1 %			

Table 3 shows that though there were many items (47.6%) that had optimum level of difficulty, only a few (14.5%) had very good index of discrimination. Only 56 items (total of very good, reasonably

good, and marginal) could be clearly included in the "final" test, with some revisions. The poor items needed major revisions for these to be considered for the "final" test.

Revising the Test

Some major decisions had to be made in revising the test. Aside from the information provided in Table 3 as to the level of difficulty and ability to discriminate of the 145 items, the average scores of the students were also considered in revising the test. The mean percentage for the 119 students was only 50%, meaning they had an average of only 72.5 correct answers out of the total 145 items. For the highest group (n=32), the mean percentage was 61%--only 11% higher than the total mean percentage; for the lowest group (n=32), the mean percentage was 41%. Considering the mean percentage scores of the highest and the lowest groups, it can be inferred that the original test was rather difficult. Thus, in the revision, the difficulty level had to be adjusted. One major revision that was done to do this was to reduce the number of choices from 5 to 4. This was easy enough to do—the distractor items that yielded the lowest score (none or very few of the students chose them as the answers) were deleted.

The other revisions made can be classified into the following:

- Deletion of items with **negative discrimination index**—such items discriminate against the high scorers, i.e. the "poor" readers tend to answer these items correctly while the "good" readers do not.

- Deletion of items that were **very hard** or **very easy**—such items also tend to have poor discrimination index because either very few (including the highest scorers) or most of the students (more than 90%) answer such items correctly.

- Rewording or rephrasing of ambiguous items—such items tend to have distractors with very high scores, i.e. students think that the wrong answers are the best answers.

Aside from the revisions done on individual items, the format of the test was also changed. While the original test had only one set of papers with the test items found right after the passage, the revised test consisted of two sets of papers—the passages, with each passage printed on one page, and the test items, with each set of ten items for each passage printed on one page. With this format, the students no longer wasted time turning the pages just to read parts of the passages again. Because the passages and the test items are found in two different sets of paper, there is no need to use different fonts. Times New Roman 12 points was used for both the passages and the test items.

Aside from the change in format, another major revision is the reduction of the number of passages to ten (from twelve) and number of items per passage to ten (from twelve). Instead of the original twelve passages, only ten passages where included in the revised test. Two passages—the one on linguistics and the poem—were discarded because the students really found these very difficult. The passage on linguistics yielded only two items with good discrimination index while the poem yielded only one.

Field-Testing the Revised Test

As indicated earlier, the revised test item consisted of ten passages with ten items for each passage. Thus, the 145 items were reduced to only 100 in the revised test. This revised test was again field-tested and given in the beginning of the second semester of academic year 2007-2008 to the researcher's five classes: English 11, English 12, English 30, English 120, and English 191. Field-testing was done for a week. Because the test was much shorter than the original, it took the students only one class meeting to finish it. A total of 117 students took the revised test.

Doing the Item Analysis of the Revised Test

Though a total of 117 students took the revised test, only 106 of these were considered for item analysis. Like in the first item analysis, the scores of the foreign exchange students and those who did not finish answering the test were discarded. Moreover, the scores of the graduate students (n=2) who were enrolled in English 120 (Stylistics) were also not included. All these steps were taken so as not to invalidate the test. The answers of the 106 students were checked, scored, and ranked. The answers of the highest 27% (n=28) and the lowest 27% (n=28) were analyzed using the same formula in the first item analysis. Each of the 100 items in the revised test was analyzed to determine its index of difficulty and discrimination index.

Table 4 shows the results of the item analysis. Comparing these with the results of the item analysis of the original test as shown in Table 3, it can be inferred that the revised test is better than the original test. The revised test has yielded 31% of combined very good and reasonably good items compared to only 23% of the same in the original test. Likewise, the revised test has only 45% of poor items compared to the 61% of poor items in the original test. Another indication is the performance of the students. The mean percentage score for the 106 students who took the revised test was 55% compared to 50% in the original test. The mean percentage score for the highest group was 65% while for that of the lowest group was 45%. This result is also higher than the original in which the highest group had a mean percentage score of 60% while the lowest group had 41%.

Table 4

Results of the item analysis of the revised test

Index of Difficulty				Discrimination Index		
Description	**Number of Items**	**Percentage**		**Description**	**Number of Items**	**Percentage**
Optimum	53	53 %		Very good	13	13 %
Hard	19	19 %		Reasonably good	18	18 %
Very hard	4	4 %		Marginal	24	24 %
Easy	9	9 %		Poor	45	45 %
Very easy	15	15 %				

Preparing the "Final" Copy of the Test

When this research was presented in a national conference in April 2008, one of the feedbacks obtained was that it was too "culture-based" because it was tested only on the students of UP and UP has a "culture" all its own. It was suggested that it be field tested and given also to students of other universities, so that the validated test can also be used by these universities. This suggestion was taken into consideration and the 100-item test was given to three other private universities in the National Capital Region (NCR). True enough, that UP has a culture all its own, was shown by the results of the item analysis. It can be inferred from the comparison of the two sets of data that the UP students was a more homogenous group and giving the test to three other universities has made the group more heterogeneous. Table 5 shows the comparison of the results based on the UP-only data and the UP-plus-three-universities data.

Table 5

	UP only Mean=55%	UP & 3 Universities Mean=48%
Difficulty Index		
Optimum	53%	56%
Hard	19%	28%
Easy	9%	4%

Very Hard	4%	12%
Very Easy	15%	0%
Discrimination Index		
Very Good	13%	25%
Reasonably Good	18%	12%
Marginal	24%	31%
Poor	45%	32%

Giving the 100-item revised reading comprehension test to three other universities yielded more optimum and very good items. The test was once again revised based on these results. The same things were done in revising the test: deletion of items with negative discrimination index, deletion of very hard or very easy items, rewording or rephrasing of ambiguous items, etc.

After the revision, the present form of the reading comprehension test consists of 10 varied passages and 68 test items. This is now being used in gauging the reading comprehension level of the students at the beginning of the semester.

Lessons Learned, Insights Gained

Constructing and validating the diagnostic reading comprehension test for G.E. ESL courses afforded the researcher the opportunity to learn some lessons, to gain some insights. Some of these lessons and insights concern the nature of reading comprehension, the factors that affect it, and the things that distinguish the "good" readers from the "poor" readers. These lessons and insights are not definite, neither are they conclusive. They are simply things that can be inferred from the results of the three item analyses—that of the original test, the revised test based on UP-only data, and the revised test based on UP-and-other-universities data.

Reading is a skill. Reading is an ability that can be developed and like other forms of knowledge, the more an individual practices it, the more that this skill is enhanced. The nature of reading as skill (something that is well established in many theoretical and empirical studies) can be inferred from the comparison of the mean percentage scores of the upperclassmen (55%; n=48) and the freshmen (48%; n=71) in the original test. The assumption, of course, was that compared to the freshmen, the upperclassmen (sophomores, juniors, seniors) have already done more reading, particularly of the academic kind, and this partly explains their higher percentage score. Moreover, if one were to look into the details of the high scorers (the highest 27%), most of them were language and literature majors and a few were World Literatures students—presumably, individuals who have done a lot of reading either because they are required to do so or they like doing so (based on experience, students who usually enroll in World Literatures are those who like to read a lot). Another interesting finding was that between the two English 1 sections, the regular class (mean=49%) did better than the "bridge" class (mean=43%); this somehow confirms the results of the UP College Admission Test (UPCAT) because the "bridge" class consists of students who got the lowest scores in the English language proficiency and reading comprehension tests.

Vocabulary knowledge and awareness of the craft of writing are two indicators of good readers. Most of the items that have **optimum** level of difficulty and are **very good** in discriminating between good

and poor readers have to do with vocabulary knowledge (e.g. what the words *teetered* and *telepathy* suggest; what the word *neologism* refers to) and knowledge of the craft of writing (e.g. How does the writer develop the main idea of the first paragraph?, What does the use of repetition in paragraph 1 achieve?) From the result of the item analysis, one can infer that good readers tend to have a wider knowledge of vocabulary, so that they are able to tell the nuances of word choice and the emotive meanings that some words suggest. Moreover, good readers are able to infer the purpose of the writer in rendering certain parts of a passage in a particular way, readily identify the main idea of a passage, and identify the usefulness of certain writing techniques.

Language register affects reading comprehension. Generally, the students did better in the expository texts (mean=54.88%) than they did in the literary texts (mean=41.25%). For instance, they found poetry (mean= 41.2%) particularly hard. Ironically, their worst score was in Passage A (mean=38.7%), which was taken from a Philippine short story and had a readability level of grade 5. These results show that readability level does <u>not</u> indicate comprehensibility level. Likewise, it can be inferred that the language register also affects comprehension because though the words and sentences in the literary pieces are shorter than those in the expository texts, students generally found the former more difficult to understand (perhaps because they are not quite familiar with the techniques of the narrative). Moreover, among the expository texts with formal register Passage I (linguistics) proved to me most difficult for the students presumably because of its high level of abstraction and use of too much jargon (e.g. *interorganismic, prokaryotes, eukaryotes, biosemioses*).

Implications for Teaching General Education ESL Courses

The results of the item analysis of the original test and the revised tests have some implications for the teaching of G.E. ESL courses. One is that for the reading and writing classes like English 1(Basic College English) and English 10 (College English), it would be better to start the semester with "easier" expository texts that are not simply readable but also have "less intimidating" language register. This can help the students gradually understand and appreciate the academic register and become more aware of writing as a craft.

Another implication is that teachers cannot assume that students already know "the basics" whether it be in a reading and writing class like English 1 and English 10 or in a literature class like English 11 (Literature and Society) and English 12 (World Literatures). Some opportunities to learn the basic things (e.g. identifying the topic sentence in a paragraph, the difference between a simile and a metaphor) have to be given to the students to help them acquire the concepts and skills necessary for understanding the more difficult lessons.

Because some of the items that most of the students found very difficult had to do with vocabulary knowledge and the knowledge of the craft of writing, it would also be good for teachers of G.E. ESL courses to provide students with opportunities to expand their vocabulary, to discover the nuances of diction, to explore how the same words are used in different contexts, to infer the purpose of writers for rendering passages in particular ways, to identify linguistic markers that indicate relationships between and among ideas in a text, etc.

Despite its difficulty, constructing and validating the diagnostic reading comprehension test has been an interesting, exciting, and meaningful experience. As the "final" version of the test is given to students, more insights are gained as to the nature of reading and the process of learning. Definitely, more challenges are yet to come, more lessons are yet to be learned, more insights are yet to be gained as this reading comprehension test is used to gauge students' reading comprehension abilities every semester.

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The Feelings of EFL Students Towards Novel Analysis Courses in the English Language Teaching Department

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Abstract

This study attempts to investigate the feelings of EFL students towards novel analysis courses and whether the teaching techniques used during the novel analysis class have an effect on their feelings. A total number of 168 students, who were 3rd and 4th year ELT students at Anadolu University, participated in the present study. The data for the study were collected through two different instruments: a literature feeling survey and semi-structured interview sessions. The views of the students towards novel analysis courses were analyzed and the statistical analysis of the data revealed that the majority of the students employ positive views towards novel analysis courses. As for the teaching techniques, the data showed that the students prefer instructor-based classes rather than their own presentations during the class. In addition, the relationship between the students' grades from the novel analysis course and their scores from the survey were investigate

 d. The results of this analysis indicated that the students with higher grades also had higher scores from the survey, which supports the finding that the students generally have positive feelings towards the novel analysis course and the instructor-based teaching technique. Also, the semi-structure interview results corroborate the finding from the quantitative data analysis as most of the interviewed participants reported positive feelings towards the novel analysis courses and the instructor-based teaching technique. The findings of this study may yield to further insights for implementing novel analysis teaching techniques in the curriculum of educational institutions where literature and language education are combined. Furthermore, the outcomes of this study may yield to further insights for reviewing the curriculum of the literature classes in EFL context.

keywords: TEFL, literature, novel analysis, teaching techniques

Cohesive Devices Used in Writing by Iranian Undergraduate EFL Students

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This study was on the type, frequency, and accuracy of cohesive devices used by Iranian undergraduate EFL students in their expository writing. The results showed that references were used most frequently followed by lexical cohesion, and conjunctions, while the least frequently used ones were ellipsis and substitution. It was also found that references were sometimes overused without any referent or misused. Conjunctions and lexical devices were used properly and effectively in conveying the meaning.

Key Terms: cohesive devices, rhetorical problems, expository writing

1. Introduction

Writing is a socio-cognitive, problem-solving process affected by cultural and rhetorical norms that should be considered by EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners in their writing process (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Rhetorical norms refer to the rules of expressing oneself correctly and effectively in writing or speaking (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). According to Atkinson (2003), EFL students' writing in a language classroom context is a way to determine their ability to solve a rhetoric problem and their awareness of their own communicative goals, of the reader, and of the writing context.

However, in spite of numerous approaches to the teaching of writing (communicative language teaching (CLT), process-based approach, product-based approach, genre-based approach, etc....) having evolved from different teaching methods, tackling EFL writing is still one of the challenging areas for teachers and students (Shokrpour & Falahzadeh, 2007).

Iranian EFL students have problems in writing clearly because of lack of attention to writing skill in high schools (Ostovar, 1997). At universities, students have only two writing courses under the titles of "Paragraph Writing" and "Essay Writing" that are not enough to prepare students to write well in English (Curriculum Planning Council, 1996). An investigation done by Jafarpour (1994) indicated that most compositions written by Iranian EFL students majoring in English lack unity and coherence. This deficiency seemed to arise from students' restricted knowledge and the right application of cohesive devices in their writings.

Moreover, in a report on the 3rd Biennial Conference of the European Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing (EATAW) by Futasz and Timar (2006), one of the problems in EFL writing is the cross-national and cross-cultural issues regarding non-English rhetorical forms that should be identified by the teachers and used in designing courses for their own students.

The objectives in this study were to identify the type, frequency, and accuracy of cohesive devices, as classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976), used by Iranian undergraduate students who have passed the two writing courses and are supposed to use cohesive devices effectively in their writing.

If cohesive devices are used appropriately by the writer, the readers can understand a piece of witing better and faster because of the flowing succession of words, structures, and ideas which connect together in a meaningful unit of expository or argumentative piece of writing (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). According to them, a text without cohesive devices is ill-formed and difficult for the reader to interpret appropriately. This descriptive research will shed light on the weaknesses or strengths of Iranian undergraduate EFL students in using cohesive devices. In general, examining the features of EFL writing tasks and the students' problems in performing the task would certainly be pedagogically beneficial.

1.1 The Theoretical Framework

According to what Futasz and Timar (2006) report about the cross-national and cross-cultural problems because of non-English rhetorical forms that has to be identified and taught by the EFL teachers, this study is based on the theory of social constructivism (Figure 1) in which the learner interacts with the teacher, the task, and the culture (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, cohesive devices used in writing (task) are different in different languages (culture) and should be presented by the teacher in EFL classes.
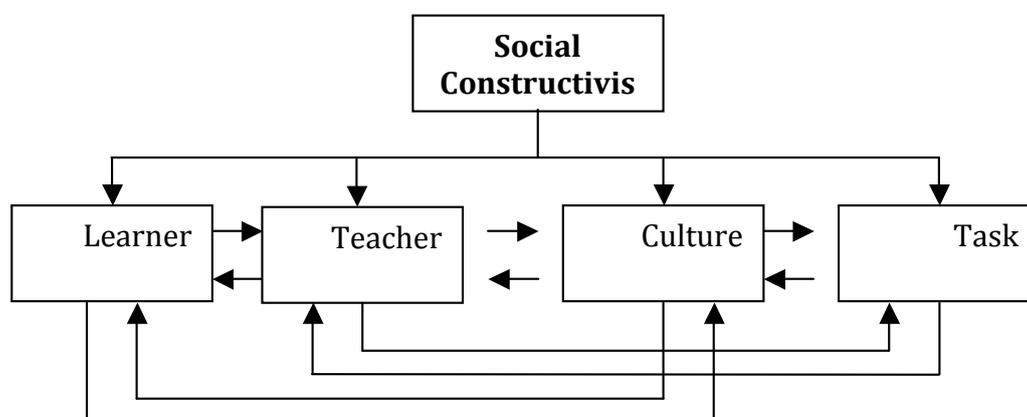
Figure 1: The Theoretical Framework

1.2 Research Questions

On the basis of the objectives stated above, there are three research questions in this study:

1. What type of cohesive devices do Iranian undergraduate EFL students use in their expository writing?
2. How frequently do they use them?
3. How accurately do they use them?

2. The Writing Process

Since 1960s, there has been a paradigm shift from writing as a product to writing as a process and from concern with questions such as " what have you written?" or " what grade is it worth?" to how will you write it?" and "how can it be improved?" In line with this change of emphasis, many process approaches to writing have been presented such as the framework (figure 2) developed by White and Arndt (1991) who consider writing as a recursive (not linear) process.
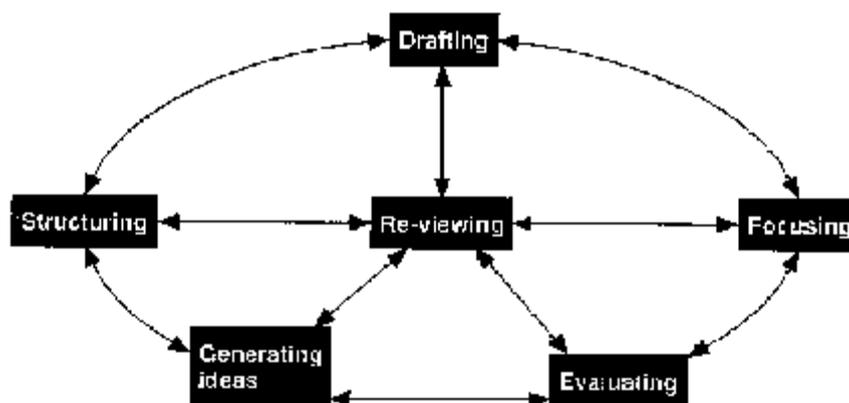
Figure 2: White and Arndt's (1991) diagram of process writing (adopted from Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

According to this framework, brainstorming helps writers activate their long term memory and start writing about the topic; focusing is related to determining the purpose of writing; structuring deals with organizing the text to make it cohesively and rhetorically acceptable to the reader; drafting involves revising on the basis of feedback received on content and organization from others; reviewing is referring back to the text to find out any problems in content, language, and organization; and evaluating is concerned with developing checklists for possible reformulations (Johnson & Johnson, 1999)

3. Cohesion

Cohesion is part of language system and a way of organizing text on its surface. It is 'a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). One element 'presupposes' the other and points back or forward to it. Cohesion exists within a phrase, clause, sentence, and also between sentences. Halliday and Hasan in their book "*Cohesion in English*" (1976) identify five types of cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. All these types will be explained below:

3.1 Reference

Reference is a semantic relation which, according to Halliday and Hassan (1976: 31), embodies an instruction for the reader or addressee to retrieve information from elsewhere. Such information is the referential meaning i.e. the identity of the particular thing or object that is being referred to. Halliday and Hassan (1976) generally classify references into Exophoric (situational) and Endophoric (textual). Exophoric reference refers to a situation where the meaning is not shown in the text itself but obvious to those in a particular situation. In the following example, only the people involved in the situation know who "he" is:

> For he's a jolly good fellow and so say all of us.

Endophoric reference is either anaphoric (referring to the preceding text) or cataphoric (referring to the following text). The following examples show this distinction:

1. My parents are going to visit me. They will arrive next Friday.
2. Just as he was about to enter the room, Jones was stopped by a noise on the other side of the door.

In the first example, "they" is an anaphoric reference to "my parents" and in the second one, "he" refers cataphorically to "Jones".

More specifically, Halliday and Hasan (1976) categorize reference into three types: personals, demonstratives, and comparatives. A brief illustration of each type is given below.

3.1.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference, unlike what the term might suggest, includes reference to persons as well as objects. In simple terms, personal reference consists of three classes: personal pronouns, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns. It enters into the structure of language in one of two forms: 'participant in some process' or 'possessor of some entity'. The former falls into the class "noun", subclass "pronoun", and functions as "head" in the noun phrase. If the noun phrase is subject, the 'participant' has one form (I, you, we, he, she, it, they, one) and it has another form if it is anything other than subject (me, you, us, him, her, it, them, one). The latter falls into the class "determiner" and functions either as "head" (mine, yours, ours, his, hers, its, theirs) or as "modifier" (my, your, our, his, her, its, their, one's).

Consider the following example based on similar five examples given by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 45-46):

I do not know what happened to him. He is always mistaking my things for his.

> I: participant, subject pronoun, head
>
> him: participant, non-subject pronoun, head
>
> my: possessor, determiner, modifier
>
> his: possessor, determiner, head

3.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is a form of verbal pointing which involves identifying the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify demonstratives into Neutral (the) and Selective.

3.1.3 Comparative Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), comparison is a form of reference because simply a 'thing cannot just be "like"; it must be "like something".' It contributes to textual cohesion by setting up a relation of likeness or contrast between two items or elements and is expressed by adjectives like same, identical, equal, adjectives in the comparative degree, and adverbs like identically, likewise, so, such, etc. For example:

> Most workers here wear the same clothes everyday.

Here the same means 'the same as every other day', though with the possible ambiguity of 'the same as each other'.

3.2 Substitution

Substitution is somewhat different from reference in that another word takes the place of the thing that is being discussed. Where reference is a relation between meanings, substitution is a grammatical relationship. There are three general way to substitute in a sentence: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The pronoun *one* is often used in nominal references, as it is in the following example:

> My computer is out-of-date. I need to buy a new one.

3.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis means leaving something unsaid but it is still understood. The following examples are adapted from Halliday and Hassan (1976: 143) for illustration:

1. Here are thirteen cards. Take any. Now give me any three.
2. Joan brought some carnations and Catherine some sweet peas.

In the first example, the omitted items are card after any in second clause and cards after any three in third one. And in the second one, there is only one possible interpretation: Catherine *brought* some sweet peas.

3.4 Conjunction

Conjunction, functions somewhat differently than the other three because it is not strictly semantic or anaphoric, rather, it is related to the entire environment of a text. The conjunctive elements "presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 226). Instead of giving cohesion to a text, it actually coheres two sentences together. In the following example, although there is a distinct shift from one sentence to the next, the sentences are still very much a part of a coherent text:

1. It rained, but I went for a walk anyway.
2. 'While you're refreshing yourself,' said the Queen, 'I'll just take the measurements.' And she took a ribbon out of her pocket, marked in inches.

3.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the result of semantic relationships between words. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify lexical cohesion into two types: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration can be done through the repetition of a lexical item, the use of a synonym, or the use of a superordinate word:

1. Mary bit into the peach. The peach wasn't ripe. (Repetition with the identity of reference)
2. Mary ate some peaches. She likes peaches very much. (Repetition without the identity of reference)
3. There is a boy climbing that tree. The lad is going to fall if he doesn't take care. (synonym)
4. Mary ate a peach. She likes fruits. (Superordinate heading)

Collocation refers to the 'association of lexical items that regularly co-occur" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). They claim that there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexico-semantic relation. Therefore, in addition to synonyms and superordinates mentioned above, this kind of cohesion includes the following categories:

1. Antonyms: like ……… hate, wet …….. dry
2. Complementaries (ungradable antonyms): boy ……. girl, stand up …… sit down
3. Converses: order …….. obey
4. Words related to the same ordered series: Tuesday …… Thursday, dollar ….. cent, and colonel ……. Soldier
5. Words related to unordered lexical sets: road ….. rail, student ….. book

4. Cohesion and Expository Writing

Expository writing involves explanation and discussion of ideas, theses, or hypotheses and is very important in communicating facts, or evidence in formal education, in job related contexts, and to further an argument (Just, Carpenter, & Wooley, 1987). This type of writing involves using structures and cues to insure a smooth processing of the text so that the knowledge and application of cohesive devices is necessary for this purpose.

According to Alonso and McCabe (2003), cohesion has traditionally been neglected in language teaching and only from the mid 1970s onwards, in particular with the publication of Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976), did it become progressively assumed in L2 writing teaching that a coherent text is more that a series of grammatical sentences lined up one after another. They further state that all general ESL course books and most reading and writing courses incorporate work designed to help learners grasp the cohesive devices of written English: discourse connectors, ellipsis, conjunctions, and so forth. However, L2 writing instructors still come across ESL student compositions in which sentences, assessed in isolation, are grammatically correct and yet the overall effect is one of incoherence.

Meisuo (2000) investigated the use of cohesive features in the expository compositions of Chinese undergraduates and found that students employed in their writing a variety of cohesive devices with some categories more frequently than others. Lexical devices were the most frequently used, followed by conjunctions and reference devices. In terms of tie distances, the majority of the cohesive ties were either immediate or remote. There was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties used and the quality of writing. Certain cohesive features were identified in the expository writing of Chinese undergraduates which included ambiguity in reference, overuse and misuse of conjunctions, and restricted use of lexical cohesion.

5. Method

5.1 Data Collection Procedure

About 10 writing samples of the students were analyzed to identify the type and frequency of using each cohesive device in their writing. The topic was "Reasons to Attend College" and the students were required to write at most 500 words about it. The writing task was done in class during 90 minutes and the students were free to use dictionaries and ask the teacher any questions about the instructions.

5.2 Design of the Study

Since there was no treatment done by the researcher, the design of the study is an ex-post facto one and the writings of the learners after the end of the two writing courses were analyzed.

5.3 Data Analysis Procedure

Based on what is defined as descriptive statistics by Babbie (2007), the data was analyzed descriptively in order to show a summary of the Iranian EFL university students' writing sample characteristics First of all, a coding scheme (as shown in table 3.1) was used for labeling each device. Then, the writings were carefully examined by two raters, the researcher and an experienced EFL lecturer, for identifying the cohesive devices used by the learners. The raters agreed on about 200 codes and the disagreements in labeling were solved through discussion. And finally, the descriptive statistics as employed by Sim (1994), was used to show the results through tabular representation of the percentages of each cohesive device used by the students.

Table 3.1: The Coding Scheme Used for Analyzing the Use of Cohesive Devices

No.	Cohesive Device	Code
1	References	REF

2	Ellipsis	EL
3	Substitution	SUB
4	Conjunction	CON
5	Lexical Cohesion	LEX

6. Results and Discussion

After careful examination of the writing samples, the results were summarized in table 4.1 as follows:

Table 4.1: Students' Use of Cohesive Devices

Cohesive Devices	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Total	**Percentage**
References	7	8	13	7	1	5	7	10	8	11	77	**33.5%**
Ellipsis	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	1	-	5	**2.5%**
Substitution	-	2	1	3	-	1	2	-	2	1	12	**5.5%**
Conjunction	6	7	4	7	7	8	6	5	6	8	64	**28.5%**
Lexical Cohesion	6	7	4	9	5	8	5	8	9	6	67	**30%**
Total	20	24	22	27	13	22	20	25	26	26	225	**100**

As shown above, the most frequently used cohesive devices by Iranian university EFL learners are references (**33.5%**) followed by lexical cohesion (**30%**), and conjunctions (**28.5%**), while the least frequently used ones are ellipsis (**2.5%**) and substitution (**5.5%**). It should be also noted that most of the references were of personal or demonstrative types and no comparative reference was used. The frequent use references and conjunctions can be attributed to their background in pre-requisite grammar courses in which compound and complex sentences are presented and practiced. However, the accuracy of their use is important too and will be discussed later. As to the frequency of the lexical cohesion devices, mostly the same words or phrases were repeated without using synonyms or superordinates.

With regard to the accuracy of cohesive device use, some students' writing samples in italics and without any change (not corrected by the researcher in form) are provided below. For example, the references are sometimes overused (without any referent):

> *"In our today world, more educated and more understanding persons are the main powers. A perfect, hardworking university graduated student is more knowledgeable than most of the ordinary people who have not passed **those** courses. So such a person with more intellectual ability and new practical information can occupy the job opportunities."*

> *"Many people go to college because they love knowledge."*

Sometimes the references were misused (used incorrectly):

> "My friend's father wants her to be a doctor but **he** has a different idea."

Conjunctions were mostly used properly and effectively in conveying the meaning but were mainly limited to "but", "so", and "and":

> *"You may be like or hate to study **but** for improving, you have no choice."*

> *"Education is very important in Iran. **So** many people go to college."*

> *"Military service is very difficult. **And** it is very dangerous too."*

Lexical devices were mostly limited to the "repetition" device and the most noticeable example was the repletion of the word "college" throughout the essay by most students. More examples are given below:

> *"Some people come to **university** for prestige but some others continue their education to **university level** for finding a good job."*

> *"Many **girls** go to college for finding a good husband because people nowadays prefer educated **girls**."*

As a corollary to the predominance of "repetition", substitution and ellipsis were rarely used:

> *"People go to college for different reasons: First, **some** want to find a good job."*

> *"Many boys and girls go to college because their parents want them **to**."*

In sum, the frequent but incomplete use of references and conjunctions as well as the limited use of ellipsis and substitution can be attributed to the students' insufficient background knowledge in grammar, and the frequent use of only repetition as a lexical device reveals these learners limited vocabulary repertoire. This study revealed that if the students were sufficiently knowledgeable in the proper use of ellipsis and substitution, they could use these devices in compensating (to some extent) for their restricted vocabulary knowledge.

7. Conclusion

Due to the importance of cohesive devices in reasonable flow of ideas in expository writing and based on the results of this study, a number of suggestions are made regarding teachers, learners, textbooks, academic syllabus, and further research: Teachers should emphasize more on the rules and limitations in using the references in English and encourage the learners to use ellipsis and substitution in their writings where necessary; learners should read more expository writing samples written by native speakers to get more familiar with the correct use of cohesive devices; the textbooks chosen as student resources for expository writing should include a detailed presentation of cohesive devices with enough examples for the learners; more time should be dedicated to practice in writing skill at universities or more writing courses should be added to the present ones to provide learners with more practice opportunities and teacher feedback in applying all the necessary cohesive devices; more writing courses should be added to the present ones to provide learners with more practice opportunities and teacher feedback in applying all the necessary cohesive devices; and more research, specially experimental, can be done to investigate the ways of improving the use of cohesive devices in writing.

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Design and Development of Constructivist Web-Based Learning Environment Model to Enhance Creative Thinking for Higher Education Students

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students. Research methodology is developmental research in phase I: statistic methods are document analysis, survey and case study. The procedures were as following: 1) to examine the principles and theories. 2) to explore the context concerning creative thinking. 3) to synthesize designing framework of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking. 4) to design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking according to above mentioned designing framework, and 5) to evaluate the efficiency of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking.

The result revealed that:

1) The constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students comprise of 8 components as following: 1) Problem base 2) Resource 3) Related case 4) Mind tool 5) Creative thinking lab   6) Collaboration 7) Scaffolding , and 8) Coaching

2) The efficiency of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking illustration as following: 1) The Experts review 2) The learners' opinions 3) The learners' creative thinking: fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration, and 4) learning achievement

Key words**: Design and develop learning environment model, Constructivism, Creative thinking**

INTRODUCTION

In recent time, the society entering to Knowledge-based society with higher educational and knowledge level. Moreover, people with thinking skills were needed in applying knowledge for usefulness. The guideline of National Educational Management based on National Educational Act stated that the students had to construct their own body of knowledge by themselves which was learning process for developing different experience and things to be meaningful for themselves by interacting with environment from the application in thinking process and searching for knowledge and practice. The students could be able to discover knowledge and experience by themselves. The teachers acted as facilitators. They should provide environmental climate and instructional resources facilitating motivation for learning (The Office of National Educational Commission, 2002). It was supported by learning management based on Constructivist theories including the assumption that learning was a process occurring inside the students. The learners constructed their own body of knowledge from relationship between the founded things and prior knowledge by trying to understand with the founded incidents and phenomenon and constructing them as Cognitive structure or schema. Besides, the Constructivist also believed that learning was construction rather than perception. The instructional goal would support construction rather than trying to transfer knowledge. Therefore, the

Constructivist would focus on each person's construction of new knowledge appropriately (Sumalee Chaijaroen, 2008).

According to the studies of creativity in higher education level, found that there were various weak points. Specifically, the instructional problems in which the students' studying techniques. The students had to get knowledge from their instructors and follow the others rather than think by themselves in creating performance or body of knowledge for creating new things for society which wasn't very clear (Sumalee Chaijaroen et.al., 2003). Moreover, according to the quality assessment of higher education institutes, found that the percentage of students working in one year showed the quality standard of academic creativity performance in lower level than good level   (The Office of Accreditation and Educational Quality Assessment, 2007). Furthermore, it was also found that the educators graduating in higher education showed their creativity in work practice lower than 50 percentile for 65% (Noi and Prayuth Thaithani, 2008). Most of students owned lower level of capability in creative thinking process (Premier's Office, 2003). It showed that for the instructional management in higher education, it wasn't succeed enough as it should be. It was also necessary to find the instructional management technique for enhancing creative thinking (The Office of National Educational Commission, 2003).

Specifically, for the studying in analytic courses and system design from scope and content of the course focused on rational in designing relational data base in different models. Besides, the design of data base should be relevant to authentic context situation and serve to those who used it. So, it was necessary to encourage the students to be able to gain creative thinking which would cause the design of new data base. The design of data base had to be based on Fluency in selecting symbols and associating relationship in designing data base meaningfully during the limited time. Moreover, the students could have Flexibility in discriminating and grouping for organizing data base as Normalization. It would cause Originality in designing data base for new styles. Furthermore, they had to gain Elaboration in selecting, improving, and adjusting former data base for developing new data base in different contexts appropriately. They should also be encouraged their characteristics to be relevant to desirable characteristics of the Bachelors in Computer Education focusing on the students with creativity. They should be able to create the cause, effect, imagination. They should know how to solve problems with steps and should be able to create innovation (The Manual of Bachelor in Computer Education, 2004).

According to the rational of National educational Act in 1999, it focused on students' practice and ability to learn in every place and time. It was supported by Web-based learning which was an innovation with characteristics of constructing knowledge and enhancing creative thinking. It could be seen that Web-based learning had characteristic of Media attribution and Media symbol system as being Hypermedia which could present both animation, graphic, letter, sound. Specifically, if the illustration was relevant to the students' studied content and constructed imagination, it would cause Originality for designing and applying for new things as well as Hypertext which was a model of a technique to access data associating Node of knowledge from various places existing unlimited together. It was foundation of knowledge for supporting the students to construct knowledge efficiently and expanding their thinking style, and Elaboration. Moreover, their Flexibility would occur by organizing pre-concept and ordering or grouping the information technology or content as well as media attribution facilitating the collaboration process for solving problems, sharing viewpoints which would enhance in expanding knowledge structure and creativity. Furthermore, the students could also construct knowledge by themselves from the practice through their own thinking process, and ability in searching for various answers for solving problems during studying with clear objective (Salomon, 1977; Hannanfin, 1999; Jonassen & Henning, 1999; Jordan, 2003; Sumalee Chaijaroen, 2003; 2008).

According to the above reasons, the researchers were aware of the importance and necessity in studying the creative thinking of students studying through Constructivist Web-based Learning Environment Model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students by using instructional management paradigm as student centered. It was the environmental management for students' creativity development with Media attribution and Media symbol system to serve the need in constructing the students' knowledge and enhancing their creative thinking by focusing on the students' learning the course content simultaneously with creative thinking development and technology use. Therefore, this research would focus on the study of creative thinking of students studying from Constructivist Web-Based Learning Environment Model to enhance creative thinking

for higher education students so that the research findings would be major foundation in developing the Learning Environment Model to enhance creative thinking in the future.

OBJECTIVE

To design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research and development was employed in this study. Research methodology is developmental research Type II (Richey, RC and Klein JD, 2007) including 3 phase, these are; phase 1: model development, phase 2: model validation, and phase 3: model use. This report is in phase I: statistic methods are document analysis, survey and case study. The procedures were as following: 1) to examine the principles and theories. 2) to explore the context concerning creative thinking. 3) to synthesize designing framework of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking. 4) to design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking according to above mentioned designing framework, and 5) to evaluate the efficiency of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking.

Target group

1) Fifteen expert review for assessment the validation of model as follows: content, instructional technology design, web-based learning design and Evaluation.

2) Twenty of Second Year Bachelor's degree students in Computer education major, the faculty of Education, Khonkaen University.

Research Instrument

1) The instrument for experiment included the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students with design and development process as follows: (1) to examine the principles and theories, (2) to explore the context concerning creative thinking, (3) to synthesize designing framework of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking, (4) to design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking according to above mentioned designing framework, and (5) to evaluate the efficiency of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking.

2) The instrument for collecting Data including: (1) The Record Form of Documentary Investigation and Analysis for constructing theoretical framework,   (2) The Analysis Record Form for constructing the design framework, (3) The Evaluation Form of Learning Environmental Model for the experts, (4) The Creative Thinking Form, (5) The Learning Achievement Test, and 6) The Students' Opinion Survey of Learning Environmental Model.

Data Collection

1) Document analysis and Literature review

According to studying and analysis principles, theories, and related literature with design and development of constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students including Psychological base, Pedagogies base, Technologies base, Contextual

base, Media base, and important variables that enhance the learners to encourage creative thinking base for basic of research.

2) Contextual study of learners

According to studying student's creative thinking, found that from The Creative Thinking Test was used for studying the students' creative thinking based on Guilford's (1967) approach: (1) Fluency, (2) Flexibility, (3) Originality, and (4) Elaboration. Next step was to design and development model from the results of contextual study.

3) Synthesis of designing framework

According to studying synthesis of the designing framework based on theoretical framework including results from principles, theories, and related literature and contextual study of students' creative thinking. Researcher would offer to the advisors and expert review for comment then edited based on feedback.

4) Develop the learning environment model

Development the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students based on foundation of creating designing framework was adopted.

5) Evaluate validation of the learning environment model with experts

According to studying evaluates the output for checking the quality of the model as following details: (1) To evaluate validation of the content It was to examine the accuracy of the content of necessary on the industrial with tools; open-end question assessments of content then it was evaluated by 3 experts in content. After finishing evaluation, researcher edited the content based on feedback, (2) To evaluate the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students. It was evaluated with open-end question assessments of design by 5 experts in instructional technology design then edited based on feedback, and (3) To evaluate media and web-based learning design and presentation for checking the media quality on the network. It was evaluated with open-end question assessments of media and presentation by 5 experts in educational technology then edited based on feedback.

RESEARCH RESULTS

Design and develop the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students in this study would be presented into two parts as following details.

1. The constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students,

The learning environment model with conceptual framework in designing as follows:

I: The stimulation of cognitive structure and creativity (1) Problem base to enhancing creative thinking.

II: The support for balance adjustment and creativity (2) Resource and

Relate case.

III: The enhancement in constructing knowledge and creative thinking

(4) Collaboration, (5) Mind tool and (6) Creative thinking lab.

IIII: The support and enhancement for constructing knowledge and creative thinking, (7) Scaffolding and (8) Coaching.

According to the basic components, they were constructed and developed as constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students as shown in the following figure: 1

| The stimulation of cognitive structure and creativity | Cognitive constructivist | Authentic context | Problem base to enhancing creative thinking |

Figure 1 (flowchart):

The stimulation of cognitive structure and creativity
- Cognitive constructivist → Authentic context → Problem base to enhancing creative thinking
- Situated learning(Brown, Collins,andDuguid,1989) → Enabling Context
- OLEs (Hannafin, 1999) → 4 ability of creative thinking: - fluency, - flexibility, -originality,
- Creative Thinking Guilford (1967)

The support for balance adjustment and creativity
- Information → Conceptual → Resource
- Mental model
- SOI
- Constructivist → Discovery
- Social constructivism → CLEs (Jonasen, 1999) → Relate case

The enhancement in constructing knowledge and creative thinking
- Cognitive tool → OLEs (Hannafin, 1999) → Mind tool
- Creative Thinking Guilford (1967) → 4 ability of creative thinking: - fluency, → Creative thinking lab
- Social constructivism → Collaboration → Collaboration

The support and enhancement for constructing knowledge and creative thinking
- Social constructivism → OLEs (Hannafin, 1999) → Scaffolding
  - Conceptual
  - Metacognition
  - Procedural
  - Strategic
  - Creative thinking
- Creative Thinking Guilford (1967) → 4 abilityof creative thinking: - fluency, - flexibility, -originality, -
- Cognitive apprentiship → Coaching → Coaching

Figure 1: Designing framework of constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students

According to designing framework of constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students , found that there were major components as follows: 1) Problem base, 2) Resource, 3) Related case, 4) Mind tool, 5)Collaboration, 6) Coaching, 7) Creative thinking lab, and 8) Scaffolding obtaining from major theories in various aspects: Psychological base, Pedagogies base, Technologies base, Contextual base, Media base, and important variables that enhance the learners to encourage creative thinking base as shown in the following figure: 2-10

Figure 2: It was shown major page entering to Constructivist Web-Based Learning Environment Model to enhance creative thinking. There were 6 problem bases for students: (1) Context diagram, (2) Data flow diagram, (3) Basic E-R diagram, (4) Advance E-R diagram, (5) E-R diagram to relation, and (6) Normalization.

Figure 3: It was shown Problem base for enhancing the students to construct knowledge and enhance creative thinking from real situation in designing data base.

Figure 4: It was shown Resource for collecting information, content, technology which the students used in Problem base while they were facing it. It was major component supporting in constructing knowledge and enhancing creative thinking of students.
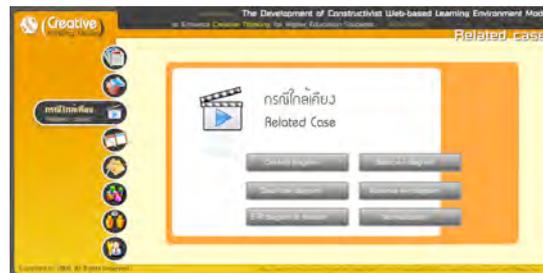
Figure 5: It was shown Related case which the students didn't have adequate experience in solving problems. The Related case would help them gaining experience in solving problems and being able to transfer the rationales as knowledge for solving new problems.

Figure 6: It was shown Mind tool for constructing knowledge and enhancing creative thinking. The students had to be supported in practice their learning task.

Figure 7: It was shown Creative thinking lab for enhancing creative thinking based on Guilford's (1967) approach for all 4 aspects including Fluency lab, Flexibility lab, Originality lab, and Elaboration lab.

Figure 8: It was shown Collaboration for supporting the students to share their experience with experts in designing data base through CoPs as Web-blog. Besides, there were Web-board and Chat room for expanding thinking viewpoint, enhancing Flexibility, and Elaboration. Moreover, it was major component in adjusting and preventing Misconception that would occur in learning.

Figure 9: It was shown Coaching center by teachers and experts in designing data base with Best practice. They could be able to explain the students throughout the learning duration without the teachers to coach all the time. Furthermore, the successful techniques and methods from being role model for students to solve their learning problems.

Figure 10: It was shown Scaffolding for enhancing students to solve problems or learning in case that they couldn't be able to practice their own task by themselves. The Scaffolding might be the suggestions as well as different strategies for solving problems or providing opportunity to find alternatives in solving various problems or Divergent thinking to successfully practice one's task.

2. The model efficiency assessment

The efficiency assessment of learning environment on network, adopted from the concept of Sumalee Chaijarean (2003), was found that

(1) Evaluation of productivity, which was divided into content, the learning environment model design, and assessment, was appropriate. (2) Evaluation of using context was found that using group of three was suitable (3) Assessment of learners' opinions effected learning environment model, which was found that supporting and development of students' creative thinking, (4) Evaluation of students' creative thinking, which was found that there were 70% of qualified students, and (5) Evaluation of learning achievement of learners, which was found that there were 70% of qualified students.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

According to the above findings, found that it was supported by the findings of Neo (2005); Kwon (2006); Tezci (2008); Ransarit Wechsuwan (2005); Jakarin Silarat (2006); and Sumalee Chaijaroen et.al., (2007), found that the students showed their creative thinking including: Fluency, Flexibility, Originality, and Elaboration. They obtained higher level of learning achievement and various problem solving skills. For the findings of this study, it would be because of Web-Based Learning Environment Model with the design and development of Guilford's approach of creative thinking enhancement for 4 aspects including Key Word of Fluency, Flexibility, Originality, and Elaboration (Guilford, 1967; Mumford, 2006), in this study, different key words were used as basic information technology leading to design by determining learning task that the students had to show their ability in finding answers quickly, fast, with a large amount of number or alternatives for solving problems in limited time, Fluency. The students were encouraged to show their Fluency in various aspects: Fluency in finding words, thinking, connection, and tasks that made them think of many kinds of answers by classifying the types and meanings as well as predicting answers and steps of problem solving in order to achieve goal for doing responsibility, Flexibility. Moreover, the students' responsibility for finding new things by transforming and applying or creating new improved patterns or things, Originality as well as determining task facilitating students to select problem solving technique by evaluating answers and testing based on specified criterion or rational in order to construct or design as the determined more perfect goal or as thinking in details for elaborating more perfect thinking, Elaboration. It was the enhancement for students to apply and develop creative thinking ability based on Guilford's approach. It was supported by Salomon's (1977) approach with explanation that learning could be able to create enhancement for skills which would be meaningful as the needs in learning task.

Furthermore, Constructivist Web-Based Learning Environment Model was designed facilitating creative thinking. It could be seen from the components of creative thinking lab. Inside the lab, there would be 4 more rooms for facilitating Fluency in matching for telling name and meaning of symbol using for designing data base as the empirical evidence from the students' interview that *"I like Fluency lab because it is fun and relax. When I can match the symbol and meaning, it could help in solving problem during labeling different figures and connecting with problem solving in problem base for E-R Diagram writing."* According to the empirical evidence and research findings of this study, found that the design of Web-Based Learning Environment could facilitate the students in applying and developing the students' creative thinking regarding: Word Fluency, Thinking and Connecting relationship. Besides, Flexibility lab focused on enhancing creative thinking as Flexibility by designing for students to be able to study and obtain Flexibility in classifying and showing steps of Table formation as Normalization. The students would be able to use Normalization rule in transforming E-R Diagram. Moreover, in the lab room consisted of instrument facilitating the design of E-R Diagram, demonstration and testing of techniques before practice. As the empirical evidence from students' interview that *Flexibility lab was used for analyzing problems by trying out Normalization from assigned task. There were demonstration of techniques and trying to perform Normalization flow chart. As a result, I could classify the complex information."* According to the empirical evidence and research findings of this study, found that the design of Web-Based Learning Environment Model could enhance the students in applying and developing their creative thinking as Flexibility for classifying and describing the meaning as well as showing steps of problem solving in order to achieve goal in performing task. Moreover, Originality lab focused on creative thinking as initiating to design or transform E-R Diagram to be more perfect. In the lab, there were instruments supporting the design of E-R Diagram, demonstration of techniques, and testing of techniques before practice. As the empirical evidence from the students' interview that *"When I enter Original lab to analyze flow chart from problem base, it could help us labeling the chart correctly which would cause the correct problem solving and transforming in designing new things by ourselves."* According to the empirical evidence and research findings of this study, found that the design of Web-Based Learning Environment Model could support the students in applying and developing the students creative thinking in originality which could be able to design and create new things by applying prior knowledge in transforming and applying for new things, or adjusting and developing as new patterns or things with more perfect. Besides, Elaboration lab focused on enhancing creative thinking in selecting and making decision for using Normalization rule in transforming E-R Diagram as Relation so that the data base would be moiré perfect. In the lab, there were the instrument facilitating the design of E-R Diagram, demonstration of techniques, and testing techniques before practice. As the empirical evidence from the students' interview that *"I enter Elaboration lab to learn and test in transforming*

information from E-R Diagram into Relation and helping in tallying data as group. There would be explanation of steps in detail which would be easier during solving problems." According to the empirical evidence and research findings of this study, found that the design of Web-Based Learning Environment Model could be able to support the students in applying and developing the students' creative thinking as Elaboration which was the ability in thinking to create by selecting former thinking which was more clearly developed by testing in addition to decision making. It was supported by Osborn's (1953); Terry 92005); and Kwon (2006) approaches with explanation that the technique development relating to creative thinking for applying in constructing instruments of problem solving. The learning task would lead to knowledge construction and enhancement of students' creative thinking. It was also supported by the research findings of Neo (2005) and Suchat Wattanachai (2007) in designing the learning environment for enhancing the students' creative thinking.

According to all of the above findings, it could be confirmed of efficiency of the constructivist web-based learning environment model to enhance creative thinking for higher education students that it could very well support the students' knowledge construction and creative thinking, more ever for The application of Constructivist Web-Based Learning Environment Model to enhance creative thinking of higher education students in instructional management, the congruence with the students' context, school, course content, and appropriate media attribute.

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Scientific Thinking of the Learners Learned with The Knowledge

Construction Model enhancing Scientific Thinking

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to examine scientific thinking of the learners learned with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners**.** The result revealed that scientific thinking of the learners consist of inquiry, analysis, inference and argument.

Keywords: scientific thinking, web-based learning environment, constructivist theory

Introduction

According to changing of the world and promulgation of national educational, the learners to be trained thinking skill, management, problem solving, love reading, and desire to learn continuously, be able to utilize information technology in searching for information in order to obtain and search for knowledge for their lifelong learning. Constructivist theory was appropriate learning theory in managing education for serving those things. This theory focused on learners' knowledge construction based on their experience, interpretation the meaning of the world as well as constructing body of knowledge. Especially, the content on this study, substance daily life, the learners should have ability to find out the evidence to explain phenomena by using inquiry, analysis, inference and argument, which we called scientific thinking. In order to encourage scientific thinking of the learners by using the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of learners. And utilization of media attribution of web-base, hypertext, hyperlink, hypermedia for increasing efficiency of the learners' knowledge construction and scientific thinking. According to above mentioned reasoning, this study aim to examine the scientific thinking of the learners who learned with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners.

Conceptual Framework

The knowledge construction model enhancing
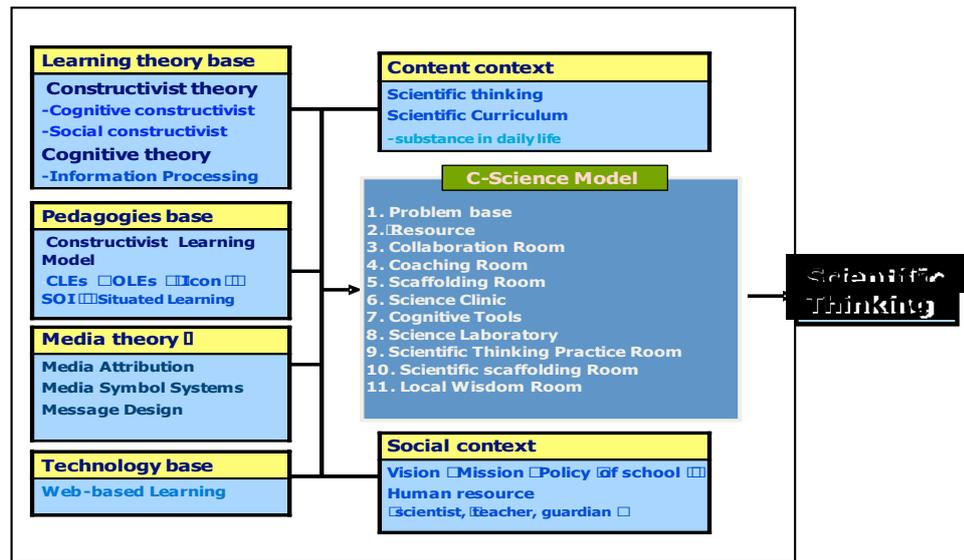
Conceptual framework of this study consists of independent variable (Learning with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners which integrated from theory and context) and dependent variable (scientific thinking of the learners).

Designing Framework
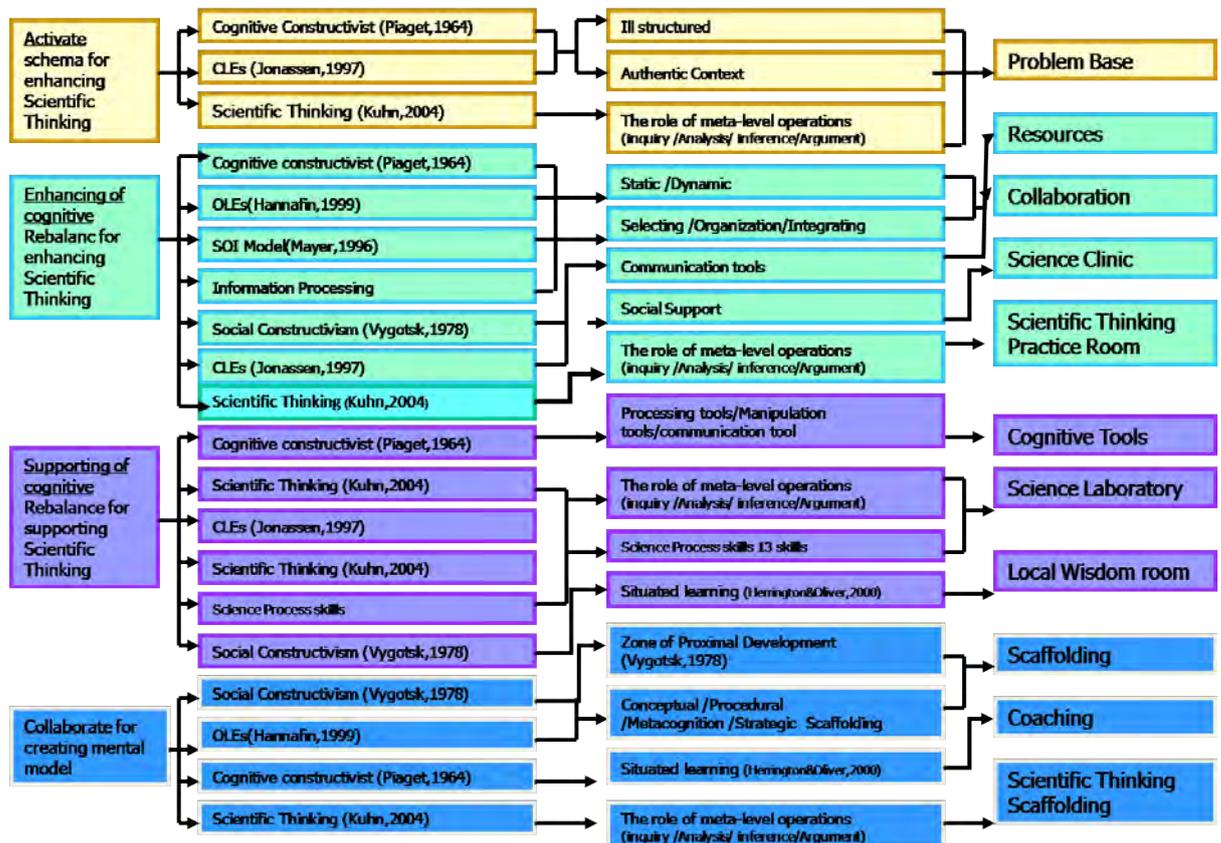
Designing framework illustrates how to design the knowledge construction model

enhancing scientific thinking of the learners both theory and practice. According to related

theoretical approaches, there were 11 components of the knowledge construction model enhancing
scientific thinking of the learners through the web-based learning as following :

(1) Problem Base (2) Resources (3) Collaboration (4) Coaching (5) Scaffolding (6) Science Clinic (7) Cognitive Tools (8) Local Wisdom Room (9) Scientific Thinking Room (10) Science Laboratory and (11) Scientific Thinking Practice Room.

Methodology

 1.The target group included 51 sixth-grade learners, Demonstration School of Khon Kaen

University, Thailand, in 2008 school year.

 2.The variable was scientific thinking of the learners learned with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners.

 3.The research design of this study was pre-experimental as one shot case study.

$$X \qquad o$$

    X = learning with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of

      the learners

    O = scientific thinking of the learners who learned with the knowledge construction

      model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners

Research Instruments

  The research instruments consisted of the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners, constructed by the researcher and interview form of learners' Scientific thinking based on Kuhn's (2004) : the role of meta-level operators in scientific thinking including: 1) inquiry, 2) analysis, 3) inference, and 4) argument.

Figure : Web-based learning environments of the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners

Data collecting and analyzing

In-depth interview was employed for collecting the learners' scientific thinking data.

Protocol analysis was used in order to analyze scientific thinking data.

The research findings

The result of this study was found the scientific thinking of the learners who learned with the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners in 4 aspects :

1) inquiry, 2) analysis, 3) inference, and 4) argument. The details are as following: During performing their learning task through problem based situation relating to their real life and other aspects of the knowledge construction model enhancing scientific thinking of the learners. When they had an experience with an incident or situation, they would set the goal for inquiry and to do achieve the goal which access data, recognize its relevance to theory and formulate questions to ask of data (inquiry). Then, they analyzed it (analysis) by means of represent evidence (distinct from theory), make comparisons and seek and detect patterns. After that they show something they know and how do they know it with draw justified claims, reject unjustified claims and acknowledge indeterminate claims (inference). Later on, they would present their information or reasons for sharing with the others to confirm their own findings (argument), Besides, they might modify their own information which didn't have sufficient reasons or evidence for confirmation.

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The Development Knowledge Construction Model Based on Constructivist Theories to Support Ill-Structured Problem Solving Process of Industrial Education and Technology Students.

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Abstract

This research was aimed to develop the knowledge construction model based on the constructivist theories to support ill-structured problem solving process of industrial education and technology students. The target group was 40 third-year undergraduate students within the first semester of the academic year 2009 in the Department of Educational Communications and Technology, faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. Research methodology is developmental research in phase I conducted as the following stages: 1) study the principles and theories, 2) exploring the context concerning, 3) synthesizing framework of theories, 4) design and development the model, and 5) evaluation of model efficiency.

The results of this research in phase I found that the knowledge construction model based on the constructivist theories to support ill-structured problem solving process of industrial education and technology students consisted of following essentials: 1) ill-structured problems, 2) data bank for problem solving, 3) the support center of excellence for ill-structured problem solving, 4) cognitive tools for ill-structured problem solving, 5) ill-structured problem solving process transfer center by related cases,　　6) sharing and social collaboration for problem solving, 7) consulting and knowledge center by experts,　8) scaffolding and cognitive strategies for ill-structured problem solving, and 9) coaching. The results from the study of model efficiency showed that the model was effective on production, using context, learners' opinions, intelligence quotient of learners, and learning achievement aspects.

Keywords: Ill-Structured Problem Solving Process / Constructivist Theories / Knowledge Construction.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the context of global education in learning management has changed from the traditional teacher centered methods of teaching, and only emphasized on transferring of information from teachers to learners into the constructivist learning environmental management. In order to learner is a knowledge construction, they could encounter with the resource of knowledge from many existing environment (rich environment) by emphasis on their roles , and lead the real world or their work places to use in learning condition. As a result, learners can transfer contents into authentic context. (Jonassen, 1997; Scott Grabinger, 1998)

As considering to Thai contextual educational management, knowledge construction based on the constructivist theories conform to educational management which is legislated Thai National Education Act, especially educational management process. This process will focus on enhancing teachers to accommodate learning environment of media and facilitate the learners to initiate learning style, knowledge, skills, thinking process, management of situational encounter, and transferring of knowledge to prevent and solve problems.

Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi has one of important missions is to produce the bachelors for working and training in the industries focusing on solving problems in the industrial sector of the country , especially training which is aimed at developing knowledge, skills , and attitudes of industrial personnel. Characteristics desired of graduates in this filed must have abilities to analyze the problems and needs toward trainings. Moreover, they must be able to analyze the problem conditions, causes, and solutions of training. (Verapan Sitthipong, 1996)

For the authentic context in industrial training operations, these were often happened the problems, especially the undefined- exact causes problems or multiple-causes problems. These problems have to use several problem-solving methods such as low-quality production problem that may consist of these reasons such as lacking of skills of employees, persecution of employees , damaged equipments and incorrect maintenance of machineries, lacking of working morals of employees ,and unfavorable working system All the problems are the ill-structured problems. (Jonassen, 1997)

As all above reasons about the context of global education in teaching and learning management which emphasize on the learners' knowledge construction roles, and the mission of Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology that focus on teaching and learning for enhancing abilities in solving ill-structured problems, the researcher developed knowledge construction model based on constructivist theories to support ill-structured problem solving process. The researcher designed problem situations according with contexts of industrial trainings to activate the intellectual disequilibrium based on constructivist theories, and support the intellectual balancing of learners by organizing different essentials advancing knowledge construction and solving ill-structured problems.

The findings from this research would be the way to do research on knowledge construction and solving ill-structured problems. Besides, this developed model can be applied to the management of teaching and learning, training in closer context emphasizing on knowledge construction and solving ill-structured problems both in the institutions and personnel training in organizations.

OBJECTIVE

To design and develop knowledge construction model based on constructivist theories to support ill-structured problem solving process of industrial education and technology students.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is developmental research Type II (Richey, RC and Klein JD, 2007) including 3 phase, these are; phase 1: model development, phase 2: model validation, and phase 3: model use. This report is in phase 1 was aimed to design and develop models with document analysis and contextual conditions as following steps

Research in phase 1: Model development includes the following steps

Step 1: Literature review

This step was to study and analysis principles, theories, and research related with creation of knowledge based on constructivist theories. Then, it was studying the contextual basic of model development, important variables that encourage the learners to create ill-structured problem solving process, media theories, and pedagogy for basic of research.

Step 2: Development of theoretical framework

For this step, development of theoretical framework by the theory, principles, research, and related context which became the basis of theoretical framework synthesis were used. After researcher offered this framework to the advisor together with tools; the record of review and analysis document, editing based on feedback was the next step to be done.

Step 3: Contextual study of learners

This was the step of studying how to solve problems of students. Solving multiple cases was to study the original basic of learners' former problems. Next step was to design model from the results of contextual study.

Step 4: Contextual study of industrial problem

For this step, researcher studied about the authentic problem or work place by studying the information in the factory, and interviewed people involved in manufacturing wooden toys to use for creating the problem situations.

Step 5: Synthesis the designing framework

This was the step of synthesis of the designing framework based on theoretical framework including results from contextual study of learners and industrial problem. Saving the synthesis designing framework in design the record was the next step. Researcher would offer to the advisors for comment then edited based on feedback.

Step 6: Creating the learning environment on network

Creating the learning environment through the network based on foundation of creating designing framework was adopted.

Step 7: Submitting learning environment on web to the advisors

It was the step of submitting learning environment on web to the advisors to check validation of the model, media attributions, media symbol system, and the design of learning environment. After that, researcher had to edit this learning environment based on feedback.

Step 8: Presenting the learning environment on web to the experts

Researcher presented the learning environment on web to the experts for assessment the validation of model. This step evaluates the output for checking the quality of the model as following details

- *To evaluate validation of the content*
  It was to examine the accuracy of the content of necessary on the industrial with tools; open-end question assessments of content then it was evaluated by 3 experts in content**.** After finishing evaluation, researcher edited the content based on feedback**.**

- *To evaluate the design of the model based on constructivist theories to support   ill-structured problem solving process*
  It was evaluated with open-end question assessments of design by 3 experts in instructional design then edited based on feedback.

- *To evaluate media and presentation for checking the media quality on the network*
   It was evaluated with open-end question assessments of media and presentation by 3 experts in educational technology then edited based on feedback.

Step 9: Testing of learning environment on web to try out the context

The final step was testing of learning environment on web to try out the context to evaluate and improve model completely. Next, researcher divided the 40 students and provided learning environment on web for them. Moreover, the students were assigned to study on web into 3 times for 4 hours per each time during 6 - July 20, 2552.Next step was summarizing lessons between researchers and students in the end of every hour. In this step try out can be evaluated as follows

- *To evaluate the ill-structured problem solving*
  It was an evaluation from the answers of tasks, students' learning, depth interview with talking about the issues of ill-structured problem solving process according to the concept of Jonassen (1997). Besides, researcher analyzed information by summarizing, and interpretation from the answers of tasks, students' learning, information from depth interview.

- *To evaluate learning achievement*
  It was to evaluate the scores from learning achievement test with the statistic average, percentage, and deviation values. Then, considering the criteria of percentage of students' scores after studying which is 70 percent of full score has done.

- *To evaluate learners' opinions through model*
  This step was the evaluation of learners' opinions through model from answering of 3 topics; content, learning on web, and design, which support ill-structured problem solving including the writing of comment or other suggestion. After that it was the analysis information by summarizing, and interpretation from the answers of students' opinion assessment and information from interview.

All information will be improved and planed for the operations in the next step

RESEARCH RESULTS

Design and development of knowledge construction model based on constructivist theories in this study would be presented into two parts as following details.

1. Element of knowledge construction model based on constructivist theories, which there are 9 elements as followings.

Element 1: Ill-Structured Problems

Knowledge construction based on constructivist uses problem situations that occur in the context of the industrial training to encourage the students to reach the intellectual disequilibrium and intellectual equilibrium by assimilation or accommodation. In the industrial production units, ill-structured problems were found in every day of working. The production processes have involved many factors such as employee, machineries, materials, money, and management. Those factors are all interrelated. Therefore, industrial problems are the multiple problems which have many constraints for resolution, or requirements that must be accommodated.

For this result, it must use a variety of problem solving processes. Learners need to build multiple problem spaces in the ill-structured problems, so in this design was provided the context of the problems which is real world problems or work place in the industry. Cognitive flexibility theory (Spiro et al., 1987; Spiro et al., 1988) will be used in presentation of contextual problems as multiple cases using hyper text and hyper media to synchronize various contexts that learners must understand and interpret of those contexts. In the presentation of multiple cases learners need to compare and contrast the similarities and differences between cases. (Jacobson, 1990).

Element 2: Data bank for problem solving

Data bank for problem solving provides a variety of learning resources to associated problems toward troubleshooting from the learners. Therefore, preparing of learning resources help learners to connect the knowledge to information from memory. This method supports the intellectual equilibrium, constructing arguments, and articulating personal beliefs to selecting the best solution in the process for ill-structured problem solving (Jonassen, 1997).

Providing information is necessary for problem solving because the students will use the information to decision-making and justify the chosen solution. There are various methods in the ill-structured problem solving. Each learner may decide different problem solving. Thus, taking the best of reliable evidence to confirm claims by their own assumptions, beliefs, thoughts, or constructing arguments. Inconsonant thoughts of them will cease disputes and lead to selecting the best solution (Jonassen, 1997).

Design can be available in both print media such as photos, text books, journal and electronic media such as CD-ROM, multimedia. Related links provide relevant information and the search engine to search the internet.

Element 3: The support center of excellence for ill-structured problem solving.

It is a center focused on providing excellence in the ill-structured problem solving process for learners. It was designed by presenting problems as multiple cases which let the learners to practice into the small cases with the best practice from the experience of experts as a model, and cognitive apprenticeship theory (Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989). From the result of design, it will activate the characteristics of tasks as follows.

- *Supporting unit task for learners' excellence in articulate problem space, and the task of monitoring and evaluation this process.*

    For this task, the learners will be encouraged to find out the actual problems by creating multiple representations or understandings of the problems. Then, giving experiences of experts in the articulate problem space and monitoring and evaluation process to synthesize conceptual models and let the learners study these strategies including train them use the strategies of monitor and evaluation this process by giving the multiple cases and assigned the mission of articulate problem space. Learners practice into small cases which there are questions for stimulation the learners to create metacognitive strategy toward creating multiple problem space.

- *Supporting unit task for learners' excellence in the identifying and clarifying, organize problems and task of monitoring and evaluation this process.*

    For this task, the learners will be encouraged to identify and clarify, organize problems by giving the experiences of the experts and key concept of identifying and clarifying alternative opinions, positions and perspectives of Stakeholders to synthesize as conceptual models, and let the learners

to use those strategies including train them to use the cognitive tools to identify and clarify, organize the problems by giving the multiple cases and assigned the mission of identifying and clarifying, organize problems. Learners practice in multiple cases that there are questions for stimulation the learners to create monitoring and evaluation in this process.

- *Supporting unit task for learners' excellence in searching for the cause of the problems and the task of monitoring and evaluation this process.*

For this task, learners will be encouraged to search the cause of problems and they can associate relationships and compare the differences of each reason to create multiple representations to solve the problems by giving the experiences of experts to synthesize as conceptual models , and let the learners to use those strategies including train them to use cognitive tools to search the cause of problems by giving the multiple cases and assigned the mission of alternative solutions with constructing arguments and articulating personal beliefs. Learners practice in multiple cases that there are questions for stimulation the learners to create monitoring and evaluation this process.

- *Supporting unit task for learners' excellence in generating possible problem solutions and the task of monitoring and evaluation this process.*

For this task, learners will be encouraged to generate possible problem solutions. Learners have to create multiple representations and choose the way to solve problems in any case to alternative solutions by giving the experiences of experts to synthesize as conceptual models and let the learners to use those strategies including train them to use cognitive tools in monitoring and evaluation this process by giving the multiple cases and assigned the mission of articulate problem space. Learners practice in multiple cases that there are questions for stimulation the learners to create monitoring and evaluation this process.

- *Supporting unit task for learners' excellence in constructing arguments and the task of monitoring and evaluation process.*

In the process of ill-structured problem solving, each learner may decide different methods of problem solving. Therefore, showing the best evidence to confirm claims the assumptions following their beliefs, thoughts, or constructing arguments will terminate the argument and lead to selecting the best solution (Jonassen, 1997). For this task, learners will be encouraged to create constructing arguments by giving the experiences of experts to synthesize as conceptual models and let the learners to use those strategies including train them to use argumentation tools in constructing arguments by giving the multiple cases and assigned the mission of alternative solutions by constructing arguments and articulating personal beliefs. Learners practice in multiple cases that there are questions for stimulation the learners to create monitoring and evaluation this process.

Element 4: Cognitive tools for ill-structured problem solving

It is an important element to support the process of ill-structured problem solving which consists of

- *Tools for supporting problem representation*

  Semantic network is cognitive tool used to create a mental representation can learn through problem space. Semantic network will be used to create the mental representation through problem space. Moreover, semantic network will be applied to create problem mapping by connecting internal representation and external representation (Jonassen, 2003). Semantic network will be used to identify and clarify, organize programs such as Mind Manager program.

- *Tools for supporting argumentation*

  There are many processes of ill-structured problem solving. Sometimes, learners may have different ideas to solve problems. Good problem solving was presented by debating, and giving reasons from learners more than giving agreement with any alternative options using the best evidence to confirm claims supporting their ideas (Voss, 1988). From the principles, they can use argument mapping table, and argumentation schemes as supporting tools for argumentation.

- *Communication Tools*

  Communication tools from OLEs model of Hannafin (1994**)** will encourage learners to exchange knowledge between students, teachers, and experts who live in different locations or at different times. In the other ways, it may be the cooperation between people who do activities together in groups. They require decisions and interacting with friends for learning sharing. Electronic mail, web-board, chat are the selected tools.

- *Supporting tools for social supports from CLEs model of Jonassen (1997)*

  These tools support communities of learners and support collaborative problem solving within the group of learners in the same place or are in remote locations. The researcher has led this principle to design by providing social support from experts, and relevant knowledgeable people. If learners need more consulting, researcher has put an E-mail for learners to be able to contact the specialists and supported communities of learners by providing Weblog to share learning together.

Element 5: Ill-structured problem solving process transfer center by related cases

This element was adopted from the basic of constructivist learning environments (CLEs) design. Jonassen (1999) has suggested that comprehension of each problem can activate experiences of those problems, and conduce to creating mental model of problem solving.   If learners have little experience, it is difficult to resolve this problem. Therefore, this model is designed by providing access

to experience related with problems. The adoption of experience and process, which experts use to solve real problems in the industry filed to be the related cases. In this case, learners can store information as declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge in cognitive schema.

Transferring procedural knowledge of ill-structured problem solving process use similar in the process of related cases, which are the procedural knowledge .It transfers to the new problem situation. There must be procedural overlap between procedural transferring. If the past experience of the related cases, which are procedural knowledge of learners, are similar to processes in the new task.

Transferring of declarative knowledge will be very useful if learners search and utilize from schemata by comparing the relationship between the new problem situation and cognitive schemata which is similar to the new problem situation. Learners must retrieve integration by taking out of existing knowledge such as content, rules, and theories. Then, they must map that knowledge with the problem situation, which is similar to the existing knowledge, to develop other skills in solving problems.

Element 6: Sharing and social collaboration for problem solving

This is elements that support the exchange of multiple ideas in problem solving and the development of conceptual understanding of learning, which derive from sharing of multiple ideas within groups, while learners' exchange of learning by discussion, or dissertation, and exchange various ideas of individual. In the process of ill-structured problem solving is a required process for providing collaborative solution. All communications cause multiple representations (Jonassen, 1997). The design will adopt from features of computer networks to support social collaboration, which allow chatting via computer networks such as E-mail, web board, chat, and weblog.

Element 7: Consulting and knowledge center by experts

Some problems in the industry are the ill-structured problems. Learners must try to understand the nature and constraints of the problems, the decision, and generate possible problem solutions. If learners have little experience, it is difficult to resolve. Thus, this model is designed to be reachable to relevant experience of problems. Being the sharing of knowledge and experience of the experts transferring to learners, the design provides information from viewpoint. Principles in problem solving of industrial experts such as senior engineers, manager of production department, and general manager by offering principles and perspectives as conceptual model. If learners need some more advice, researcher has already put an e-mail, web board, chat for learner communication with experts.

Element 8: Scaffolding and cognitive strategies for ill-structured problem solving

This element based on Vygotsky's Social Constructivism, which believes that if the students are in the lower Zone of proximal development, they could not learn by themselves. Therefore, they need to be helped by scaffolding supporting their problem solving, or learning when they are unable to do the tasks. Learning was designed to be the way to self-success. In this study, scaffolding was established from the principles of Hanafin (1999) as following details.

- *Conceptual scaffolding*

    Conceptual scaffolding   is an assistance base, designed to support learners in creating concept for searching the actual problem, generating possible problem solutions, constructing argument, and monitoring and evaluation.

- *Metacognition scaffolding*

    Metacognition scaffolding is an assistance base that supports the students to plan problem solving, evaluate options for problem solving, and identify chosen problem solving.

- *Procedural scaffolding*

    Procedural scaffolding is assistance base that recommend processes of using resources and tools in the developed learning environment.

- *Strategic scaffolding*

    Strategic scaffolding is the assistance base that focuses on the useful optional questions. This scaffolding will support critical thinking, strategic planning, strategic decision making during learning to find out the actual problem, generating possible problem solutions, constructing arguments, and monitoring and evaluation.

Element 9: Coaching

From ill-structured problem solving, learners possibly get misconceptions or are in the lower Zone of proximal development. As a result, they could not do their own tasks. They need to be guided including observation of practice and provide supports, guidance, and reflect of learners' tasks. If they cannot always be fulfilled by scaffolding, teachers' roles are important by changing from knowledge transferring to be coaching. In addition, a good coach will encourage and motivate learners to analyze the process of self-reflective thinking. Also, coach was able to guide students to use the scaffolding and other elements in this model.

2. The model efficiency assessment

The efficiency assessment of learning environment on network, adopted from the concept of Sumalee Chaijarean (2003), was found that

(1) Evaluation of productivity, which was divided into content, the model design of the learning environment on network, and assessment, was appropriate. (2) Evaluation of using context was found that using group of three was suitable (3) Assessment of learners' opinions effected learning environment, which was found that supporting and development of learners to create the ill-structured problem solving process, and giving opportunities to create their own knowledge (4) Evaluation of learning achievement of learners, which was found that there were 70% of qualified students.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Findings from this research are the learning environment model consists of 9 important elements. From the opinion assessment of students on the learning environment model on network, found that it encourage and develop the learners to create the ill-structured problem solving process and give opportunities to create their own knowledge. The result of this study is probably caused by design learning environment model since the design of problem situations using cognitive flexibility theory (Spiro et al., 1987; Spiro et al., 1988) That lead the students to realize the multiple problem spaces, which learners need to compare and contrast the similarities and differences between cases, and make multiple solutions on the information.

The resource of knowledge was designed to support information, which learners can find the answers from given problem situation. From student' opinion, she said *"From the resource of knowledge, information was organized in order for making understanding. There are related links to connect the information, so it is easy to decide the way to solve problems. According to search engine, it helps me to search information conveniently"*

In addition, design of the support center of excellence led students to practice in multiple cases by using best practice from experts. Therefore, learners can link to problem solving following learning tasks. From the learner' opinion, he said *"When I do the task of making understanding with actual problem, I can identify related and different problem. Before I choose they way to solve problem, I can understand the cause of various problem. Beside, constructing arguments can lead the strategies that experts use as the role model then I can apply these strategies to problem solving."*

Moreover, the model also encourages students to share experiences with others by adding sharing and social collaboration for problem solving in the design. Collaborative learning supporting and group work with chat room or web board, learner though that *"Chatting with others get many different perspectives in find out problems, who are the stakeholders in the problem situation?, what constraints in the problem situation are?, the cause of the problem, and problem solving. Sometimes, good ideas can be applied to problem solving."*

Including, consulting and knowledge center by experts can advise students. Experts will suggest and answer questions to the learners. It is knowledge sharing, experience of experts such as senior engineers, manager of department of production, and general manager. Thus, the empirical evidence was identified from learners' opinion, who said that *"This is a good center. There is an expert to answer and give suggestion. I get more understanding and problem solving process, especially solving the problem about people and industrial management"*

Scaffolding and cognitive strategies were recommended to suggest how to solve problems (If learners cannot do their tasks successfully). As the empirical evidence from student' opinion that *"in the first step, I am not sure how to use tools ,but after coach introduced into the procedural scaffolding to study the <u>varied</u> elements in the learning environment and illustrate the functions of each center. This allows access to resources well. I have ever entered to assistance base to study more with complicated content. I like the strategies of decision making for problem solving."*

There is coaching for giving suggestion, observation and implementation, and guides for learners' task as the empirical evidence from the student *"sometimes, problems occur while I am doing tasks. I don't know how to continue. However, coach can help and suggest what to do such as telling me to visit procedural scaffolding to study the elements in the learning environment. There are extra questions to find more answers; for example, how do you know which one is the suitable decision? or why did you choose this problem solving process."*.

From all empirical evidences and findings in this study, researcher can summary that learning by learning environmental model on network encourage the students to create ill-structured problem solving process , and learning achievement of students through learning achievement assessment which value 70% of qualified scores.

Management of learning should be considered about consistencies and contextual conditions of the learners, academy, and appropriate subject. The study of mechanisms in ill structured problem solving process of learners including other affected factors such as society, economy, education, etc., should be studied in the future to design and develop the model of learning environment on network related with the Thai contextual conditions.

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The Development of Problem Solving Ability among High School Students

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Abstract

The purposes of the study were to investigate students' problems solving abilities on Element and Compound Properties by comparing and investigate students' learning achievement before and after learning procedures through problem- based learning which complied with real or normal instruction environment. A sampling group consisted of 42 high school students in central part of Thailand. Tools in this study were pretest and posttest, learning activities   by using problem – based learning management plan provided the efficiency in terms of knowledge, procedure skills, learning behaviors ,learning with media with observation and problem solving ability together with evaluation form and interviewing. For analyzing qualitative data with sharing idea, the students expressed their positive attitudes that the knowledge and the experiences from problem- based learning with solving abilities and the science procedural skills could be used in daily life. Also, it could be used for self- study in various subjects especially on science subjects. Team working and learning were measured through interviewing and observation form which all data were analyzed and criticized about the situations in order to determine whether there were problems and obstacles or not. For quantitative data came from evaluation form on problem solving abilities and learning achievement test analyzed by using SPSS with mean, standard deviation and t-test. In conclusion, the problem- based learning could help students to know the procedures, steps and understand how to learn, they developed themselves in terms of knowledge, solving abilities, team learning and critical thinking with the desired characteristics along with the scientific strategies for having effective learning capabilities at a high level.

Keywords; Problem Solving Abilities, Problem- based Learning

1. INTRODUCTION

The instruction in science education at the present moment has been the main responsibility of IPST (The Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology) which design the courses, objectives, learning materials as well as instructional approach in order that learners could learn and achieve the desired goal. As the main organization responsible for education in science and technology, IPST has always been emphasizing the development of instruction in science and technology and develop the courses so as to keep up with the recent advances in science and technology. Learners are now encouraged to think, observe, research, experiment and solve the problems by themselves. This is the properties of a highly efficient researcher in a learner. The important thing is "Learners think, do, and solve the problem by themselves", in other words, learners think in a scientific manner. In many circumstances, however, instruction in science and technology still fails due to various factors like passive learners, unsuitable learning materials and inexperienced instructors. There are only a few research works on the development of practical instruction so that it could be used in a normal circumstance [1]. Although many institutes support instruction in science and technology and have developed the courses so many times, the standards of basic education and key point indicators for learners are still at the low level. ONESQA (The office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment) wrote an evaluation report on the standards of National Education Quality in A.C 2005 and found that in all basic education schools, the 4th standard which reads "Learners have capabilities to think, analyze, synthesize, criticize, create new ideas, reflect and envision" yielded 9.7%. The 5th standard which reads "Learners have knowledge and skills essential to the curriculum" yielded 11.4% [2]. Sriboonyanon School located at Amphur Muang, Nonthaburi, which was under the control of OBEC (Office of the Basic Education Commission) Region 1 in the academic year of A.C2006, focused on the development of learners in accordance with the 4th and the 5th standards. The things which could be developed were various instructions or learning approach and teaching style which comply with education reform. The heart of education was to teach students to think with reasons and use the ideas to analyze the data in the future.

If the development of a country is considered as serious, the first priority is the development of human resources. The quality must be based on education. The desired education must bring knowledge, idea,

skill and attitude to life. Learners should know themselves, know their lives, know the environment in which they live, and apply what they know to solve the problem as well as improve their lives in accordance with the nature. In organizing the basic education to comply with the National Education Act B.E. 2542, Section 24 states that the objective of Problem-Based Learning are to provide learners with problem solving process, authentic experience and practical work so that learners have basic skills to practice analysis skill, management and various situation. Problem-solving skill plays an important role in the development of life. This is in accord with Basic Education Curriculum B.E. 2544 with the aim that learners learn scientific process to form bodies of knowledge. Learners have many activities in group and individually. Instructors have a role to plan and manage learning, encourage and help learners to learn all their life. This way, learners will become complete in their body and mind in emotional and societal contexts and they can live happily, independently and creatively with others. In order to make the best use of science and technology, science is the background of other disciplines and plays an important role from kindergarten to graduate level in the worldwide scale.

The changes in education in the globalization era take place under the dramatic changes in economics, politics, technology and culture. This era is also referred to as "Knowledge-based Society" where the education is the most recognized factor. Learning by rote focusing on the contents given by the teachers could not develop the learners in all aspects. Hence, the man could not keep up with the speed of society changes. The people responsible for the instruction, therefore, should ask themselves: To what extent does their instruction comply with the desired quality and the environment of Thai society? The education reform, which is learner-based learning and focuses on the development of a learner in every aspect—namely, good in virtue, good at learning, and good at living—is now called and known as PBL or Problem-based Learning. This is an instruction which depends on Student-centered Learning as an approach in the development of education quality. It is widely known and used in many institutes worldwide [3].

Problem-based Learning (PBL) focuses on the following basics: 1) A problem is raised to stimulate learning; 2) There is active participation; 3) Learners play the main part in activities to develop thinking skills and solve real problems; 4) Learners use their abilities to collect data and conceptualize; 5) Learning atmosphere is meaningful and yields good interaction; 6) Learners have opportunities to broaden their knowledge and solve problems step by step (problem definition, hypothesis, experiment and result summary). In real life, people think to solve problems all the time. Problem-solving thinkers could encounter the changes in society [4].

Chemistry is a branch of science education. The objectives are the same as other branches of science. Instruction in chemistry focuses on experiments and thinking process because knowledge comes from science basics and knowledge acquisition by scientific approach in order to understand the principles in chemistry. Chemistry also introduces scientific method through experiment, discussion and conceptualization. Therefore, the instructor should provide learning activities which show the relationship between the contents so that learners could integrate the knowledge. In this way, learners not only know the contents but also understand how the knowledge is formed.

There are many factors affecting learning achievement, both direct and indirect. One factor which could be solved is the factor in terms of instruction management. Therefore, the instruction management should be varied to develop the instruction approach. The instructors could and should do this so that the instruction in chemistry is more effective. According to the above-mentioned rationale, the researchers were interested in studying and developing Problem-based Learning on chemistry subject entitled "Element and Compound Properties" in accordance with Basic Education Curriculum B.E. 2544 so that it yields the most benefit to students.

2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

2.1 To create the problem-based learning management plan entitled "Element and Compound Properties"

2.2 To study students' solving ability by using the evaluation form on "Element and Compound Properties"

2.3 To compare the students' learning achievement before and after studying the problem-based learning lesson on "Element and Compound Properties"

3. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.1 In the problem-based learning on Element and Compound Properties, the learning management plan is suitable and beneficial for the development of learners' learning.

3.2 The students who are taught with the problem-based learning on Element and Compound Properties have abilities to solve problems at the high level and their learning achievement after studying is higher than the one before studying.

4. POPULATION AND SAMPLING GROUP

4.1.1 The population for this research consisted of all 135 high school students at Sriboonyanon School located at Amphur Muang, Nonthaburi, under the control of OBEC Region 1.

4.1.2 Sampling group was composed of 42 high school students in 1 classroom in the second semester of the academic year at Sriboonyanon School located at Amphur Muang, Nonthaburi, under the control of OBEC Region 1. They were chosen by using purposive sampling method.

5. EXPECTED OUTCOMES

The expected outcomes for this research are as follows:

5.1 There will be an approach in organizing lessons on chemistry by using problem-based learning which complies with real or normal instruction environment. Instructors could use PBL to organize learning so as to develop high-level thinking process for high school students in the future.

5.2 There will be an understanding of students' problem solving ability and a way to develop a scientific problem solving thinking process.

5.3 There will be a way to develop the efficiency in organizing students' learning process in the subjects related to science. This could be applied in other science classes like biology, physics, physical science, high school science and classes other than science.

6. RESEARCH TOOLS

6.1 Learning management plan entitled "Element and Compound Properties"

6.2 Interview form on problem-based learning

6.3 Evaluation form on problem solving ability

6.4 Learning achievement test on "Element and Compound Properties"

6.5 Observation during activities

7. TOOL QUALITY VERIFICATION

*LEARNING MANAGEMENT PLAN ON PROBLEM SOLVING

1) Learning management plan was checked the accuracy of the contents, expected learning outcomes, activities and evaluation.

2) Learning management plan was revised along with the guidance given by experts.

3) Learning plan was reviewed by experts in learning activities and contents on Element and Compound Properties.

4) Learning management plan which was reviewed by experts in learning activities and content was corrected and tested with the sampling group.

*INTERVIEW FORM ON PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

1) The developed interview form was proposed to experts to check, consider and give suggestions.

2) The interview form was corrected and revised along with the guidance given by experts and then was used in the field.

*EVALUATION FORM ON PROBLEM SOLVING ABILITY

1) The developed evaluation form on problem solving ability was proposed to experts to verify the appropriateness.

2) The developed evaluation on problem solving ability which was verified by the experts was used with the sampling group. The criteria for the score were as follow:

The highest	yields	5	points
High	yields	4	points
Moderate	yields	3	points
Low	yields	2	points
The lowest	yields	1	point

The scores were given during the activities in each learning management plan and all scores were summed up to find out the average score to evaluate the problem solving ability as follow:

The highest	ranges between	4.50-5.00	points
High	ranges between	3.50-4.49	points
Moderate	ranges between	2.50-3.49	points
Low	ranges between	1.50-2.49	points
The lowest	ranges between	1.00-1.49	points

*LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT TEST

1) The developed learning achievement test was proposed to experts to examine whether the test complies with the learning standards and it covers all the contents or not. The test was then revised in accord with the suggestions.

2) The developed learning achievement and the evaluation form were proposed to experts to evaluate IOC (Index of Item-Objective Congruence) and test validity as follow:

        1   point for any item with validity

        0   point for any item with no certainty that it is valid

        -1   point for any item with certainty that it is not valid

3) The test with 40 items which was approved by the experts and yielded the value between 0.80-1.00 was used with the sampling group.

8. DATA COLLECTION

8.1 Orientation was held for 42 high school students in class 2 in the second semester of the academic year B.E. 2549 at Sriboonyanon School located at Amphur Muang, Nonthaburi, under the control of OBEC Region 1. Directions and agreements were discussed about Problem-based Learning on Element and Compound Properties.

8.2 Before the treatment, the researchers had the sampling group take pre-test with the learning achievement test which the researchers developed. Duration was 50 minutes for 40 questions.

8.3 Learning activities were held using Problem-based Learning on Element and Compound Properties. Duration was 27 hours for 9 learning management plans as follow:

A. Preparation: The students were given guidance and equipment 1 day before the real treatment in order that they were ready for the activities.

B. Instruction: Learning management plans about PBL on Element and Compound Properties were used so that the students could create their project under the agreements by the group.

8.4 Learning behaviors were evaluated during each learning management plan. The tool used was evaluation form on problem solving ability.

8.5 Post-test was given after the activities for PBL on Chemistry. The tool used was the learning achievement test which was used during the pre-test with 40 questions.

8.5 Observation through the process.

9. DATA ANALYSIS

9.1 Qualitative data came from learning management plans and interview form and also with observation. The data were analyzed, criticized and discussed about the situations in order to determine whether there were problems and obstacles or not. The results were used as a way to develop the next learning management plan.

9.2 Quantitative data came from evaluation form on problem solving ability and learning achievement test. The differences of the mean score were analyzed using SPSS (Statistic Package for Social Sciences) application. The procedure was as follow [5]:

9.2.1 The average score ($\bar{x}$) and the standard deviation (S.D.) were derived from the evaluation on problem solving ability and the learning achievement test.

9.2.2 The validity of the learning achievement test was found using the index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC).

9.2.3 The reliability of the whole learning achievement test was found using KR-20 (Kuder Richardson-20).

9.2.4 The statistics used to test the hypothesis was t-test (Dependent Samples).

10. RESEARCH SUMMARY

10.1 The results from using learning management plan on Element and Compound Properties were explained using learning management plan 1 and learning management plan 9 as examples.

Learning management plan 1 for Element and Compound Properties (Period 2-3):

> 1) Before the instruction, most students did not know what metal chloride is and could not identify the different properties of metal and non-metal chlorides.

> 2) Students lacked scientific process skills such as defining problems or problems were unclear. Most students were not familiar with this approach; they did not dare to express their opinion and discuss in front of their class. Their presentation was out of order. Some students were absent-minded and talked whereas others were enthusiastic to solve the problems by themselves.

> 3) Students expressed their opinions in classroom and solved the problems in group. They discussed and shared leadership-follower roles. They also summarized together.

> 4) Instructors used media such as video or CAI to help students build up their bodies of knowledge.

Learning management plan 9 for Element and Compound Properties

1) Before the instruction, students could tell the properties of some elements in the Periodic Table. When faced with various elements, students got confused.

2) These activities were aimed to give prediction skill as a scientific method which was essential and widely used in their daily life to students.

3) Students paid attention and showed enthusiasm during the activities. They could tell the position of elements in the Periodic Table, for example, valence electron of element, reaction of elements, metal, spectrum. Some elements needed no experiment.

4) According to observation, students could have unity due to the fact that they could work together in groups and their reasoning and thinking skills were enhanced.

It could be concluded that before using learning management plan about Problem-based Learning, the students did not understand PBL. When they practiced more activities, they knew the procedure, the steps and understood how to learn. The data survey before the PBL showed the information on students concerning their basic knowledge and this was used as a way to develop such instruction approaches like learning in group and self simulation.

After using learning management plan about PBL, the students could develop themselves in terms of knowledge, ability, opinion and principle. They could discuss, give a presentation and do activities like comparing the pro and con of a situation. As for the process skill, they could work in group step by step. They could search for information from other resources. As for the desired characteristics, they

showed interest and worked together. They could express their opinion, listen attentively, finish their work in time and show responsibility.

The benefits from Problem-based Learning after the 9 learning management plans after we used interview form with students showed that the students could solve the real problems. They could think by themselves. They analyzed and understood the origin of the problems as well as how to solve the problem. They could work in group to think and solve the problems. They planned their work and did activities by themselves. This means that Problem-based Learning could develop students in learning, knowledge, process skills and desired characteristics along with 13 scientific strategies for problem solving to be used in daily life.

10.2 The results from evaluation on problem solving ability according to evaluation form for PBL on Element and Compound Properties were that the average score ($\bar{x}$) was 4.48 and the Standard Deviation (S.D.) was 0.27. This means it was at the high level.

10.3 The learning achievement of the students before and after the Problem-based Learning on Element and Compound Properties were different in that the learning achievement after the treatment was higher with a statistical significance at.05 level.

11. DISCUSSIONS

The research results could be discussed as follow:

11.1 Methods for Problem-based Learning on Element and Compound Properties comply with the concept given by Wattanaporn Ra-ngabtook [6] as follow:

1) Basic Education Curriculum B.E. 2544, its objectives, its structure, learning contents and standards for the sciences were reviewed.

2) Instructional approaches and activities for sciences, expected outcomes after learning, content scopes and supplementary lessons on chemistry for high school students were reviewed.

3) Theories, principles and concepts concerning instructional approach called Problem-based Learning were reviewed.

4) Literature was reviewed to analyze the learning essence for Element and Compound Properties.

5) Procedure to write learning management plan was reviewed and equipment for 9 learning management plans was developed.

6) Learning management plans for Element and Compound Properties were developed. Each plan consisted of the following topics: main contents, expected outcomes after learning, learning contents, learning procedure, media/resources, evaluation method and learning log.

7) Instructional approach is an important part to help students learn and the steps are given below:

7.1) Introduction to the lesson: this is aimed to build an interesting atmosphere for students so that they are eager to learn. The media is widely used like images, real materials, videos, questions, discussions and games.

7.2) Instruction: the instructor let the students learn how to solve problems. In each problem there are titles, activities to do and group of activities. The instructor will guide, encourage and help the students learn.

7.3) Practice and Experiment (Some learning management plans do not have this step): It consists of discussion before the experiment which is to define problem, hypothesize, plan how to solve or do experiment, collect data and summarize.

7.4) Summarization: The instructor and the students discuss together to reach a conclusion which complies with the learning contents in that lesson.

7.5) Evaluation and Assessment: The evaluation was used to evaluate problem solving ability, Problem-based Learning, group activities, procedure, conceptualization, scientific methods and creativity. This idea complies with Preeya Chantrasittiwet [7].

11.2 The results concerning problem solving ability according to the evaluation form for PBL on Element and Compound Properties were at the high level. The average score ($\bar{x}$) was 4.48 and the standard deviation (S.D.) was 0.27. This is because Problem-based Learning on chemistry complies with the scientific methods suggested by Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development [1] B.C2544. This is one important thing which could help learners learn in accord with their body, intellect, emotion, spirit and socialization. The learners could learn step by step and participate in real practice. The learners also find and build up their bodies of knowledge from various resources under the guidance of the instructors. If students learn from their experience, participate in real practice and have chance to solve problems by numerous methods, they will certainly use their previous experience as well as scientific methods to solve the problems they face. The knowledge from various resources will make learners able to think and remember for a long time. It could be seen that students know more and understand more dimensions of problem solving. Interaction with others will also help learners build up bodies of knowledge together by sharing opinions. The students could learn and broaden their viewpoints, thus.

11.3 The learning achievements of students before and after the treatment showed statistically significant difference at.05 level. The learning achievement after the treatment is higher than the one before the treatment. This is because Problem-Based Learning on Element and Compound Properties is developed step by step. The lesson begins from easy contents to difficult ones. It could then be seen that the development of PBL on chemistry helps students gain more learning achievement after the treatment.

12. SUGGESTIONS

12.1 SUGGESTIONS FOR MAKING USE OF RESEARCH RESULTS

1) The contents to be used in Problem-Based Learning should be related to the daily life of students so that the students could express their opinions in a wide and various ways.

2) The instructor should encourage students to express their opinion and suggest presentation techniques to reach a conclusion step by step.

3) There should be more learning resources for learners so that they could learn by themselves, especially animated media.

4) Problem-based Learning is intended to help students think and decide by themselves. Therefore, the instructor should not tell answers immediately until the students write their experiment results or finish their experiment. The instructor should give suggestions and additional knowledge only after the experiment.

5) Problem-based Learning is suitable for science project because each step in each lesson focuses on scientific skills essential for science project.

12.2 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1) The Problem-based Learning management plan on Element and Compound Properties should be developed from time to time.

2) The Problem-based Learning management plan should be used with students at higher level in order to compare the research results.

3) Computer-assisted Instruction lesson should be developed in accord with Problem-based Learning on chemistry and other science subjects like general sciences, biology, physical sciences and physics.

4) Problem-based Learning could be used with other subjects besides sciences in order that the research results cover wider areas and could be used to integrate many learning lessons.

5) More participants are required for the research like chemistry instructors in high school to help plan learning management plan, observe student's behaviors and express their opinions during the lesson.

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Quality of Teaching in Indian Schools: An analysis

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Abstract

India has one of the largest education systems of the world, but it has proved to be inadequate to meet the demands of the people. Since school system is a feeder mechanism for higher education, its quality is important. There has been impressive progress of school system, but, its quality remains questionable. Major objective of this paper is to make an analytical assessment of the quality of teaching in terms of student learning and teacher performance in schools.

Introduction

Education system in India is one of the largest in the world, both in terms of number of institutions and student enrollment. At present, there are about 1.2 million elementary schools, over 169 thousand secondary and senior secondary schools (Government of India, 2009), more than 430 universities and equivalent institutions and nearly 21000 colleges. However, this system has proved to be inadequate to cater to the educational demands of millions of people, especially those belonging to weaker sections of the society, who have developed high level of aspirations for higher and professional education. The Government has been pursuing the goal of providing free and compulsory elementary education of eight years for all children in the age-group 6-14 years. The secondary education for the age-group 14-18 years is supposed to be the weakest link in the system. At the higher education level also only about 12% of the youth in the age-group 18-25 years are enrolled.

Since school system is a feeder mechanism for colleges and universities, the quality of higher education can not be better than that of school education. The quality of education imparted in educational institutions is largely dependent on the quality of teachers engaged and pedagogical practices that go on. While there has been remarkable quantitative progress at school stage in India, the quality of education imparted has remained questionable The major objective of this paper is to make a data-based analytical assessment of the quality of teaching in Indian schools with special reference to quality and commitment of teachers and academic performance of students.

Post-Independence Policy Perspective

At the time of independence, India inherited an educational system that served only a small minority of privileged sections of the society including kings, big landlords and rich merchants/businessmen who

were close to the rulers. The Constitution of free India, which commenced in the beginning of 1950, incorporated an important provision under Article 45 stating that the state would provide by 1960 for free and compulsory education for all children until they completed the age of fourteen years. The purpose was to universalize school education of eight years for all children in the age-group 6-14 years. This goal of 'universal free and compulsory education' should have been achieved in India by 1960. But, despite strenuous efforts, the goal has been illusive and the target dates have had to be shifted ahead repeatedly.

However, the Government has reiterated its commitment to achieve the goal of UEE with social justice by passing the '86th Constitutional Amendment Act 2002' thereby making free and compulsory elementary education a 'fundamental right' of every child in the age-group 6-14 years. Under the provisions of this amendment (Article 21A) the Government 'shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such a manner as the State may, by law, determine'. Further, by re-writing the earlier Article 45 the Government promises to 'endeavor to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years'. Along with this, the Government has also introduced a new 'Fundamental Duty' through Article 51A (k) for every citizen 'who is a parent or guardian, to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years'. This constitutional amendment is an important milestone in the history of Indian education and would be followed by the Central Legislature to operationalise the Fundamental Right (Chauhan, 2009). From now onwards, the provision of free and compulsory education will become legally enforceable. It is believed that it will help the Government achieve the goal of UEE within a reasonable time in the years to come. Recently in 2009, the detailed Right to Education Bill was introduced in Parliament and passed without much debate.

Being a union of states, India has created a uniform structure of school and college education, popularly known as '10+2+3' system (Chauhan, 2009). The first 12 years constitute school education, which visualizes 10 years of general education for all children with a uniform curriculum framework followed by 2 years of further schooling in specialized alternative streams. Each of these two stages is further divided into sub-stages. The first 10 years of general education include 8 years of *elementary* education - 5 years of *primary* stage consisting of classes/grades 1-5 (for children aged 6-11 years) and 3 years of *upper primary* stage of classes *6-8* (for children aged 11-14 years), followed by 2 years of *lower secondary* (also sometimes known as high school) education. Thereafter, a child must pursue 2 years of *senior secondary* school education which provides for diversification of curricula in academic and vocational streams. Generally, a child is admitted to class 1 at the age of 6 years and is supposed to complete primary school education of 5 years at the age of 11 years. The full elementary education up to class 8 should be completed at the age of 14 years. The secondary school stage (classes 9-12) is meant for children aged 14 -18 years. This pattern is being followed uniformly in most of the states.

At the time of independence in 1947, India had a small system of school education. According to available data, total number of elementary schools was 150.000 which enrolled 12.10 million children – only about 25% of the relevant age-group 6-14 years. The enrollment of girls was about 3 million – only 25% of the total enrollment (Chauhan, 1990). There was one teacher for every group of 35 students. Secondary and Higher Education systems were still smaller and accessible only to affluent social groups.

Quantitative expansion

Immediately after independence, the native government took up the task of educational development on a priority basis and by the year 1950-51 total number of elementary and secondary schools increased to 230,400 with 23.8 million students and 751,000 teachers. This quantitative growth of education system continued with accelerated growth-rate during the last 10 Five-Year Plans (1950-2007), and at present (2006-07), there are about 1.2 million elementary and 169,000 secondary schools having enrolled 231 million children of which 46% are girls. These schools have engaged over 6.1 million teachers of which 39% are women (Govt. of India, 2009). The pupil-teacher ratio varies from

45 in primary schools to 31 in secondary schools. The gross enrollment ratio (GER) is 111 at primary stage, 74 at upper primary stage, 53 at secondary stage and 28 at senior secondary stage. The figures for girls are 3-4 points lower at all stages. The poor quality of instruction causes heavy dropout rates both at primary and upper primary stages. Of every 100 children enrolled in class 1 more than 25 leave school after class 5, the other 24 leave after class 8 and still other 13 leave after class 10. This means that only 38% of those enrolled in class 1 reach class 10 to appear in the first public examination. In the case of girls the corresponding figure is 36. The dropout rates are still higher among children belonging to scheduled castes (over 70%) and scheduled tribes (over 78%). The highest dropout rate is among the Scheduled tribe girls (about 79%). Since the total estimated population in the age-group 6–18 years is about 291 million (2008), about 60 million children are still out of school.

Students' Learning and Academic Performance

In the process of rapid quantitative expansion of school education the quality component could not receive adequate attention. Questions are being raised in all academic platforms regarding poor quality of education being offered, especially in the schools established and maintained by the government. While there have been great advances in access, there is a realization that challenges persist and many children actually leave primary school without learning the basic skills of reading and writing. Although, it is difficult to define the concept of 'quality' in the context of a complex process like education, yet it is felt that quality of teaching has significant bearing on all aspects of schooling including enrollment, motivation, level of students' readiness to learn, participation rate and learning outcomes. A glance over the examination results shows that there is about 84% transition rate from primary to upper primary stage. While pass percentage of children is 95 and 88 in classes 7 and 8, only about 50% students score 60% and above marks. But, these marks give no information about what children at various stages *can* do and what they *cannot* in terms of skills and competencies. The Baseline Achievement Survey (BAS) conducted by the NCERT in the year 2002 showed that average level of mathematics achievement receded from 58.25% in class 3 to 38.47% in class 8 (Table 1) and that of language from 63.12% to 52.45%. In science also, the achievement level came down from 50.30% for class 5 children to 40.54% for class 8 children (Govt. of India XI Plan Document, 2008).

Table 1

Students' level of achievement by subjects and classes/grades (Percent)

Classes/Grades	Mathematics	Language	Science*	Social Studies
III	58.25	63.12	---	---
V	46.51	58.57	50.30	---
VII	29.87	53.00	35.98	32.96
VIII	38.47	52.45	40.54	45.00

* Science is taught as Environmental Studies

Source: XI Five-year Plan Vol. II, MHRD, New Delhi

Another stringent national survey of learning abilities of class V students conducted by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) covering about 7000 schools, 15,000 teachers and 84,000 children selected from rural and urban areas exhibited only a marginal overall improvement in students' performance in language, mathematics and environmental science over the baseline survey

conducted in 2002. It has been shown that on the average over 30% children have not developed simple vocabulary, 50% do not know the fundamental mathematical concepts and operations. In some states these figures are still higher. Mathematics, science and language (specifically English) are the three major subject areas in which school children do not perform satisfactorily in examinations. The incidence failure is largest in these subjects. This deficiency in language and mathematics learning, which are the basic tools for acquiring higher knowledge in all fields, is a matter of grave concern.

A World Bank survey (2006) conducted on secondary school students in the Indian states of Rajasthan and Orissa, with permission of the Indian Ministry of Human Resource Development showed that international mean achievement in mathematics test was 52 percent for grade 8 students, but the average scores of children in Rajasthan and Orissa on the same test were 34 and 37 percent respectively. Similarly, the international mean of achievement was 57 percent for Grade 12 students, but the corresponding scores for Indian students were 44 and 38 percent in Rajasthan and Orissa respectively (Kingdon, 2007). Pratham, a Bombay-based NGO, has been conducting achievement surveys since 2005 on regular basis and publishing the Annual State of Education Report (ASER). So far, this NGO has brought out four annual reports in the years 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008. These reports provide very useful information not only to the children and their parents but also to decision makers. Some of the results of ASERs are summarized in Table 2 showing the general pattern school performance. The results show a comparative picture of performance of school children on various academic tasks. It is a thorough diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses in children's learning in terms of skills and competencies expected to develop at elementary school stage.

Table 2*

School Performance on selected Academic Tasks (Percentage of children failing to do the given tasks)

Task	ASER 2005	ASER 2006	ASER 2007	ASER 2008
Percentage of children (classes 1-2) failing to read letters words or more	Not reported	26.7	21.70	24.40
Percentage of children (classes 1-2) failing to recognize numbers 1-9	Not reported	38.40	31.90	24.30
Percentage of children (classes 3-5) failing to read level 1 text or more	35.00	47.00	41.70	33.40
Percentage of children (classes 3-5) failing to do subtraction	41.00	55.00	58.0	45.10

*Compiled from Annual Survey of Education Report (ASER) – 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008

It is clear from the figures that the percentage of children of classes 1-2 who cannot read letters or words has declined marginally form 27% in 2006 to 24.4 % % in 2008. Similarly, the percentage of children in these classes who cannot recognize numbers 1-9 has decreased from 38% to 24%. The progress in reading ability and arithmetic operations is also equally disheartening. However, in some states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, and Chhattisgarh there has been some improvement in the situation during the last two years.

During the last one decade, the privatization of school education has been very fast in India. Parents who can afford are more inclined to enroll their children in high fee-charging private schools as compared to government managed schools. In a sample survey conducted in 2003 (Muralidharan K and Kremer M, 2006), it was found that 28% of the population of rural India has access to high fee-charging private schools in the same village. Most of these schools have been established within the last five years and are located in financially weak areas where government schools have shown poor performance. Over a few years in the recent past, the number of privately managed schools, which are now about 17% of all elementary schools, has increased faster than government run schools mainly because of the preference of parents to educate their children through English as a medium of instruction. Some of these private schools – about 2% of all elementary schools in the country, are residential in character. Private residential English medium schools are much in demand, especially among wealthy and prosperous families. ASER 2008 notes that the proportion of children going to private schools has gone up from 16.4% in 2005 to 22.5% in 2008. The overall growth of private schools in short period of three years from 2005 to 2008 has been more than 37%. The growth of private schools has been highest in the states of UP, Rajasthan and Karnataka. In some states the percentage of children going to private unaided schools is as high as 40%. In the states of Kerala and Goa about 50% of the total enrollment is in private schools which are mostly aided by the state governments.

Goyal (2007) conducted a study on 6000 students of grades IV and V selected from 200 government, private aided and private unaided schools in the state of Orissa and found that overall learning levels were lower, absolutely and relatively, in government schools than in private schools. The average percentage correct scores in government schools ranged from 30 to 40 percentage points, half or a third below the average scores in private school. A similar study conducted in the state of Rajasthan by the same author showed that the average percentage correct scores in government schools ranged from 40-50 percentage points, a quarter to a fifth, below the average scores in private schools. The results showed that private schools, whether aided or unaided, outperformed public schools. Such findings provide directions for policy interventions for raising quality of schools in the public sector through increased funds and effective utilization of facilities. The studies also pointed out that teachers in private schools get much lower salaries than teachers in government schools and private schools are 3-4 times more cost-effective than government schools in terms of learning gains per rupee, showing that there is much room for improving the cost-effectiveness of government schools.

Teachers' Quality and performance

Teacher is central to the system of education. His very presence in the classroom has a great impact on the overall personality and social behavior of children while his absence tarnishes the image of the school and teaching profession. Improvement in the quality, efficiency, and equity of education, to a considerable extent, depends on the nexus of teaching and learning, which is in turn influenced by the quality of teachers. The teacher has been identified as the single most important factor influencing the quality of education by the Indian Education Commission and the National Policy on Education. Consequently, the government of India, like that of many other developing countries, has been trying to meet the challenge of improving the quality of education by improving teacher quality on several fronts—by raising pre-service education requirements, improving teacher training, increasing the diversity of the teaching force and promoting stronger participation by local government and community organizations.

The World Bank celebrated the Global EFA Week in 2006 from April 24 to April 30 whose focus was 'Every Child Needs a Teacher''. It was emphasized that achieving EFA depended on having enough professionally trained, adequately paid and well-motivated teachers. A high dropout rate of school children is largely due to lack of adequate facilities, large-scale absenteeism of teachers and inadequate administrative control and supervision. According to recent reports of the government of India, about 12 % of all elementary schools in India are single teacher schools catering to nearly 5% of the total enrolment (Mehta, 2008). While Kerala has an average of 9 teachers in elementary schools, the states of Uttarakhand, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya and Chhattisgarh have less than 3. The average Pupil Teacher Ratio for All India is 1:36. Bihar has the worst teacher pupil ratio at 1:64, Uttar Pradesh has 53

and Jharkhand has 49. It has been found that about 50% of elementary school teachers in India have themselves not studied beyond the higher secondary level (Class XII). Just about 35% are graduates and another 17% are postgraduates and above. But, that leaves 45% who have never been beyond school level.

Teacher absenteeism is a serious problem in India. A team of economists from Harvard and the World Bank made three surprise visits to 3,700 randomly-selected schools in 20 Indian states and found that at any point of time 25% of the teachers are absent from school. The head teachers were, on average, truant 5% more often than ordinary teachers. Salaries do not make any significant difference to truancy except in private schools. There was state-wise variation in this respect also. The state of Maharashtra has the best record with a truancy rate of 14.6%, followed by Gujarat (17%) and Madhya Pradesh (17.6%). The worst offender is Jharkhand (41.9%), followed by Bihar (37.8%) and Punjab (34.4%). Absence rates were generally higher in low-income states.

Teachers' absenteeism has been an acute problem within the school education system all across the globe. Comparable studies done in other countries, show India as one of the worst cases. Bangladesh, for instance, has a teacher absenteeism or truancy rate of 16%, Zambia 17%, Papua and New Guinea 15%. Among the known studies, only Uganda does worse than India, with 27%. In the USA, the teacher truancy rate in 1993-94 was between 5 and 6 percent. The existing literature on this issue shows that the teachers' absentee rates in developing countries tend to be as high as 27 per cent.

The Government of India has recently tried to deal with the problem of teacher absenteeism by hiring teachers, called para-teachers' on contact basis in the primary education sector at a mass level. This practice has raised serious question regarding the quality of education at primary level, as the academic and professional qualifications of these teachers are relaxed and lowered as compared to those of regular teachers. They are also paid less. Therefore, a peculiar situation is prevailing in India's primary schools where we have two sets of teachers appointed as 'regular' and 'para-teachers' working in the same school and performing the same duties. But they are governed by different set of service conditions.

Other Factors affecting quality

The author feels that these learning deficiencies may be attributed to certain systemic factors such as lack of adequate infrastructural facilities, large-scale absenteeism of teachers, overcrowded classrooms, and traditional teaching methods based on rote learning. There is a common complaint that schools are under-equipped, understaffed, and overcrowded. More than 4% schools have no building, 9.5% have a single classroom, 1.3% schools have no teachers, over 16% are single teacher schools, 50% schools have no regular headmaster, and over 7% have no blackboard. The average class size is 40 (91 in the state of Bihar). Quality, in all kinds of human endeavors, depends on the quantity and quality of human and material resources put in. Education Commission (1964-66) recommended that at least 6% of the GDP should be spent on education. The Commission agreed that it would be costly for a poor country like India, but warned that not spending would be costlier. The recommendation was accepted by the government and concrete proposals were incorporated in National Policy on Education -1968. But unfortunately, even after more than four decades since the Commission's recommendations, the government has not been able to raise the financial resources for education to the desired level.

In 1965-66, public expenditure on education was 1.69% of the GDP which increased to steadily to 2.44% by 1975-76 and to 3.49% by 1985-86. Through the National Policy on Education-1986, the government reiterated its commitment to increase public expenditure on education to 6% of the GDP as early as possible. During 1990s, some progress was made in this direction and the figures rose to 3.56% in 1995-96 and to 4.28% in 2000-01. The figure of 4.28% achieved in 2000-01 is the highest so far (Figure 1). But after this, the figure started declining and by 2005-06 it came down to 3.46%. Even now the figure the figure is hovering around 3.50%. It appears that the Commission's dream will remain unfulfilled.

Figure 1
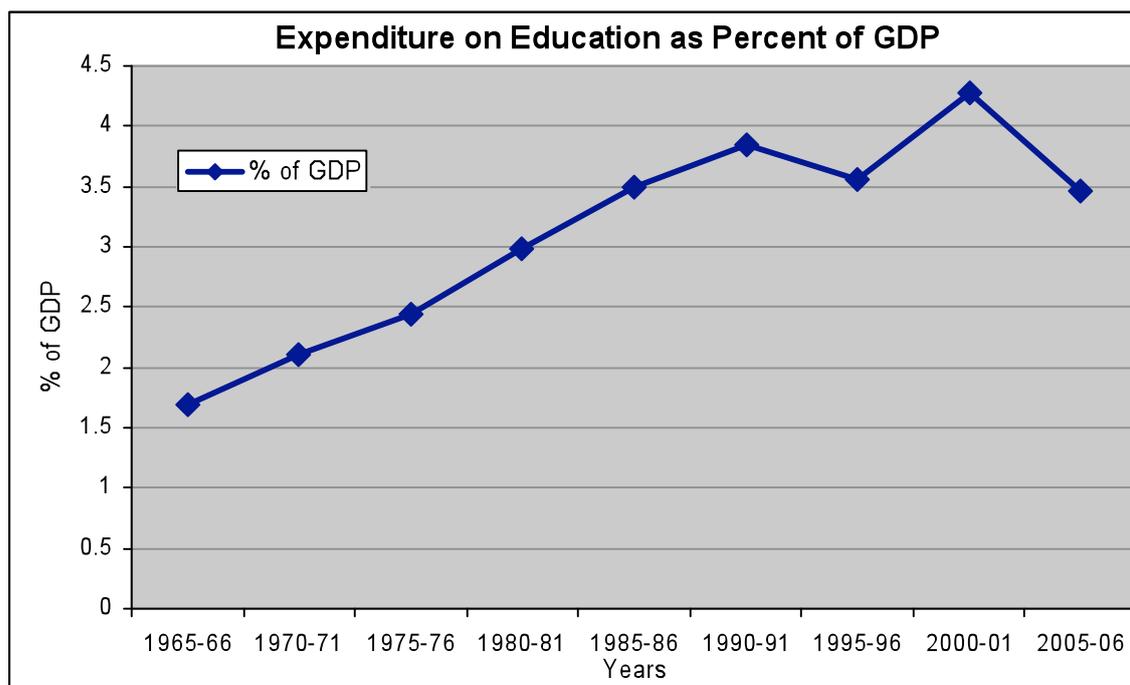
Studies have reported that private schooling is more cost-effective than the Government managed schooling. As reported by Kingdon (2005), the recurrent per pupil expenditure in private schools is only 41% of that in government schools and 55% of that in aided schools. The relative lowness of per pupil expenditure in private schools is due to the fact that teacher salary levels are drastically lower in private than in government schools. The average teacher salary in private junior schools is only 42% of that in government schools and 43% of that in aided schools. In other words, there are large economic rents in the salaries of teachers in government funded schools as compared to private schools. The same author (Kingdon & Teal, 2002), in another study, found that enhancement of teacher salaries in private schools resulted in the improvement of academic achievement of their students, while in the case of government school teachers, this strategy had no impact.

The use of information technology in the classroom in order to make teaching-learning process more effective appears to be a distance dream because only 13 % schools have computers which are mostly used for official purposes. However, under XI Five Year Plan the government of India proposes to improve ICT facilities in schools because it has been found that students who often do not perform well in conventional subject examinations demonstrate high success levels in the use of ICT and IT-enabled learning (XI Plan document Vol. II, 2008). It is believed that IT could provide new directions in pedagogical practices and students' achievement.

Covering the course in time and preparing students for examination is the major concern of school systems in India. The entire teaching-learning process is dominated by examination system which determines how teacher would teach and how students would learn. Teaching has virtually reduced to one-way transmission of information from the teacher to his students. The nature of evaluation of educational outcomes forces children to memorize huge textual material to be reproduced in the answer books in the examination hall. There is hardly any place of for development of understanding, reasoning, creativity and higher abilities.

Future policy prospects

Education is one of the most important aspects of human resource development. Poor school performance not only results in the child having a low self-esteem, but also causes significant stress to the parents. Parents are indifferent to school-attendance of their children and children lack proper motivation to learn due to unfavorable environment and poor quality of teaching in schools. Large-scale absenteeism and truancy as also high dropout rates and low scholastic achievement are some of the unpleasant and adverse consequences of poor quality of education imparted in schools. The issues of quality need to be addressed urgently by way of identifying the factors that impact it and bringing about required improvement in them.

Due to socioeconomic considerations, the major emphasis in educational policy-decisions has been on expansion of schooling facilities during the past six decades so as to ensure that minimum educational opportunities are made available to all sections of the society, especially to weaker and marginalized groups. While good progress has been made towards providing universal access to elementary education, secondary education is still awaiting due attention. The process of creation of basic infrastructure for elementary education has almost been completed under the schemes like *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan,* though much is still left to be done. The focus has now shifted to issues related to quality of education imparted in elementary and secondary schools. The quality of education has suffered because of a variety of reasons including inadequate planning, poor instructional strategies, inadequate training of teachers, and poor infrastructure in rural schools, outdated pedagogy, teacher absenteeism and inefficient supervisory and administrative mechanism. The Human Resource Development ministry has asked the state governments to appoint more teachers for mathematics and sciences to improve quality of school education in India. According to the National University of Educational Planning and Administration annual survey, released in January, about 57 per cent schools in India have less than three teachers and about 11 per cent have only one teacher (Hindustan Times, 6th Feb 2008).

Poor leaning may also be caused by poor health. According to a recent report of the World Bank, about 47% children in India are underweight. About 26% of the people in India live below the poverty line. One half of India's poor is located the three states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal and Orissa account for 22.5% of poverty. Although, during the last three decades the school curriculum at national level has been revised and updated at least four or five times, yet, the quality of education remains dismal. The main reasons for this state of affairs are: non-conducive learning environment; non-availability of essential instructional material; dearth of properly qualified teachers; inadequate training/orientation of teachers in the modern methods of teaching; low salaries of school teachers; lack of dedication on the part of teachers; and inadequate public funding for education. In the XI Plan period, increased funds have been allocated for education sector to ensure that along with expansion of educational opportunities at all stages, quality education is also provided.

Conclusion

It is evident from the aforesaid analysis that India has reached very close to providing for access to free and compulsory elementary education for all eligible children, especially in terms of number of schools and enrollment. But, quality of teaching needs improvement. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on teaching at primary school level where linguistic and numerical skills are developed. These skills are fundamental for further learning. It is desirable that highly qualified and trained teachers are recruited for primary stage and made to work. A result-oriented system needs to be put in place with improved infrastructure, upgraded pedagogical practices and sound monitoring and evaluation mechanism. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is an ambitious program but aims at achieving quantitative targets only.

It is difficult to understand why public expenditure on education should go down from 4% to 3.5% during the period 2004-2008 when 3% education-cess is being levied on all tax-payers. In fact, allocation for education should have improved. The schemes like 'Mid-day Meal' for children may give desired results in terms of increased enrollment and retention of children, but in-built corruption which is reported in the news papers needs to be checked.

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Social Constructivism in Teaching of Political Science in Indian Class Room

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to provide an understanding of effectiveness of teaching of political science with reference to social constructivism. Paper include the theoretical framework of history and teaching leaning processes of political science and process of knowledge construction in social constructivism along with the lesson plan framework. Finding has been presented after the analysis of the data on some identified components, based on social constructivist approach.

Nature of instruction depends on the nature of the subject. In other words how we perceive knowledge and the process of coming to know provides the basis for educational practices. Each discipline and subject is different from the other in terms of subject matter and practices, which in turn are based on different epistemological assumptions. So what makes a discipline different from others is the manner or way in which they formulates their questions, how they defines the content to their domains and organizes that content conceptually and the principles of discovery and verifications that constitute the ground rule for creating and testing knowledge in their fields. Thus, it becomes important to study the nature of a subject, to ensure that instruction is informed by the theory of learning which is consistent with the nature of the subject being taught. So in the first section of this paper presents the theoretical framework of the research and will briefly understanding the history and teaching of political science followed by the knowledge construction process in social constructivism

Theoretical frame work of research

The following section is divided into two subsections: Political Science-Historical review and teaching learning process; and Social constructivism- process of knowledge construction.

<u>Political Science- Historical review and teaching learning process</u>

Political science as a systematic subject first developed in the times of the ancient Greeks with reference to the city-state. For the traditional political thinkers, knowledge was "a supreme means for improving the quality of human life in political association" (Johari, 1996). They studied the subject not as specialists but generally as seekers of wisdom and knowledge. Thus, what they studied constituted a part of general philosophy and this older mode of systematic inquiry represented a concern to search for, build and maintain a good regime in which human beings can live their lives in a manner consistent with their nature. Traditionally, the primary objective of political science was building theory about the ideal state based on speculation. It means building a value theory which is based on speculation about the ideal, and has a moral and ethical touch.

If we try to understand the scope of traditional political science we find that it was more concerned with normative issues such as 'what ought to be' and less with the empirical 'what is'. It tried to solve the problems within a ideal framework. In doing so, the traditional political thinkers did not reason in a vacuum and rather, sought knowledge within a context. In other words, the traditional political thinkers attended to both empirical facts as well as normative values in an interrelated manner. Thus, traditional

political science is an application of human reasoning, abstraction, or ideology, to political issues with a sense of the context to time and place.

In the initial phase, starting form the ancient Greeks to the first half of 19th century, a kind of universalism prevailed. During this period, the concept of state was identified with the society itself and thus the subject mater of political science was fully integrated with the general study of society. The political philosophers studied everything that interested them and there was no subdivision of specialization in the study of political matter. The subject remained a part of general philosophy and was studied as political thought. In the latter half of the 19th century, political science emerged as an independent discipline and as the state was also distinguished from society.

In 20th century political science as a discipline shifted paradigms from traditionalism, to behaviouralism and then to post behaviouralism. These days it is concerned with the applicability or praxis and its nature is moving towards action research. Easton (1997) says that the concern of political science is to solve the social and political problems in relation to their applicability. Primary objective of political science these days seems to be application of knowledge in the solution of societal problems. It is also important to know that in 21st century political science seek to integrate the study of normative premises of political theory with empirical dimensions of research i.e. they focus both on norms as well as on facts. Thus they broaden the scope to include both types of issues and questions. So the scope of political science is not confined to mere understanding of theoretical and practical aspects a of the state and government. Rather, it also brings into its folds the various socio- political problems and decision making process i.e. today political science is not a kind of subject which is suppose to teach the theoretical aspects but it deals more with the application and becomes an applied science. In this relation Barth, R.S (1991) said that nature of teaching of political science should be context specific so that students can make use of it in their real life situation.

These days we need a political scientist community which deal with the concept of political science with emotions and logic, whose purpose is to analyze the current situation and political system instead of just accepting them as they are and for this student's participation is important. According to Sharma, B.L. (2007) students' participation makes a class more live and authentic, because students individually or in groups play an active role in the process of knowledge construction. It is important to understand that the utility and importance of the subjects like political science is depends on to what extent we make its relation with practices of daily life.. Mishra,K.K. (1997) says that the highest achievement of a political science teacher is to relate the classroom teaching to the daily life of the students. In this concern William, Albert's (1989) develop a deep understanding, according to him the best method of teaching is that which is based on students' previous knowledge, beliefs, attitudes because on this basis students create a kind of bridge between what they know and what they will know. Bening & Bening (1996) says that teaching learning processes are purely based on the situation and context and there is no any universally good or bad method of teaching. Selection of method depends on the content, context and the students. But this is also true the teaching learning which is based on students understanding is good. We also need to understand that social, cultural and political contexts also play a major role in the process of knowledge construction. So it is the duty of a teacher to take care of all these aspects.

Thus, the above discussion deals with the development of political science and its teaching learning understanding in brief, which says the nature of teaching methods depends on the nature of the subject. If we do not consider these nature based relationship in teaching learning processes, it is difficult to make this process successful. It becomes more important for a subject like political science which receives its content from socio- cultural and political contexts. In next session we will understand the process of knowledge construction from the social constructivist point of view.

Social Constructivism- Process of knowledge construction

The constructivists view learning as an active process in which the learners actively construct knowledge as they try to comprehend their world. Each of us generates our own mental models or schemas through which we make sense of our experiences. These mental modals are constructed by our prior knowledge, current mental structures and existing beliefs. Constructivism includes the work of Piget, Bruner, Vygotsky, Dewy, Glaserfeld etc. constructivism basically based on these two principles 1) Learners are active constructor of knowledge and not passive recipients and 2) The function of cognition is adaptation to the world and not accurate representation of the reality.

There are three types of constructivism. Trivial Constructivism, Radical Constructivism and Social Constructivism. Trivial Constructivism believes that learners are active participants in the construction of knowledge and knowledge does not exist independently of the knower. It does not dismiss the concept of objective reality and believe that the purpose of cognition is to construct mental structure that accurately represents the objective reality. Radical Constructivism does not dismiss the existence of an objective reality but considers it unimportant. All knowledge is coloured by one's subjective experiences and the function of cognition is adaptation and construction of viable explanations of experiences. Social Constructivism believes that subjectivity plays a major role in the process of knowledge construction. It emphasises the social context of learner where knowledge and learning embedded. Thus knowledge is socially generated. Knowledge is social not individual construct. Social aspects like language, symbols, cultural tools, social practices etc play an important role in learning process. Here we will try to understanding more about social constructivism.

Social constructivism is an approach about how people learn. It implies that we can not take information as if it were a liquid and pour it into someone's head as if the head were a receptacle. So social constructivist approach is about facilitating the learner to go beyond simple recall and move towards understanding, application and competence. It believes that knowledge or reality does not have an objective and absolute value or at the least, we have no way of knowing reality. Von Glasserfeld (1995) indicates in relation to the concept of reality: "It is made up of the network of things and relationships that we rely on in our living, and on which, we believe, others rely on too." The learner interprets and constructs a reality based on his/her experiences and interaction with the surroundings. Diriscoll (2000) says that every knowledge can be understood in its own context and lived practices have an important role in this process. To emphasis the role of context in knowledge construction Steffie and Gale (1995) clarified that meaning of words whether individual or social takes place in social context. He said meaning in linguistics develop through social interaction. Here we need to understand that each individual has their own different socio-economic and historical context and background that is why they have different kind of leaning processes and so they need different kind opportunities to explore their environment.

Social constructivism places the emphasis on the interaction with others; knowledge is seen entirely as a negotiated human construct. Jonassen (1994) said to create the teaching learning environment effective; create real world environments that employ the context in which learning is relevant; focus on realistic approaches to solving real world problem; provide multiple representation of reality; present authentic tasks; support collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation etc.

So it is important to provide authentic environment to the learner to develop their understanding and knowledge. In this concern Ernest (1995) said that sensitivity towards and attentiveness to the learner's previous constructions and the use of multiple representations of concepts is very important in learning process.

Situated Cognition is one of the important concepts related to Social constructivism which we need to understand which assumes knowledge to be social construction as opposed to knowledge being seen as personal constructions. The terms situated cognition, situated learning, situated action or situativity denote an array of related perspectives falls under the broad umbrella of Socio-cultural constructivism. This theory claims that every human thought is adapted to the environment, which is situated, because what people perceive, how they conceive to their activity, and what they physically do develop together.

Social Constructivism emphasis cooperative learning. According to Griffin (1995) cooperative leaning offers many benefits for students, it improves both academic learning and social skill, for teachers, it is an aid to classroom management and instruction. So cooperative learning teaches social as well as academic skill because through this process student learn to honor and respect one another's differences , to support one another through learning processes, to communicate effectively with one another and to come to a consensus or understanding. So Social constructivism believes that every one is an active constructor of knowledge, knowledge is context specific which is embedded in context, and teaching leaning processes are purely based on the nature of content and context.

Frame work of lesson plan based on Social constructivist approach

Social Constructivism as an approach deals with how we learn and make meaning of our surrounding. It believes that people construct knowledge and understanding of the world by them selves. And the basis of this knowledge and understanding is their experiences and reflection over them. J.S. Chall (2000) says when we learn new knowledge; we try to relate it with our previously constructed knowledge and experiences. In this process we can accept that new knowledge or we can reject as well, but in any situation we are the active constructors of our knowledge.

Social constructivist learning approach raises the importance of different activities and practices in class room. Generally it means providing different and specific opportunities to the students to construct their knowledge based on reflection before, on and after the action. A constructivist teacher always motivates students to know about the knowledge and importance of the activities they are doing in the class, not only this even how and why these activities are helping them to understand the concept. Raising questions about the thinking processes of one self and learning methods student of constructivist class become an expert learner. According to Freeman (1998) we can understand this process like a spiral where student do continuous reflection on their experiences and face new complexity. This complexity leads them to new knowledge. That is why an important role of the teacher is to promote reflective practices.

Lave & Wenger (1998) said that the social constructivist teacher provides problem solving and discovery based opportunities in the group to the students to construct their thinking, understanding and knowledge.

Before we discuss about the format of lesson plan, it is important to understand some of the characteristics of social constructivist teacher.

- Become one of many resources that the student may learn from, not the primary sources of information

- Engage students in experiences that challenge previous conception of their existing knowledge.

- Allow students to develop and drive lesson and seek elaboration of student's initial responses. Provide some time to think after posing question.

- Encourage the spirit of questioning by asking thoughtful, open ended questions. Encourage thoughtful discussion among students.

- Use cognitive terminology like classify, analyse, and create when giving task.

- Do not separate knowing from the process of finding out..

- Encourage students to challenge each other's conceptualization and ideas.

- Encourage self analysis, collection of real evidence to support ideas and reformulation of ideas in light of new knowledge.

The above discussions provide a kind of basic understanding to understand the class room processes of a social constructivist classroom. With this understanding let's discuss the format of a social constructivist lesson plan. Social constructivist approach believes that we need to provide such opportunities to the students so that they become active participants in the teaching learning process. On the basis of the above understanding now we will talk about the basis of format of lesson plan

Engagement of the students—

This process engages the students in the class with the help of question or any kind of appropriate event. Activities take place during the engagement maintain the interest of the students in the class and provide chance to them to know what they know and what they need to do to know more. We can start

this process with instruction or with less instruction but the complexity of this process depends upon the context or the background of the students. Engagement develops the interest of the students in the teaching learning process. D. Sheridan (1993) says successful engagement leads to the successful lesson. Engagement is preliminary task which create a relation of students with the class room practices. This platform provide opportunities to analyse their past experiences and knowledge. So successful engagement is the first step to ensure the participation of the students in the class.

Exploration—

After engagement student should get a chance to explore the content with sharing their more experiences. The purpose of this process is to help the students to understand the concept with sharing their experiences with each other. Student should be given enough and appropriate time for exploration. Teacher can also raise some important questions and incident to help students' thinking process. The role of the teacher is that of a facilitator. Teacher may also ask some extra questions to develop the deep understanding of the students.

Explanation—

After the exploration, scientific explanation of the concepts being studied should be done. Teacher can make available concepts to the student with any method (lecture, demonstration, reading etc) but students' participation is important during the entire process. Students should also be given chances to share their experiences, what they have experienced regarding given concept and how can they accommodate this new knowledge with previously constructed knowledge with changes or as it is. This is the right time to provide the content systematically to the students and use different learning theories. This is the time when students moves from concrete to abstract regarding the concept and also moves from already existing knowledge to the new knowledge. Role of the teacher is to provide the feedback and direct the discussion and learning process.

Elaboration—

Next step is to help students to elaborate the concepts. Elaboration helps students to know how to apply the learned concepts in different situations and also help them to develop new conceptual understanding. Interaction among the students is very essential for elaboration and the development of reflective understanding. During this process teacher participation also become important for the discussion, so that discussion can take the right direction.

Now let us understand how to use all above terms (Engagement, Exploration, Explanation and Elaboration) in the lesson plan format. So on the basis of above understanding developed lesson plan is given below

Lesson Plan No.

Subject:	Name :
Topic :	Class :
Date :	Period:

Objectives related to content: Should be written in the form of process and opportunities will be provided.
Objectives related to political science : broad objective of the class

Methods, Technique and Teaching Aids : What so ever method, technique and teaching aids want to use. Preferably collaborative and cooperative learning techniques should be used.

Engagement : To draw the attention of the student, Motivate thinking process and

recalling previous knowledge and experiences.

Exploration : To provide time to the student to think, plan, organize, systematise and

analyse the collected information and knowledge.

Explanation: To involve students in the process of analyzing the explored information or knowledge and to help them to develop their understanding reflectively.

Elaboration : To provide them opportunities to the students to develop broad and concrete understanding of the concepts and their applicability in real life situations.

Role of the teacher : What role the teacher is suppose to play during the class such as facilitator, guide, helper, mentor etc.

Home work : it is not necessary to give home work after every lesson. Home work must be analytical, reflective and application based in real life situations.

Data collection and analysis

On the bases of the developed lesson plan format twenty lesson plans were made and executed with eleventh class to teach political science. Concept on which lesson plan were made were given by the school teacher. Some of the concept or lessons given by school teacher were Political Theory, Rights, Liberty, Equality, Social Justice, Citizenship etc. As concepts were given by the school teacher it became a challenge because now it can be effectively find out to what extend social constructivist approach is effective to teach any concept of political science.

To collect the qualitative data researcher did participatory observation while teaching the class and noted down all processes immediately after the class. After all the lesson plans were executed a qualitative analysis was done on the basis of some components. Components for analysis were also develop from the theoretical framework discussed in the first part of this paper. Analyses were done on six components those are given below.

Component 1: evidence of conceptual understanding based on appropriate methods, basic concepts, knowledge construction and conceptual communication.

Component 2 : engagement of students to develop the understanding and meaning construction through reflection which may include appropriate learning techniques, self evaluation, respect of alternative views, analysis, feedback from teacher etc.

Component 3: Application of knowledge in real life situations.

Component 4: Active participation of students in exploration and explanation with cooperative and collaborative work, their own thoughts and questions.

Component 5: Use of students' experiences for effective teaching-learning process which includes students' past knowledge. How this knowledge help to build new understanding of different concepts

Component 6: Use of challenging curriculum and situation to develop depth understanding.

Findings

In this section findings of the research is being presented which is based on the analysis done on the six components mention above. As it has been mentioned earlier that the effectiveness of the social constructivism in teaching of political science being observed and analyzed from first to last class and find the results. These findings are being presented here as general trends.

Critical Thinking-

Critical thinking involves the process of discrimination, evaluation, and analysis. It also provides space to reconstruct of the process of synthesis and thinking on the basis of analysis. During the last classes researcher found that students collected information from best possible sources such as oral, verbal, reflection, observation, experience, reason etc which shows the evidence of critical thinking of students. It is also important to mention that during last classes student gave more focus to develop the thinking process about the concepts instead of just knowing the truth. It was also observed that in relation to what to believe and what to do, critical thinking takes place in the process of problem solving and decision making. Except all above there are many other observed incident or dimensions those shows the evidence of critical thinking. Such as—

- Students raised many meaningful questions with deep clarity.
- They collect relevant and appropriate information and interpret with abstract thought.
- They tired to achieve reasoned results and conclusion through appropriate criteria and standards.
- Fee thinking on alternative view of different ways of thinking.
- Effective communication to solve the complex problems.
- Make the difference between the ideas and conclusion on the basis of logical or illogical.
- Raising question to their own thinking and ideas to develop systematic understanding.

Analytical thinking and understanding –

It was also observed that they tried to understand the hidden principles and strategies behind the concept instead of just understand it descriptively. Students not only provide meaning to different concept even set the limitations of the meanings. They show evidence to find out logical conclusion through the analysis, identify the issues, interactions and diagnostic understanding on available information and knowledge. There are some other points which show the evidence of analytical thinking and understanding in students' thinking.

- Students' evaluation of the appropriateness of the available content to develop the conceptual understanding.
- They also evaluate the importance and appropriateness examples and experiences of the teacher and students.
- They tried to understand the different ideas, debates and solutions from different perspective.
- They also tried to understand relevance based conclusions.

Reflective thinking—

Reflective thinking also being showed during the process of critical and analytical thinking processes by the students. In this process they understand reflection as an active, awareness based and careful thinking which leads them to generate the knowledge. Here it is important to mention that during the reflective thinking processes students think about their own knowledge and after analysis they develop

their understanding regarding concepts. Following points also shows the evidence of reflective thinking done by students.

- To determine, what kind of information is required to understand the available issues and concepts.
- To collect available information and analyzing or synthesizing.
- To develop understanding about different reliable ideas for related concepts.
- To understand analysis or synthesis from every possible perspective.
- To provide space for analysis of own thinking in relation to other perspectives and ideas.

Except these, skillful use of information, organized an systematic understanding of the ideas, open ended analysis also shows the evidence of reflective thinking.

Metacognition abilities—

Metacognition abilities means to think about once own cognitive abilities. It also means to think how to think. There are several incidents being observed in the class where students ask question about their thinking process and ask why they think, the way they think. In this process students were very attentive to about two things, first the development of their learning and second if development of learning is not in proper direction, changing the strategies to achieve that proper development. Evidence of such abilities show the characteristics of metacognitive abilities. When student become able to control their thinking processes, they become more capable learners. In brief, being aware about reason behind their thinking, to be aware about on self, to control their leaning process are the clear evidence of metacognitive abilities..

Everyday cognition—

It is directly related to every day practices. Students develop the process of understanding about the given concepts of political science through daily life examples and experiences. To relate all the concepts to their daily life, helped them to develop their understanding deeply about the given concepts. These kinds of evidences become clearer in further classes. Relevance of examples, importance of context, source of knowledge etc also become clearer in late classes. So it was being observed that relating of daily life experiences with the concept helped students to understand and develop the thinking process more efficiently.

Understanding of multiple perspectives—

Students tried to develop the acceptable understanding of different perspectives. They also learned how to respect others perspectives and ideas as well as how to give importance to them to facilitate the conceptual understanding for concepts. Learning processes start with the analysis of multiple perspectives. It is also very important to understand the leaning processes of political science with the interpretation of multiple perspectives. More ever political science is the subject which gets its content from social contexts so in this regard understanding of multiple perspectives become more important. Observed classes shows evidence of such examples.

Relevance of past experiences—

Past experiences and past knowledge is very important in the construction of new knowledge. Research finding shows that student used their past knowledge to construct new knowledge and with this develop their reflective thinking processes. Teacher provides them opportunities to share their life experiences and students also make use of it for their learning. Student learned that experiences are the bases of learning. So awareness about their experiences and using them in learning facilitate them to develop new understanding of different concepts.

Collaboration—

Opportunities to work in collaboration provide chance to students to analysis different concepts with different perspectives and with multiple ideas. Through group work (collaboratively) student could able to understand such concept, those they can not understand alone. In group work student become

familiar with the understanding of other students and develop their understanding collaboratively. That is how working collaboratively provide a good platform for the students to develop their thinking.

Self responsibility for knowledge construction—

Social constructivist approach provides opportunities to the student to understanding that they are active constructor of knowledge and so they are responsible for their learning, that is why student become more aware and attentive in the class about their learning and tried to understand concepts with relation to their own experiences. They also understand that it is very much possible that student may have different understanding about the same concept because everyone constructs their own knowledge and that process is context specific.

Sensitivity towards the political science concepts—

Students show the sensitivity towards the concepts (liberty, equality, social justice, secularism, rights etc) and related important issues discussed in the classes. Students also show their sensitivity and concern with untouchablity, social injustice, religious deadlocks, and inequality in equality during the classroom processes. All this become possible only of social constructivist approach where student get chance to learn from their own and other experiences. Student showed and develop their concern regarding sensitive issues, what else can be expected from an effective political science class.

Higher order thinking skills—

Students develop the skills to use higher order thinking skills regarding several topics from the social constructivist environment, such as types of liberty, types of rights, why not social justice, gender equality etc and learn classification of examples according to the concepts, directed thinking and knowledge construction. So we can say social constructivist teaching learning environment provide better opportunities to learn.

Student-student and teacher-students negotiation—

It is important to provide challenges to the students in learning processes. For this teacher should create an environment which provide chance for negotiations about the concepts. Same environment was provided to the student in this research. This environment leads them to the right track of thinking and understanding the political concepts. Negotiations helped them to develop balanced view about between their own ideas and others ideas. Negotiation with teacher provides them space for critical reflection because they were getting challenges from teacher in terms of questions or situation or incidents etc.

Conclusion

Above findings of the research show that social constructivist approach facilitates teaching of political science in positive direction. One of the strong basis behind this facilitation is similar nature of political science and social constructivism. Students showed the evidences of engaging them self in the processes of reflection, critical and analytical thinking, self evaluation, metacognitive abilities, higher order thinking skills, collaborative work, respect of multiple perspectives, sensitivity etc which helped them to provide opportunities to develop conceptual understanding about different political science concepts. It was also found problems and hurdles related to the implementation of social constructivist approach was for very short time and gradually they removed from the situation automatically. So finally we can conclude that social constructivist approach is very effect in teaching political science, it is to understand the nature of both and create teaching learning environment and such environment will provide scope for the students to construct their own knowledge.

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Trends and Reforms in Higher Education in India

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Introduction:

Since the ancient of ages India has seen the glorious tradition of higher education which is being percolated for a long period of time through generation after generation in different disciplines and areas of knowledge through existing institutional system. The simulation of knowledge gave way to the great civilization, which became the centers of advance learning. Although the knowledge was exclusively theoretical and academics, and it was related to the basics as a part of liberal education which was an imitation for the common people. For example Buddhism promoted institutionalized higher learning in this country through nationwide network of *Viharas* in its attempt to enlighten and to emancipate the masses through learning of the Buddhist philosophy. Whereas the new dimensions of higher education now clearly envisages development of knowledge and skills for a sustainable future as requisite changes taking place in human lifestyle and values. So this is an age in the aegis of development in science and technology and a strong belief of building capacity with such features and specialties which offer a cutting edge in competitive competence in global demands in its economic role. The mode of education changed with the change of time. The new waves of liberalization and globalization have redefined the transnational provision of higher education through the mobility of the programmes or educational institutions form one country to another. Consequently, with the liberalization of economy and globalization, Indian economy has acquired buoyancy and has already decided to launch 'operation knowledge' as a part of the continuous expansion and improvement of the facilities of modern equipment but also a gigantic task to redesign teaching - learning in any discipline. Hence, the issue of accessibility of quality higher education arises in the context of the transition from the elite to the mass education. Many trends are putting new pressures on the conventional system, forcing many institutions to review and amend their existing policies and procedures.

The aim of the study on this topic is to focus on mainly Three points: First on the challenges and prospects of the internationalization of higher education, Secondly on social equality and justice in Indian context and Thirdly, prospects of the new developments in the higher education system.

Historical Development:

During the last 150 years, India has widened access to higher education quite extensively. But the basic thrust of development planning during the first two decades in independent India was essentially on growth and development (Raza, Monis, (ed.), 1991, 22, 58). The philosophies of education veered round a general "all round development" approach covering language, cognitive or intellectual, motor, physical, creative, emotional, aesthetic, spiritual, social and moral (Pardian, Cynthia, 2006, 1). The encouragement to the mass education came through largely by the involvement of British in Indian education system, particularly from the late nineteenth century, which brought a rapid growth of colleges - established both by the government as well as private agencies, for spreading Western education (Hasim, S R, 2006, 17). At the same time, Christian missionaries had found western education most efficacious for Indian society. It was found that the rise of a popular education policy of missionaries at the beginning of the twentieth century was from below (Bara, Joseph, 2000, 301). So, Christian missionaries in India were the catalysts for the rebirth of learning and intellectual aspiration (Kabir, Humayun, 1956/1961, 26, 98-99, and 126-27).

The English higher education in India can be said to have begun with the establishment of Hindu College in Calcutta in 1817, the first Europeanized institution of higher learning. The educational policy was articulated in a 1854 dispatch from Sir Charles Wood to the Governors of the East India Company. It laid down guidelines for founding a University system, modeled on the University of London, that would affiliate the existing colleges, examine students, set standards of courses, prescribe texts and confer degrees. Subsequently the first three Universities (Calcutta, Bombay and Madras), established in 1857 were developed on this model with the aim of the cultivation of the European literature and science. In 1882, Hunter Commission and 1902 Raleigh Commission was set up for readjusting the system education to the changing context was felt even in the pre-independence. Only in 1904, the Indian Universities Act was the first step towards reform and in 1917, the Calcutta university commission headed by Sir Michael Sadler; recommended setting up of the Intermediate colleges also emphasized the need for 'Residential University'. The Association of Indian Universities was established at the initiative of Government of India as the Inter-University Board of India and Ceylon in 1925.

In post-independence India, the Radhakrishnan Commission came to be set in 1948, immediately after independence and recommended a three year integrated courses at the BA and BSc level. Few years later,

on the recommendations of AIU, the University Grants Commission was established in 1956 which regulates monitors and also a funding agency for higher education.

A very thorough study of all aspects of Indian education system was undertaken in 1964-65 under the Chairmanship of Prof. D S Kothari, Consequently, the First National Policy on Education (NPE) was formulated in 1968 and the New NPE in 1986.Revised slightly in 1992. Acharya Ramamurthy committee of 1990 revived the proposal of NAAC which was endorsed in 1992 by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE).

In 1987, All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) was established with Human Resource Development (HRD) Minister was its chairman. And AICTE has set a committee in 1993 to recommend appropriate measures for streamlining higher technical education. Committee favoured for establishment of an Education Development Bank of India' with working capital of Rs 3,000 Crore created out of donations by the Center, State Government, and National and International financial institutions. In 1993, a development was the appointment of a full time chairman to the AICTE on the expiry of first Five years when the Union Minister of HRD also doubled up as Chairman of this body. This was illegal after 1987 when P V Narasimha Rao moved over to external affairs. AICTE is now as central to professional education as the UGC is to mainstream education. AICTE controls engineering, professional and pharmaceutical education.

Meanwhile the Gajendragadkar Committee, 1994, recommended for Autonomy of University as an academic necessity. Later on The Punnayya Committee (evaluate the function of UGC): finds that it is not doing its functions (co-ordinate and determining the standard of higher education and disburse grant) properly. It submitted its report in January 1994 to UGC. It gave adverse verdict. Wheras the Gnanam Committee (submitted its report on higher education in 1990), set up by UGC under the Chairmanship of Prof. A Gnanam, made a strong case for making University / College teacher , Head and Vice chancellors more accountable through a well –laid out system of performance appraisal:

   i)   Prescription of Code of ethics for teachers, principals, officers including V Cs

   ii)   Code of Conduct etiquette for other staffs

   iii)   Code of Discipline for the students

Still the present approach towards higher education is governed by the National Policy on Education-1986 and Program of Action -1992. It translated this vision of Radhakrishnan and Kothari Commission in Five principle goals for higher education which includes: 1. Greater Access 2. Equal Access (or equity) 3. Quality and Excellence 4. Relevance 5. Promotion of social values.

India is home to approximately 17% of the world's population (India Census 2001) and total estimate of literate: 1,080,264, 388, and 65.35%. Meanwhile in terms of enrollment of close to 12 million students, India is the third largest in the world in the sphere of higher education, next to China (21 Million) and the United States (17 Million). But India tops the world in terms of its 18,500 institutions. India is the largest education system in the world. Nevertheless, the Growth of enrollment and institutions has been phenomenal since independence, the former from One million in 1947 to 12 million in 2005, and the latter form 2,000 to 18,500.during the same period. The system consists (as of 2007) of 252 State universities

Recently, the National Knowledge Commission, a high-level advisory body to the Prime Minister of India, with the objective of transforming India into a knowledge society and in its endeavour to transform the knowledge landscape of the country has submitted around 300 recommendations on 27 focus areas during its three and a half year term. While the term of the NKC has come to an end, the implementation of NKC's recommendations is currently underway at the Central and State levels. (http://www.knowledgecommission.gov.in/) For reforming higher education the NKC recommends establishment of 1500 universities by 2015 to attain a gross enrollment ration of 15%. The XI Five Year Plan envisaging an unprecedented expansion of higher education in India has proposed 30 New Central Universities, * New IITs, 7 New IIMs 10 National Institutes of Technology and 20 Indian Institutes of Information Technology among others. The expansion of education with excellence and equity are imperative for a democratic society to sustain itself in long run.

Existing Higher Education System:

Education being in 'Concurrent List' of Indian Constitution, universities can be established by the Central as well as State Governments. Traditionally universities have been extending the privilege of the mechanism of affiliation. This still remains the basic structure of providing higher education in India. These Universities have a large number of degree colleges affiliated to them for imparting undergraduate education. Some colleges also have post graduate and teaching and research. One of the

main tasks of such universities is to oversee the academic standards of the affiliated colleges. Some of the Universities have over 100 Colleges affiliated to them and over 1, 00,000 student's enrollment. Indian Education Scenario in the existing policy framework of higher education, only universities are authorized to award degrees.

A second type of comprises the Unitary Universities like Aligarh, Banaras, Lucknow, Baroda, Annamalai and Jadavpur. These Universities do not have major responsibilities in respect of affiliated colleges. In most of them, there is undergraduate and post-graduate teaching as well as research.

There are also some Universities which are in some sense a mixture of two types. Their territorial jurisdiction is usually confined to the city in which the university is located. The colleges located within the city are affiliated to the University. Some of the colleges are, however, managed by the University and are known as its constituent colleges. Delhi University is a typical example of the mixture of the two types.

A New type institution in higher education is provided by the agricultural Universities, established on the American pattern of Land Grant Universities with stress on research and extension work. The first of its type to be established was Govind Ballabh Pant University of Agriculture and Technology in Pantnagar, Uttar Pradesh in 1961. Initially it was thought that every State would have One agricultural University. Exceptions were latter made due to different agricultural and climatic regions within some states. Agricultural Universities are largely funded by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR).

Another new category are the Institutions of excellence such as IITs, IIMs, IISc, and IIITs etc were created through special acts of Central Government, Governments –Central and States continue to control higher education. Existing system of awarding degrees through the Universities has evolved over the time and it has acquired many nomenclatures, viz.

1.   Central Universities
2.   State Universities
3.   Deemed Universities – Conferred on outstanding institutions
4.   De-Novo Universities – Conferred on some newly established institutions in specialized subjects with promise of their being developed as universities.
5.   Private Universities – setup under the State Legislative Acts.

Table 1. Different Types of Universities (as of 2007)

Serial No.	Type of Universities	Number
1.	Central Universities	24
2.	State Universities	252
3.	Deemed Universities	114
5.	National Importance	13
6.	Private Universities	11
7.	Total	414

Table 2. Indian Universities (2008)

Status	Member		Non Member	Total		
State Universities				180	56	236
Deemed Universities (Under Section 12 (B) of the UG Act 1956)	Self Finance	29	36			
	Public Funded	30	24	59 60		119
Central Universities				23	02	25
Private Universities				08	19	27
Institute of National Importance (Centre)				11	22	33
Total Universities				281 -	159	440

Source: University Grants Commission Statistical Department, 2008 (As published in the New Initiatives (2003-2008) Association of Indian Universities 2008)

Prospects and Challenges of Internationalization of Higher Education:

The increasing commercialization has led market – driven motives to govern higher education, which has created imbalances. Privatization and commercialization attracts provisions of general agreement on trade services (GATS). Due to increased mobility across the borders, opening up of higher education sector to foreign participation under GATS thus becomes hotly debated.

This definition includes internationalization as a process that has both international and local elements. It can be said that in the present knowledge age internationalization of higher education is now a fact of life that cannot be neglected (Powar, K B, 2001, 74). In India, as in many Asian countries, a new wave of globalization is building up a new socio-economic system. GATS, a comprehensive legal framework of rules and disciplines covering 161 service activities across 12 classified sectors - e.g.: telecommunications, financial, energy, distribution, environmental, health, education, construction services, has given birth to the Foreign Education Providers (FEPs). Consequently, the contemporary vibes of the internationalization and commercialization of higher education under GATS has made education a lucrative commodity.

As opined by Jane Knight, "Internationalization of higher education is the process of integrating an international /intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the

institutions" (Knight, Jane, 1997, 8).

There are four modes under which services can be traded under GATS such as cross border supply of service covers distance education, BPO, etc. Consumption abroad takes place with physical movement of persons as students , tourists, patients etc. going abroad to avail themselves of the services; commercial presence; service providers move to another country to offer services (Offshore Campuses); persons moving abroad to work (Teaching faculty, researcher working abroad). Students from Asia and Africa come to study in India, where the committee on Promotion of Indian Education Abroad (COPIEA), was established in 2002 to tap global market. Altbach (1989) points out those foreign students, who are the principal manifestation of internationalization, are an embodiment of cosmopolitan culture and provide valuable cross cultural perspectives.

This can be looked within a broad concept of internationalism embracing a wide variety of intellectual, cultural and economic relations among nations. The principal functions of higher education requiring further analysis are:

1.   Teaching
2.   Research and its application through technology, specific development programmes, and relationship with commerce and industry and the community more generally.
3.   Learning from the student perspective
4.   Institutional management and , planning and administration
5.   Agencies, instruments and procedures for policy making

For each of these functions we need to consider the following international activities:

1.   Academic mobility: The worldwide expansion of higher education can be reflected in the light of academic mobility (it includes students, faculties and universities/ institutes going transnational seeking for better opportunities) and increasing enrolment rates in tertiary education, which is an indicator of human development index. International mobility of students has grown rapidly in the past two decades. About 2.7 million students's world-wide study in a country other than their country of origin. It is not a new phenomenon that Indian students study abroad. What is a recent phenomenon is the rapid growth of student mobility. One of the distinct trends of the present day international politics is the shift in focus from Europe to Asia. The increasing role of Asia particularly India is becoming evident.

One of the very important features of academic mobility is the presence of the international students in Indian Universities:

Table 3. International Students in Indian Universities
Continent wise

Contin	2004	200	2006-	2007-				

ents	-05	5-06	07	08				
Asia 9849		10493			1340 0**154 37**			
Africa 2005		2403			3316 **3796**			
Ameri cas 593		654			7766 **26**			
Europ e 178		206			2383**3 09**			
Austra lasia 55		71			69**81**			
Miscell aneous 587		629			5929 **57**			
Total	**1326 7**	**144 56**	**1839 1**	**2120 6**				

*PLO- 478, *NRI 97, *Palestine-32, (2007-08)
*350 International Students not identified country wise (2007-08)

Table 4. International Students in Indian Universities (Region-wise distribution)

Region	2004 -05	2005 -06	2006 -07	2007 -08				
South & Central Asia 4443		4112			6006 **7695**			
Western Asia 4025		4608			5205 **5319**			
Eastern Africa 1635		1915			2742 **3066**			
Southeast Asia 812		1066			1209 **1335**			
Eastern Asia 569		707			980**1 088**			
North America 561		611			7595 **84**			
Northern Africa 166		185			2623 **35**			

Western Africa 139		225		228**2 72**			
Western Europe 36		65		66**11 1**			
Southern Africa 56		66		70**10 5**			
Northern Europe 55		83		98**84**			
Australasia 55		71		69**81**			
Southern Europe 59		25		22**58**			
Eastern Europe 28		33		52**56**			
South America 19		19		11**38**			
Middle Africa 9		12		14**18**			
Central America Caribbean 13		24		6**4**			
Miscellaneou s* 587		629		592**9 57**			
Total	1326 7	1445 6	1839 1	2120 6			

*PLO- 478, *NRI 97, *Palestine-32, (2007-08)
*350 International Students not identified country wise (2007-08)

5. Indian Universities with International Students
(Top Ten Universities) (2007-2008)

Universities	M	F	T			
University of Pune, Pune	2791	1016		**3807**		
University of Mysore, Mysore	859	453		**1312**		
Manipal University, Manipal	537	689		**1226**		
University of Delhi, Delhi	660	471		**1131**		
Osmania University, Hyderabad	559	123		**682**		
Alagappa University, Karaikudi	288	280		**568**		
Jamia Hamdard, New Delhi	337	172		**509**		
Bharati Vidyapeeth, Pune	359	135		**494**		
Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi *Enrolment under Distance Education Mode*	2843	1625		**4468**		
Symbiosis International University, Pune *Enrolment under Distance Education Mode*	NA	NA		**2178**		
Total	9233	4964	16375			

Table 6. International Students in Indian Universities (Top ten Countries)

Countries	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08				
Iran	1120	1264	2180		**2669**			
Nepal	1352	1411	1728		**1821**			
United Arab Emirate	1500	2034	1878		**1560**			
Ethiopia	226	302	1033		**1289**			
Sri Lanka	582	530	466		**997**			
Afghanistan	35	65	422		**976**			

Saudi Arabia	419	551	771	**835**			
Bahrain	382	481	446	**600**			
Kenya	418	523	621	**592**			
Oman	646	505	608	**548**			
Total	**6680**	**7666**	**10153**	**11887**			

Table 7. International Students in Indian Universities (SAARC Countries)

Countries	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08			
Nepal	1352	1411	2728	**1821**			
Sri Lanka	582	530	466	**997**			
Afghanistan	35	65	422	**976**			
Bhutan	286	378	531	**487**			
Bangladesh	940	331	361	**368**			
Maldives	60	40	200	**264**			
Myanmar	31	55	46	**44**			
Pakistan	1	7	7	**8**			
Total	**3287**	**2817**	**4761**	**4965**			

2.   Foreign Education providers: The internationalization and commercialization of higher education under General Agreement on Trade Services (GATS) has given birth to the Foreign Education Providers (FEPs), which are broadly categorized into three types: i) Operating in their respective home campuses ii) Offshore campus iii) Collaborative partnership – twinning programmes or to establishment of franchisees. In India, as in many other developing countries, inflows of FEPs are increasing rapidly.

The numbers of FEPs are rapidly increasing in the Indian subcontinent and the upcoming transnational circumstances India might gain regional hub status in the South Asia region. It can easily attract students' from Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Far East Asia, South East Asia, West Asia and Sub Saharan Africa. Whereas Singapore, Malaysia and China have already emerged as major global players in the cross-border higher education, thereby they are attracting many reputed Universities, colleges and institutes in their countries to establish built environment campuses on partnership basis. They have the strict controlling mechanism of FEPs in their country. Consequently hosting a large pool of globally mobile students. At the same time desire among the young generation to earn a foreign degree for lucrative job opportunities in business and hotel industry sector is very high.

Source:http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001465/146541e.pdf

Nevertheless, the transnational higher education tends to be concentrated in the following cities and have their campuses therein: Mumbai – Nasik – Pune Zone, Chennai, Hyderabad, Delhi and National Capital Region (NCR), Bangalore, Chandigarh and Kolkata. These regions are cosmopolitan in nature. So it attracts the FEPs and foreign students' more easily. Maharastra has emerged as a leading player in getting attention from foreign varsities especially the Mumbai – Pune – Nasik Zone

Table 8. Classification of FEPs Advertising in India – 2006

SL No.	Types of FEPs in India	Number
1.	FEPs Operating on their respective Home Campus.	504 (89.52%)
2.	FEPs Operating in India A. Own Campus (Branch) B. Programmatic Collaboration	0 32 (5.68%)
3.	FEPs Under Twinning Programme	27 (4.79%)
	Total	563 (100%)

Source: AIU Database January – December 2006 (Toppo, Herkan Neadan, Mishra, Bijaya Laxmi and Dongaonkar, 2009)

Table 9. FEPs Advertising in India (Country-wise Distribution) – 2006

SL No.	Home Country	Number of Universities/ Colleges/Institutes
1.	UK	189 (33.57%)
2.	Canada	79 (14.03%)
3.	Australia	76 (13.49%)
4.	USA	47 (8.34%)

5.	China	35 (6.21%)
6.	Ireland	23 (4.08%)
7.	New Zealand	18 (3.19%)
8.	Singapore	18 (3.19%)
9.	Switzerland	17 (3.01%)
10.	France	11 (1.95%)
11.	Russia	11 (1.95%)
12.	Miscellaneous*	39 (6.92%)
	Total	563 (100%)

Japan (2), Norway (1), Holland (1), Cyprus (4), Hungary (1), Ukraine (5), UAE (5), Nepal (1), Czech Republic (1), Denmark (2), Germany (2),Malaysia (5), Mauritius (1), Poland (4), Spain (1), Thailand (1), Kyrgystan (1), Belarus (1)

Source: AIU Database January – December 2006 (Toppo, Herkan Neadan, Mishra, Bijaya Laxmi and Dongaonkar, 2009)

So the internationalization of higher education has given a new dimension to academic mobility. There is an emergence of different modes of supplying education facilities to fulfill the students' requirements for enhancing better career opportunities. The internationalization and commercialization of higher education under General Agreement on Trade Services (GATS) has given birth to the Foreign Education Providers (FEPs), which are broadly categorized into three types: i) Operating in their respective home campuses ii) Offshore campus iii) Collaborative partnership – twinning programmes or to establishment of franchisees. Globalization refers to higher education which involves teaching research and service functions of university or university level-institutions- a subset of the totality of post secondary education. These have undergone considerable change over the last two decades. The numbers of students seeking to enroll themselves for higher education in universities or institutions are increasing rapidly. This change has profound implications for society and for the institutions themselves. Higher education institutions are now responding to demands for rethinking their offerings in the light of the consequent greater diversity in the student body, in such respects as age range, interests, prior experience and domicile. The activities that

contribute to achieving these objectives include joint research projects, student exchange programs, staff mobility projects, specially designed programs aimed at foreign students, joint curriculum development initiatives, specific initiatives in the context of university development aid policies etc.

In India, as in many other developing countries, inflows of FEPs are increasing rapidly. The FEPs are advertising in Indian newspapers (National and Regional) to attract the students' who desire to earn a foreign degree. So far there are no regulatory measures to control the entry of the FEPs. Amidst all uncertainties, our country is working out its regulatory policies to invite the FEPs to be incorporated in the higher education system. A noteworthy feature of the finding is that around 563 universities, Colleges and Institutes from 30 different countries are advertising in India through their consultancies or agencies. In terms of advertisements received, the leading countries are UK, Australia, Canada, and USA. There are also unexpected countries that have representation in India – like Nepal, Mauritius and Kyrgyzstan. The legal status of these FEPs and Indian partners remain a challenge in the absence of regulatory measures and guidelines. Therefore FEPs are mushrooming in some specific regions – Mumbai – Nasik – Pune zone, Chennai, Hyderabad, Kolkata, Chandigarh and Delhi (National Capital Region (NCR)). There are many issues that need to be reflected upon. They include – equity and access, relevance of these FEPs-offered courses, equivalence of degrees, governance and management and potentials. Meanwhile the courses offered are in attractive packages (some with scholarship) which might make India a future hub of higher education in the South Asia region. But according to the study conducted, it has been found that there are some apprehension concerning the legal status, recognition and accreditations of FEPs. Concerns have also been raised over the comprehensive range of study programme, of promoting entrepreneurship, and of a complete education amongst students'. Also of concerns are their cooperation with the government and the business sector in developing learning and research. The issues of socio-economic realities and social justice also raise certain questions. Are FEPs committed to the establishments of a community where equality of opportunity will be a reality for all?

Social Equity and Justice:

Education in the Indian subcontinent is virtuoso and is foremost a source of liberation. Liberation form illiteracy which had led to subjugation and exploitation of the long oppressed sections of the society. So the issue of access and equity to higher education is being addressed in the light of vast economic disparities, cultural and linguistic diversities and extremely uneven opportunities of learning and aspirations of the

potential students. Article 46 of the Constitution states that, "The State shall promote, with special care, the education and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of social exploitation". Articles 330, 332, 335, 338 to 342 and the entire Fifth and Sixth Schedules of the Constitution deal with special provisions for implementation of the objectives set forth in Article 46. These provisions are being fully utilised for the benefit of these weaker sections in our society. Social Justice through university education. The studies in educational reforms gives birth to many questions like equal opportunity for higher education though the finance Minister in his budget speech on the Union Budget 2005-06 made the following announcements- 'The key to empowering the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is to provide top class education opportunities to meritorious students.'

There are disparities in Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) hs been seen between male and female, Muslims, Hindus and others, poor and non poor from rural and urban areas, scheduled castes (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST) Other Backward Classes (OBC) and others are evident.. The enrollment of women has seen a consistent upward trend from less than 10 percent of the enrollment in 1950-51 to about 40 percent now. A similar growth trend is observed fro students from the disadvantaged sections of the society. (Agarwal, Pawan, 2009).

The achievements made in the literacy rates of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are also significant compared to those in the 1991 Census, i.e. 37.41 per cent and 29.41 per cent respectively. Besides, the growth in female literacy amongst the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is also at a faster rate as compared to male literacy figures. In India the female literacy increased at a faster pace (10 per cent) than male literacy (8 per cent) over the period 1981-91. Overall, the literacy rate recorded an increase from about 19 per cent of the population aged 5 and above in 1951 to 52 per cent of the population aged 7 and above in 1991. The rate of female literacy also rose noticeably from 9 per cent of the population aged 5 and above in 1954 to 40 per cent aged 7 and above in 1991. The enrolment of SCs/STs in secondary and senior secondary levels was 18.6%, their enrolment in higher education came down to 17.4%. Enrolment in professional, technical and vocational education stood at 14.7%.

The literacy rate among SCs has increased from 25 per cent in 1981 to 38 per cent in 1991.

Correspondingly, the literacy rate among STs has increased from 17 per cent in 1981 to 30 per cent in 1991. In spite of these increases, the levels of literacy among SCs and STs are distinctly lower than that of the population as a whole (52 per cent). Gender disparity is conspicuous among SCs and STs. The ratio of female literates to total number of literates improved from 69 in 1981 to 76 in 1991. The rural-urban differential in male literacy declined from 27 per cent in 1981 to 26 per cent in 1991. However, the rural-urban difference in female literacy increased. Female literacy varies from 8 per cent in Barmer district of Rajasthan to 94 per cent in the Kottayam district of Kerala.

Source: http://www.education.nic.in/cd50years/r/2Q/A2/2QA20401.htm

Table 10. Programme-wise Enrolment (2004-2005 as on 30.9.2004)

Programme	Total	% Girls	% SC	% ST
PhD/D.Sc/D.Phil	55,352	41.2	5.8	2.4
M. A	469,291	46.6	16.2	4.9
M. Sc	198,719	45.7	10.4	2.8
M. Com	122,257	34.0	9.2	3.0
Post-graduate – subtotal	790,267	44.4	13.6	4.1
BA/BA (Hons.)	3,772,216	43.9	14.9	5.2
B.Sc/B.Sc (Hons.)	1,490,785	38.9	11.3	3.3
B.Com/B.Com (Hons.)	1,465,028	36.6	8.5	3.3
B.E/B. Arch.	696,609	23.7	8.5	3.1
Undergraduate-Subtotal	7,424,638	39.6	12.3	4.3
Medicine, Dentistry, Nursing, Pharmacy, Ayurvedic, Unani and Homeopathy	256,748	34.7	11.5	3.7
B. Ed/B. T	155,192	43.8	12.4	5.8
Others	3095,099	37.9	6.0	2.1
Total Enrollment	11,777,296	39.4	10.7	3.7

Source: Selected Educational Statistics (2004-05), MHRD, Govt. of India, 2007 (As published in Agarwal, Pawan (2009) 55)

Expansion of higher education over the years has democratized higher education. Despite this, there are significant inequities in participation. To varying degrees, gender disparity, inter-religious group disparity, disparity across income groups, inter-caste disparity and rural urban disparity all exist.

It is seen that though participation of women students and students form SCs and STs has raised significantly, participation of girls, SCs and STs in professional, science and commerce programmes is proportnately less.

In higher education, affirmative action has been the most and controversial policy of correction to achieve the equity objective. So the importance of caste identity in the Indian polity has been the basis of preferential treatment for admission in institutions of higher education since independence. Numerical quotas have been vogue for the SCs (15%) and STs(7.5%) at the national level. Later some states also introduced quota-based reservations for the OBCs-a 27 % quota. The Central government had made it clear that all these would be addressed and the rollout would be done in a phased manner. The Eleventh Plan outlay made financial provisions to accommodate this expansion. (*Agarwal, Pawan (2009) 59*)

Prospects and Development:

1.   Since then higher education had always been vibrant. In the wings of time the form of education developed was a moreover teacher-centric system and initial years of independence it was considered relevant to the industrial society. (Takwale, Ram, 1998, 10).

2.   The issue of accessibility of quality higher education arises in the context of the transition from the elite to the mass education and has significant implications in the sense that it demands redefinition of the aims of higher education (Gautam, Satya P, 2005, 2).

3.   The movement for change has arisen from a wide spread sense of inadequacy of the traditional paradigm. This sense of inadequacy cannot be understood unless we look beyond the historians' craft at the changes in the wider world.

4.   The emerging new trends in the higher education focus on multi-disciplinary programmes that allow students to tailor their study to match their interest, helping them gain edge in specialized industries or broaden their career options. In this context, considering the ongoing internationalization, this has developed as a concept, originated from globalization. This has occupied the attention of the international agencies and institutions of higher education.

5.   As a result, this new phase in higher education relates the universities and multiversity's (multi-campuses and even single universities) to internationalization. It is identified in this study that they are often co-existing, interlocking, or contradictory in nature. "Internationalization involves the co-existing multiple missions of the university. Thus, the postmodern university will likely internationalize its mission of teaching, research, and public service in the global information age" (Scott, John C., 2006, 3, 4).

6.   The major trends which are to addressed are by the University higher education system:

a.   Student Mobility (student studying outside their home country has raised).

b.   Staff mobility (the notion of brain drain circulation is gaining currency, with a recognition that scientists working overseas very often return to their home countries in due course)

c.   Trans-national education (universities setting shop in overseas locations; countries active in this provision include the USA, the UK and Australia)

d.   Increase in international teaching activities (concentrated in professional subjects such as business and IT)

e.   International collaboration in research

Conclusion:

In Conclusion, I can say that the strategies to shape our Universities to meet the local and global needs, the restructuring of the Universities to suit the present day requirements in a changing scenario and to meet the visions for the future. Functionality of Modern Indian Universities during the last 150 years is a phenomenal shift in their prime role from conferment of degrees to commitment for development and values of University education. The new paradigms of education which is in need of Multi – disciplinary Universities and quality assurance in higher education

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GLOBALIZATION: EMERGING TRENDS IN

HIGHER EDUCATION

(A Study of India)

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ABSTRACT: In the era of globalization Indian state and society has been facing a serious crisis in adopting global policies and programmes on the one side and to meet the needs and aspirations of the people with in the frame work of constitutional obligations on the other. This study mainly aims at to explain the implications of globalization on higher education in terms of policies and programmes within the frame work of problems and prospects.

Higher education has been gaining lot of importance all over the world more so in India due to the impact of Globalization and global policies on the one side and also changing needs and aspirations of the people of respective countries on the other. It is well known fact that the concept and purpose of education though the same for all categories of people and nationals allover the world but its process, system, curriculum development may vary depending on the unique socio-economic and cultural conditions of given nation and its various sections. Sometimes the system of education may vary depending on the socio-economic cultural patterns of the various sections of the population within the nation. As such there are variety of educational systems and process at a given time allover the world at various stages of education. Though the western education systems and models have been highly appreciated for its scientific, practical orientation and utility but eastern educational systems particularly Indian education has been theoretical and integrated personality development oriented despite being its very high achievements in various fields of knowledge since ancient times. However, there are changes taking place in all systems of education such as general, technical and professional education of India at every stage in response to global policies of contemporary times. As such Indian education has been experiencing lot of crisis in adopting the trends of world over and its consequent effects are very serious on the not only structure and function of education but also various sections of population specially the weaker and deprived sections. Every nation has been orienting and revamping educational systems for its human resource development and marketing inline with global policies and perspectives.

In view of the above there are radical changes taking place in India in the structure, functions and curriculum of all courses of higher learning in line with globalized policies.

This paper aims at to understand the globalization and its impact on higher education in India in terms of policy pursuits and structural changes. Further, it also deals with the problems and prospects of the emerging trends in higher education and its positive and negative impact on the various sections of the people specially the marginalized.

However, it is generally viewed that the education system in India specially higher education has been acquiring and adapting a system of western model which is commercial in nature and it is accessible to those who can afford and interested which is against the indigenous model of Indian educational system which inclusive of various sections of the population who can not afford specially such as schedule castes, schedule tribes and backward castes and women. In the post globalization era those who are marginalized sections would be further marginalized and difficult for them to cope-up with new system which is resulting in lot of disparity and inequality in opportunities.

Evolution of Higher Education in India

The ancient history of India reveals that there are only two centers of higher learning namely Taxila and Nalanda. Western education introduced during the British Raj. The modern education system in India falls under concurrent list i.e, in the control of central and state government. Besides there are institutions which are autonomous in nature. There are articles in Indian constitution provides for education as a fundamental right and universities in India are run by state and central government besides there are some private universities and deemed universities. Historically private educational institutions have been contributing a lot. It is interesting to note that despite increasing investment in education, still 40 percent of the population is illiterate and only 15 percent of the students go to high school. It is estimated that "as of 2008, India's post secondary high schools offer only enough seats for 7 percent of India's college age population, 25 percent of teaching positions nation wide are vacant and 57 percent of college professors lack either a master's or Ph.D degree-----. Further, by 2007, there are 1522 degree granting engineering colleges in India with an annual students intake of 5,82,000, plus 1,244 polytechnics with an annual intake of 2,65,000. However, these institutions face shortage of faculty and concerns have been rank over the quality of education".[1]

In the context of achievement of institutional excellence in higher learning of various fields of knowledge in comparison to world universities the following discussion reveals status of higher education in India.

"Although, no Indian University made to the top 300 of the Chinese conducted Academic Ranking of World Universities in 2006, three Indian Universities were listed in the Times Higher Education list of the world top 200 universities.

Indian Institute of Technology, Indian Insititutes of Management and Jawaharlal Nehru University in 2005 and 2006. Six Indian Institutes of Technology and the Birla Institute of Technology and Science-Pilani were listed among the top 20 science and technology schools in Asia by Asia week. While the National Institute of Information Technologies has been renowned as the largest providers of Information Technology training and education company in Asia and among the top 15 global head of education. The Indian school of Business situated in Hyderabad was ranked number 15 in global MBA rankings by the Financial Times of London in 2009, while the All India Institute of Medical Sciences has been recognized as a global leader in medical research and treatment"[2]

G. Satyanarayana[3] in his preface to 'Globalization :Indian State and Educational Pursuits' states that the "contemporary Indian society has been facing lot of crisis in the filed of education.The problems and issues of educational pursuits, in terms of curriculum development, syllabus preparation, selection of students and teachers, teaching problems of the teachers and the overall environment of teaching and learning, problems relating to examinations, evaluations, medium of instruction, teaching aids and lastly the philosophy of education and its aims and objectives have all been raising anxious debates and large scale experiments-----   The trends of changes which are taking place are as follows:

1. Ownership of education (state ownership is declining, private ownership in increasing).
2. Increasing disparities in educational pursuits among various communities and sections with in the communities such as tribal, rural and urban and also due to socio-economic and political background.
3. The problems of medium of instruction, curriculum development and syallabus framing is increasing.
4. To make the relevance of education in the changing socio-economic conditions of the students and the society needs serious attention.
5. The inaccessible trends of education for poorer and rural students, which is against the spirit of the nature of state and its declared policies such as universalisation of education, uniform education and compulsory education are to be examined.

He further opines that 'the emerging trends of educational pursuits are not in line with Indian constitution of universalisation and uniform policy of education and Indian philosophy of education such as Gandhiji's concept of education 'earning while learning'. Rabindranath Tagore's aesthetic, creative and elitist education, Vivekananda's concept of education that 'it is a process of manifestation of internal capacity of a person which already exists in one self,' and Mother Mirra Alpha's concept of education is that it is not gaining something or concurring somebody but it is a process of learning by which one should reach to the outmost perfectibility in life'.

The contemporary trends in educational pursuits reflects the increasing expenditure on education and declining interest of the state, growing unemployment, declining importance to conventional courses, including the conventional engineering courses; capitalist kind of commercialization of education and as a consequence inability of the majority students to bear the expenditure. Further Government is also increasingly withdrawing its role and responsibility from the management of education.

As a result there are various changes taking place in the educational system and consequent implications are multidimensional. One may curious to know the changes in terms of--- 'What are the emerging trends in education? And what are the implications? And what is the present status of education among the various sections of the societies? What will happen to the earth bound societies who are still out of the framework of educational process who are in the dark and ignorance and struggling to exist? What are the constitutional obligations of the state? Who have to own the educational responsibility of the poorer sections? What will be the implications of globalization, liberalization, and privatization of higher education in India. He while quoting Jawaharlal Nehru's concept of capitalism, in Glimpses of World History states that ,'Capitalism is like a rock, however the long you may cook it, it would not yield you the food, only thing you can do with it is that you have to remove it altogether'

Further, the dominant discourse of the contemporary times revealed that declining importance to social sciences and increasing importance to computer sciences. This will certainly and adversely affect the majority students in India who normally come from rural and deprived sections who prefer to study non-technical and non-engineering courses which is affordable and understandable without much external aid and without much guidance from their families".

G.Satyanarayana[4] while discussing the responses of academic community on globalization and its implications states that "In response to the above policy trends there are seminars, symposiums, debates and discussions initiated all over the world by the intelligentsia concerned for the cause of marginalized nations and societies. One such international conference was organized by the World /Asian social forum from 2nd to 7th January 2003 at Hyderabad .It is a historical event .The chief guest of valedictory function was none other than the former President of India Sri K.R.Narayanan who is one of the intellectual giants of contemporary India. He has cautioned in his valedictory address that most of the nations of the world and more so the Indian nation and its states are going to be adversely affected by the process of globalization to the extent of uprooting identities. This affect will be more in the context of underdeveloped and developing societies and more so the indigenous earthbound poorer sections of the developing world. He concluded that 'unipolar systems are unnatural while multipolar systems are natural'. Hence, there is a need for unity of the developing societies to resist the developed world and their policy impositions. This is the only way to help the helpless people of developing world and their majority people not to further marginalize".

The following statement by the prime minister of India reflects the alarming situation of Indain higher education in the era of globalization:

" Our university system is, in many parts, in a state of disrepair…In almost half the districts in the country, higher education enrollments are abysmally low, almost two-third of our universities and 90 per cent of our colleges are rated as below average on quality parameters… I am concerned that in many states university appointments, including that of vice-chancellors, have been politicised and have become subject to caste and communal considerations, there are complaints of favouritism and corruption" .

– Prime Minister Manmohan Singh[5]

Globalization would further complicate the Indian education system in terms of its accessibility, affordability, nature, content, loosing control of the state and its accountability. The following discussion reflects the existing status of Indian higher education.:

"India's higher education system is the third largest in the world, after China and the United States. The main governing body at the tertiary level is the University Grants Commission (India), which enforces its standards, advises the government, and helps coordinate between the centre and the state. Accreditation for higher learning is overseen by 12 autonomous institutions established by the University Grants Commission.

As of 2009, India has 20 central universities, 215 state universities, 100 deemed universities, 5 institutions established and functioning under the State Act, and 13 institutes which are of national importance. Other institutions include 16,000 colleges, including 1800 exclusive women's colleges, functioning under these universities and institutions. The emphasis in the tertiary level of education lies on science and technology. Indian educational institutions by 2004 consisted of a large number of technology institutes. Distance learning is also a feature of the Indian higher education system.

Some institutions of India, such as the Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs), have been globally acclaimed for their standard of education.The IITs enroll about 4000 students annually and the alumni have contributed to both the growth of the private sector and the public sectors of India.

Besides top rated universities which are providing highly competitive world class education to their pupil. India is also home to many universities which have been founded with sole objective of making easy money. Regulatory authorities like UGC, AICTE have been trying very hard to extirpate the menace of private universities which are running courses without any affiliation or recognition. Students from rural and semi urban background often fall prey to these institutes and colleges .

The following discussion reveals the picture of the technical education of contemporary India.From the first Five Year Plan onwards India's emphasis was to develop a pool of scientifically inclined manpower. India's National Policy on Education (NPE) provisioned for an apex body for regulation and development of higher technical education, which came into being as the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) in 1987 through an act of the Indian parliament. At the level of the centre the Indian Institutes of Technology are deemed of national importance. The Indian Institutes of Management are also among the nation's premier education facilities Several Regional Engineering Colleges (REC) have been converted into National Institutes of Technology. The UGC has inter-university centers at a number of locations throughout India to promote common research, eg. the Nuclear Science Centre at the Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi"[6]

Madhuri N.V[7] While explaining the importance and challenges of higher education in 21st century elucidate the various issues of higher education in India with reference to changing requirements of higher education such as the significance of higher education, the skills required in the management of higher education, the requirement of sound regulatory mechanism to assess and accord accreditation by taking into account all the aspects of higher education ,   the need for evaluation and assessment of academic excellence , curriculum development with a balance between regional and national development , the need for the UGC to be empowered to provide an environment of teaching ,training ,development and participation, colleges to empower in all respects and provide moral and material support .She also emphasis the need for autonomous colleges with an objective of 'greater willingness on their part to accept the responsibility and accountability'. Interestingly it is pointed out that there is no much enrollment in the under graduate science educational courses .Further it is also emphasized on the technical education system should promote industry institutional interaction through apprenticeship opportunities, consultancies and sponsored research. There should be university industry interface to raise resources from non traditional sources such as industries and other commercial concerns and to make use of highly qualified trained manpower produced by the institutions of higher education. It is also pointed out that open university system in the country is on lines parallel to the general university system without initiated any innovative courses-----it should be ensured that course material should be easily accessible to the common man .Library facilities and the cost of the books have been declining in proportion to the increase of demand and the requirement the idea of networking libraries providing shared access to journal and books needs to be encouraged by providing necessary infrastructural support. Further, there is lot of hue and cry of increasing fees of higher education which cannot be

affordable to weaker sections of the society and there should be rational in the fees structure. The meritorious students of the weaker sections should be encouraged through the various systems of financial support such as scholarship. In the era of globalization it is natural that the foreign students are to be attracted for the higher education. The fees they pay will be a vital source of foreign exchange for the country. The examination reforms be initiated with appropriate mode of testing student ability, aptitude, and performance without favor and corruption on the objective lines but not issuing mere diplomas and degrees .As such India can enormously emerge as manpower resource center and as an asset in the 21st century if properly trained and encouraged. Further research and development at university level should be in tune with the long term goals of national development. The higher education institutions should be accessible to the people regardless of their class or caste—life oriented, job oriented need based opportunities should be made available to all the people. She while concluding states that, "the old dogmas of higher education cannot face new challenges. Our national education has to get out of conventional degree –oriented education and get to grips with national demands of developments and global market needs. A synthesis material and spiritual values instilled through our higher learning as our Salvationist instrumentalities and tools of collective progress".

Pankaj Das[8] while explaining democratization of education issues of exculsion and inclusion in policy depicts the actual picture in the context of Schedule castes and schedule tribe education. He while quoting (K.Sujatha, 2002) states that :

> "In India, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have been socially underprivileged, economically backward and economically deprived for centuries. Historically both the groups were denied social access to education. Scheduled Caste were systematically segregated from the village and were denied access to education. The exclusion of the Scheduled Tribes on the other hand was based on a different set of social and cultural factors. In one of the studies they were defined as the "double disadvantaged group" owing to their socio-economic and spatial marginalisation.- ------- Further he states while quoting Jaffrelot (2003) that "India is a case of political democracy without social democracy. The whole policy environment for inclusion in India reflects the fulfillment of political interest rather than the social interests; where equity is not a major agenda".

Anil G.Mudbidri[9] While explaining the "implication of globalization and privatization on reservation provisions of Indian constitution states that "Article 14 of the Indian constitution states that education will be free and compulsory till the age of 14 years. Education is considered a fundamental right .Hence, it confers equal opportunity to all in the field of education. Privatization of education, it is feared, goes against the sprit of this article. Today there is no application of "Reservation Policy" in privately managed Business Houses and Industries and the same way come true in the field of education. The number of students enrolling for university education will come down drastically. Today due to the encouragement given by the government, India has one of the highest number of students obtaining Post graduate education, but this may change with privatization."

Mallesh Sankasala[10] While discussing the impact of economic reforms and dalit population of India states that "the constitution framers under the chairmanship of Dr.Ambedkar who envisaged that state would play important role in the planning and socio-economic development of its citizens to establish egalitarian society .As such they provided certain safeguards such as social ,educational, cultural, religious ,economic .political and employment in the Indian constitution for dalits and other weaker sections. But "the free market ethos unleashed by the reforms, conceptually can neither confirm to the democratic sprit of the Indian constitution of 'one vote, one value', nor can it coexist with the system of positive discrimination embodied in these safeguards". He while discussing the impact of new economic policy states that it has very adversely affected the reservation policy of India in the public

sector and also private sector. The new economic policy which envisages privatization with increased high technology and its optimum use has adversely effected the job market of all the sections particularly vulnerable sections such as the dalits who mostly at the lower rung of organizational jobs without technical skills .As such they lost not only their jobs but also their livelihoods which they cannot find in other fields because of demand of technical skill and intensive competition for the less number of jobs as compared to the past."

National Policies and the Neoliberal Agenda

HariHar Mishra[11] in his unpublished article on "Globalization and Education: National Policies and the Neoliberal Agenda" critically examines the globalization and its implications on the national policies of education in India. He states that "the review report had made recommendations for significant changes in the National Policy on Education 1986 in consonance with the terms of reference which had directed the Committee to:

(a) make education an effective instrument for securing a status of equality for

women, and persons belonging to the backward classes and minorities;

(b) give a work and employment orientation to education;

(c) exclude from (education) the elitist aberrations which have become the glaring

characteristic of the education scene;

(d) lay special emphasis on struggle against (the) phenomenon of 'educational

institutions …. Increasingly being influenced by casteism, communalism and

obscurantism; and

(e) move towards genuinely egalitarian and secular social order.

(Expected from the Government of India's Resolution dated 7 May 1990 constituting the NPE 1986 Review Committee)

He further argues that: The political and economic framework for subjugation by global forces in the education sector emerged soon after the announcement of the New Economic Policy, when the Indian government was 'persuaded' by the IMF and the World Bank to accept the twin concepts of structural adjustment and a social safety net in planning and budgeting for social sectors. There was no choice, the government told the people, justifying its apparent 'helplessness', since these were the preconditions set by the Bretton woods institutions for extending further loans. Plainly speaking, these twin concepts implied that the government would, as part of the structural adjustment programme, incrementally reduced public spending on social sectors such as health, education and social welfare. Recognizing that such a reduction could lead to severe socio-political tensions, the IMF and World Bank 'offered' to create a social safety net by extending loans for the social sector on certain terms and conditions.

ASSAULT ON THE CHARACTER KNOWLEDGE: As was the case with the Macaulayian approach to education, globalization also aims at using education as a tool for building up various skills and capacities that are useful to the global economy (recall the competency-based approach of MLL). The post-Jomtien framework in which educational aims are being trivialized and curricular knowledge is either being reduced to mere literacy skills (for reading product labels and prices), or fragmented into bits of information or competencies (for reading factory instructions, punching keys at the computer keyboard or accepting the dictates of the market uncritically). This amounts to rejection of a holistic approach to building up an enlightened and humane society. In this paradigm, knowledge in the sciences, social sciences and humanities would need to be divested of its philosophical, historical, ethical, socio-cultural and aesthetic roots. Given the predominance market force in the globalized world, it can be predicted that only those courses, research programmes or training activities would receive financial support which have saleable value in the global market--------- . In this sense, there is a fundamental conflict of an epistemological nature between globalization and social development.

Alienation of knowledge from the social ethos is a logical out come of globalization. Increasing preference for the internet as a source of 'knowledge' and its screening or filtration by corporate forces on the basis of marketability, will lead to uprooting of a substantial population of knowledge from its social ethos. Those communities, sections of society or nations denied equitable access to digital technology or English, the dominant language of information technology, will neither share the digitalized knowledge nor be able to contribute their knowledge for human progress .Geo-cultural diversity will come to be largely ignored and eventually have little role to play in defining or qualifying knowledge. This trend will, over a period of time, establish the hegemony of only globally acceptable parameters of what is worth knowing in the age of globalization.

FRAGMENTATION OF KNOWLEDGE : There is no place in the post-jomtien view of curriculum for the world of work being pedagogically integrated with the world of knowledge. Similarly while defining child centeredness joyful learning or multi grade teaching in DPEP literature no attempt is made to envisage knowledge in the content of the social ethos".

NATIONAL KNOWLEDGE COMMISSION

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

Prime minister of India, Dr. Manmohan Singh constituted Knowledge Commission on 13/6/05. "The commission was to advise the prime minister's office on policy related issues with regard to education, research institutions and reforms needed to make India competitive in the knowledge economy.

The terms of reference of knowledge Commission are:

1. To build excellence into education of system to meet the knowledge challenges of the 21st century and increase India competitive advantage in fields of education of knowledge.
2. To promote creation of knowledge in science and technology laboratories.
3. To improve the management of institutions engaged in intellectual property rights.

4. To promote Knowledge applications in agriculture and industry.
5. To promote the use of knowledge capabilities in making government an effective ,transparency and accountable service provides to citizen and promote wide spread sharing of knowledge to maximize public benefit.

Many of the recommendations of the NKC are already in the implementation stage .There are number of controversies erupted since its inception, the commission with regard to its recommendation of and their consequences on structure and functions of higher education and their implications on various sections of Indian society specially deprived. The commission spoke ….against the human resource development ministry's   plans to increase quotas for backward castes in institutions such as I I T's. Majority of the vice-chancellors respected the policy direction given in KNC on the higher education. However, some of the vice-chancellors of various leading universities accept major directions like structural reform, augmentation of university number, freeing appointment of vice-chancellors from direct or indirect interventions on the part of the government etc.

As back drop of KNC the Yashpal committee, 2009 has been constituted to advise renovation of rejuvenation of higher education. It has recommended several things of which major are the setting up of a constitutional body-"The national commission for higher education and research" [12].

Uttam B.Bhaite [13] in his exhaustive presentation of higher education in India in its historical perspective aptly highlights the impact of globalization and its implications not only on various sections of Indian society but also on the emerging structural and functional orientation of higher education in India. He also explains " its pervasive impact on national policies, cultural systems, institutional structure, interpersonal relations etc".

He further states that,it is prudent to examine the wider implications of globalization on a unique society like India .Since "higher education is now being treated at the policy level as more for the individual good than public good. So, it does not deserve any special support from the government. Since it is more further the individual good., its beneficiaries have to bear its cost….. The principle of cost recovery is a core part of this educational neo-liberalization. However, it would be prudent to examine carefully as to how far it would be wise to adopt it in a society like India which continues to be characterized by traditionally inherited acute inequalities based on class, caste, gender, ethnicity and religious affiliations and having larger sections of disadvantaged population awaken and to the notion of equality and aspiring for upward social mobility". While concluding He states that ,"It can also be reasonably predicted that unless India articulates a comprehensive policy with regard to higher education and unless the supervisory and monitoring agencies exercise their authority diligently and with reasonable strictness, the Indian higher education system is likely to plunge into deep chaos".

CONCLUSION

In view of the above discussion the following conclusions are drawn. The higher education is going to be steadily privatized and commercialized for which the state will readily provide policy, legislative, financial and technical support. Knowledge will be gradually trivialized, fragmented and alienated from its social ethos as well as its aim of social development. All deprived sections of society such as dalits, tribals, the majority of other backward classes, cultural and linguistic minorities and the physically and mentally disabled, two thirds of each section being girls, will suffer from further discrimination and exclusion in the education system.

The national economy will not be reprioritized for the purpose allocating adequate resources for education and social development. Instead, there will be increasing dependence on external aid to fulfill constitutional obligations by compromising under pressure from global market forces.

The constitution and laws will be marginalized, amended and even tampered with in order to fulfill the combined dictates of globalization .

Thus, it may be concluded within the above limited spectrum of globalization and its impact on higher education has wider implications of privatization, commercialization and consequent structural and functional changes experiencing the field of education obviously enables the rich and enlighten sections enjoy the educational facilities and consequent grabbing the socio-economic and political power and other advantages more than the existing pattern on the cost of those who have not yet benefited even after 62 years of independent India's policies of uniform education for all, universal education, accessible and affordable education system would be a distant dream . For my imagination it will never come true and so far deprived sections get prepared to loose their roots of origin and hopes of better future and get prepared to lead a shelter less scattered life of unknown destiny.

As consequence of this trend the marginalized sections will be further marginalized and State has no role to play which will be the divine justice that is survival of the fittest and the sufferer will suffer due to their fate.

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Repositioning local knowledge: Developing strategies for critical education research

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Abstract

Problematized accounts of research and representation (e.g. Lyotard, 1984; Feyerabend, 1993; Atkinson & Coffey, 2003; Angrosino & Mays de Perez, 2003) force us to reexamine how we write and read research; by recognizing that research assigns power to certain representations, we can explore how our community discourses and praxes interact. The "objectivity cloak" of positivist research conceals the fact that research paradigms and questions, even the forms in which research is reported, reflect the agenda of privileged members of the community that the research supposedly serves. As Freeman (2007) notes, research privileges certain activities by validating and providing "meaning;" Georgakopoulou (2006) argues that research privileges certain "canonical narratives" and marginalizes others. So-called "global" narratives too often tend to represent the agendas and interests of a select few and, when imposed on local contexts, marginalize local settings, identities, narratives, and knowledge. Unless all participants in the global community are given access to the construction of knowledge, valuable resources are left unused. One way to counter the is to revise the goal of research and teacher education so that it is no longer limited to the construction and dissemination of a knowledge base, but rather the construction and validation of multiple communities that facilitate and support legitimate participation. Studies are needed that not only "capture" local knowledge but also enable participants to shape and validate the local context without being led by a master context.

This paper argues that researchers, teachers, and other knowledge constructors need to reduce and resist the marginalizing forces at work in the narratives and constructs we employ. The paper provides a brief description of how contexts interact and what the consequences are for contextualized research and practice, and argues that critical research and community building can be used to legitimize a greater variety of identities, positions, and activities. Critical recognizes that all research is ideological and subjective, and that research is a social act intended to bring about change. The objective is not primarily to "prove" or "discover," but rather to (re)position and empower all participants (researchers as well as subjects) and their knowledge. Shohamy (2001), discussing assessment, argues that use of such tools must be monitored and limited, that participation and access must be universal, that "those who develop tools of power to assume responsibility for their consequences," and that citizen's rights are protected (p. 376). These principles can be used to yield a set of strategies to inform practice and praxis. Critical research establishes discourse and knowledge at the local level, thus validating and strengthening the position of that knowledge. The goal is not to create a unified, single description or definition of knowledge, but rather to bring forward the multiple and diverse identities, roles, and narratives as they are perceived from the different participants. By doing so, it is possible to reveal and validate the many potential identities and positions that are available to—and that can be created by and for—the participants in the activity.

Women leaders in Malaysian Research University

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Abstract

Malaysia wishes to establish world class universities among the public and private universities in the country. As such, concepts like Research Universities and APEX University were introduced, emphasizing on rankings of their university in the world. Research universities are institutions with high priority on the discovery of new knowledge and the production of graduate students especially PhDs in a wide range of disciplines. The emphasis of these institutions is on the international nature that represents the leading edge of higher education's embracing the forces of globalization

Studies indicated that the success of many organizations is due to the leadership factor. In order for the Malaysian University to compete world wide it needs a new kind of leader that is considered effective and relevant in a fast changing world. What kind of leader can provide an effective leadership in this changing nature of higher education system?.

The purpose of this study is to identify the role and the competencies needed by these global or world class leaders to lead their organization in the new environment. Focus group interviews and semi structured interviews were held with different group of participants. This paper will describe the preliminary finding from interviews with five women leaders holding various posts in the university administration. Most participants feels that they have to assume new roles since they are leading a workforce that are shifting from traditional independent pattern of inquiry to becoming members of team oriented, cross disciplinary, and international partnership with research directed more often than before toward real world problems. To complement the new roles they have to acquire new competencies ranging from understanding diversity and multiculturalism, to recruitment of staffs and students at international level. Leading Research University effectively is crucial issue for policy makers, leaders, staff and the community at large.

Investigating the Performances of Government PR Practitioners: Contribution from Academe to Professionals for Work Efficiency Improvement

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Abstract

While business public relations practitioners work primarily to support marketing efforts and thereby generate sales and profits for their firm, Government PR people usually perform various tasks to promote understanding among the public regarding the government issues. The Government Public Relations Department (PRD) is the government PR tool to disseminate information deemed necessary by the government to the public, especially those in rural areas. The government issues are various, covering politics, economy, agriculture, and cultural aspects. The goal of these efforts is particularly to improve their life quality and encourage them to develop desirable understanding and behavior.

The Government PR practitioners have employed various media channels to accomplish their missions. Those channels include broadcast media (TV, radio, newspaper), print media (brochure, leaflet), and new media (internet). However, PRD has successively been accused of work inefficiency and inability to satisfactorily achieve its objectives. A provincial governor, for example, stated in one interview with the press that PRD has been promoting knowledge about democracy among the rural people for ages, yet vote buying among these people is still prevalent and becoming more devastating.

As a result, PRD has regularly requested PR educators to conduct a thorough investigation of their work, and provide training and workshop to their PR staff so as to improve their efficiency. This research, therefore, aims to investigate the current performances of the PR practitioners of PRD, as well as any hindrances to their efforts in achieving work efficiency. The research findings will be used as inputs for conducting further workshops to improve their work performances. Since PRD has eight regional offices around the country, eight focus-group interviews were conducted with 10 key informants in each group. Those key informants include the regional office director and deputy directors, the heads of radio and TV stations, operators, and reporters.

The findings reveal that PRD regional offices have faced both physical and functional problems. Physically, they lack adequate budget and staff to perform their jobs effectively. Thus, one person has to perform many tasks (producer, scriptwriter, program announcer) and has no time to improve their work efficiency. Inadequate budgets and under staff have deprived them of any attempt to conduct proper pre- and post- work evaluation. Without valid research to investigate the public's need, interest and satisfaction, their work eventually becomes unfocused, uncreative, and unproductive.

Functionally, they confessed that, despite their recognition of the significance of research in improving their work efficiency, they have very little knowledge in doing proper research and evaluation which are two most important phases in PR work (Research-Action-Communication-Evaluation or RACE). So far, they have been trying to evaluate their work by talking around with the public, but those efforts are neither scientifically valid nor reliable.

After the research is completed, a workshop on PR research and evaluation will be drafted and launched to the Government PR practitioners in the PRD regional offices. The focus of workshop will be on the small-scale research which can be conducted with minimal budget and staff.

Keywords: Public relations, Government PR practitioners, research and evaluation, work efficiency

The Study of interaction between different interactive learning type and different learning styles throughcomputer network, in learning problem solving

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Abstract

This research has three purposes which are 1) to study interaction between different learning styles and interactive styles in learning through computer network, in order to learn problem solving by using a case study, 2) to study problem solving capabilities in students that learned through computer network with different learning interaction styles, and 3) to study problem solving capabilities in student that learned through computer network with different learning styles. Research method was to develop two styles of interactive lesson through computer network in order to learn problem solving in photography fundamental. First style is interactive between students and contents and the second style is interactive between students and students. These two lessons were evaluated by experts, and were developed through the good quality computer network. The sampling group was 80 undergraduate students of the School of Industrial Education who enrolled in EDT334 subject (Education Technology in Photography Fundamental Technique) and included four different learning styles: 1) Divergent Type 2) Assimilative Type3) Convergent Type and 4) Accommodative Type The simple random was used to define sample group and used Two-way-ANOVA statistic to analyze data.

The research result is following
1. There was interaction between interactive learning through computer network and different learning style at the 0.05 significance level. (sig = .003 < 0.05)
2. Students who learned from different learning interactive through computer network had the same capabilities in problem solving after learning at the 0.05 significance level. (sig = .910 > 0.05)
3. Students who learned with different learning styles had different capabilities in problem solving after learning at the 0.05 significance level. (sig = .000 <0.05)

Keywords : Problemsolving Capabilities, Learning Interactives, Learning Styles, Computer Network

1.Background and Significance of the Problem

To develop effective human resources, it requires education to facilitate and technology as well as computer network, available worldwide, to change the approach and the learning process into a new way. Furthermore, introduction should be paved in such a way that corresponds to the naturalistic approach in order to develop the potential of the learners to the maximum. The application of learning process where students can use computers as tools to acquire knowledge will lead to a new way of learning or self-directed learning. This kind of learning is better in that students are responsible for their own plan, practice and evaluation of their progress (Chai-Anan Samudavanija, 1997: 2). Self-directed learning is a process where learners analyze their own demand in their learning and set their learning goal to acquire knowledge, supporters and sources. Moreover, learners evaluate themselves (Dixon. 1992:2) Zhao (Zhao. 1988:3) supports this idea and says that the role of an instructor in a WWW classroom will change from knowledge distributor and the learning center into a new form in that learners will be the center of the instruction. Learners are the ones who acquire knowledge individually and they get support so as to develop their own potential to learn on their own. The learners can choose the lesson in the form of hypermedia which is a technique where main contents and related contents are linked together. The texts can be linked to related passages or images and sounds to allow learners to gain their own control. The sequence of the contents can be arranged and the appropriate schedule can be done according to the learners (Spiro Feltorich and Jaobson. 1991 : 30). Web-based Instruction is a form of learning where learners can control their lesson by acquiring knowledge in the learner center manner. There can be learner interaction as well (Gillani and Relan. 1996 : 135).

The advantages of the web-based instruction where instruction make the best use of world wide web technology (Budd, 1997) are as follows. 1) Instruction will be done according to the pace of learners (Self-pacing).The instruction need not be in the same schedule between learners and instructors. Learners can choose their learning time according to their suitability. 2) Media in this system are normally repetitive in multiple modes of delivery, namely, the instructors provide learners with many media with the same contents or similar contents so that learners gain various experiences, resulting in clarity and retention. This idea complies with McManus (Mcmanus.1996) in that web is a center which contains many benefits of other kinds of media, for example, media can be linked in various forms to present at the same time (we can link and organize presentation system from various sources). 3) Although learners, instructors and their peers in this course system do not need to meet face-to-face, there are other kinds of interaction in this communication technology and many programs to facilitate such interaction like e-mail programs. The quality of interaction through computer network and world wide web is better

than other kinds in that such interaction takes place in a more thoughtful way than immediate response (which is found in face-to-face classroom interaction). That is to say, learners in this interaction have many chances to think, reflect and find reasons before they answer (Unlike classroom, they do not have to answer immediately). This is beneficial for students, especially those who are shy to speak in classroom. In this system, they can share and discuss very well through computer network.(Owaton.1997)

Driscoll (Driscoll. 2002 : 5-9) emphasizes the importance of the interaction found through website as follows:
1. Learners can control their own learning. Control in this context means that learners can control what to be learned, the duration for learning, the depth of the contents to be studied as well as the contents or opinions that they would like to share.
2. Learners have opportunities to express their opinions equally. This is hard to be done in normal classroom.
3. Learners have interactions with instructors and their own peers. This will result in more interesting instruction and encouragement to support self-centered learning.

4. Viewpoints and attitudes towards the contents and lessons are broadened. This is one element found on web-based instruction. Learners have opportunities to explore their additional contents from websites and various sources of information, resulting in broader learning perspective. Therefore, if learners have opportunities to express or share their viewpoints, they will gain and broaden their own viewpoints as well as attitudes towards such contents and lessons by themselves.

Cooperative learning depends on the properties of computer network where learners can interact in terms of ideas and with instructors and their peers under the scope of the computer network.

Besides such above-mentioned instruction activities, David Kolb (David Kolb,1991) proposes the suggestions about the learning that the students or adults will gain learning experiences according to their own identity. The students have their own different Learning Styles. Some might be better in listening to lecture and report but others are better in various activities with many learning devices. Some might prefer reading alone but others might prefer discussing the topics with others. Learning styles are, therefore, important for selecting instruction approach.

E.G. Bogue (E.G.Bogue.1974 : 149-153) explains that the learners themselves know their own learning styles better than instructors. Therefore, instructors who study students' learning styles and students' learning styles preference will understand the students better. They will be able to develop strategies for instruction in such a way to corresponds to the demand of learners. This is beneficial and enhances the performance of the students. This is different from old instruction approach in which instructors decide by themselves which learning styles their students like. Paitoon Sinlarat (1981) also shares similar viewpoints as follows:

Gagné (Gagné. 1980) believes that the center of education is to teach persons to think, use their thinking power to achieve reasons to become a good problem solver. Educationists and psychologists all agree with Gagné in that problem solving is the most important learning result in life. Basically, in everybody's daily life there are problems to be solved all the time.

Problem solving is the goal of the Buddhist wisdom (Anderson ,1980). During practice, there are 2 things to be considered as follows:
1.   Problem solving must present ideas of world situations, that is to say, problem solvers propose ideas to solve problems (or mental model) to know the holes in such problems (Newell & Simon, 1972). Although only few agree with the definition of the holes in problems and mental models, such holes in mental models usually presents various models to explain the construction of knowledge structure, knowledge acquisition, knowledge reflection, mental image as metaphor to the system, along with the practice or the success of knowledge building (Jonassen &

Henning, 1999). Even though holes in internal problems might be outside and many tools must be used to present such ideas (Jonassen, 2000c), the structure of the ideas to fill up the holes is the highest end of the problem analysis.

2.   Problem solving must be based on the activities to fill up the holes in such problems. Thinking is an internal process (Jonassen, 2000b). Making sense with attention must be related to activities. Therefore, feedbacks can be found and directed with the role of knowledge and activities (Fishbein, Eckart, Lauver, van Leeuven & Langemeyer, 1990). Problem solving must deal with the holes in such problems or internal process.

Gick (Gick, 1986 : 99-120) proposes an approach to solve problems through 2 steps as follows:

1.   Construct Problem Representation: In this step, learners try to understand the problems and link such problems to previous knowledge and construct problem representation.

2.   Search for Solution: Learners search for ways to solve problems. Understanding need to be used to analyze the relationship between the things specified in such problem. Ways to solve problems are constructed and then followed in order to achieve the results to be evaluated later.

Julian et al. (Julian et.al, 2000 : 38-54) asserts that case study-based instruction can enhance learners in solving problems. The properties needed to be used for problem solving can be as follows:

1. Focus on the big picture
2. Work forward from what they know
3. Simultaneously consider multiple factors
4. Generate tentative solutions
5. Consider potential consequences and implications

According to such theories and research works as cited above, the researchers realized the needs to study web-based instruction as a learning innovation which grows rapidly due to the advances in internet system depending on telecommunication technology. There are many learning interactive forms between learners and contents as well as learners and peers. The results from one research work show that students are more satisfied with the interaction between learners and contents. However, they lack skills in learning in groups and discussion skills. That is to say, learners just answer the questions from the instructors; they do not answer the discussion topic. The topics raised are normally unrelated to the main topic. Gagné (Gagne'. 1980) believes that the center of education is to teach persons to think, use their thinking power to achieve reasons to become a good problem solver. Educationists and psychologists all agree with Gagné in that problem solving is the most important learning result in life. Basically, in everybody's daily life there are problems to be solved all the time. If web-based instruction through computer network is used to develop problem learning, it will be probable that both instruction approaches become successful. Learners can solve problems in such a good way. Moreover, it is useful for answering the question whether learners with different learning styles who interact through computer network between learners and contents as well as between learners and peers have different problem solving skills or not. This research results will be used to develop cooperation in school and workplace to define desire traits in Thai society. It is also beneficial for other computer network instructions in the future.

2. Research Objectives

1.   To study the interaction between different learning styles and interactive styles in learning through computer network in order to learn problem solving by a case study.

2.   To study problem solving capabilities in students that learned through computer network with different learning interaction styles.

3.   To study problem solving capabilities in students that learned through computer network with different learning styles.

3.Population and Sampling Group

Population consisted of all 259 undergraduate students at the Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology who enrolled in EDT334 subject (Education Technology in Photography Fundamental Technique) in the first semester of the academic year 2006.

Sampling Group consisted of 80 undergraduate students at the Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology who enrolled in EDT334 subject (Education Technology in Photography Fundamental Technique) in the first semester of the academic year 2006. They were from 2 classes.

Variables
  Independent variables are
1. Learning styles as specified by Kolb (Kolb,1991). There are 4 types as follows:
1.1 Divergers
1.2 Assimilators

1.3 Convergers
1.4 Accommodators
2. Learning interaction styles through computer network which consist of 2 types as follows:
2.1 Learning interaction through computer network between learners and contents
2.2 Learning interaction through computer network between learners and peers
3.Dependent variables are Problem solving capabilities in EDT334 subject (Education Technology in Photography Fundamental Technique).

Research Hypotheses

1.There is interaction between learning interaction styles through computer network and different learning styles

2. Students who learned with different learning interaction styles through computer network by using a case study have different problem solving capabilities.

3. Learners with different learning styles through computer network have different problem solving capabilities.

4. Tools used in this research

Tools used in this research were as follows:

4.1.The lesson through computer network about Education Technology Fundamental Technique was designed and based on 5 case studies. There were 2 kinds as follows:

4.1.1 The learning interaction through computer network between learners and Contents.

4.1.2 The learning interaction through computer network between learners and their peers.

4.2 Evaluation form for the web-based instruction in terms of the media structure and web design.

4.3 Evaluation form for the lesson through computer network in terms of problem solving capabilities.

4.4 Survey test on Learning styles by Kolb (Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre 1971; Kolb, 1991; Wolfe and Kolb,1984)

4.5 Test of problem solving capabilities in the course on Education Technology Fundamental Technique.

5. Treatment and Data Analysis

The treatment and data analysis were as follows:

5.1 The survey test on learning styles by David Kolb (Kolb, 1991) was used with students.

5.2 The results were used to classify students into 4 following groups

Group 1 Divergent Type
Group 2 Assimilative Type
Group 3 Convergent Type
Group 4 Executive Type

5.3 All students of 4 groups were chosen through simple random sampling method in order to have 2 groups of 40 as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 shows the form of the experiment

Learning styles	The learning interaction		
	Learners/contents	Learners/peers	Total
Divergers	10	10	20
Assimilators	10	10	20
Convergers	10	10	20
Accommodators	10	10	20
Total	**40**	**40**	**80**

The statistical tools used for the experiment analysis and evaluation were as follows:

1. The students' attitude towards the web-based instruction lesson through computer network which used problem solving approach by experts. The mean ($\overline{X}$) and the standard deviation (S.D.) were used for analysis.

2. The problem solving capabilities test was used to find out the difficulty, the distributive power, the reliability according to KR-20 formula by Kuder Richardson.

3. The efficiency of the web-based instruction lesson through computer network based on case study was measured by using E_1 / E_2 (Saowanee Sikhapundit.1985)

4. The problem solving capabilities were measured as well as the learning by learners who learned such web-based instruction lesson through computer network based on case study. The mean ($\overline{X}$) and the standard deviation (S.D.) were measured.

5. The study was done for 2 independent variables: the learning interaction through computer network and 4 types of learning styles. The dependent variable is problem solving. The results were analyzed using.

           1) basic statistics which were mean and standard deviation
           2) Two way ANOVA

6.Results from Data Analysis

Results from Two-way ANOVA for problem solving capabilities of learners with different learning styles who learned with different learning interactions were different. The researcher used the scores to analyze and show the results in Table 2.

Table 2 Results from Two Way ANOVA for different learning styles and different learning interaction which affected the problem solving capabilities after learning through computer network (Before the treatment)

Variance Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Sum of variables	1156.487	7	165.212	6.783	.000
Learning styles	789.138	3	263.046	10.800	.000
Learning interaction	.313	1	.313	.013	.910
Through computer network Interaction	367.037	3	122.346	5.023	.003
S.D.	1753.700	72	24.357		
Total	42293.000	80			

$p < 0.05$

According to Table 2, it was found that learners with different learning styles showed different problem solving capabilities after the treatment with significance at the 0.05 level (sig = .000 > 0.05). Learners with different learning interaction did not show significance at the 0.05 level (sig = .910 < 0.05). There was interaction between learning interaction through computer network and different learning styles with significance at the 0.05 level (sig = .003 < 0.05).

       The researchers tested problem solving capabilities before and after the treatment for learners with learning interaction through computer network. They were divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators who learned with different interactions through computer network. The scores were analyzed as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 shows the average scores for the learners who learned through computer network with different learning interaction through computer network before the treatment

Learning styles	Learning interaction through computer network					
	Learners and contents		Learners and peers		Total	
	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD
Divergers	11.50	4.67	10.10	3.76	10.80	4.19
Assimilators	8.00	3.46	9.90	2.92	8.95	3.27
Convergers	10.00	1.89	10.20	5.61	10.10	4.08
Accomodators	13.70	5.14	10.70	3.83	12.20	4.67
Total	10.80	4.38	10.23	4.00	10.51	4.18

According to Table 3, it was found that learners with different styles did not have different average score for problem solving capabilities ($\overline{X}$ for divergers = 10.80, for assimilators = 8.95, for convergers = 10.10, and for accomodators = 12.20). When the average scores for problem solving capabilities form learners with different learning styles and different learning interaction through computer network, it was found that the learning style with the highest average score was accomodators ($\overline{X}$ = 12.20). The learning style with the lowest average score was assimilators ($\overline{X}$ = 8.95).

Table 4 shows the average score for the problem solving capabilities of learners who learned through computer network with different learning interaction through computer network after the treatment

| Learning styles | Learning interaction through computer network | | | | | |
| | Learners and contents | | Learners and peers | | Total | |
	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD	$\overline{X}$	SD
Divergers	25.10	5.59	23.10	4.95	24.10	5.24
Assimilators	19.50	6.36	14.00	2.05	16.75	5.40
Convergers	21.10	6.28	27.00	2.45	24.05	5.54
Accomodators	22.80	6.07	24.90	3.48	23.85	4.93
Total	22.13	6.21	22.25	6.00	22.19	6.07

According to Table 4, it was found that the highest average score for problem solving capabilities was from divergers ($\overline{X}$ = 24.10) and the lowest average score for problem solving capabilities was from assimilators ($\overline{X}$ = 16.75). When the average scores for problem solving capabilities from different learning styles and different learning interaction through computer network, it was found that the highest the highest average score for learners with the interaction between learners and peers was from ($\overline{X}$ = 27.00) and the lowest average score for learners with interaction between learners and peers was from assimilators ($\overline{X}$ = 14.00).

7.Summary and Discussions
Two Way ANOVA of variance for problem solving capabilities form learners with different learning styles and different learning interaction yielded the following results.
1.   Learners with different learning styles for problem solving after the treatment were different at the 0.05 significance level (sig = .000 > 0.05). Learners who learned from different learning interaction through computer network had the same problem solving capabilities at the 0.05 significance level (sig = .910 < 0.05). There was interaction between learning interaction through computer network and different learning styles at the 0.05 significance level (sig = .003 < 0.05).
2.   Divergent learners were different from assimilators at the 0.05 significance level. Assimilators were different from the convergers at the 0.05 significance level. Assimilators also were different from accommodators at the 0.05 significance level.

The problem solving capabilities before and after the treatment for learners who learned through computer network with different learning interaction were as follows:
1.   Divergers showed the highest average score for problem solving capabilities ($\overline{X}$ = 24.10) and assimilators showed the lowest average score for problem solving capabilities ($\overline{X}$ = 16.75). When the average scores for problem solving capabilities from learners with different learning styles and different learning interaction, it was found that convergers who had interaction between learners and peers showed the highest average ($\overline{X}$ = 27.00). Assimilators with interaction between learners and peers showed the lowest average score ($\overline{X}$ = 14.00). The results for each pair were as follows:

Divergers were better at problem solving than assimilators.
Convergers were better at problem solving than assimilators.
Accomodators were better at problem solving than assimilators.
Learners with divergent type and assimilative type who learned with learning interaction between learners and contents were better at problem solving than learners with accommodative type with learning interaction through computer network between learners and peers.
Learners with convergent type and executive type who learned with learning interaction between learners and peers were better at problem solving than learners with learning interaction through computer network between learners and contents.

Discussions

According to the study of interaction between different interactive learning type and different learning styles through computer network, the research could discuss the following aspects along with the findings from related research documents and papers.

1. There was interaction between learning interaction through computer network and different learning styles at the 0.05 significance level.

Two Way ANOVA of variance and covariance for the problem solving capabilities of students with different learning styles after the treatment showed that there was interaction between learning interaction through computer network and different learning style at the 0.05 significance level. This was in accordance with the specified hypothesis.

The researcher formed the hypothesis that there is interaction between learning interaction through computer network and different learning styles because the researcher believes that in order to have problem solving capabilities, the students had to have problem solving process according to the experts in case study based learning (Julian et al, 2000). Here are brief and clear process: 1) general picture of the problem must be made under appropriate principle, 2) begin with solving problems from what is already known, 3) think many elements at the same time, 4) many possible and temporary answers must be made, 5) consider answers which show potential and meaning as well as great benefit and small risk. The activities in cooperative instruction will develop the understanding of learners better than working alone and it increase relationship in groups by sharing opinions among themselves. Learners will also learn to listen to others to find out the best solution. The researcher designed the lesson with 2 learning interactions through computer network: learning interaction between learners and contents (one individual learner learns contents) and between learners and peers. The researcher believes that the problem solving capabilities of students with different learning styles in different learning interaction through computer network are likely to have interaction.

According to the data analysis, it was found that the interaction between different learning interaction through computer network and different learning style was different. The score from learners with different learning styles in 2 learning interactions through computer network showed different problem solving capabilities. This was possibly because the design of web-based instruction by using case study was to be used through computer network with different instruction process. The learners would know additional information and searched for more details from recommended sources. Moreover, learners would share opinions, discuss the problems and solutions to such problems. There were experts (instructors) to answer the questions, join the discussion group and give advice on solutions. Therefore, the problem solving capabilities form learners who learned with learning interaction between learners and contents would learn by themselves. They would send e-mail and participate in web boards. This is in accordance with Kahney (Kahney, 1993) in that problem capabilities are essential in the perspective of education. If we believe that learning results can be different, then we will have different instruction. This complies with Yunfei (Yunfei, 2002) who conducted the study on impact of web-based instruction on undergraduate students based on learning styles as described by Kolb. The research results revealed that the learning style affected how they learned on web site. There was interaction between learning style and capabilities of learners. The students who are convergers are happier and more satisfied on web site than assimilators with the significance level.

2. Learners who learned from learning interaction through computer network about case study had no different problem solving capabilities at the 0.05 significance level. This was not in accordance with Hypothesis 2. The research work by Prachanan Nilsuk (2001) who conducted a study on effects of link and web page in web-based instruction on learning achievement, problem solving and knowledge transfer of learners with different learning styles explains that the problem solving capabilities and knowledge transfer were not different. Udom Rattana-ampornsophon (2001) studied the effects of synchronous and asynchronous communication on web-based instruction for problem-based learning. The results showed that learning achievement was not different. This means that web-based instruction and communication on web pages are not related to problem solving capabilities and learning achievement.

According to the table showing the results about problem solving capabilities of learners in 2 learning interactions before the treatment were quite the same with 10.80 as an average for the interaction between learners and contents and 10.23 as an average for the interaction between learners and peers. As for the results after the treatment, they were quite the same with 22.13 as average for the interaction between learners and contents and 22.25 as average for the interaction between learners and peers. This means that both interactions have the same efficiency no matter which interaction learners applied.

3. Learners with different learning styles through computer network had different problem solving capabilities at the 0.05 significance level. This was in accordance with Hypothesis 3. It was found that divergers could get the highest average score for problem solving capabilities whereas assimilators showed the lowest average score for problem solving capabilities. When the average score for problem solving capabilities was compared according to different learning interaction, it was found that convergers could get the highest average score for the interaction between learners and peers. Assimilators showed the lowest average score. This is because convergers can think in abstract manner and do experiment whereas assimilators focus on thought and conclusion as abstract so they are less interested in real experience. Moreover, assimilators do not like to do experiment. They do not apply theories either. People in this group are normally in the area of basic sciences like mathematics and in organization where there is research. Yunfei (Yunfei, 2002) conducted the study on impact of web-based instruction on undergraduate students based on learning styles as described by Kolb. The research results revealed that learning styles affected the way students learned on web site, their interaction and their learning capabilities. Convergers were happier and more satisfied with the web-based instruction than assimilators with the significance level. Sein and Robey (Sein and Robey, 1991 cited in Wentling T.L. and Others, 2000 : 16) conducted a study based on Kolb's learning styles to see the interaction between learning styles and learning achievement. It was found that Convergent Type is a mix of active experimentation and abstract conceptualization (AC), so they are better at learning. Sein and Robey suggest that learning achievement of students is likely to be related to the learning style of students.

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Developing eLearning Content Considering Various Video Scenarios

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ABSTRACT

Most educational institutes are moving towards implementing eLearning platforms. Content development for eLearning is considered the heart of any eLearning platform. Without such, these platforms are considered passive systems. Unfortunately many institutes are lagging behind in this issue, or simply they are satisfied by having their instructors uploading PowerPoints and Word versions of their lectures. This paper will first present few forms of electronic lectures (eLecture) such as Multimedia, Power-points, As-In-Class eLectures, or just simple html files. It will then propose a simple authoring tool that takes as input, the instructor video, in either scenario: a close up view or a wide view, as well as not only the electronic material but also how it was presented. Thus, the notes that were inserted during the presentation through the presentation application, as well as the animation and slide transitioning used, will be part of the content development. The presented tool selects significant screen shots, rather than periodical ones, and links them with the video/Audio input within a simple file written in SMIL.

Keyword: eLearning, Multimedia, Content Development, Authoring Tool.

1. Introduction

eLearning is becoming an essential approach that most educational institutes are adopting. The dependency of these institutes on their eLearning platform such as Moodle [1], Blackboard [2], WebCT [3] and many others, has dramatically increased once sufficient training has been received by the staff. Almost all eLearning platforms offer a way to create, or at least upload, electronic lecture notes (eLectures in short). eLectures are considered the heart of any eLearning platform. However, an institute may not realize earlier how heavy the load of activating such feature is. There exist many challenges in activating such feature within the eLearning platform. One of these challenges is to select which eLecture format to adopt. This may be specific to the platform used; thus, migrating to a different system in the future would be costly when a good number of eLectures have been developed. Another challenge is the resistance the instructors may show after realizing how time consuming is to learn how to compose a short lecture in the required format. Yet another challenge is when the students find themselves obligated to download some players to be able to view online eLectures. Finally, content development is a costly process especially for courses that their contents change frequently, such as in the field of computer science.

For these reasons, one may find many institutes who are using an eLearning platform are lagging behind if content development is considered. Yet, having the top eLearning platform without the necessary content is like having a state of the art computer screen without a computer.

This paper will present an automated lecture capturing system that creates an eLecture through an intelligent screen capturing algorithm, namely Smart Screen Capturing (SSC) algorithm. The system packages the lecture presented to the students in the lecture room as is; with video, audio and animations in a standard format that may be viewed by popular and publicly available applications; thus, producing an As-in-Class (AiC) eLectures. The paper will also give the reader some flavor on the two video scenarios that can be considered by the proposed authoring tool.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 will discuss briefly three most common simple formats for eLectures that can be adopted by lagging institutes on the issue of electronic content development. Section 3 will discuss two scenarios of capturing video that can be included in eLectures, and in Section 4, a simple authoring tool that is built on top of a Smart Screen Capturing algorithm to generate eLectures will be detailed. Finally in Section 5, we will conclude the paper highlighting its contribution.

2. eLectures Formats

eLectures can take various formats, such as Multimedia, Power-point, As-In-Class eLectures, or just simple html files. Multimedia eLectures, although require a lot of time to compose, but they are by far much more attractive to students to watch and learn from than simple html or PowerPoint documents, especially when being interactive. However, they not only require a lot of time to compose, but also they require a lot of skills and much training to be received by instructors and/or authors. Such Multimedia content which are usually rich with animations may be developed by Macromedia Flash MX, Adobe Director or other similar tools.

Authoring on the fly (AOF), such as Ref. [4], is a content production by presentation recording approach. It was used by many applications to create eLectures during normal lectures. The major advantage of these applications is

the reduced costs for the creation of eLectures. Its main objective is to automatically capture live lectures and presentations in classrooms and lecture halls, and make them available as eLectures in a variety of output formats for access over the internet. These eLectures are often of As-In-Class (AiC) type eLectures. AiC lectures are useful in blended learning where students may re-attend the lectures they did not full understand at their own space and convenience. They are also useful for distant learning, where students feel as if they are in class. Lectures and training sessions in companies or universities are in many cases based on some kind of electronic material, such as PowerPoint-slides, digital images, video clips, etc. The slides used in these lectures are graphically annotated and verbally explained by the presenter. Hence, it was natural to exploit this effort already invested in live-events for the automatic production of instructional content for later off-line use. The proposed tool in this paper follows this approach, thus, more details will be discussed later.

Another format for eLectures is a simple html files with some scripts. Most editing applications, such as Microsoft Word or even PowerPoint, are offering a "Save as Web page" option that converts documents to html files which could be uploaded and viewed through most internet browsers.

In the following section, we will discuss the value of adding video to such eLectures, whether in the form of Multimedia, AiC, or simple html files.

3. Video in eLectures

This section talks about the video content scenarios to include in eLectures. The format of the eLectures, whether Multimedia, AiC, or simple html files, would not differ much; however, the examples used in this section are all of AiC type. Figure 1 shows a screenshot of an AiC eLecture which composes of two active regions: one for the slides, and another for the video.

Figure 1 Sample two

The argument in this section is about the video included in such eLectures. When AOF concept is used, the video camera may capture the front of the class (wide view), where the instructor is standing before his class next to the screen or the white board. If the instructor is writing additional notes on the white board, then the resolution of the camera taken must be large enough to capture the notes being put on the board. In that case the size of the video will be extremely large even if compression is used. While if it is kept small, the notes then may not be readable. A major disadvantage of using such video recording to extract or view the notes being written on the board is a tradeoff between keeping the video file small and the readability of the notes. Thus, to keep the file size acceptable by an average user, who may be using slow speed internet connection to view the eLecture, the AOF systems must be supplemented by the output of electronic boards (eBoards) representing the notes being written by the instructor. In Classroom 2000, [6], a project that began July 1995, the entire lecture experience is turned into a multimedia authoring session. It requires the instructor to use an upright electronic whiteboard system which is connected to their Zen* system along with the presentation application. Its first experiment was in January 1996 in Georgia Tech. The output of Zen* includes multiple active regions including: wide-view video shots, notes from the eBorad, and the slides being presented. Therefore, assuming that the notes are made available through sources other than video, the question now becomes: "Why do we need a video (which may be considered the largest size) in our eLecture after all?"

We performed a simple survey in which a total number of ten students from different faculties were asked to sit for an experiment where each was provided with three samples of eLectures. The eLectures talk about general subjects, yet all eLectures contain almost the same level of animation and the same instructor voice. The subjects were made sure that they were not in the field of the students' study. The first eLecture was a simple PowerPoint-show with an audio track. The second, as seen in Figure 1, was an eLecture sample showing a wide-view video shot where the

instructor can be seen moving before the class. While the third one was an eLecture sample showing the face of the instructor in the video region, as shown Figure 2.

Figure 2 Sample three

The main difference between the second and the third was the content of the video region. The former shows the instructor moving before the class, while the latter shows the face of the instructor. Since none of the three eLectures involved notes by the instructor, the main difference between the first and the other two is the existence of a video region next to the slides.

The students then were asked to rate their interest to continue viewing the full eLecture. All the students were almost split equally between the second and third samples, with an edge towards the third, showing the face of the instructor. In the questionnaire given to the students, they were asked to justify their first choice. Most answers that voted for the third, claims that seeing the face expression and the movements of the instructors lips, helped them understand the topic more, while others claimed that the virtual eye contact, which happened once in a while, helped them stay focus. On the other hand, those who voted for the second sample claimed that the existence of the video helped them feel as if they were in class. We call sample two and sample three, if taken during the real lecture time, as AiC eLecture samples. Thus, although the existence of a video within an eLecture may not contain a lot of useful content, as far as the subject itself is concerned, but they help much the students to stay focus during the whole eLecture, and understand the subject better.

In the following section, we will present an AOF system that involves a Screen Capturing algorithm, and takes into consideration animations, notations, and *soft* notes being inserted by the instructor during a lecture through the presentation application, such as PowerPoint. Furthermore, *hard* notes, that are written by the instructor on the side white board are also extracted and added to the eLecture.

4. The Authoring Tool

Almost every live presentation in these days is based on electronic material containing dynamic contents such as animations. A common format that is widely-spread for slides is PowerPoint. Yet, authors may use dedicated standard tools for their lectures. For that, the proposed system captures the screen shots and intelligently chooses the appropriate key frames. These frames are supposed to have captured significant animations, slide transitioning and inserted soft notes. The tool then combines these key frames with the Video and audio representing the instructor into a SMIL file format.

In what follows, we first explain the first part of the system, namely the Smart Screen Capturing SSC algorithm, and then we present how to capture possible notes written by the instructor on a side white board. Finally, we explain how to compose the eLecture in the suggested output format, namely the SMIL format.

4.1 Smart Screen Capturing Algorithm

The SSC algorithm represents a modified version of the idea that was presented in our previous work [5] as far as the selection of the key frames is concerned. The previous work suffered from not capturing soft notes that have been added through the presentation application and are characterized to be small and lasted for a short duration. Thus, unless the notes added to a slide made a significant difference, if compared to the original slide, and lasted for a good duration, then they will be missed. The modified algorithm, as depicted in Figure 3, periodically grabs screen shots (or frames for simplicity) then compares the most recent frame, named by *current frame*, with the immediate previous frame.
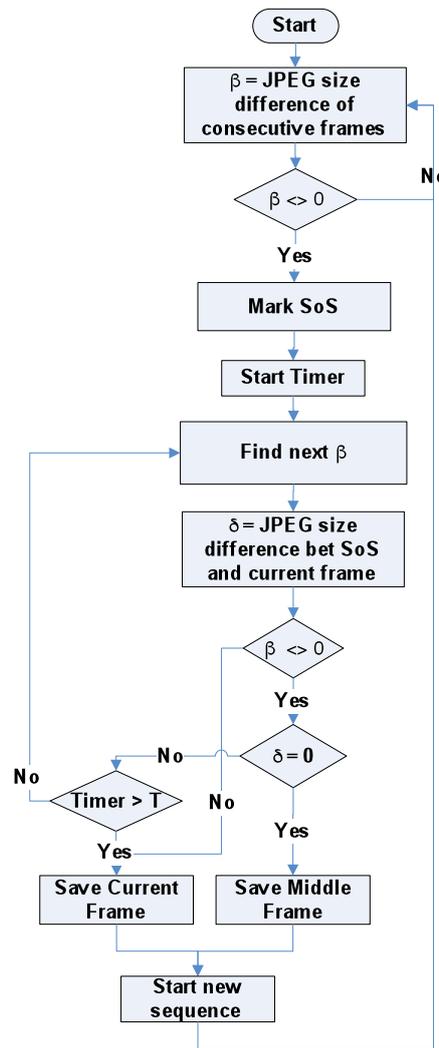
Figure. 3 Smart Screen Capturing Algorithm

A basic approach to compare frames is by comparing the intensity values of corresponding pixels in the two frames. In simple words, if the number of pixels whose intensity values have changed from one frame to the other exceeds a certain threshold then a change is detected. However, since the type of frames considered here is different from that of normal video frames, because the frames of the screen shots are identical when there is no change, as there is no need to worry about brightness variations, then a much faster comparison method could be performed through noting the JPEG file sizes of the frames. In comparing computer screen shots, a change in the JPEG file size would indicate a change in the frame. This way, the comparison process is much faster.

If a change is detected in the current frame, then the algorithm marks the frame as a start of a change sequence frame (or simply, Start of Sequence, SoS), which may represent some animation, slide transitioning, instructor notes being inserted, or simply a new slide. Starting from this frame, marked as SoS, two kinds of comparisons will then be performed per each current frame.

As illustrated by Figure 4, the first comparison is performed with the immediate previous frame (resulting in β values), and another with the SoS frame of the current sequence (resulting in δ values). Furthermore, a timer starts counting the elapsed time till a decision is being taken, as shown in Figure 3.
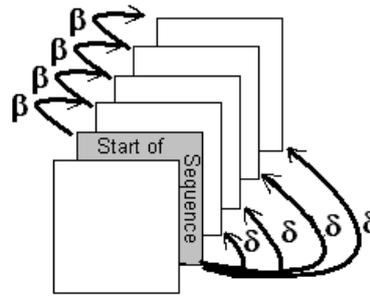
Figure 4 Sequence of Slides

The algorithm chooses not to save each frame upon any change detection for two folds. The first reason is to reduce the number of frames being saved per lecture. The second reason is due to the fact that frames during Slide Transitioning and notes insertion are usually insignificant for a lecture. Once the frames become stable with β equals to 0, that is, no more changes, the current frame will be saved. Otherwise, if the sequence duration becomes too long hitting a preset threshold equals to T seconds, the current frame will also be saved. This may indicate a significant change including animation and notes insertion, since slide transitioning and insignificant animations usually take short periods. Finally, when the sequence of changes ends up by going back to the first frame or slide in the sequence, that is, the current frame becomes identical to the SoS frame; this may indicate some kind of animation that is usually of a cyclic type. Thus, the frame positioned in the middle of the sequence is being saved instead.

In summary, the algorithm takes the extra steps and performs multiple comparisons to eliminate insignificant changes, such as those caused by flying from left paragraphs, yet attempts to detect easy to miss significant changes such as gradual ones caused by animations or inserted notes.

4.2 Adding the Hard Notes

Furthermore, we propose a simple method to introduce the notes that have been written on a side white board, if any, by the instructor into the eLecture, without the need for eboards, like that in Classroom 2000 [6]. Moreover, rather than including a high resolution video component into the eLecture which may dramatically increase the size of the eLecture, a feed of the high resolution camera capturing the whole white board undergoes three steps, as shown in Figure 5.
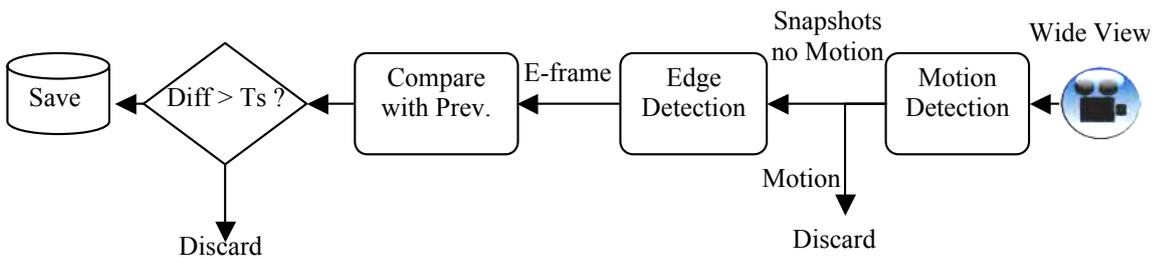
Figure 5 Capturing Hard Notes

The first is motion detection. When no motion is detected, indicating that the instructor is outside the frame being captured, snapshots are taken. The second step, which is fed by these snapshots, is edge detection to detect edges in these snapshots and to generate E-frames. One may use any of the available edge detection algorithms in the literature. The final step is to compare the current E-frame with the previous one, using a basic comparison approach as discussed earlier. If the difference found exceeds a preset threshold, then either the original snapshot is saved or just the E-frame along with its timestamp. Thus, by doing this, rather than adding the high resolution video component into the eLecture, only filtered images are added.

4.3 The eLectures format

As mentioned earlier, some work has been done in the literature to generate electures that can be put and viewed online, such as AOF [4], but the difficulty was having popular players be able to play back their outcomes. Initially, this presented two challenges. The first was to have an authoring tool that does not need special training, and the second was having the outcome format be able to be played back by popular applications.

The proposed system adopts the SSC algorithm along with the simple hard notes capturing and works to generate eLectures in a common format that can be put and viewed online. This format is called SMIL. SMIL, Synchronized

Multimedia Integration Language [7], a W3C Recommendation, allows integrating a set of independent multimedia objects into a synchronized multimedia presentation using defined regions.

Thus, by describing the regions that will compose the layout, and filling those with images, hyperlinks or video as needed, and finally defining a sequence of changes in one or more of these regions, the outcome would be a complete lecture. The suggested components of the eLectures will be as shown in Figure 6.
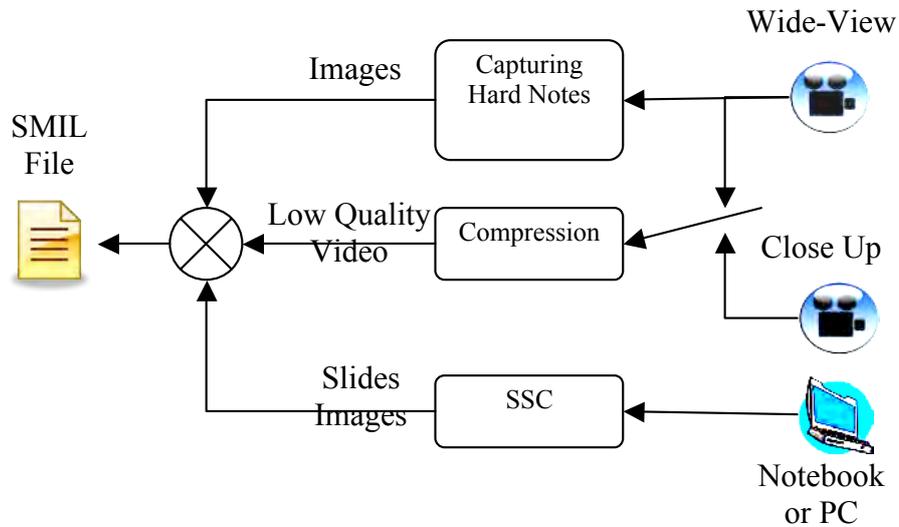
Figure 6 Composing eLecture

The layout sample illustrated in Figure. 7 is composed of four active regions specified as follows:

1. Video showing the instructor in a wide view (including Audio) that runs through a compression process. (a close up view could be used instead)

2. Images showing the slides, animations, and instructor on-the-fly soft notes

3. E-frames images that represent hard notes.

4. Hyperlink texts to jump into marked positions within the eLecture

Figure. 7. An eLecture sample

Figure. 7 shows an eLecture being played by RealPlayer application (also available as a plug-in), a RealNetworks™ application. The students are offered to stream and view eLectures through their normal browsers within Add-on components publicly available.

5. Conclusion

This paper discussed common formats used for online lectures or eLectures. It questioned the need for a video region within an eLecture and concluded through an experiment performed by a number of students that the existence of video within any eLecture helps the students stay focus and understand better the subject being presented. Furthermore, the paper presents Smart Screen Capturing algorithm that is featured by the ability to generate slides from screen shots representing animations, on-the-fly notes, and significant slide transitions; giving some kind of live presentation feeling or As-in-Class eLectures. The algorithm is being implemented in an authoring on the fly tool to create eLectures without the need for training or much knowledge in eLearning tools and applications. Moreover, the paper presented a simple technique to capture notes being written on a side white board by the instructor.

It also presents an authoring system built on top of the proposed algorithms that may be applied during a traditional lecture. Thus, both notes being added through the presentation application as well as those that are written on the board are considered in the authoring tool. Finally, students would be able to get lectures while sitting at home through their web browsers without the need to install special applications, but their common ones.

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The Development of Online Learning Media on Sufficiency Economy by Using Learning Management System

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1.Background and Significance

At present, the development of human resources is very important for organizations. If there are human resources of good quality and efficiency in an organization, such organization will become successful and make a lot of progress. The training courses are one important tool for the organization development due to the belief that an organization will become better only when its personnel are developed in terms of knowledge and skills so that they can work effectively with fewer mistakes [1]. One way of the development of personnel or human resources is to provide them with training. Training is a process where trainees will get knowledge, gain understanding, build their skills and expertise, have good attitudes and manners in work. Moreover, they can change their own behaviors according to their roles and responsibilities. Nowadays, there are many forms of training—both inside the training classroom and outside the training classroom [2].

Surfing the internet for training is technology intended for training in the future when compared to other traditional media like videotapes and computer-assisted instruction. There are many advantages from internet system for more effective training because education through internet system is considered as one form of distance learning [3]. Internet technology has shown that it is a powerful media which will be used in effective training. This can be done inside and outside the classroom, in other words, wherever you can connect to the internet. Training can be done because it can be accessed, especially the places where this system is installed. Internet is also user-friendly because it is easily accessible 24 hours. Learners can learn anytime. It is also efficient when compared to the cost. Not only is it more popular, it is also widespread at home and work. This is a new dimension of training tool and process [4] where Learning Management System (LMS) can be used. This system gathers many tools related to online instruction with the aim to support 3 kinds of users, who are learners, instructors, and technical experts. Normally, there is no limit. Instructors can create contents and cover management, improvement, control, data backup, data support, data log for learners and scoring system [5].

According to Strategic Plan for the Development of Thai Governmental System (2546-2550 B.E.) Strategy 6: To make governmental system up-to-date, there are measures to encourage government sector and state enterprises to develop themselves so that they become modern organizations which apply information technology and modern communication in administration. Department of Agricultural Extension is one organization which followed the government's policies by defining the main strategy for the Department of Agricultural Extension (between 2549-2552 B.E.) Strategy 6 is aimed to promote learning and develop agricultural network, to support and develop farmers and communities to learn by themselves, and to build network to develop agriculture in every sector and every level. Knowledge management is also focused. The working process in the Department of Agricultural Extension is changed so that cooperation takes place in every part in the form of integration and link to network. This is mainly dependent on farmers, locations, and working environment.

"Sufficiency economy" was the philosophy proposed by King Bhumibol Adulyadej to give guidance on the survival for Thai citizen over 25 years ago, long before the economic crisis. Afterwards, the King emphasized the way to solve, to survive and to live in a stable state under the changes in the Globalization era [6]. Learning about sufficiency economy is to learn how to live and lead a life as a Thai in a self-sufficient manner in a middle road to serve the sufficiency in themselves, families and communities without depending on external factors. The important thing is that people must depend on themselves without making trouble to other people and make the best use of existing resources in daily life. To illustrate, the four requisites of life are obtained to lead a happy life in a comfortable manner and to meet the sufficiency in life. Promotion, distribution and practice in sufficiency economy

will help people. However, it was found that sufficiency economy was still not widely applied and this philosophy was only little used in daily life.

According to the above-mentioned reasons, the researchers intended to study and develop an online learning media which is a mixture of information technology and training as a way to develop training through learning management system on intranet network in order to achieve the main strategy of the Department of Agricultural Extension which is aimed to provide equity in learning and self-learning support. The learners can apply knowledge and understanding about sufficiency economy to do work, to lead life, to warn life in occupation, fighting and problem solving. The principles in sufficiency economy will offer modesty, reasonability, vaccines and bodies of knowledge along with ethics. When the King's sufficiency economy is applied in daily life of each individual according to each person's appropriateness, it not only is a guide to lead life ad solve problems with carefulness, but it also shows faith in King Bhumibol Adulyadej.

2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1) To develop and find out the quality of online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

2) To study the effectiveness of the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

3) To find out the learning achievement of learners after learning the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

4) To evaluate the learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

3. Research Hypotheses

1) The quality of the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" is at least at good level.

2) The effectiveness of the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" is not less than the criteria set at 80/80.

3) The learning achievement of learners who learn the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" is higher with statistical significance at the 0.05 level.

4) The learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" is at high level.

4. EXPECTED OUTCOMES

1) There will be an online learning media by learning management system which is of good quality and effectiveness in accordance with the criteria and helps learners understand and learn well.

2) Learners who finish learning the online learning media by learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" will develop themselves, have knowledge, understand and apply such practical ways in their life.

3) This is to expand learning opportunities through new technology. This reduces the limitation of time, place, and travel expense.

4) There will be a practical way to develop other online learning media by learning management system which serve the strategy of the Department of Agricultural Extension.

5) RESEARCH SCOPE

The development of online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" followed the experimental research to find out the quality and the effectiveness of the online learning media, learning achievement and learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

1) THE SCOPE OF CONTENTS

The scope of contents for the development of online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" was consisted of 5 following lessons:

Lesson **1** Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy

Lesson **2** Sufficiency Economy for Farmers
Lesson **3** New Theory—One Kind of Agriculture Based on Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy
Lesson **4** Making a Living in Sufficiency Economy Manner
Lesson **5** Exemplary Farmers Who Do Sufficiency Economy Agriculture

2) THE SCOPE OF POPULATION AND SAMPLING GROUP

THE POPULATION IN THIS RESEARCH WERE THE PERSONNEL FROM BUREAU OF TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER DEVELOPMENT, THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION, TOTALING 107 PERSONS (ON OCTOBER 1ST, 2007).

The sampling group consisted of 30 persons from Bureau of Technology Transfer Development, the Department of Agricultural Extension. They were chosen through simple random sampling method.

3) Experts
      1. There were 3 experts in the contents about sufficiency economy.
      2. There were 3 experts in the development of online learning media.

  4) VARIABLES

   1. Independent variable is the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy".

     2. Dependent variables
       1) The quality of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"
       2) The effectiveness of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"
       3)The learning achievement of learners after learning the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"
       4) The learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"

6. Related Theories and Research
The development of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" was based on the following related theories and research works:

     1) Learning Management System
     2) Training
     3) Instruction Media
     4) Process for the development of online learning media
     5) Principles to find out the quality and the effectiveness
     6) Learning achievement test
     7) Questionnaire about learners' satisfaction
     8) Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy
     9) Philosophy of Self-Dependence
     10) Concepts about Values
     11) Related research works

7. Research Methodology
The researchers conducted a research to find out the effectiveness, the learning achievement of the learners and the learners' satisfaction towards the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" by testing the online learning media with the sampling group, that is to say, the personnel from Bureau of Technology Transfer Development, the Department of Agricultural Extension. The process was as follows:

   1) **The quality of** the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy"w was measured by 3 experts in contents and 3 experts in multimedia. The questionnaire was based on Likert's 5-rating scale.

   2) The effectiveness of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" was measured by testing with the pilot group (which was not the sampling group) of 30 persons from Bureau of Technology Transfer Development, the Department of Agricultural Extension. They would do the pre-tests and post-tests for each lesson. The results were used to determine the value (E_1/ E_2).

   3) The test which passed the effectiveness would be used to find out the learning achievement of the developed online learning media. The researchers tested it with the sampling group of 30 persons from Bureau of Technology Transfer Development, the Department of Agricultural Extension. They would do the pre-test before learning and they would do the post-test after learning. There were 40 question items in the posttest. The results were used to determine the statistical significance level.

   4) After the sampling group had done the post-test, the researchers would give them the questionnaire about learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media. The data were used to find out the learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy".

8) Research Results

   1) The development of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" which was analyzed and designed by the researchers consisted of 5 learning units as follow: Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, Sufficiency Economy for Farmers, New Theory—One Kind of Agriculture Based on Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy, Making a Living in Sufficiency Economy Manner, and Exemplary Farmers Who Do Sufficiency Economy Agriculture. Each lesson contained introduction to the lesson, the presentation of the contents, the summary of the contents, activities and posttest. After the sampling group had finished all posttests for each lesson, they would do the posttest after learning. The learners could learn everywhere and any time thanks to the learning management system which provided them with logging in for introduction to the lesson, various interactive activities such as bulletin boards, announcements, contacts for instructors, related links, downloads, test, learning log, and report on learning results.

2) As for the effectiveness of the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy", the effectiveness during the learning (E_1) was 82.42 and the effectiveness after the learning process (E_2) was 82.33. Therefore, the effectiveness of the online learning media was 82.42/82.33, higher than the criteria set at 80/80.

3) The learning achievement of learners showed that the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" yielded higher learning achievement after learning than before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05.

4) The learners' satisfaction towards the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" showed that the average score was 4.19. This means the learners were highly satisfied with the developed online learning media.

9) Research Discussions

Here are the discussions for the development of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy":

   1) The effectiveness of the developed online learning media was higher than the criteria set at 80/80, in other words 82.42/82.33 because the researchers developed this online learning media based on the lesson development by Priroj Teeranatanakul, Paiboon Kiattikomol, Saksun Yampinij [7] which has 5 steps: Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation. The design of the lesson also followed guidance given by experts in contents, resulting in the lesson having effectiveness higher than the criteria. This complies with the research work by Chanjira Tabrit [8] who developed lesson through computer network about Balanced Scorecard for the personnel in public health center in Pathum Thani. The researcher developed the lesson along with pretests and posttests and conducted questionnaire about their opinions towards the lesson through computer network with the sampling group of 30 persons. The effectiveness of such lesson was 80.22/80.66. So, it could be used in real life. This developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" could show its effectiveness and it helped learners gain more learning achievements.

As for Learning Management System (LMS), it is a tool which provides convenience for instructors, learners and system administrators right from the start—registration. The system prepares the entire lesson so that the lesson was available for learners all the time. After the learners have started the lesson, the system will record the progress and

show the report on the activities and the learning results of each learner in every learning unit in details until the end of the course. The learning management system is usually consisted of various functions such as the display of personal information, tests, attendance records, learning records, bulletin, related links, announcements, downloads and contacts for instructors. Therefore, learners are more interested in this kind of instruction than in traditional classroom. This might the reason why learners are interested and pay more attention. The developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" shows its effectiveness. This is in accordance with Piyapol Jupitak [9] who developed the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Design and Construction 2-D Animation" in that learners could learn in a fast and comfortable manner. The learners showed eagerness during learning. They paid more attention to the contents because learning management system offers channel for communication between learners and peers as well as between learners and instructors. There are also activities, exercises, tests and result report available to be printed at any time.

2) As for the learning achievement of the learners who learned the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy", it was found that the learning achievement after learning was higher than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05 because the developed online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" passed the quality evaluation done by experts in contents and experts in multimedia. The developed online learning media, therefore, had effectiveness and helped learners gain more learning achievements. This complies with the research work by Patchareeya Chiaocharn [1] who developed the lesson through computer network on the operation about passport examination for immigration officials. The sampling group consisted of 30 immigration officials who just began their work in 2548 B.E. The lesson through computer network had showed higher learning achievement after learning, so the learners had progress in learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05.

3) As for the learners' satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy", it was 4.19 on average, i.e. at high level. When the details about the satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" were considered, it was found that the majority of learners were satisfied with the learning management system with the score of 4.53 on average. This is because the researchers used the learning management system which provided more convenience than other media. Moreover, there are interactions between learners, system administrators and instructors. This is a new kind of training for the Department of Agricultural Extension because it encourages the learners to learn. Therefore, the item about learning management system was the most satisfactory. As for the items about satisfaction towards images, sounds, characters and language, contents and presentation, and test, they were at high level. The researchers considered and found out that the images were colorful and related to the contents. The number of images was appropriate in each lesson. The sound was clear. The volume for narration was appropriate. Besides, there was also music to gain interest from learners. As for the texts and language, this lesson was checked in terms of grammar and the color as well as the size of the text corresponded to the screen. The contents and the presentation of the contents met the learning objectives. They were clear and arranged from simple to difficult orders. Therefore, learners understood in orders. As for images, sounds and language, the researchers designed the screen to be appropriate in terms of beauty and main menu with easy-to-understand descriptions. Images which were used corresponded to the narration. The sound was clear for the contents in each lesson. The language was easy to understand. The test in each lesson also met the objectives. The contents were checked by experts in contents. The test was suitable for the contents. The number of the test was suitable. So, learners did not get bored with the test. This complies with Supattra Sisuwan [11] who developed the distance vocational training for 2 ways. There were 2 sampling groups that were experts in training, distance learning for 2 ways and educational technology. The research results show that the learners were highly satisfied.

10. Suggestions
The suggestions derived from the development of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" were as follow:

1) Suggestions from Research Results

1.1) According to the research results, the effectiveness of the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" was higher than the criteria set at 80/80 and showed higher learning achievement after learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05. The satisfaction towards the online learning media by using learning management system entitled "Sufficiency Economy" was also at good level. This is because the contents from the books were put into online learning media where there were animations along with narration,

music, interaction between learners and peers. This gains attention and encourages learners to learn more. Learners can learn according to their preference at any time and any place without boredom. The learners know, understand and can apply their knowledge in their work. This can be used as a way to study and develop online learning media on other topics in the future.

1.2) The level of learners should correspond to the contents and the course by considering whether it is suitable for the trainees.

1.3) The tools for presentation in an appropriate, interesting manner should be studied as well as problems raised by learners. This could be used to improve and correct the mistakes in the lesson so that the online learning media yield the highest effectiveness, the highest learning achievement and the highest satisfaction.

2) Suggestions for other research
    2.1) The contents can be presented in the form of game to entertain learners as well as give knowledge at the same time without boredom.
    2.2) There should be the lesson on sufficiency economy for various levels of learners.
    2.3) This could be used to develop e-Learning on sufficiency economy and the sustainability of farmers as an approach to apply sufficiency economy with farmers in various fields.

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**The Development of Online Interactive Lesson Entitled
"Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management"**

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ABSTRACT

This research was aimed to study and to examine the quality of the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management", to study the learning achievement from the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management", and to evaluate the students' satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson. The tools in this study were 1) online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management", 2) the form to evaluate the quality of the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management", 3) the test to find out the learning achievement, 4) the form to evaluate the students' satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson. The sampling group in this study was composed of 40 fourth-year undergraduate students at the Department of Educational Communications and Technology, Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi in the first academic year of 2007. They were chosen through simple random method out of the population. The experiment follows One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design. The learning achievement of the students was analyzed using t-Dependent statistics. The results were given below.

The developed online interactive lesson presented the topics about knowledge seeking and knowledge management in form of texts, still images, animations, and learning activities where in learners could interact with the lessons online. The quality of the lesson as evaluated by the experts in media development was 4.18 on average with the standard deviation of 0.60. This was at good level. The quality of the lesson as evaluated by the experts in content was 3.84 on average with the standard deviation of 0.55. This was at good level. The students had showed higher learning achievement after learning than the one before learning with statistical significance at the .01 level. The students' satisfaction towards the lesson was 4.22 with the standard deviation of 0.68. This means they were highly satisfied. Therefore, the developed online interactive lesson was suitable for instruction with undergraduate students about knowledge seeking and knowledge management.

1. INTRODUCTION

Browsing the internet makes users catch up with the latest information and news because the news and information on the internet are updated and up-to-date. The users will be able to learn through various channels of internet to meet their demands and their interests. Internet, therefore, is the major source of information, especially for studies on media which affects the education, in other words, online interactive lesson. National Science and Technology Development Agency discusses the online interactive lesson and says that the online interactive lesson is an educational technology which organizes the instruction based on computer technology and computer network to support the instruction. Thai government has recognized the importance of the development of educational technology and has defined the policy in Thailand's National Education Act B.E. 2542, Chapter 9 Technologies for Education, Section 66 as follows: "Learners shall have the right to develop their capabilities for utilization of technologies for education as soon as feasible so that they shall have sufficient knowledge and skills in using these technologies for acquiring knowledge for themselves on a continual lifelong basis."

According to the above-mentioned background, the Department of Educational Communications and Technology, Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi has developed information system for education. The system has been developed as a network which can connect to various educational institutes to provide service and share data about education. The data, therefore, is linked without boundaries and in an unlimited manner. This information will broaden the viewpoints of learners so that they can see the changes in the world, resulting in an ability to adapt themselves to the world's changes.

However, an important process which helps people get to the information is called knowledge seeking which let people seek more information and knowledge. To seek knowledge, an important thing to make the best use of the information is called Knowledge Management or KM which collect, build, organize, share and applies various information and knowledge to give benefits to learning with quality. Knowledge Management, therefore, is an important tool for learning.

According to the required properties of the online interactive lesson, knowledge seeking and knowledge management, the researchers recognized the importance of a study on the development of the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management" so that learners could learn by themselves through an internet network. This was to expand an opportunity for education and to give an option for seeking knowledge through online interactive lesson. The learners can learn and use this online interactive lesson all the time and everywhere if there is an internet network. This study would be useful for students and to the general public who are interested. Moreover, it could be considered as a model in the development of a better online interactive lesson in the future.

2. Research Objectives

1. To develop and examine the quality of the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management"

2. To study the learning achievement of the students who studied from the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management"

3. To evaluate the students' satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management"

3. Expected Outcomes

1. The developed online interactive lesson could be used for instruction in undergraduate level and the general public who are interested in knowledge seeking and knowledge management.

2. To provide an additional option for learners to seek more knowledge through online interactive lesson. The learners can learn the lesson by themselves anytime and everywhere if there is an internet network.

3. To be the model in developing online interactive lesson in another subject.

4. Hypotheses

1. The quality of the developed online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management" was good.

2. The students who studied the online interactive lesson showed higher post-test scores than pre-test scores with the statistical significance at the .01 level.

3. The students showed satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson at high level.

5. Population, Sampling Group and Experts

5.1 Population

The population in this study consisted of fourth-year undergraduate students at the Department of Educational Communications and Technology, Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi.

5.2 Sampling Group

The sampling group in this study was composed of 40 chosen students out of the population through simple random sampling method, namely lotto.

5.3. Experts

The experts to evaluate the quality of the lesson were as follows:

1. The experts in media development were qualified with at least Master's degree in educational technology and have worked for at least 5 years in the relevant fields. There were 3 experts chosen out of the people who had experiences in media development through purposive sampling method.

2. The experts in contents were qualified with at least Master's degree in fields related to knowledge seeking and knowledge management and have worked in the related fields for at least 5 years. There were 3 experts chosen who were qualified through purposive sampling method.

6. Tools used in this study consisted of

1. The online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management"

2. The form to evaluate the quality of the online interactive lesson entitled "Knowledge Seeking and Knowledge Management". This form had 5 opinion levels according to Likert scale.

3. The test to find out the learning achievement. This test had 4 choices for each item.

4. The form to evaluate the students' satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson

7. Procedure for the Development of the Online Interactive Lesson

The procedure for the development of the online interactive lesson followed the steps below:

1. Analysis

Analysis of the contents followed these steps:

1.1 Brain Storm Chart was created.

Brain storm chart was a technique for brainstorming to select the topic of the contents which should be in the lesson.

1.2 Concept chart was created.

The topics from the Brain Storm Chart were considered and grouped. Then some more topics were added to make the contents complete. In some cases, the topics which overlapped were removed.

1.3 Content Network Chart was created.

After the Concept chart had been created, the order or the sequence of the contents to show the continuity of the topics was considered to create Content Network Chart

2. Design

The lesson was designed in terms of learning units and instruction process. It followed these steps:

2.1 Ways to present the data were defined and the behavioral objectives were written down. In this step, the researchers placed great emphasis on the learners.

2.2 The contents were divided into teaching units to be suitable for each time of learning.

2.3 Learning Unit Chart was created to set the order of each learning unit. The numbers were written down. The learning units should be related in terms of the contents.

2.4 The behavioral objectives were written for each learning unit.

2.5 Each learning unit was designed in a way that learners could interact with the online interactive lesson.

3. Development

The lesson was developed to make the contents complete before programming. There were 4 sub-steps as follows:

3.1 The contents were written in instruction scope or script. The contents were written in order of the scope and the instruction method was designed to make learners interact with the online lesson.

3.2 The instruction scope was arranged to check the order of the presentation so that all contents were linked to one another.

3.3 The accuracy of the contents was verified by the experts in contents. This was to certify that the contents were accurate before developing the lesson.

3.4 The test was developed and the quality of the test was examined by piloting the tests with 40 students who had already studied this subject to find out the difficulty, discrimination and reliability of the test.

4. Development of Online Interactive Lesson

In this step, the contents in each scope were developed and transformed into online interactive lesson. It followed these steps:

4.1 The program to present the lesson was selected. In this case, it was Dream weaver.

4.2 Tools were developed and prepared. The resources required for the development of the online interactive lesson were prepared, which were still images, animations, graphic images, etc.

5. Evaluation of Online Interactive Lesson

The lesson was evaluated to check whether the developed online interactive lesson could be used to meet the desired objectives. The experts in contents and the experts in multimedia evaluated the quality of the online interactive lesson before testing the lesson with the sampling group.

8. Methodology

The experiment with the sampling group followed One–Group Pretest–Posttest Design. It could be concluded in the following table.

Table shows One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design.

Pretest	Treatment	Posttest
T_1	X	T_2

The definitions

X	represents	Treatment or learning from the online interactive lesson
T_1	represents	Pretest
T_2	represents	Posttest and satisfaction evaluation

9. Study Results

9.1 The developed online interactive lesson presented the contents through texts, still images, animations, and activities where the learners could interact online. The contents for knowledge management consisted of:

1. Knowledge Identification to make use of existing knowledge

2. Knowledge Creation and Acquisition by creating sources both inside and outside to make the contents meet the demands

3. Knowledge Organization by organizing the types and kinds of knowledge's to make it accessible and retrievable for easy use.

4. Knowledge Codification and Refinement by formatting the design and "language" into the same standards and making adaptation of the contents to make them up-to-date and meet the demands

5. Knowledge Access so that access to knowledge can be done in a short time.

6. Knowledge sharing by creating documents, database, community of practice, mentoring system and job relation.

7. Learning by applying knowledge in decision making, problem solving and work improvement

Screenshots of the Lesson
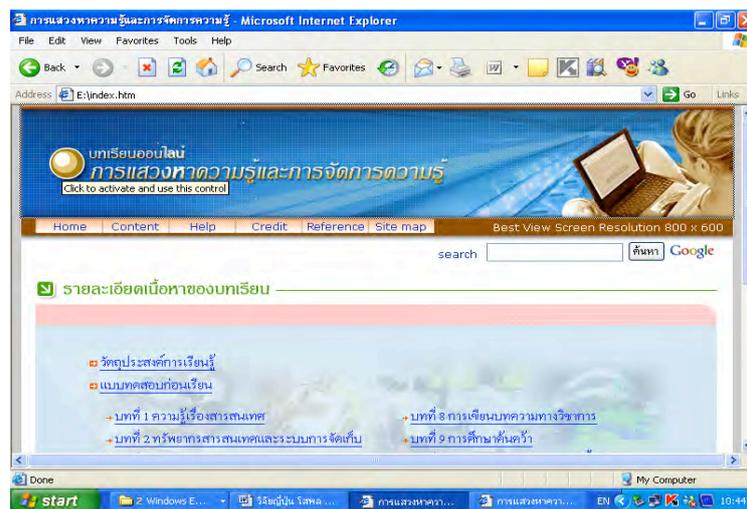
Screenshot of the Main Menu
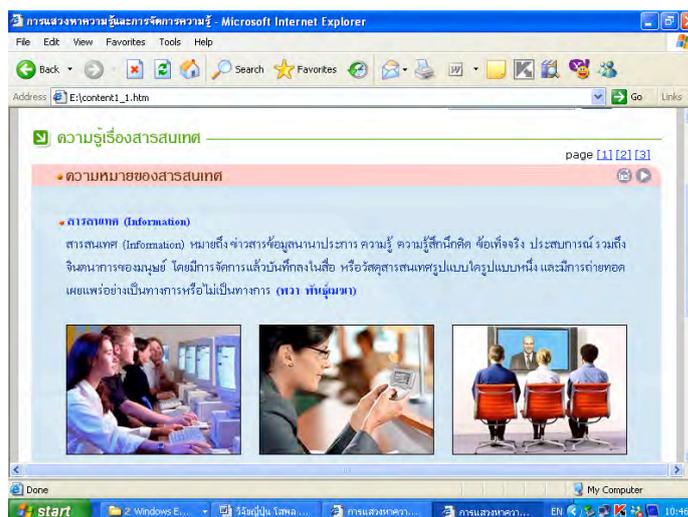
Screenshot of the Information Page
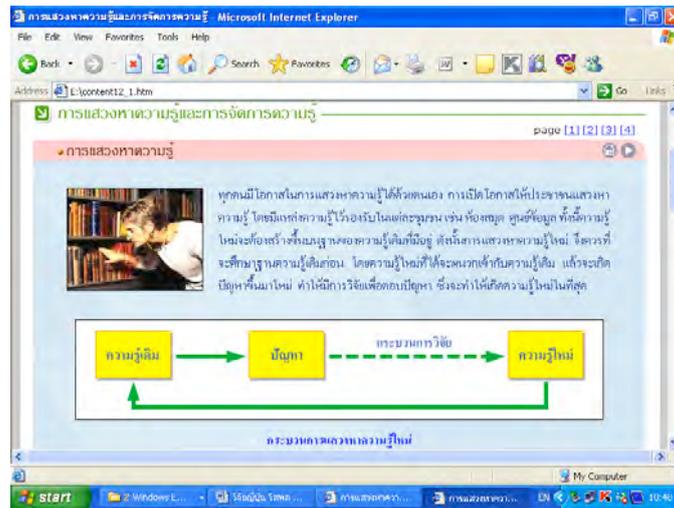
Screenshot of the Knowledge Seeking Page
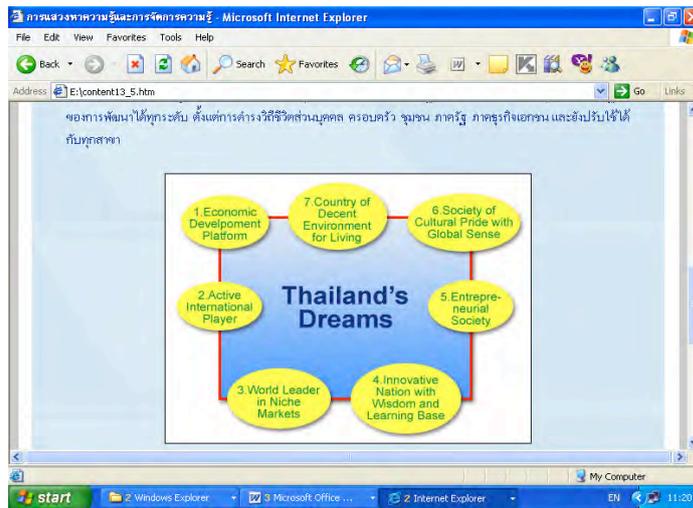
Screenshot of the page showing vision in developing the potentials to create innovation through wisdom
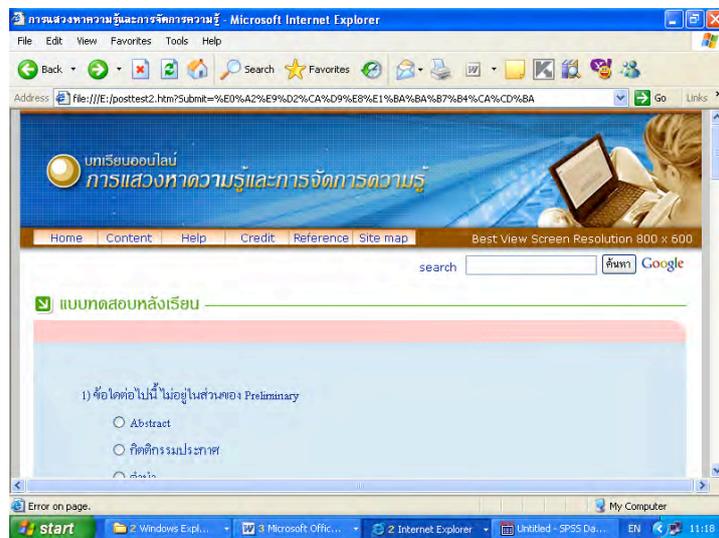
Screenshot of the Posttest Page

9.2 Results from the Evaluation of the Online Interactive Lesson

This table shows the average score of the online interactive lesson as evaluated by the experts in media development.

Times	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
The quality of the online interactive lesson and interaction	4.26	0.19	
The quality of the letters	4.20	0.83	Good
The quality of the images	4.08	0.79	Good
Total Mean	**4.18**	**0.60**	**Good**

This table shows the average scores of the online interactive lesson as evaluated by the experts in contents.

Items	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
The quality of the contents and presentation	3.67	0.19	Good
Images and letters were suitable for the contents	3.78	0.77	Good
Test	4.08	0.68	Good
Total Mean	**3.84**	**0.55**	Good

9.3 Results from the Test to Find Out the Learning Achievement of the Learners

The comparison Table of the learning achievement scores of the learners who studied from the online interactive lesson

Learning Achievement		n	$\overline{X}$	Σ D	Σ D^2	t
Mean	**Pre-test**	40	10.68	424	5160	16.23 **
	Post-test	40	26.69			

According to the Table, the learners showed higher learning achievement for their posttest than their pretest with the statistical significance at the .01 level.

9.4 **Results from the Analysis of the Data on the Learners' Satisfaction**

The table shows the mean score of the learners' satisfaction towards the online interactive lesson.

Items	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
The form of the online interactive lesson	4.32	0.67	HIGH
The texts	4.17	0.68	High
The images	4.17	0.70	High
Total Mean	**4.22**	**0.68**	*High*

10. Discussion

According to the learning achievement of the students who studied from the online interactive lesson, the average score of the learners for their posttest was higher than the pretest with the statistical significance at the .01 level. This was because the learners learned from the lesson which had images to present the contents and let the learners interact with the lesson in thinking, analyzing, and considering. This helped the learners had higher learning achievement. According to the students' satisfaction towards the lesson, the students showed great satisfaction towards it because it was interesting and allowed students to interact with it. The students could learn independently so they were highly satisfied with the lesson. Therefore, the developed online interactive lesson was suitable for the instruction with undergraduate students to learn about knowledge seeking and knowledge management.

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Variability and Correlates of Participatory Management:
A Multidimensional View

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Abstract: This article introduces Participatory Management (PM) as a multidimensional approach. The data were obtained from 903 female teachers who work in high schools in Mashhad, Iran. The results indicate there are directly and statically significant relations among all components of PM. The result of ANOVA and MANOVA show there were significant differences of PM and according to different educational level and age level. Hence PM could be the best method for enhancing high schools performance.
Key word: Participatory Management, Trust, Decision making, Team work, Share power

INTRODUCTION

Today, most of these innovations are being introduced in the field of educational management to encourage decentralization and implementation of collaborative school governance (Walker and Dimmock, 2000; Anderson, 1998; Chan and Chui, 1997). Thus, increased participation in the workplace and school will better align us with an enlightened vision of freedom and democracy, helping to create a genuine democracy that nurtures human progress (Simmons, 1999; Wood et al., 2004).The shift to participative management in the workplace is both inevitable and necessary (Wood et al., 2004). Participatory Management is a process in which subordinates share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate superiors (Gono, 2001; Riesgraf, 2002).Participatory group is something more than putting individuals in groups (Glosser, 2001).The improvement of the individuals' skills is also taken into consideration in addition to getting them involved in the group activities (Hirst, 2000).When manager manages to form groups with people of different potentials, the result will be much more profitable (Hirst, 2000). Participatory management encompasses various teachers' involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim 2002).The participatory group is something more than putting individuals in groups. Other than to get them involved in group activities, the individuals' skills improvement should be taken into consideration.

The followings are advantages of participatory management:
●Through a wise use of participatory management, leaders may possibly make sound decisions by drawing upon collective expertise, experience, and wisdom of their employees (Lichtenstein, 2000);
●In individual members of a group, participation create a sense of belonging resulting in more cooperation and endeavour to attain the group objectives;
●Individuals who have sense of belonging to a group are more willing to co-operate to accomplish common decisions. However, participation is not dependent on individual physical appearance but rather on her/his mental involvements (Muhs, 1982);
●Influential in gaining people's trust and group decision-makings;

The manager will also be able to form groups of people with different potentials if she/he did not divide her/his employees into groups based on their abilities - the stronger are separated from the weak.

Theoretical background

The pioneer in participatory management was Frederick Taylor (1856-1915). His management philosophy is based on four principles, namely: 1) Develop efficient jobs;   2) Decrease soldering - a term used to describe horse play; 3) Good mental attitude toward work; and 4) Worker management cooperation. Frank Bunker Gillberth (1868-1924) and his wife, Lillian Evelyn Moller (1878-1972), Henry Gantt (1861-1919), and Harrington Emerson (1864-1945) become the key contributors to the scientific management development. Fayol (1841-1925) gave us the classic five functions of management: planning, organizing, supervising, coordinating, and controlling. In the US, the first formal study of participatory management dates back to Mary Parker Follett's (1868–1933) management ideas. Three individuals who played major roles in the success of the behavioural school were Elton Mayo (1880-1949), Chester Barnard (1886–1961) and Douglas McGregor (1906-1964). Researchers Elton Mayo and their associates manipulated lighting levels in an electric relay production plant, and found that productivity improved independent of the level of illumination. The Hawthorne studies concluded that the workers were more responsive to social situations than to management controls. Since the Hawthorne study, participatory management researchers have focused their research on human motivation. Abraham Maslow (1998) has helped managers understand participatory management by explaining that employees have different levels of needs that drive their behaviours at different times. In line with Maslow's work, McGregor showed this distinction by suggesting theory X and theory Y. McGregor's theory Y matches participatory management assumptions. Chris Argyris suggests that employees should be treated as mature adults. Argyris points out that participative leadership can decrease the degree of incongruence between the formal organization and the healthy (Argyris, 1957). Rensis Likert (1967) was the first to conduct systematic survey research on participatory management. Likert identifies four types of management styles consist exploitive-authoritative, benevolent-authoritative, consultative system and participative system. William Ouchi (born 1943) studied participatory management from the point of trust and created the term Theory Z. He emphasizes that management must have a high degree of trust in its workers in order for participatory management to work. More recently, Drucker (2002) expects that future managers will face increased needs for employee participation. Hence managers will have to be able to understand when to command and when to partner, this is mainly because of rapid change in work environments. Drucker points out that the importance of knowledge workers will grow and the only comparative advantage of a developed country will be knowledge workers.

Research on Participatory Management

Researchers have found that Participative management may positively impact job satisfaction (Kim 2002; Robert et al 2000; Spence-Laschinger& Finegan 2004), perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002; Eisenberger et al 1990; VanYperen et al 1999; Lau and Lim 2002), extend stronger support to realize the goals(Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Lindelow et al., 1989), better decisions and greater efficiency(Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins,1991; Hoy & Tarter, 1993; Likert, 1967; Lindelow et al.,1989), organizational citizenship behaviour (VanYperen et al 1999; Eisenberger et al 1990), labour-management relations (Ospina & Yaroni 2003), job performance (Wilson,1990;Lau & Lim 2002; Ming 2004). Employee satisfaction, motivation, morale and self-esteem (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Lindelow et al., 1989) positive work outcomes (Wilson, 1990), identifying and solving problems (Blasé &Blasé, 2001), establishment of strong networks among the members (Hargreaves, 2001), open communication (Blase & Blase, 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 2003); and supportive and collegial behaviour of the leader (Hoy & Tarter, 1993).

RATIONAL AND STUDY HYPOTHESES

This research attempts to define Participatory management as multidimensional approach contains fifteen components as follow:
1-Trust: PM enhancing the levels of trust (Blase & Blase, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and high levels of trust hastens the establishment of strong   networks among the members (Hargreaves, 2001)
2-Decision making: PM is key decision-making processes (Saxton, 2004) and it is the practice of empowering employees to participate in organizational decision making (Marzano, 2003).

3-Team work: PM increase decision making that it is accomplished by group participation (Robert & Moran, 1998).

4-Share power: PM is a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003).

5-Motivation: participative approaches to decision making mainly out of pragmatic motives to achieve valued organizational results (Somech, 2002)

6-Communication: PM causes Communication effectively with subordinates (Albanese, 1975).

7-Involvement: PM encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003).

8-Collaboration: Through a judicious use of participatory management, leaders may make sound decisions by drawing upon the collective expertise, experience, and wisdom of their employees (Lichtenstein, 2000).

9-Democracy: Democracy is a benefit of participatory management (Bartle, 2007).

10-Transparency: Transparency is a benefit of participatory management (Bartle, 2007).

11-Innovation: PM encourage innovations (Walker & Dimmock, 2000).

12-Respect: PM prepare a situation for expressing appreciation when a subordinate does a good job (Albanese, 1975).

13-Problem solving: PM promotes the adoption of problem solving, flexibility and change (Marchant, 1982).

14-Identify common goal: PM is an co-operation between manager and subordinates in the setting up of objectives (Dutton, 1973).

15-Equalitarian: In PM power inequities are balanced (Harchar & Hyle, 1996).

      The reason for the study was to provide principals with greater understanding of the benefits of PM. Two research questions connected with the aim are developed and tested:

Research questions 1: What is the extent of participatory management with regard to female teachers in government high schools in Mashhad city?

Research questions 2: What are the extents of relationships among 15 component of participatory management with regard to female teachers in government high schools in Mashhad city?
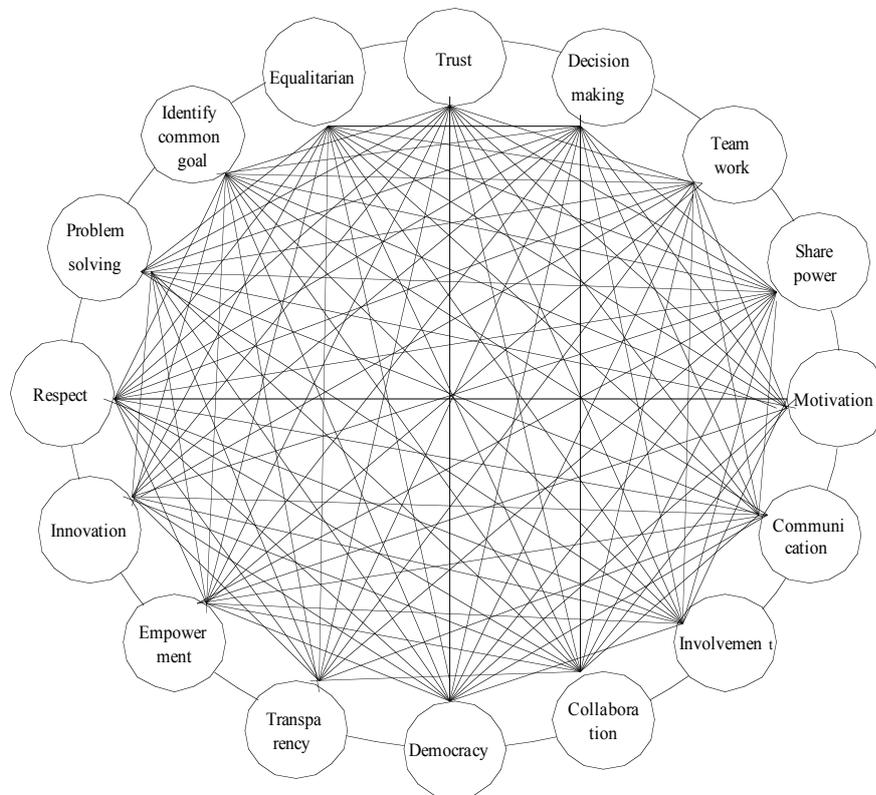
Figure 1: Possible correlated components in participatory management

METHODOLOGY

The main objective of the study is to determine the extent of participatory management in female government high schools in Mashhad, Iran. The data for this study was obtained from 903 female teachers and Random sampling method was used. The Questionnaire was containing 96 items for PM. Reliability of Questionnaire with Cronbach's coefficient alpha was 0.97.

Descriptive and correlation are utilized in this study. Accordingly, Pearson's product moment correlation is used in data analysis. A t-test for one statistic sample was made to examine the deviation of Participatory Management with respect to the desired situation. Additionally Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and MANOVA were used to compare the participatory managements in different educational levels and age groups.

RESEARCH RESULTS

For answering research question, data analysis yielded the overall results (as shown in the Table 1) for the overall mean score of Participatory Management component (from the maximum score 100) was 70.1, with the standard deviation value of 16.45. This means that there was a prominent level of Participatory Management in the educational organization in Mashhad, Iran. Hence female teachers were not denied from Participatory Management in Iranian educational environments. The finding indicates that Respect (PM12) component were strongly present in educational environments whereas Share power (PM4) component were weakly present in educational environments.

A t-test for one statistic sample was made to examine the deviation of Participatory Management with respect to the desired situation .Since the scores in the variable range between 0 and 100, the mean value of 60 has been selected as the desirable point statistically. If the obtained scores of Participatory Management have a mean value equal to 60 or larger than 60, it could be concluded that Participatory Management was at a desirable state in the educational organization in Mashhad. Based on the results, the overall t-test value was 18.563 at the significant level of .000. As the results in Table 1 show, the highest mean value is 78.1 for the Respect (PM12) component whereas the lowest mean value is 58.6 for the Share power (PM4) component. The t-test value was at significant level for all the 15 components, the highest being 29.363 and the lowest being -2.472. Overall, the mean value was more than 60 except for the Share power (PM4) component, the standard deviation of which was 16.0 and the t-test value was 18.563 at the significant level of 0.00. These findings show that the level of Participatory Management for 14 components was prominent or favourable (i.e. more than 60 mean values) except for the Share power (PM4) for the female government high schools in Mashhad districts, Iran.

Table 1: Overall results of mean value and t-test value regarding PM

Components	Mean	SD	t-test	df	sig
Participatory Management (PM)	70.1	16.4	18.563	902	.000*
Trust(PM1)	72.9	17.5	22.034	901	.000*
Decision making (PM2)	67.5	20.3	11.134	901	.000*
Team working (PM3)	68.8	19.7	13.376	901	.000*
Share power (PM4)	58.6	16.0	-2.472	902	.014
Motivation (PM5)	62.6	16.6	13.867	902	.000*
Communication (PM6)	72.0	19.4	18.349	902	.000*
Involvement (PM7)	71.5	18.9	18.338	902	.000*
Collaboration (PM8)	72.1	18.8	19.481	902	.000*
Democracy (PM9)	73.8	19.6	21.128	901	.000*
Transparency (PM10)	71.6	19.2	18.179	901	.000*
Innovation (PM11)	69.8	21.6	13.675	901	.000*
Respect (PM12)	78.1	18.6	29.363	901	.000*
Problem solving (PM13)	68.0	19.9	12.198	901	.000*
Identifying common goal (PM14)	70.9	18.1	12.198	901	.000*
Equalitarian (PM15)	70.3	19.6	15.716	900	.000*

Note: * means statistically significant

The teachers express the educational environment head try to protect teachers, present confidence in teachers, sharing their opinions and find solutions cooperatively with the teachers, encourages the teachers to initiate new changes and innovations in the curriculum. Also the manager based on opportunity of free Communication and mutual respect, tries to keep the Teachers' Council, providing genuinely high-quality education by the teachers, provides for the teachers, being regularly informed about the goals of this educational environment, informs the teachers about new circulars and policy directives. As the results in Table 2 there were strong and significant correlations (high correlation with 99% coefficient level) among the 15 components of participatory management. The results show that the highest correlation was 0.913 for the Involvement component whereas the lowest correlation was 0.767 for the Trust component.

Table 2: Correlation results of participatory management components

	PM 0	PM 1	PM 2	PM 3	PM 4	PM 5	PM 6	PM 7	PM 8	PM 9	PM 10	PM 11	PM 12	PM 13	PM 14	PM 15
PM0	1.00															
PM1	.767	1.00														
PM2	.837	.722	1.00													
PM3	.831	.686	.775	1.00												
PM4	.770	.656	.689	.730	1.00											
PM5	.866	.712	.726	.721	.663	1.00										
PM6	.887	.661	.781	.718	.678	.812	1.00									
PM7	.913	.677	.755	.764	.692	.785	.849	1.00								
PM8	.872	.633	.708	.729	.615	.720	.748	.834	1.00							
PM9	.881	.656	.721	.659	.648	.744	.787	.795	.777	1.00						
PM110	.887	.618	.691	.705	.619	.734	.796	.806	.782	.810	1.00					
PM11	.881	.643	.695	.706	.619	.743	.728	.799	.789	.779	.809	1.00				
PM12	.840	.603	.652	.625	.570	.738	.715	.737	.697	.767	.758	.779	1.00			
PM13	.864	.589	.708	.674	.642	.706	.753	.777	.751	.763	.788	.768	.760	1.00		
PM14	.890	.631	.708	.694	.628	.739	.758	.788	.797	.772	.815	.798	.743	.808	1.00	
PM15	.849	.588	.647	.610	.610	.705	.716	.744	.754	.770	.747	.762	.749	.761	.836	1.00

Note: All correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

CONCLUSION

Considerably the essential task of management in today's organizations as demands grow on educational organization for improved quality and They must involve and motivate employee , create a positive culture, build a group vision, provide a positive instructional environment, encourage high performance and maximize human resources. Hence managers tended to involve employee more in technical domain than in managerial domain mostly by using consultative participation approaches, and they preferred to include employee based on their motivation rather than their expertise (Somech, 2002).

Additionally, findings of the study can be used to make some changes to the management process and improve organizational performance of educational environment in Iran. In addition, findings can be used to obtain a more comprehensive view on the applicability of participatory management in enhancing performance. Dialogues on participative organization can be seen as a way for an organization to build key capabilities essential for success in the complex and dynamic contemporary organizational environment.

This finding of this study can assist the managers to obtain the suitable styles for guiding and developing the human resource. In addition, this finding helps to recognize the current educational organization and judgments about the organization, managements, and other function (within the sample society) and prepare more comprehensive view on the applicability of participatory management in enhancing organizational performance and

better achievement goal of high schools. Finally, it is recommended that managers see participatory management style as a positive trend and not a threat to their authority.

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**A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR THE
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF PRESCHOOLS**

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ABSTRACT

This study was aimed at the development of a framework for the effective management of preschools based on the Revised Head Start Performance Standards (RHSPS) and actual management practices in selected top performing preschools in Metro Manila. Descriptive multi-site case study approach was employed in the study. Results showed that the participant schools observed most of the practices in all the management areas covered by RHSPS. Replication of the study in other preschools is recommended.

Introduction

A good preschool is important in today's world for it lays the foundation of good education (Stratos, 2003).The significance of good management for the effective operation of preschools has been increasingly acknowledged during the 1980's and 1990's (Bush,2003).This paper would like to give you an idea about the development of a framework for the effective management of preschool which was primarily anchored on the Revised Head Start Performance Standards (Federal Register, 1996), and on concepts on preschool management propounded by organizations and individuals who are concerned with promoting effective preschool management (e.g. Alberta Teachers' Association, 2003; Australian Curriculum Studies Association, 1995; Boyer, 2001; Swanson, 2001; and, Vonta, 2003).

Conceptual Framework

The present study was based on the premise that the intended framework could be developed from two sources of benchmarks: (a) standards identified from the conceptual literature (conceptual benchmarks); and (b) actual management practices in selected top performing local preschools (empirical benchmarks).

Problem Statement

This study addressed specifically the participant schools': a) standards/ideal practices of effective management based on the conceptual literature; b) profile as regards structure, enrolment, clientele, years of experience; c) feedback of administrators, teachers, and parents about schools' observance of actual practices which conform and non-conform with the ideal practices in the literature; d) particular characteristics that could probably explain the performance such as structure, enrolment, clientele, years of experience; e) and practices that may be proposed under the areas presented in the conceptual benchmarks.

Method and Procedures

Descriptive multi-site case study approach was employed to come up with a framework of effective management for preschools.

Six top performing preschools in Manila were selected upon the recommendations of three preschool consultants. Bases were learning- centered educational philosophy, active parents' involvement in school activities, pupils from middle and high socio- economic families, qualified administrators and teachers, teacher-student ratio of at most 1:20, presence of teacher aides, at least six years of existence and comfortable facilities

The researcher used interviews and checklist developed by herself based on the standards identified from the related literature.
The same instruments were utilized during the on-site observations in determining management practices in the participating preschools in Metro Manila.

The framework developed in the study consists of benchmarks and the procedural paradigm followed in coming up with a benchmarks was adopted from the *benchmarking continuous improvement cycle* developed by the Educational Benchmarking Incorporated (1995).

The results of the analysis provided the inputs to the proposed framework. The propose framework consists of proposition grouped by management area.   .

Results and Discussion

Based on the percentage of practices per area, which are common across schools, the management areas were ranked from 1 (i.e. 6 out of 8 or 75% of the listed criteria are commonly practiced across the six schools) to 12 (where none of the criteria is commonly practiced across schools). Rank 1 is the area on philosophy, while rank 12 is the area on school budget/capital.   Results revealed that majority of the participant schools are part of the basic education department, administered by the department principals, but the preschool units are under the leadership of the preschool coordinator. These findings may be explained by the presence of the next higher curriculum level that can possibly prepare the preschool graduates to the grade school.. Another finding is that 4 of the 6 participant schools have existed for at least 30 years, indicative that families are likely to enrol their children in such preschools. That all the participant schools cater to children of the middle-class families, where parents who are financially capable are willing to pay the tuition fees of preschools that offer quality programs and services. That three areas: school philosophy, parents - school   relationship, and physical facilities were found common across the six schools. Findings indicate that the schools' educational philosophy are clear, the central role played by the parents in the education of their children is recognized, and provision of a learning environment that gives physical safety and emotional security. However, the three areas practiced by fewer participant schools are: school capital/budget, teacher profile, and staff training and development. Findings imply the need on the part of these schools to review their practices on budget which are mostly not observed; only a minority of the participant schools is able to adhere to the educational requirements for preschool teachers; and the inadequate provision for faculty development which could be an effect of inadequate information dissemination or lack of communication about school practices.

Generally, the standards in the RHSPS are being practiced in the participant schools. This finding indicates that these participant schools can match foreign schools in terms of effective preschool management. However, this inference is tentative, and needs to be verified with the use of outcome variables (e.g. children-related outcomes), which were not included in the study.

From the data presented, a framework for the effective management of preschools in Metro Manila was developed. The framework presents two sets of management practices: 1) practices common across the participant schools based on the modal responses, and as verified by on-site observations and interviews made by the researcher and, 2) management practices which are observed by some, but not by all of the participant schools based on the same data source. These are referred to in the proposed model as additional practices.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The framework proposed in the study consists of practices that are found in foreign standards, the RHSPS. It may therefore be inferred that the RHSPS is comprehensive enough to cover all the management practices in the participating top performing schools. It may also be concluded, based on these findings, that the RHSPS standard is applicable to the local setting. For this reason, it is recommended that preschool owners, managers, and consultants use the framework proposed in the study as a reference in evaluating and improving their current school management practices. Prospective preschool owners may also refer to this framework before establishing their own preschools.

Particular characteristics of the majority of the preschools covered in the study are suggestive of school performance. Differences in performance may be explained by teacher-pupil ratio, length of existence of the school, structure (independent or attached to the basic education department), and socio-economic status of the school clientele. However, due to the limited sample size of the study, replications in other settings, with bigger sample sizes are called for. More important, future researchers may conduct similar investigations among other local preschools to validate the framework proposed in the study.

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The Perceived Effectiveness of Bureaucratic Human Resources Development Interventions among Community Colleges in Thailand

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Abstract

Human factor is considered one of the most important resources for organizations because all sorts of operations need people to implement. For this reason, Human Resources Development (HRD) is receiving increasing attention in both private and public sectors. This research study aims to investigate the bureaucratic governmental Human Resources Development practices extended to public community colleges in the northeastern part of Thailand. Community colleges were established to provide formal education and vocational trainings to adults that did not have a chance to attend colleges and universities during their childhood, due to poverty or lack of access and several other reasons. One of the distinct objective of community colleges was to help people to start own businesses through the teaching of vocational skills and practices. The colleges' personnel had to keep updated with academic and practical knowledge so they could teach more effectively in the fast changing globalised world. However, these colleges were set up as governmental units operated under a strong centralized bureaucratic system. While the Thai government tried to promote personnel development, there were many mandated protocols and procedures in the bureaucracy. The governmental Human Resources Development practices were mostly centralized and emphasized training related to procedural information for administrative control. Hence, this research study was designed as an exploratory study to gain better understanding about the Human Resources Development interventions and practices that the Thai government used, specifically regarding the effectiveness as perceived by the personnel.

Four focus group and individual in-depth interviews were performed with selected personnel in four community colleges in the northeastern region of Thailand. Results revealed that personnel in different positions and localities had different focus on needs for development. The majority of the development programs were planned by the central office. Some Human Resources Development interventions and practices corresponded with personnel's need while some did not. Most personnel described their need for the central office to allow for more autonomy and supports especially in pursuing further study. College leaders had major roles and influences on the developmental direction of personnel. The central office should restructure the Human Resources Development practices to be more decentralized and respond to each locality's requirements. Collaborations and networking among colleges should be promoted.

Introduction

Human factor is one of the most important resources for organizations. Human are involved in all sorts of operations hence they are the key to the success of organizations (Kruger, 1998). It was found that human resource can create sustainable advantage for organizations (George & Hegde, 2004). Rucci, Kirn, & Quinn (1998) reported a causal relationship between workers' satisfaction and customers' satisfaction. This is because satisfied workers, who are capable and willing, are more equipped to satisfy customers. Service quality can be enhanced by employees (Sureshchandar, Rajendran, & Anantharaman, 2002). They are contact points between organizations and customers. A well made organizational plan can be ruined by low quality people. It is imperative that organizations should train and develop human resources regarding skill, knowledge and attitude so they can deliver excellent results. For this reason, Human Resources Development (HRD) is receiving increasing attention in both private and public sectors (Chermack, Lynham & Ruona, 2003). Inferiority in HRD is likely to result in negative performance.

This research study aimed to investigate the HRD interventions and practices among public community colleges in the northeastern part of Thailand. The operations of these colleges were under the supervision of a central authority, the Bureau of Community College Administration (BCCA). Starting from 2002 to 2009, the Bureau has established altogether 19 community colleges to serve the needs for formal degree programs and vocational training courses to people in communities that universities did not cover. Because of the young age of these colleges, there is a strong need to train and develop personnel to set the future pace. These colleges operate as a governmental unit under a strong centralized bureaucratic system. While the Thai government tries to promote personnel development, there are many mandated protocols and procedures to follow. It is interesting to examine the pattern of HRD interventions used by such governmental unit. Hence, this research study was designed as an exploratory study to gain better understanding about the HRD interventions and practices that community colleges used, specifically regarding the effectiveness as perceived by the personnel. Hence, the research question was posed as:

RQ: What are the HRD interventions that community colleges in the northeast of Thailand used in order to develop personnel?

Literature

In the Thai educational context, educational institutions are supervised by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry administered the operations of several units including the Office of the Higher Education Commission (OHEC) and the Office of National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) to make sure that the operations of public and private higher education institutions maintain the same standard level. Public universities were parts of the government system. Operations were performed as a bureaucratic governmental unit. Usually, decisions were centralized at the Ministry. The Ministry controls budgets of all public educational institutions. However, the government decided that from 1998 onward, public universities would be decentralized but OHEC and ONESQA shall maintained the control of quality in education (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2009). This process took more than a decade to transform universities on a one-by-one basis. Until 2009 some public universities are still undergoing the transformation process. The transformation brings about tremendous needs for HRD interventions especially for the transforming of fundamental attitude toward servicing stakeholders.

Human Resource Management (HRM)

In the past, the management of personnel, or Personnel Management, was limited to a few tasks such as recruitment and selection, welfare and compensation, training, and the handling of personnel and other relevant legal matters (Davis, 2006) such as social security, withholding tax, and etc. The changes of management paradigm from scientific management to humanistic approach (Argyris, 1957, Argyris & Schon, 1978) instigated the worldview that realized socio-cultural contributions that employees offer to organizations. It was found that human did not only work for organizations but also influence and shape the way the organization operated (Looise & Drucker, 2002). This approach suggested that human was not just a passive object. Operationally, they are an important factor and should be utilized to create values to the firms (Reisinger, 2000; Struemer, van der Klink, & van de Brink, 1999). Hence, it was more appropriate to look at employees as one of the important resources that company should invest in. Financially, this resource could provide both present and future returns on the investment. The worldview of personnel management was evolved into the Human Resource Management (HRM) approach. In the HRM approach, most functions of personnel management were maintained, but with a different perspective. HRM encompassed a more strategic aim (Davis, 2006) and a concern for the development of personnel in tasks, career and personal lives.

Human Resources Development (HRD)

Training refers to the delivering of skill, knowledge, and attitude to workers to perform their present job while development refers to the improvement of skill, knowledge, and attitude for future, foreseeable and unforeseeable, jobs (Delahaye, 2009). Nowadays, the Training and Development (T&D) function of HRM was changed fundamentally from their origin under the umbrella of personnel management. In the past, T&D was limited to training people for skills necessary to perform their current jobs well. Later, development was added as a reflection of the perspective that human could create future benefits for the firms. Swanson (1992) suggested that training and development can increase the effectiveness and efficiency of workers. Development helps to prepare personnel for their future jobs. A more recent perspective view that "future job" should include not only jobs in the organization who offered development for personnel but also for jobs outside the organization. O'Connell (1999) reported that employees who were individualistic preferred training for skills that could apply to other workplaces.

The concept and practices of T&D was evolved into Human Resources Development (HRD) with the infusion of T&D, organizational behavior (OB), and organizational development (OD) (Hill, 2002). Training and development should aim, not only at improvement performance but also, to change workers' behaviors and result in the organization-wide improvement. Dilworth (2003) suggested that HRD consisted of strategic change management, knowledge and learning, career planning, and employees' well being. Employees should be developed not only as a company's asset but also as an individual with free will. Stakeholders are expanded from only an organization to include the personnel him/herself (Ruona, Lynham, and Chermack, 2003). It is extended beyond T&D simply for works into training and development for personal life such as work and life balance (Kirkman, 1981).

For the above process, the management of knowledge and learning are necessary (Delahaye, 2005). HRD goes beyond training people to do jobs for the efficiency of organizations into training people to change their mindsets and to be responsible for their own career and life. The focus has shifted from organizational objectives into mutual objectives. Training and Development process is shifted to become sociological informal learning in the workplace (Mankin, 2009). HRD interventions occur at the individual, group, and organizational levels.

In this regards, workers are adults who have different learning process from children. Knowles (1980) suggested a self-directed learning process. HRD practitioners should play the role of facilitators rather than teachers (Knowles, 1990). Birzer (2003) supports that this teaching approach is more effective than other behavioral teaching and learning methods. In general, the T&D intervention includes training need investigation, designing the transfer of learning process, implementation and evaluation of results (Delahaye, 2005). While the aim of HRD has shifted to enable personnel to think out of the box and created changes in the organization, one of a bureaucracy's notable characteristics is to keep everything in order under strict rules and regulations. Hence, it is interesting to investigate the bureaucracy's HRD intervention process.

Bureaucracy Perspective

Traditionally, public organizations monopolized markets to a more or less extent. There were few, if not no, competitors for customers to turn to if they were dissatisfied with the products or services. Customer satisfaction was comparatively less emphasized. The house of representative draws laws and regulations for the government to conform to. Hence, it is important that all governmental units should operate in the manner that requires personnel to focus more on the established rules and regulations. The right protocol is valued more than good services. Personnel have to make sure that they follow the right protocols even though the process might create complication or difficulty for customers. As long as the personnel follow rules and procedures, they would be fine. Pleasing customers is not an agenda. This becomes the traditional dominant worldview among civil servants in Thailand. The bureaucracy procedures are prioritized over individual treatment (Robbins & Coulter, 2009). The bureaucratic system results in rigidity and is less efficient in responding to changes in the environment (Child & McGrath, 2001). In the attempt to be more responsive with changes in the environment, modern bureaucracy maintains control but allow some personnel participation (Josserand, Teo, & Clegg, 2006).

In the modern era, stakeholders' voices are attended to more than before (Alsbury & Whitaker, 2007; van de Ven, 2005). There are calls for equality and better treatment for people as well as good governance practices in the public sector. The modern environment requires civil servants to develop themselves both in attending to the bureaucratic system and offering satisfying services to the civilians. Hence, civil servants have to develop their skills, knowledge and, especially, attitude accordingly. The Thai government realizes the disadvantages of bureaucratic system and the importance of flexibility. She is trying to release higher governmental agencies from bureaucracy by appointing several independent agencies including CHE and ONESQA.

Methodology

The researcher applied for approval from the Bureau of Community College Administration (BCCA), the governing authority of community colleges in Thailand, to conduct a research study and collect information from personnel in the local community colleges. Northeastern region of Thailand was selected as the location of the study because the colleges in this area are comparatively more successful than colleges in other parts of Thailand as suggested by the Bureau. The researcher sent letters of introduction together with the approval letter from the Bureau to director in each of the four community colleges in the northeast of Thailand. Telephone calls were made to make appointments with directors and personnel who were selected by the directors to participate as informants. In-depth semi-structure interviews were performed with the directors and three personnel in each college during March 2009. Focus group interviews, consisted of 4-6 personnel, were also performed at each college with personnel. Questions were related to the HRD interventions and practices of each college. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed by the researcher.

Results and Discussion

There were three categories of personnel in community colleges, civil servant, government-employed personnel, and annual contract workers. The government is changing the HR system from hiring civil servant to hiring government-employed personnel with new sets of compensation and promotion plans. The government wants to end the civil servant system gradually by not recruiting any more of them but recruiting government-employed personnel instead as one of the steps to break bureaucracy.

Positions in each college are determined by the Bureau. When there is an opening, the college would make a human resource requisition to the Bureau. The Bureau, then, organizes the recruitment process and assigns personnel to the college. However, as to the time of interview, several positions in some colleges were left unfulfilled for years due to some procedural problems. The application processes are performed twice a year throughout the country. In some years, there were no applicants with the required major or field of study as requested by the college. In some years, applicants could not pass the exam. There was no further action by either the Bureau or the colleges. A director said that *"we had two job openings for 3-4 years since I became the director in this college but so far there is no replacement yet."* They passively kept waiting for the Bureau to recruit people. The director seemed to have no worry about this issue. The burden was pushed to personnel who had to struggle and share the amount of jobs. One of the personnel said *"I have to do everything on my own, use my own car to visit*

communities. Those who are not dedicated enough cannot stand for long." Hence, the quality of works might not be as good as it could have been. This contributed to the problem of limited time for personnel development because they had full-hand of jobs.

An important issue many people raised was about condition of work. Several people mentioned that their jobs were suppressing *"I came here in the hope for a better condition in a higher education institution but it turned out opposite to my expectation."* Some personnel worked for vocational school before. They worked under the governance of the Vocational Education Act with less benefits and privileges than community colleges which belong to the CHE. They thought they could proceed with academic career but it turned out they had to deal with all work routines and teaching classes seven days a week with no time for academic advancement.

Each college included HRD plans in the annual budgets subjected to approval from the Bureau. These HRD plans ranged from educational trips to training classes for various operational tasks. Most of the trainings aimed at delivering knowledge necessary to perform current jobs. The Planning Committee of each college together with the director would investigate the needs for training, design and implement the method for training, usually in the form of training courses. The evaluation of the results was performed through personal observations of job improvement. A few colleges offer training programs regarding the well-being of the personnel, such as meditation course and a course to inspire working spirit, but that were limited to only a fraction of overall training courses. Another channel was on-the-job training since some jobs needed hand-on experience such as going out to visit community members. This approach was easy and popular among colleges.

Personnel could request to attend training courses organized by other institutions. Directors would make the approval based on personal judgment. The expenses would be allocated to the traveling budgets rather than HRD budget. There is no budget for tuition fees or other fees to take courses in other places. Personnel had to seek and request for this on a case-by-case basis. Most of the time, they would go for practical knowledge training related to their jobs such as education assessment, handicraft, or computer courses. There was no attempt to promote or systematic assistant to personnel to seek appropriate courses to take.

Budgets of colleges must be approved by the Bureau. All periodic training courses organized by the central units were about procedural practices. The bureaucracy system requires a lot of rules and procedures, personnel must know all the rules such as memorandum writing, governmental document filing, etc. Personnel, especially in the administrative functions, were satisfied to learn such knowledge. However, most training budgets were allocated to personnel in the central unit rather than the development of personnel in the local colleges. As one personnel mentioned that *"those at the central office went to visit many institutions but knowledge learned could not be applied at the Bureau. They should rather send us because we could bring the knowledge back to improve our local colleges."* The result was that the personnel in the central unit collected necessary knowledge but those in the local colleges did not and sometimes they did not need the knowledge. This could be referred to as expert power base (French & Raven, 1960). It is likely that personnel in the central uses this strategy by learning more about the tasks and procedures hence they could influence the personnel in the rural areas. Those in the local colleges lacked sufficient knowledge for their works and had to rely on the center.

Many personnel, especially those in teaching function, wanted to pursue further study. However, this was hardly satisfied by the college. Due to the task structure of the college, degree classes were conducted during weekend while training courses were conducted during the week days. Personnel were scheduled to work seven days a week and took turn for weekly leave. They could hardly find continuous time for further study. They had to go on their own and managed their teaching schedules. Some directors assisted by rescheduled classes among personnel while some did not. Study leave was not applicable and scholarship was also not available. Those who wanted to further their study had to struggle on their own both regarding funds and time. It was very likely that they endured the condition because they wanted to keep their job while studying. Once they earned the degree, they might seek for a better job with their better qualifications. They are planning their own career rather than planned by the organization. The rules and regulations did not permit further study but the director had an important role in allowing for flexibility in the scheduling to allow personnel to arrange their time for further study.

It seems that the Bureau does not encompass modern HRD perspective to develop personnel. Most training offered by the Bureau was limited to basic skills training. This might be due to the fact that colleges were relatively new. The Bureau was opened in 2002 and the system might not be in place yet. Personnel, especially newcomers, had to learn the system in order to function correctly. The bureaucratic system was strongly evidenced. Trainings were offered to keep people under the rules and procedures rather than to promote development and changes. Actions for development were not supported. Directors had an important role in promoting learning among personnel. However, these directors were selected by the Bureau. The Bureau keeps close control over these directors as one of the directors said *"last year, I was called to the Bureau altogether 120 days."* The Bureau itself was governed by the CHE which operates under strong bureaucratic control. This was carried over to the

supervision of community colleges. The objective of the government to release colleges from bureaucracy seems remote. The policy of the government seems preferable but people in the administrative positions still hold strong bureaucratic worldview. They were civil servants for decades before they came up the ladder to assume higher positions in CHE, ONESQA, and BCCA. It would be difficult to change these long-time veterans' bureaucratic perspectives. The aim to introduce flexibility into the government system is difficult to achieve. The HRD interventions were centralized either through budgetary control or centrally organized courses in spite of the aforementioned privatization of higher education institution attempt. Personnel who wanted to develop themselves were dissatisfied but those who were passive seemed to prefer the situation because they could learn the right procedures as against ambiguity found in the change process. Again, conforming to the right protocol would yield them peaceful lives in the bureaucracy.

The central authority should restructure the HRD practices to be more decentralized and respond to each locality's requirements. The need investigation or the first stage in the HRD process (Delahaye, 2005) should be performed carefully to realize true needs of personnel in the local colleges. Without this process, the directions for the development of personnel and the colleges are unaligned. Personnel in different college and localities have different needs for knowledge. Participations from personnel in the operation levels should be allowed when the Bureau plans for T&D rather than planned from the center that lacks information regarding the local conditions of each college.

It was found from the interview that the leaders, i.e. directors, have an important influence and role in creating flexibility and facilitating HRD of personnel. Leaders, with their authorities, can motivate personnel to learn and organize proper conditions that stimulate learning. They are able to devise budgets for necessary development and allow flexibility in timing for further study and other supporting structures. Leaders with visions realize the importance of development and stimulate the development process. They also can function as a liaison between the college and the Bureau and other institutions. Collaboration and networking with local business communities and other universities can create better opportunities for personnel's development.

Currently, some personnel in the colleges came to know personnel in other colleges through central training programs. These personnel created personal relationships and shared knowledge and information among themselves. This resulted in informal group support system among personnel who felt suppressed. Although the centralized training focused only in skills, the by-product of the process is the creation of networks among personnel that support sharing and learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the HRD process among bureaucracy in Thailand is still governed by strong bureaucratic perspective of the administrators. This research provides a proof of leaders' power both in positive and negative directions to the management of organizations. The bureaucratic viewpoint is still very strong and hinders the human development process toward organizational development. Before any development could be performed, the transformation of the administrators' perspective should be attempted first. The inclusion of other perspectives, either in the form of bottom-up communication or bringing in private sectors administration might introduce some changes in this perspective. It is strongly recommended that HRD intervention is needed at the central authority, the Bureau of Community College Administration. Future research should investigate a priori factors contributing to the bureaucratic perspective of the Bureau. Another interesting research project is an experiment for an implementation of a more appropriate HRD intervention according to the HRD stages: need assessment, designing of the transfer of learning, implementation, and evaluation of results (Delahaye, 2005).

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Analysis of the Higher Education Resources Distribution Affected by the Taiwan College Students

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Abstract

This study applies the time series analysis to forecast the future student number of higher education students in Taiwan. The predicted values might be used in the educational planning. The main purpose of this study is to forecast the number of college students for the next six years, and present timely strategies and amendments for future tertiary education policies. The autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model shows that the number of tertiary will step up every year. The forecasting procedure used in the study are as following: (a) differencing, (b) identifying the orders of autoregressive process and moving average process according to the significant lags in "pacf" and "acf" of differenced time series respectively, (c) accepting the model whose "acf" of residuals are not all significant and which has least residual mean squares, (d) constant component was added to the selected model to build an alternative model. The reliability of each alternative model was discussed according to their residual mean squares and trend of educational policies. The analysis method for time series analysis is chiefly based on the Box and Jenkins(1976) employed by the SAS statistical package. Hopefully, the forecast error would not exceed the 5% threshold ((real value- predicted value)/ real value). The forecast of students number will found its meaning.

Keywords: college students', population structure change, higher education, time series analysis.

The Evolving Teacher, Leader and Action Researcher
Dr. Ryan Thomas
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Abstract

Overview
The purpose of this action research effort was to train pre-service teachers to create written accounts of their leadership actions. Secondly, this act, reflect, and revise mode (action research) enabled and enhanced pre-service teacher's capacity to articulate their practice and improve teaching and leadership. In doing so, identity formation, growth and the expansion of self-understanding was nurtured.

Research Questions
The following questions served as a guide.
1.   Using an act, reflect, revise mode (action research) what evidence of leadership can be realized?
2.   What leadership/teaching actions and reflections will cause revisions and guide growth?
Sample
A purposeful cross-sectional sample (N=320) was selected due to accessibility and convenience. All participants were pre-service teachers (students) who attended Faculty of Education classes. All were enrolled in the Bachelor of Education (BEd) program, a one-year full-time professional program that meets the requirements of the Ontario College of Teachers for teacher certification. All participants had an approved undergraduate degree from an accredited university before enrollment. Participants were enrolled in one of two divisions in the Bachelor of Education program. Participants Included 120 students who were training to become J/I (Junior/Intermediate - Grades 4 to 10) teachers and 200 pre-service students in the I/S (Intermediate/Senior - Grades 7 to 12) levels. Pre-service students completed recursive rounds of action research during practicum while completing courses in curriculum studies, curriculum methods, and foundations in education. Each year there were three practice teaching sessions for a total of 13 weeks of placement in elementary and secondary schools throughout the province of Ontario, Canada. Throughout the year age ranged from 22 to 57 and there were 217 females and 103 males respectively.
Research Design
This qualitative endeavor required us to supply images of action research that were studied in class and exemplars of written action research accounts from previous year students were used to layout a framework. Our intent was to facilitate the development of leadership skills through reflective practicum tasks on three separate occasions. We collected over 1000 reflective accounts which were read, sorted into themes, and checked for the act, reflect, and revise elements. The themes, as noted earlier, involved five elements which included: Moral purpose, understanding change, relationship building, knowledge creation/sharing, and coherence making. These beacons of leadership guided and informed this study as we read accounts and looked for evidence line by line.

Each participant enacted an action research effort by noting their actions (ACT), documenting their thoughts and feelings concerning their leadership actions (REFECT) and detailing what they planned to do to next (REVISE). This task (ACT-REFLECT-REVISE) was but one means of collecting evidence and documenting the beginning of a long journey in education.

keywords: Action Research, Leadership, Professional Development

Meaningful Learning in Higher Education
A longitudinal follow-up study during Bachelor education at the University of Oulu in Finland.

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Abstract

Background: The main goal of higher education is to produce experts for working life as well as for research. The study orientation of students should be directed towards insightful learning and enhancement of the depth of knowledge and understanding through-out the studies. Despite of that, our hypothesis is that many students try to learn by rote (only the minimum required) to pass the exams. They also have difficulties recognizing the relevant from irrelevant and that directs their learning towards memorizing irrelevant details in order to pass the courses.
Goals
We want to find out if that is a prevalent problem. Also the development of education should be based on contextual research data about the processes of learning. Therefore follow-up surveys should be conducted every term of academic year to obtain true overview of learning. To accomplish all that, relevant tools are needed.
Research problems
What kind of a study orientation do students have at different stages of Bachelor education? How does knowledge become organized into wholes during the education? How does the thinking of students develop? How can the learning follow-up data be used for continuous quality assessment in higher education?
Work plan
The study sample consist of students who began their education in the fall 2008 at the Department of Biochemistry in the University of Oulu, Finland. The same group of students is followed up over the period of Bachelor studies and the progress is tracked by conducting annual evaluations.
Methods
The Inventory of General Study Orientations -measurement is used to investigate the study orientation of students. A concept map is used to investigate the students' ability to organize knowledge into wholes at different stages of education. A case assessment is used to investigate the student's ability to build organized knowledge.
Implications
This study provides longitudinal scientific knowledge about the development of students' learning outcomes, that is relevant to all educators. It serves also as an example of research based evaluation process and it gives globally applicable tools for researchers of higher education. The study has also relevance when developing learning-based quality assessment methods.

Keywords: Higher education development, Research based evaluation, Follow-up study, Learning methods, Meaningful learning

Developing and Growing a Sustainable Online Graduate Business Program

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keywords = Advanced Technology, Unique Marketing, Program Quality, Pedagogic issues, MBA

Abstract

The creation of a successful global graduate education program requires two key strategic decisions: the development of a program whose quality is without par and the usage of a vigorous and robust marketing strategy that ensures enough participants attend to lead to the "word of mouth" campaign regarding the program. Thus the two fold strategy begins with building a program of a quality that is far superior than any other in the market (using all creative resources) and then NOT resting on the idea that "If you build it, they will come" but instead aggressively marketing the program where a threshold number of students enroll, experience the program quality and then serve as future ambassadors to the program. Thus marketing value is upfront and continuous while downstream, product quality becomes an important differentiation. Finally, the maintenance and upgrading of the program needs to be continuous in order to maintain the pre-eminence of the program which in turn leads to a sustainable educational model. This presentation will delve into the various quality building and marketing efforts leading to the development of a program as described above.

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This paper raises issues and questions about lifelong learning and community for older women, drawing on empirical work undertaken in the UK and Australia. Drawing in particular on policy developments in the UK and Japan it argues that lifelong learning has been seen as a solution to both global and local problems, and shows how older women learners can make an active and positive contribution towards such solutions through their participation in community actions.

Introduction

Many nations – including the UK and other European countries, Japan, North America and Australia - have seen a focus on lifelong learning which concentrates on supposedly economically valuable skills tied to the labour market and the development of a knowledge economy. A concentration on employment and training excludes those whose contribution to the labour market is unrecognised or whose skills remain unvalued, including women in the home, unemployed people or older people. Such a learning agenda can only continue to replicate the structural inequalities of gender, class and other differences, where only certain types of knowledge, skills and work are valued. This is likely to devalue much of the learning that women do, and even more likely to devalue the learning and work of older women, working-class women or those from minority ethnic groups.   There is little or no recognition of the contribution that such lifelong learners can make to their local, national or global communities.

This paper will raise issues and questions about lifelong learning for older women. In doing so it will draw on empirical work (including interviews, focus groups and questionnaires) undertaken with the National Federation of Women's Institutes in England and Wales in the UK; and the Sydney Older Women's Network and Queensland Rural Women's Network in Australia. Framing the discussion by drawing on policy developments in the UK and Japan it will argue that lifelong learning has been seen as a solution both to global and local problems, and will show how older women learners can make an active and positive contribution towards such solutions through their participation in community actions.

The research

The fieldwork for this research was primarily located in three groups of networks for older women[i], the National Federation of Women's Institutes in England and Wales[ii], and the Older Women's Network and Queensland Rural Women's Network in Australia[iii].

The National Federation of Women's Institutes

The National Federation of Women's Institutes (NFWI) is an international organisation. It began in Britain in 1915 and is the largest organisation for women in the UK. It currently has around 215,000 members, most of whom are over the age of 50.   Although Women's Institutes were originally located exclusively in rural areas, this is no longer the case. Both lifelong learning and community are central to the mission of the NFWI, which is to educate women to enable them to provide an effective role in the community; to expand their horizons; and to develop and pass on important skills: key elements of lifelong learning and active citizenship (see http://www.womens-institute.co.uk/)..

THE RESEARCH WITH THE NFWI TOOK PLACE IN 6 SITES. THE ORGANISATION OF THE NFWI IN ENGLAND AND WALES CONSISTS OF 70 REGIONAL FEDERATIONS, EACH OF WHICH MAY INCLUDE UP TO ONE HUNDRED OR SO LOCAL INSTITUTES. 5 SITES WERE SELECTED FROM THE REGIONAL FEDERATIONS. THESE WERE:

- o   The largest Federation, with 248 institutes and 9500 members. It covers a large geographical area from the industrial south east to the rural villages of the region. The Federation receives an annual education grant from regional County Council.
- o   The second Federation also covers a large geographical area. However, the region is sparsely populated and mainly consists of rural farmlands and market towns, although it includes an affluent spa town. It has a total of 101 institutes.

- o   The third Federation is one of the smallest, with 33 institutes. It covers a largely urban area, including institutes in socially and ethnically diverse communities in on the outskirts of a large city.
- o   With its headquarters in a city centre, and also including socially and ethnically diverse communities, the fourth Federation has 45 institutes in industrial towns as well as in a range of villages.
- o   The fifth Federation has 95 institutes with almost 4000 members. It covers a diverse geographical area, from a major city to the Welsh valleys.

Interviews and focus groups were conducted with members of institutes from within the five selected Federations, and questionnaires were distributed.
The sixth site for the research with the NFWI was Denman College, the residential college of the NFWI, which opened in 1948. I was a participant observer in some of the classes, ran a focus group, interviewed staff, and invited participants to complete questionnaires (36 out of 78 completed and returned).

The Older Women's Network and Queensland Rural Women's Network

The Older Women's Network (OWN) first formed in New South Wales, Australia in 1987 when a group of older women and workers in the Combined Pensioners Association decided to establish a network which would focus solely on older women and issues that specifically concern them.   There are currently 14 OWN groups in New South Wales. A national body, OWN Australia, was established in 1993 to act as a lobby group for older women and to liaise with other national women's organisations. OWN Sydney runs from project funding and with the aid of volunteers, in premises funded by the City of Sydney. It is a self-help organisation committed to promoting the rights, dignity and wellbeing of older women and keeps its members in touch through a monthly newsletter, OWN Matters. OWN's website states:

> OWN's Guiding Principles provide older women with a blueprint for growing old with dignity and wellbeing, consistent with the concepts of positive and healthy ageing. They were developed through an on-going consultative process involving all NSW groups. The Guiding Principles are used by members as a guide when representing the Older Women's Network at public meetings and forums (see http://www.own.org.au).

One of its key guiding principles is about education. Older women learn and develop a wide range of skills throughout their lives and should have access to learning activities that enable them to keep pace with change, to enhance self-fulfilment, and to continue their contribution to community life.

OWN Sydney run a range of interest groups and activities designed by and for older women, including:

- o   Workshops, seminars and training
- o   Interest groups
- o   Discussion groups
- o   Social events
- o   Physical activities

The research with the Older Women's Network in Sydney consisted of focus groups, questionnaires and analysis of *OWN Matters*.

The Queensland Rural Women's Network (QRWN), formed in 1993 to meet the needs of women in rural communities, does not have an explicit agenda for adult education and learning, nor does it focus solely on older women. However, one of its aims is to encourage personal development and education for women in rural communities (see http://www.qrwn.org.au/index.htm). QRWN is spread across vast and often remote areas of Queensland, Australia. The research therefore consisted of questionnaires, telephone interviews and email correspondence.

Names are coded throughout and ethnicities and sexualities (where stated) are self-identified.

Lifelong learning: a solution to global and local problems?

Lifelong learning policies have risen to prominence in recent years, and are high on the educational, economic and social agendas of many governments (including in Europe, Japan, North America and Australia) as well as of international organisations such as the OECD, UNESCO and the World Bank. 'Lifelong learning' is a comparatively new concept, although it has existed in different guises and been differently named across a century and more, including as recurrent, popular, continuing, liberal and lifelong education (Jackson, 2010 forthcoming). For

example, what is often referred to as adult education in England is known more commonly as social education in Japan (Narushima, 2002; Yamaguchi, 1997), with Japan's Social Education Law, being passed in 1949.

Towards the end of the twentieth century, lifelong learning became a catchphrase for many governments across the developed world. In Japan, a law to promote lifelong learning ("The law concerning the development of mechanisms and measures for promoting lifelong learning") was passed in 1990, providing the systematic encouragement of active participation of all people in lifelong learning (Fuwa, 2009). In Europe 1996 was declared as a year of lifelong learning and in 2000 a 10 year Mission was set for Europe to develop lifelong learning to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world (European Council). In Britain, the first Minister for Lifelong Learning was appointed in 1997. Although the UK Government's early policy papers (se eg DfEE 1998) argued that learning has a wide contribution, including enabling people to engage in community participation, one of its prime benefits was seen as economic, with an emphasis on the links between education, employment and economic prosperity.

Lifelong learning has been seen as a solution to a host of local and global problems. It has been argued that 'lifelong learning' has been open to multiple translations, including discursively, ideologically and through policy developments (Okumoto, 2008), although this has been seen both as promise and as threat (Thomas et al, 1997). It is claimed that lifelong learning enhances social capital and promotes active citizenship and social cohesion (see eg Schuller, 2001), thus increasing community participation and developing opportunities for disadvantaged groups and individuals. However, such individuals are also expected to make the most of the policy developments which have led to a growth in vocational education and training, to benefit themselves, their nation states and the global economy.

In the UK, Japan and elsewhere discourses of lifelong learning are framed within the globalisation of the knowledge economy (Archer et al, 2003), although current discourses and policies show major and sometimes conflicting messages. Lifelong learning is seen as a key to self-improvement (including economic improvement), as a means for national prosperity, *and* as contributing to societal good. Yet, like most countries in the developed world, the lifelong learning and widening participation agenda in the UK is one that has been primarily concerned with skills-based vocational learning. There is an assumption that the more training, skills and qualifications people have, the more likely they are to be in work. Although *lifelong* learning should impact on all individuals throughout their lives, in reality it increasingly focuses on younger adults and vocational education and training. As Tony Blair (then Prime Minister of the UK) demonstrated, a key reason for promoting lifelong learning is that "Education is the best economic policy that we have" (DfEE, 1998).

There have been similar global interests in the development of lifelong learning. Lifelong learning is seen as a key to self-improvement (including economic improvement), as a means for national prosperity in a global economy, *and* as contributing to societal good and social responsibility. In Japan, for example, one of the principles of social education is "to promote participatory democracy by enlightening people through learning in their own communities" (Narushima, 2002, 201). As David Blunkett (then Secretary of State for Education and Employment in the UK) stated, lifelong learning:

> helps make ours a civilized society … and promotes active citizenship. Learning enables people to play a full part in their community. It strengthens the family, the neighbourhood and consequently the nation (DfEE, 1998).

In Japan, a key policy move involved the setting up of free or reduced-cost learning activities through *kominkan,* or citizen's public halls throughout the country, seen as a vital course of community involvement which enabled people to develop their participation in democratic life (Thomas 1985). Nevertheless, ever-increasing moves to marketisation and neo-liberalism has meant that the sense of community learning of *kominkan* at the heart of social education has faded (Narushima, 2002: 204), although a large number of Japanese elderly belong to *Roijin* or old people's clubs located in local neighbourhoods, with women forming the majority of members, some of whom are very active in community and voluntary work (Repass, 1999).

It could be argued that learners in adult education have been disproportionately drawn from particular gender, class and age groups (Fuwa, 2009). In Japan, as in the UK and elsewhere:

> the majority of learners who participate in educational programmes held at facilities for adult education are middle-aged women with no jobs, and the elderly; a majority of learners are from a middle-class background and the numbers of learners from the working-class is quite small; the learning interests of adults are predominantly hobby; recreational and sports activities, rather than contemporary issues in political, economic and social affairs (Fuwa, 2009, 640).

Nevertheless, opportunities to engage in lifelong learning are important for older women. Women are a significant proportion of the older population in the developed world (Etienne and Jackson, 2010a forthcoming) and this is particularly significant in Japan, whose populating is ageing faster than any other country. By 2025 over 1 in 4 (27%) of its population will be over 65 (Makino, 1997).   In Japan, as elsewhere, learning opportunities take place "in the context of neo-liberalism with an emphasis on the unbridled workings of market forces" (Fuwa, 2009: 459). Courses which were once free or low cost have become privatised, and these changes affect learners who now often need to pay for expensive programmes (Narushima, 2002, 204).

Financial matters clearly impact substantially on learners' ability to continue to participate in lifelong learning and adult education, and (older) women are likely to have less access to resources, including pensions . Even in retirement, choices that exist for older women are largely influenced by family responsibilities, money and networks of support as well as the expectations of the wider community (Etienne and Jackson, 2010a forthcoming). Older women are likely to have missed out on educational opportunities when young, and are likely to be amongst the poorest groups in society (Jackson, 2005).

Despite the European Union's pursuit and subsequent adoption from 1993 of 'gender mainstreaming', within the policies of lifelong learning there is little consideration of the relationship between gender and the knowledge-economy and even less concern regarding social class, race and ethnicity (Webb et al, 2006). Although rarely explicit "policies and practices of lifelong learning, in very different contexts and with different groups of learners, are gendered in their construction and effects" (Leathwood and Francis, 2006: 2).

Participation in and benefits of lifelong learning and community participation for older women

The three main reasons normally given for participating in learning are work-related; education and progression; and personal development (Sargent, 1997), but for older learners, this is predominantly personal development. The number of older women learners far outweighs the number of men (Aldridge and Tuckett; 2002), with women less likely than men to hold higher educational qualifications. There is a rural/urban divide in access to learning (Tuckett and McCauley, 2005). In rural areas, where the majority of the women in this research are located, a severe lack of public transport prevents older women from attending education centres, and the older women are the more likely they are to be dependent on public transport (Jackson, 2005). This is compounded for women in extreme remote areas, such as those who are members of the QRWN and for whom travel across vast distances is not an option. This research confirmed that organisations such as those represented in this paper are central for learning opportunities for older women, opportunities which would otherwise be almost non-existent.

Although 'older women' in many ways defies definition, in this paper I am defining 'older women' as those aged over 50, as do many of the women in the research:

> FGP[iv]1: Well the definition that I like is anyone who is willing to call themselves an older woman. And it's basically over 50 isn't it?
> FGP2: Yes, well, 50 and onwards
> FGP1: Yes but there are people who object to calling themselves older women but I think older women have definitions
> FGP2: Also I feel that too that it's good keep 'older women', 'older' because … everyone gets old and why should it be regarded as something like a disease? You are an untouchable.
> FGP1: The transparency of older people in society, you know you walk down the street and nobody looks at you. I think that's an issue for me that I'd like to impact.
> FGP2: The invisibility
> FGP1: Lost ladies.

For many women aged over 50, educational opportunities will have been denied when younger. In the UK, for example, women in this age group are more likely to have left compulsory education aged 15 – for older women, this reduces to aged 14. An officer at Denman College explored the changing role of education, and the impact on older women. Until the mid-1990s there were very few accredited courses at Denman College.   The NFWI had developed its own certificates, which were very popular amongst its members, particularly with regard to developing confidence. She stated that Denman is often the 'first step back into learning'. She expressed concern that accredited assessed courses would disadvantage older women. A lack of funding for non-assessed and therefore non-accredited courses means that older women are denied opportunities that were also denied to them when younger (Jackson, 2004).   As one respondent explained, 'Some of us missed out on education when we were young, there weren't the opportunities', and there were real concerns at Denman that the opportunities may be continuing to be denied. The less likely people are to have continued education whilst young, the less likely they are to participate when they are older (Sargent, 1997; Schuller, 2002), leaving older women doubly disadvantaged.

One woman, now doing an accredited course in parchment craft, felt she was being given a new opportunity that she had not had in the past. She told me that she had left school at fifteen, and that she had no 'paper qualifications'. It was really important to her that the course is accredited, and the hope of a certificate at the end was one of the reasons she was undertaking the course. A member of staff said that Denman enables women to:

> take their education forward, I mean so many of them … it's perhaps they are from an era when they didn't work or they gave up work to have a family, brought their family up, and then suddenly now that they have got, you know, perhaps their children have gone, they have got grandchildren or whatever… through their grandchildren very often they'll go back to education, they feel that they want to be part of their learning.

Women indicated the importance of being able to have time in older age to develop their learning through adult education:

> While I was working there was just no time … then five years ago I wanted to do this … craft course and I just thought 'go'.

> I hadn't really looked at Shakespeare since I left school at sixteen and I hadn't ever thought about it as the first priority, but I am really enjoying doing it.

As one of the women from OWN Sydney stated:

> I didn't have a vast education so I am not in the league of a lot of the ladies here that have gone to University. I haven't done that but I have been working most of all my life.

This led to her particularly valuing the Older Women's Network, where she can learn from other women:

> That is what makes it very, very interesting because people bring their life experience with them and it's absolutely fascinating. We all have so much to share with each other.

One of the skills that is shared is engagement with new technology. These skills were lifelines for members of QRWN because of their isolation in rural communities. QWRN has a major project, 'Taming Technology', which aims to coach rural women in contemporary telecommunications technology, including what they call 'applications for life – telecommunications which add value to family on-line interactions' (http://www.qrwn.org.au/). Such skills are very important for older women. For one woman – an active lone traveller in the past – learning computing skills enabled her to keep in touch with friends all over the world. She had learned to do 'all sorts of things on the computer', and had passed those skills on to others. Although learning 'stretches your mind …', and 'opens your mind and it gives you a broader interest', it 'has to have a clear purpose to it: there is no sense to learning without purpose'.

However, classes with no apparent purpose *can* lead to new opportunities. One of the staff members of the NFWI stated

> The average age of WI members is in the late 50s and many of them are a lot older than that. So, there is an issue about what they want in the training and who is involved in taking up training and learning opportunities, but opportunities for learning do lead to new things for some of the women. So for example, there was a session or a series of sessions on reading [historical handwriting] that I thought wouldn't be successful at all but in fact was very successful for the women who took it; and those that completed the course went on to do a whole project around local history and community activities at the time.

An officer at Denman College stated that far from women having less need for learning as they grow older:

> I think (lifelong learning) is actually more important …. The speed of changes in community, society, technology, these are all having an impact on individuals and families and I think it's crucial that people keep up to date because if they don't they would be out of step with society. Also I think … to keep people engaged in society, to keep people engaged with other people, learning brings people together … I think that it's absolutely crucial.

Some respondents extended their learning through the roles required within the local institutes and the Federations of the NFWI, such as president, treasurer, skills co-ordinator, press and publicity officer etc. This learning was most effective in the development of active citizenship and community engagement, especially through the development of confidence, including confidence to speak in public. Public speaking and engagement was also identified as an important aspect of learning for women in OWN:

> FGP1: (It is important) to have an input into government policy, there was a workshop this week, I forget the date, and it is to tell to the department what you think we need for help.
> FGP2: That is an opportunity to lobby the government. I think that is terribly important.

In the main, discussions of learning new skills and building confidence were about taking a place in the public world. For some of the women, these skills were developed through listening to invited speakers in their local Institutes (see Etienne and Jackson, 2010b), as this member of the NFWI stated:

> There are key speakers in perhaps issues like healthy eating or children and exercise and sometimes it is just an excellent and amusing speaker which will inspire. And I think inspiration is important as well.

The talks give the women opportunities to develop their critical thinking and explore their values and attitudes as a result of engaging in discussion and critique:

> And the other thing about learning is that we always choose really good speakers, powerful speakers, who are able to speak. It's usually balanced so that you have got to have speakers who speak for and against the resolution, so everybody is learning and learning how to weigh up information and of course some of them may want to change their minds and vote in a different way from the information they have been given.

For some of the women, issues raised in these talks are extremely challenging, for example the sex trafficking of women and children, child prostitution or domestic violence. The opportunities for debate and discussion about such issues can lead to active community participation and political engagement. As one member stated:

> They came and spoke to us about the issue and they asked us to sign petitions and a couple … went down to the County Hall when the planning permission was given, to march against it.

Major resolutions which begin in local institutes are taken up by the national federation, normally with an aim to influence policy. An officer of the NFWI said:

> One of the campaigns that we are working on … at the moment … is the closure of rural schools …. But the reasoning for closing them doesn't make sense because they perhaps instead of looking at the wide benefits to the community they say: "They have to go and that's it". If you lose the school you lose the heart of the community. This campaign has really grabbed the members' attention. I have never known them to respond as they have to anything … We issued a petition calling on the minister for education to really look at the criteria. Because nobody will admit to it … nobody will admit who has written this policy, whose responsibility it is. So there is this huge battle. (We) issued a petition among (the) membership and so far we have had 4,500 signatures and more than that, and they are coming in daily.

A member of staff at Denman confirmed that many members use the learning with which they engage to move out into their local communities:

> I mean every WI does something for the community even if it's just a few people going in to help in a primary school – they get involved in all sort of things. They are great volunteers which is great – the community keeps them young and their minds active and there is also – I think there is a big emphasis now on health as well and I think that a lot of our members would be very pro - what's the thing going on at the moment – 'walking your way to health'? - I think you will find a lot of women getting involved in that within their WI.

Several of the women across the groups identified the importance of engaging with local and national politics, especially in relation to women's lives, although there was a recognition that women's voices are often not heard.

Conclusions

In this paper I have argued that lifelong learning is currently viewed as a potential solution to a variety of local and global economic and social problems. However, it is mainly those who are currently in the labour market, and especially younger people, at whom policy developments to address these issues are aimed. Older women learners are not seen as part of the solution, and continue to remain marginalised and invisible. Whilst nation states continue to define meaningful lifelong learning as vocational education primarily aimed at younger people, older women will continue to be forced to follow a pattern of loss of opportunities that have disadvantaged them when younger. This replicates structural inequalities of gender, but also of social class and economic deprivation.

Lifelong learning and community participation is particularly important for older women who are likely to find themselves marginalised in a society that only recognises vocational skills, that prioritises skills development for

younger people, and that places very little value on skills traditionally developed in the home. The women in all three organisations in this research project have shown the wider benefits of participating in informal (as well as formal) learning, including for public as well as private recognitions of the skills and knowledge that older women have, demonstrating how lifelong learning can contribute towards solutions for local and global problems. The research has shown how older women learners can make an active and positive contribution towards such solutions.

Global issues are acted out in local communities through the political engagement of individuals, groups and networks and, as the women in this research have shown, lifelong learning can enable older women to (continue to) play an active part in community politics. However, without recognition of this by governments, discursively, ideologically and through policy developments, not only will older women continue to be one of the more disadvantaged groups in society but local and national communities will be the poorer for the loss of active participation that older women can bring. There will be less likelihood of local solutions being sought and found for global issues and problems, and less potential for diverse voices to be added to find global solutions to local difficulties.

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[i] My thanks to the women who gave so freely of their time in interviews, both in the UK and Australia.
[ii] ESRC RES-000-22-1441 (2005) *Learning citizenship: lifelong learning, community and the Women's Institutes*
[iii] Research grant, Faculty of Lifelong Learning, Birkbeck University of London
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Local Problems and Global Solutions: Cross-Cultural Distance Learning In Asia

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0.0   Introduction to local problems and global solutions

It has become our mission in the 21ˢᵗ century to educate our university students as Global Citizens so that they can say their opinions in English about not only global issues but also the more immediate issue of Coexistence in Asia.   It is also important for young generations to build human network in the world.   How can we help our students to be able to solve real problems in the world?   The easiest way is to provide discussion opportunities in their daily life by making use of Information, Communication Technology (ICT) and Multi-Point Distance Communication System. These technological advancement enabled our students to discuss contemporary issues with oversea partners, every day, day and night, beyond the borders of space and time.

Since English began to be used as a common tool of communication in accordance with globalization, the most common local problem in Japan is a student's lack of English oral proficiency required to discuss the current problems in the world, such as climate change which inherently contains such irrevocable dilemmas about national interests as opposed to lengthy process of idealistic consensus-building towards global solutions.   In addressing other current problems in the world without resorting to the military powers, we need to realize that global solutions can be reached at with our firm recognition that this is the age of dialog.   In this sense, English Education has been highlighted as a means of promoting dialog more urgently now than before. In order to overcome the local problem mentioned above, Waseda University adopted the three stages of English Education: tutorial English to promote communicative competence, cross-cultural distance learning to promote inter-cultural competence and cyber seminars among Asian students to promote discussion ability on complex issues.

In this paper, it is argued that our goals in English education arising from local

problems linked to global solutions are attainable by looking at educational concepts in terms of communicative competence, intercultural competence and cross-cultural competence. According to Nagasawa (personal communication), Communicative competence Ministry of Education, Sports and Sciences proposed to teachers in Japan originates from Canale(1983), and Canale & Swain(1980a, b). Communicative Competence is summarized by Kramsch (2005) as Melting Pot View; i.e., you are accepted once you conform to the main stream of American or British Culture and Societal norms embedded in Native Speaker (NS) English. Without being melted into the mainstream NS norms nor blindly following their norms, communicative competence can be introduced in Asia; we need to know NS values and how NS speakers behave, but we do not need to mimic them. Once Asians are accustomed to detach ourselves from the authority and social norms, and to test ourselves as individuals, we would begin to trust our instincts and feelings and could think outside the box. For this reason, our programs at the first stage of Educational goal are based on communicative competence. In the second stage, we conduct one-to-one cyber seminars in which Intercultural Competence is introduced. Intercultural competence is metaphorically summarized by Kramsch as Salad Bowl View in which differences are respected as diversity, but the sense of unity may be difficult to achieve. English Language Education at this stage is called CCDL (Cross-Cultural Distance Learning) programs at Waseda Uiversity. We use videoconferencing system (Polycom) and/or the PC chat system (LiveOn) and conducts exchanges with students from partner overseas universities in English. CCDL promotes understanding of different cultures and provides opportunities to gain practical communication abilities in English, which leads to links with Asia and steps to the world. This is the age of Dialog. Conflict resolutions had better be reached at by dialog rather than military powers. At the tertiary level of Education it is better for us to give Dialog training to our students. The role of English in Global Literacy should transform itself and the nature of English Language Education should be shifted from NS-oriented to Englishes-oriented.

   At the final stage, cross-cultural competence is focused in our education; Cross-Cultural Competence represents a set of social and emotional intelligence to cope with incommensurable world views. Multi-point Distance Learning System is utilized and the students need to cope with multiple points of views such as historical perspective, socio-economic perspective, political perspective involving not only the point of view of a global citizen but also that of an expert in a given area. In the final section of this paper, our educational outcomes are briefly described in terms of

motivation, and social skills.   The present paper summarizes our educational efforts in Asia.

1.0 English tutorials and communicative competence

First-year University students who have been studying English for the sake of entrance examinations for prestigious universities in Japan tend to have the following features (for comprehensive survey, see Nakano (2002)):

> 1. Fairly good passive knowledge of grammar and vocabulary as the result of Grammar-Translation teaching they had received
>
> 2. They tend to overuse some adjectives and formulaic expressions, since they are not taught alternative expressions to convey different shades of meaning.
>
> 3. They are good at reading and writing, but they have strong speech anxiety, since high school teachers tend to correct grammar mistakes.
>
> 4. In their oral speech, they tend to echo high frequency expressions learned in their high school textbooks.

In order for them to use English as an appropriate tool of communication, university students need to stabilize their passive knowledge of vocabulary and grammar to the extent of automaticity so that they should be able to respond effortlessly in English and appropriately in a specific context of situation.   To be able to express their opinions and negotiate meaning in English, they need to go beyond phatic communication – more than being just nice to each other in English 一 and get used to using English in any topic they like without any speech anxiety.   For this purpose, we decided to take a radical reformulation of English Language Education called 'English Tutorial Programs'.   One tutor instructs four students to minimize their speech anxiety and to give relevant feedback by observing learner language directly at first hand: recasting, focus-on-form instruction and how to monitor a learner language by learners themselves.   After each lesson, students submit their reflection report and their tutors give feedback on the same day.   At the same time, tutors assess their mastery of two can-do statements per lesson. These activities for the sake of assessment and feedback are done all online.   The teaching materials are based on Common European Framework (CEFR). We needed six levels for our students, since some of them did not take English as an entrance examination item; some are beginners or basic users in their Spoken English.   According to CEFR, the main objectives for speech interaction and speech production can be outlined as follows:

> **A1 (Beginners)**
>
> Can produce simple mainly isolated phrases about people and places.

Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing and repair. Can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

A2 (Basic)

Can give a simple description or presentation of people, living or working conditions, daily routines, likes/dislikes, etc. as a short series of simple phrases and sentences linked into a list.

Can interact with reasonable ease in structured situations and short conversations, provided the other person helps if necessary. Can manage simple, routine exchanges without undue effort; can ask and answer questions and exchange ideas and information on familiar topics in predictable everyday situations.

Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters to do with work and free time. Can handle very short social exchanges but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.

B1 (pre-Intermediate)

Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.

Can communicate with some confidence on familiar routine and non-routine matters related to his/her interests and professional field. Can exchange, check and confirm information, deal with less routine situations and explain why something is a problem. Can express thoughts on more abstract, cultural topics such as films, books, music etc.

Can exploit a wide range of simple language to deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling. Can enter unprepared into conversation on familiar topics, express personal opinions and exchange information on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).

B2 (Intermediate)

Can give clear, systematically developed descriptions and presentations, with appropriate highlighting of significant points, and relevant supporting detail.

Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on a wide range of subjects related to his/her field of interest, expanding and supporting ideas with

subsidiary points and relevant examples.

Can use the language fluently, accurately and effectively on a wide range of general, academic, vocational or leisure topics, marking clearly the relationships between ideas. Can communicate spontaneously with good grammatical control without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say, adopting a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances.

Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction, and sustained relationships with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either party. Can highlight the personal significance of events and experiences, account for and sustain views clearly by providing relevant explanations and arguments.

C1 (Pre-advanced)

Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on complex subjects, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.

Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.

C2 (Advanced)

Can produce clear, smoothly flowing well-structured speech with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.

Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Can convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices. Can backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.

<div align="right">Modern Languages Division, Education Committee

Council for Cultural Co-operation (2001, p.58, p.74)</div>

Since these descriptors are constructed in terms of Task-performance, context-conditions and quality-criteria (Green: 2009), we could easily think of what speech situations or tasks we need to present to our students.

1.1   Validation Experiment

This experiment was conducted in 2007 and reported in Tsutsui, Nakano and Kondo

(2007).   In this section, the major findings are briefly outlined.   Our immediate goal of the present experiment is to show statistically significant correspondence between the outcome of learning CEFR-based textbooks by Waseda students and the tutors' assessment of individual learner performance.   We have adopted the questionnaire proposed by North & Schneider (1998).   They developed the questionnaire format to elicit a learner's subjective assessment of their ability in English as well as to elicit a tutor's assessment of his or student's ability. We have used 99 items out of 221 originally in North & Schneider (1998) and more recently Schneider and North (2000). The 99 items relate to Spoken Production, Spoken Interaction, Strategies and Language Quality.   2619 students and 982 tutors took part in the experiment.   Table 1 shows the breakdown of participants.

Table 1 Participants

Levels	Participants
Beginner	0032 (013)
Basic	0417 (153)
Pre-Intermediate	0591 (225)
Intermediate	0601 (229)
Pre-Advanced	0704 (266)
Advanced	0274 (096)
計	2619 (982)

Number in the brackets indicates the number of participants who are assessed by their tutors.

We asked the students at each level to respond to the items belonging to the three levels.   The following diagram shows the self-assessment items the students at each level responded to.
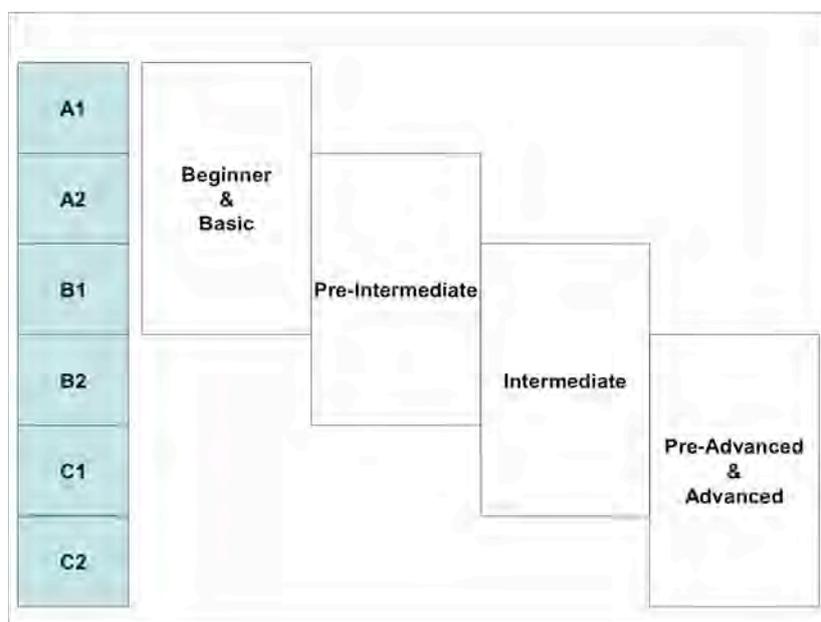
Firstly we have equated learners' judgments as well as tutors' assessments separately and estimated Item Difficulties as well as Item Discriminations according to

2-parameter logistic model:

2PL logistic Model

$$p_j(\theta) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(- Da_j(\theta - b_j)\right)}$$

a_j stands for Item Discrimination and b_j, Item Difficulty.

1.2   Results

Table 2 shows the correlations of Item Difficulties between those by students and by tutors.

Table 2 Correlation of Item Difficulties between the students and the tutors

	r
Spoken Interaction	.849
Spoken Production	.969
Language Strategies	.899
Language Quality	.831

Fig 1 represents students' assessment of Item Difficulties for Spoken Interactions; Fig 2, for Spoken Productions; Fig 3, for Strategies; Fig 4, for Language Quality. Apart from B1 in Strategies and C1 in Language Quality, Item Characteristic Curves are not crossed.   This indicates that teaching materials correspond to the levels of descriptors in CEFR on the whole.
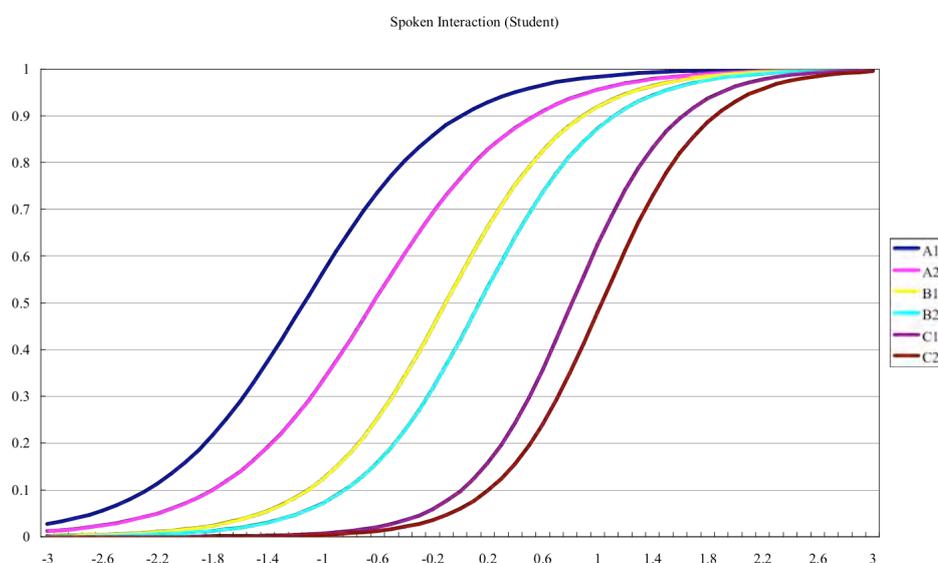
Fig. 1 Item Difficulties of Spoken Interaction (student)

Spoken Production (Student)
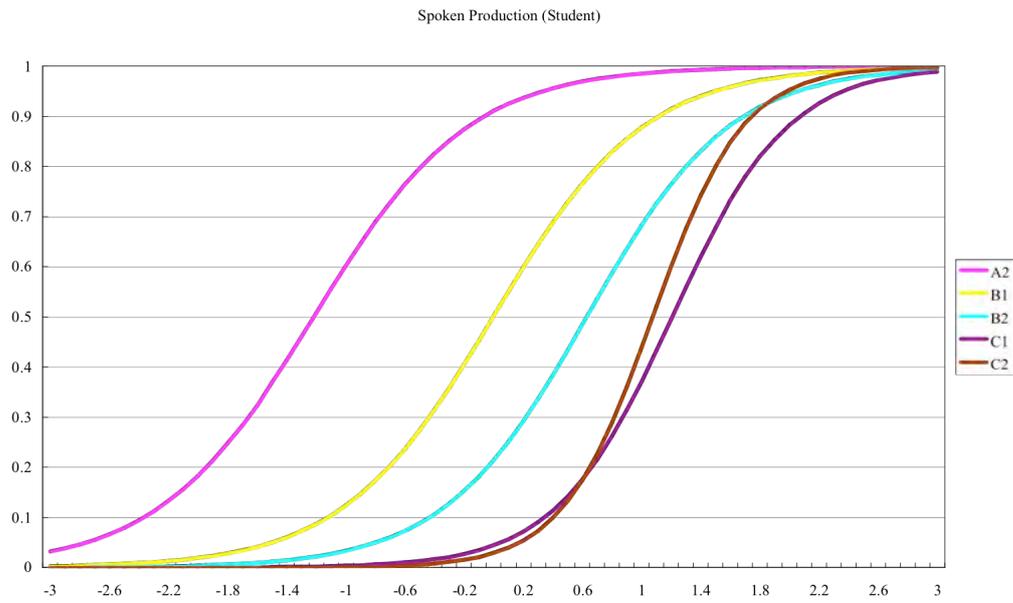
Fig. 2 Spoken Production (student)

Language Strategies
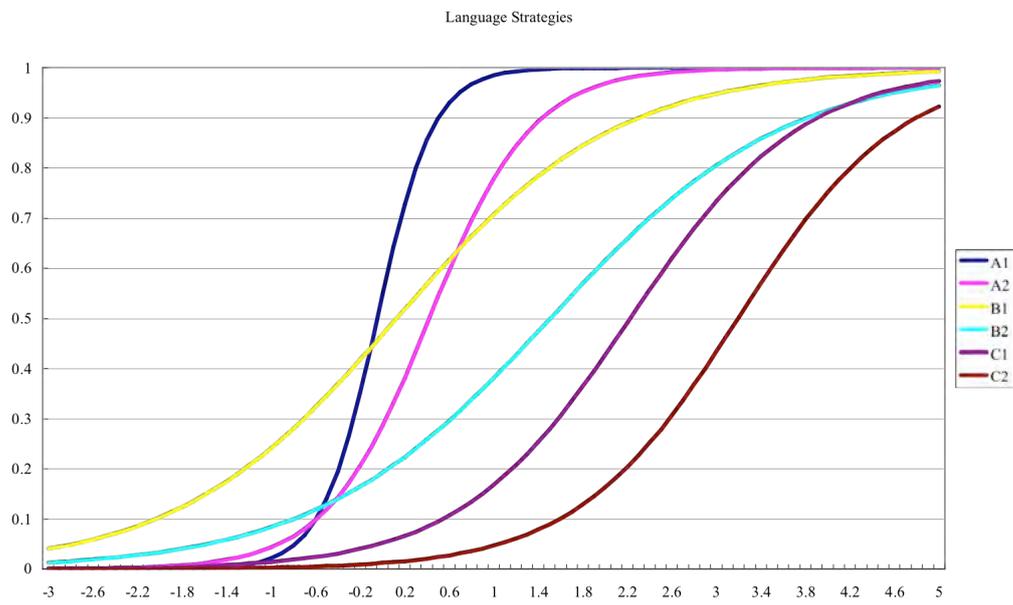
Fig. 3 Item Difficulties for Language Strategies (Student)
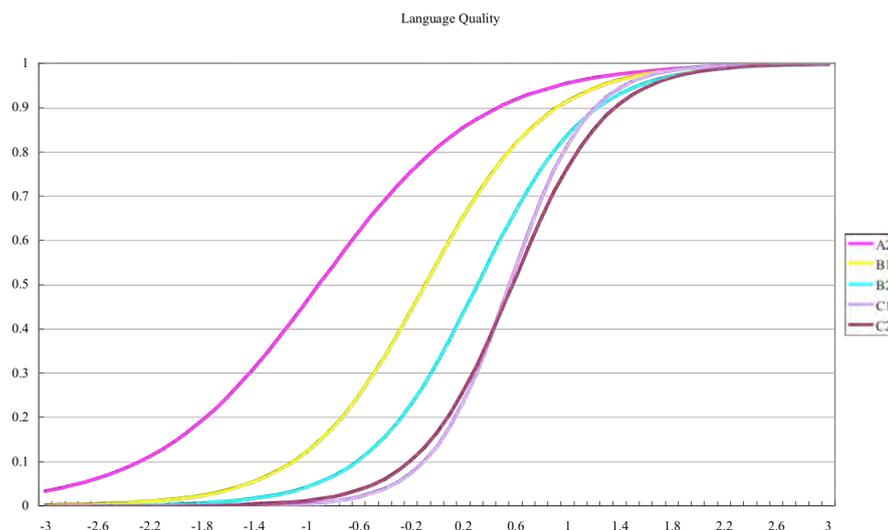
Language Quality

Fig. 4 Item Difficulties for Language Quality (Student)

Fig 5 shows Tutors' assessment of Item Difficulties. Although the Item Discriminations are sharper and more distinct than those by the students, none of the curves are crossed. This indicates that tutors regards teaching materials as following the descriptor levels specified by CEFR.
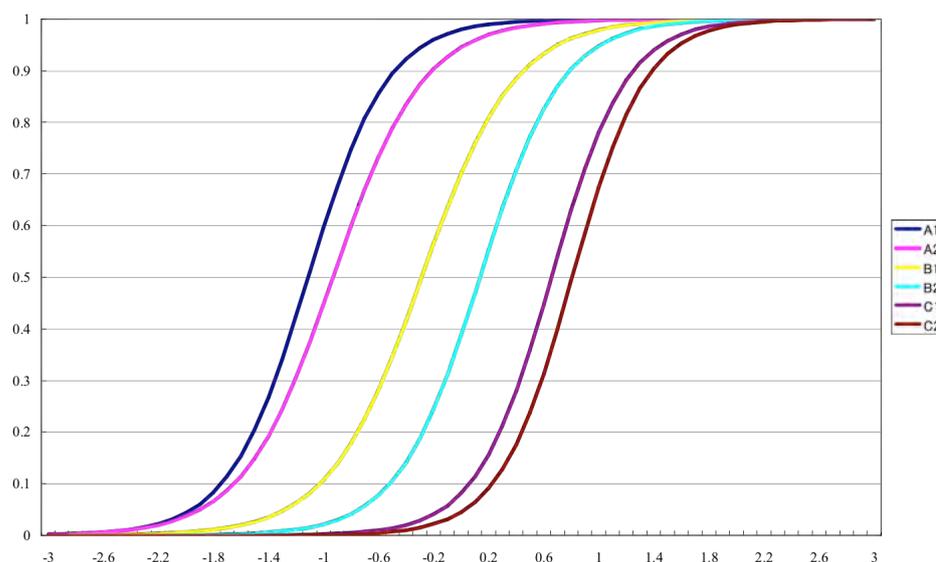
Fig. 5 Item Difficulties for Spoken Interaction (Tutors)

2.0 Inter-cultural competence and one-to-one CCDL as emerging cross-cultural competence

CCDL programs are given to Intermediate learners of English (B1+ and B2), but the content itself and guiding principles explained below can stretch their ability in

English.   As mentioned in 0.0, exchange tools between Waseda students and oversea partner students are either TV conferencing system and/or oral chatting system, shown in Fig 6.

Fig. 6 Exchange Tools

There are three courses: Global and social issues, Media and International Career Path. The topics in Global and Social Issues are Happiness Factors, Family Roles in the Changing World, Climate Change, etc.   Media course deals with Successful Advertisement in East Asia, Gender Images portrayed in media, Country Images portrayed in media, etc.   International Career Path addresses the issues of People vs Task Focus, Work Life Balance, Entrepreneurs, Distribution of Reward and Recognition, Free Trade Agreement, etc.   We have CCDL concepts common to the three courses: see detail in Nakano (2009a and 2009b).

1 Intercultural Translation

If there is no translation equivalence in English for your native concept, paraphrase, summarize, and give the situational context of use.

Is your English good enough to convey native concepts in our own culture?

Be creative in English, as in the outer circle English users such as Singaporeans, Malaysians, and Filipinos, but avoid excessive use of

lexical borrowings.

2 Grice's maxims vs Politeness

See Grice (1975) and Brown and Levinson (1978).

Combine the two principles and control your language.

Ameliorate two conflicting speech principles.

3 Indirect (High/collectivist) culture vs Direct (Low/individualist) culture

Indirect / High Context Culture: People in these cultures tend to infer, suggest and imply rather than say things directly. At least that is how they appear to people from more direct/low-context cultures—though not, of course, to each other.

Direct/Low Context Culture: Direct cultures tend to be less collectivist, with less well-developed in-groups, and more individualist than indirect cultures. People lead more independent lives and have fewer shared experiences; hence, there is less empathic understanding of others. People need to spell things out and be more explicit; to say exactly what they mean rather than merely suggest or imply[No culture, of course will be exclusively direct or indirect—all cultures will have elements of both poles—but many cultures tend to be more one than the other. As always, personal differences will also come into play, along with circumstances.]

Indirect mode of speech vs Direct mode of speech: our learners need to intuit in utterances, "That is a very interesting viewpoint, or This proposal deserves further consideration" such implicatures as 'I don't completely agree. We need to talk more about this. I see things very differently.' These modes of speech are built-in in our culture.   Then, why not incorporate direct/ individualistic orientation into our society more than before.

Polychronic vs monochronic time orientation and risk orientation: see Hofstede (1980).

Be diverse.

Go beyond the East and West.

4 Agreement styles

Submission style allows another person or group to have authority to make decisions or being willing to hand over control

Compromise style: An agreement in which both sides make a concession by agreeing to accept less than they originally wanted

Evasive style: To intentionally avoid dealing directly with a difference for strategic reasons

Consensus building process

Increase flexibility.

5 Research method which helps students make sound judgments

We instruct our students how to evaluate sources of information in terms of the six factors:

Authority: Is the writer of the source an expert?

Purpose: Does the source want to inform you or persuade you?

Audience: Who is the audience? Is it written for experts? Children?

Currency: Is the information recent?

Quality: Is the language objective?

Accuracy: For factual information, can the same information be found in other sources?

6 ODIS (Observe, Describe and Interpret, but suspend your judgments.)

Don't be judgmental.

7 Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence combined: see Goleman (1995) and Salovey and Mayer (1990).

Emotional intelligence is believed to determine the potential for learning the fundamentals of self-mastery, whereas emotional competence shows how much of that potential has been mastered in ways that can be translated into on-the-job capabilities (Goleman, 1995: xv). Students are introduced to Goleman's framework of emotional competence from time to time during the business-related activities in the preparation lesson as a hint of how to become a better communicator or to develop leadership skills.

Social Awareness

Primal empathy: Feeling with others; sensing non-verbal emotional signals.

Attunement: Listening with full receptivity; attuning to a person.

Emphatic accuracy: Understanding another person's thoughts, feelings, and intentions.

Social cognition: Knowing how the social world works.

Social Facility

Synchrony: Interacting smoothly at the nonverbal level.

Self-presentation: Presenting ourselves effectively.

Influence: Shaping the outcome of social interactions.

Concern: Caring about others' needs and acting accordingly.

(Goleman, 2006: 84)
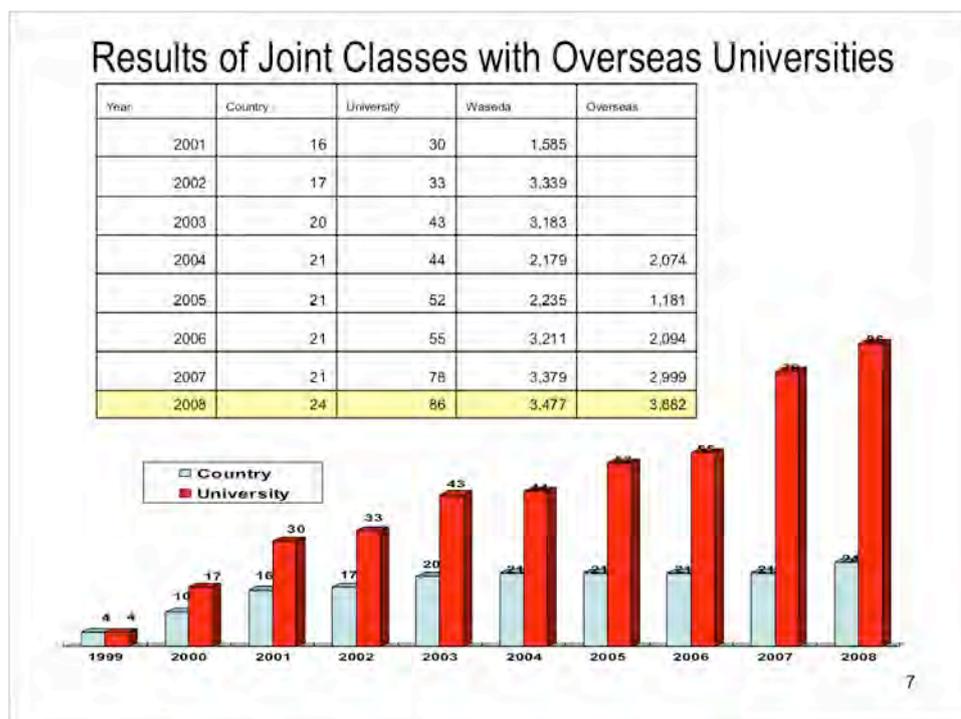
Fig. 7 CCDL Participant Data from 2001- 2008

In the expanding circle countries, English is not used in our daily life.   We need to offer students more opportunities to use English.   Asian interactions are authentic communication opportunities.   Text-book teaching confined within the classroom activities is communicatively vacuous to a large extent and NS-norm dependent. The more they use English, the better their proficiency becomes.   In fact their English improves as the result of NNS-NNS Interactions.   Strategic competence is fostered in the interactive dialog, since CCDL programs develops the ability to switch perspectives; by encountering views and opinions different from our own, we will begin to develop a deeper self-awareness and begin to see things in others' shoes. Gradually, we want to encourage our students to develop a more "ethnorelative" awareness. This means not just respecting others' opinions, but also being able to understand why others have different points of view and why their values and choices may be different from your own. It involves "suspending" our own values, to enable us to put ourselves in others' shoes. The ability to accommodate or assimilate diverse perspectives like this is what we call "Emerging Cross-cultural Competence."   It is

hoped that intercultural competence is inherently linked in the mind of a learner to the development of cross-cultural competence.

3.0 The Growth of Cross-Cultural Competence and multi-point distance learning CCDL

Our teaching at the third stage focuses on the development of cross-cultural competence so that our students should be able to discuss competently the current problems in the world with their overseas partners whose worldviews are incommensurable. We believe that multi-point distance learning offers opportunities for turning a learner's point of view into trans-cultural ones which may be termed as Global Literacy Education with Cross-Cultural Competence. According to Kramsch (2005), "neither intercultural nor multicultural education put into question the mainstream principles of the dominant Anglo American culture..." (2005:13). Since we embody different and incommensurable world views, both Kramsch and Cameron (2002) oppose the world view of 'unity and diversity.' Real world problems cannot be solved by native-like communication skills. Instead, they propose trans-cultural competence. By using ICT effectively, we can be confident that 'Cross-Cultural Competence' offers the necessary educational concepts of English Language Education particularly valid in Asia. Fig. 8 gives some examples of multi-point distance learning programs. These content courses involves scrutinizing multiple sources and perspectives: socio-cultural understanding of the concepts in Asian countries, historical perspectives in each of the countries involved, speculation about causes, consequences, and hypothetical futuristic situations. In order to take an active part in cyber discussion, the students need to evaluate alternative proposals and making and responding to hypotheses. At the same time, they need to initiate idealistic/humanistic and futuristic discourse, and give feedback on and follow-up statements and inferences by other participants. Furthermore, they are expected to relate their own contributions to the development of discourse to simulate a process of consensus-building among Asian users of English.

Since each set of circumstances we are in are bound to be different from generation to generation, we can not hand down our solutions to the younger generations. Each generation must find their own solutions for themselves. Furthermore, society may not always be right. The mind-set we wish to foster in the mind of our students, therefore, includes sympathy for the weak and the poor, courage to go into the

academic wilderness and the conceptual frontier in order to discover solutions for the real problems in the world, readiness to question the authority and social norms and the self-reliance to trust their experiential instincts and feelings. Younger generations must be able test themselves as precious individuals.

Joint Classes with Overseas Universities (Cyber Seminars)

"World Englishes and Miscommunications"

Coordinator	Participating Universities			Number of Students
Prof. Michiko Nakano	Chulalongkorn University Hong Kong Baptist University National University of Singapore Namseoul University Waseda University	De La Salle University Korea University Hannam University Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages	Fudan University University of Malaya	237 (2005 AY) 346 (2006 AY) 244 (2007 AY) 290 (2008 AY)

"Coexistence in Asia"

Coordinator	Participating Universities	Number of Students
Prof. Toshihiko Kinoshita	Korea University Thammasat University Fudan University National University of Singapore Waseda University	110 (2005 AY) 124 (2006 AY)

"Toward the Establishment of an East Asian Community"

Coordinator	Participating Universities	Number of Students
Prof. Shujiro Urata	De La Salle University	70 (2006 AY) 42 (2007 AY)

"Free Trade Agreements (FTA) in East Asia"

Coordinator	Participating Universities		Number of Students
Prof. Takashi Terada	Fudan University Thammasat University Waseda University	De La Salle University National University of Malaysia	120 (2007 AY) 111 (2008 AY)

Fig. 8 Multi-point CCDL courses

3.1 Some outcomes of our education in terms of motivation and social skills

In order to test our educational methods, we ran two experiments.   The experimental findings are reported in Nakano et al. (2008i) and Nakano & Yoshida (2008j).   This final section briefly outlines these experiments.   Generally, Program Assessments can be done by looking at the following two points:

How much a program can promote a learner's motivation to learn

How much a program can improve a learner's social skills (communication skills + intercultural knowledge)

We compared and contrasted three Class Types:

Theme-based CCDL programs (+ textbooks about intercultural communication skills + oral-chatting: see Section 1.2)

Global Literacy course (learner-centered CCDL): participants choose topic of discussion and reading material + weekly TV conferencing followed by

individual oral chatting)

Regular English Lessons (oral or text chatting outside lesson hours)

234 Waseda university students took part in Motivation experiment and 388 students, in Social Skills experiment. We distributed online 35 Motivation Questionnaire items which are adapted from Noels et al. (2000) and DÖrnyei (2005) and modified in accordance with the CCDL environment. Motivation progresses from Amotivation via External Motivation to Intrinsic Motivation. Intrinsic motivation is triggered by quest for knowledge, the sense of Accomplishment or such physical Stimulation as English sounds and rhythm. It is assumed that Motivation accommodates self-regulation dynamics: Eternal/Extrinsic regulation, Projected regulation, Identified regulation and

Intrinsic regulation. We factor analyzed the data and extracted 5 Factors in Motivation data:

Factor 1 Intrinsic Motivation for Knowledge

Factor 2 Amotivation

Factor 3 transition from extrinsic regulation to introjected regulation

Factor 4 Intrinsic Motivation for Accomplishment

Factor 5 transition form extrinsic to intrinsic
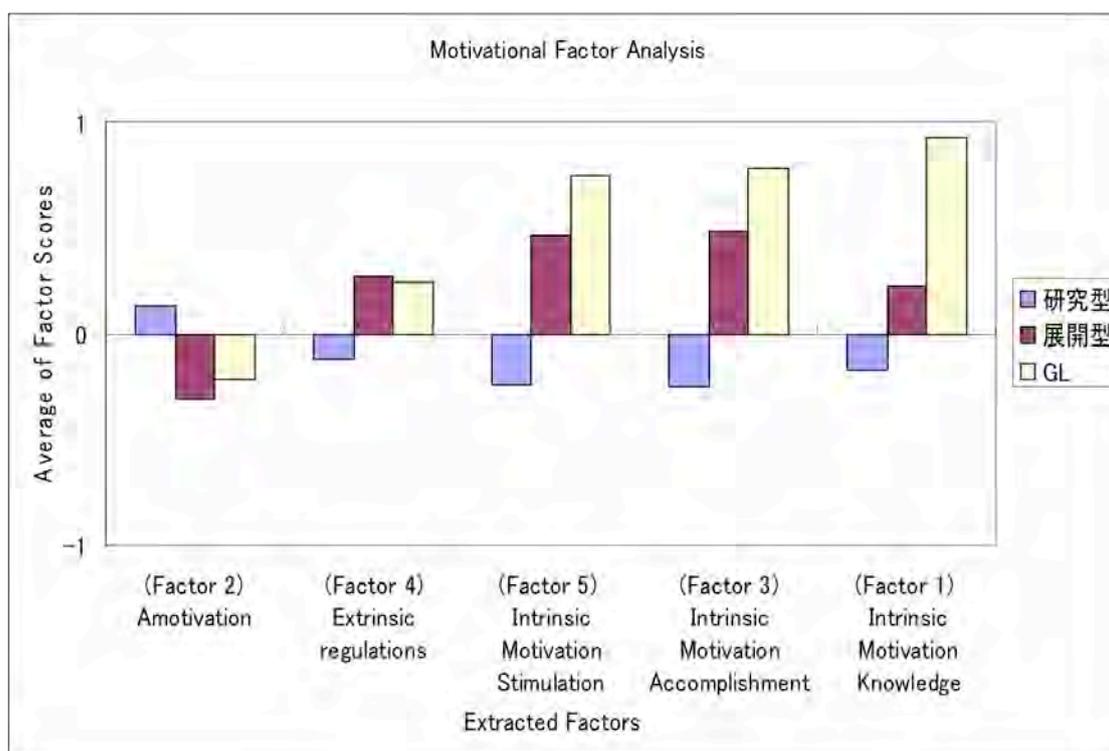
Fig. 8 Mean Factor Scores

Blue bar stands for mean factor scores in regular English lessons.

Yellow bar stands for mean factor scores in Global Literacy class (a type of CCDL).

Wine-colored bar stands for mean factor scores in CCDL programs.

Note that Global Literacy class is a student-centered CCDL; the students choose the topics of discussion and presentation as well as reading materials.   On the other hand, theme-based CCDL programs have textbooks and the discussion topics are predetermined by the textbooks.   For this reason motivational mean scorer are better in CCDL Global Literacy Class than in the theme-based CCDL programs.   It should be noted that regular English lessons elicit negative values for all the positive motivation types and the only positive value is for Amotivation, i.e., the students are unwilling to study English.   The present experiment confirms that the CCDL approaches to English Language Learning suits the goal or purpose of learning among our students.

For Social Skills, We analyzed the data as in Kikuchi (1988, 2007); Firstly, Item-total correlation analysis was done, secondly, the highly correlated 3 items with the items belonging to the four categories are identified and finally we factor analyzed the 18 items.   Then we calculated mean factor scores for the three class types separately. Fig. 9 represents the mean factor scores.
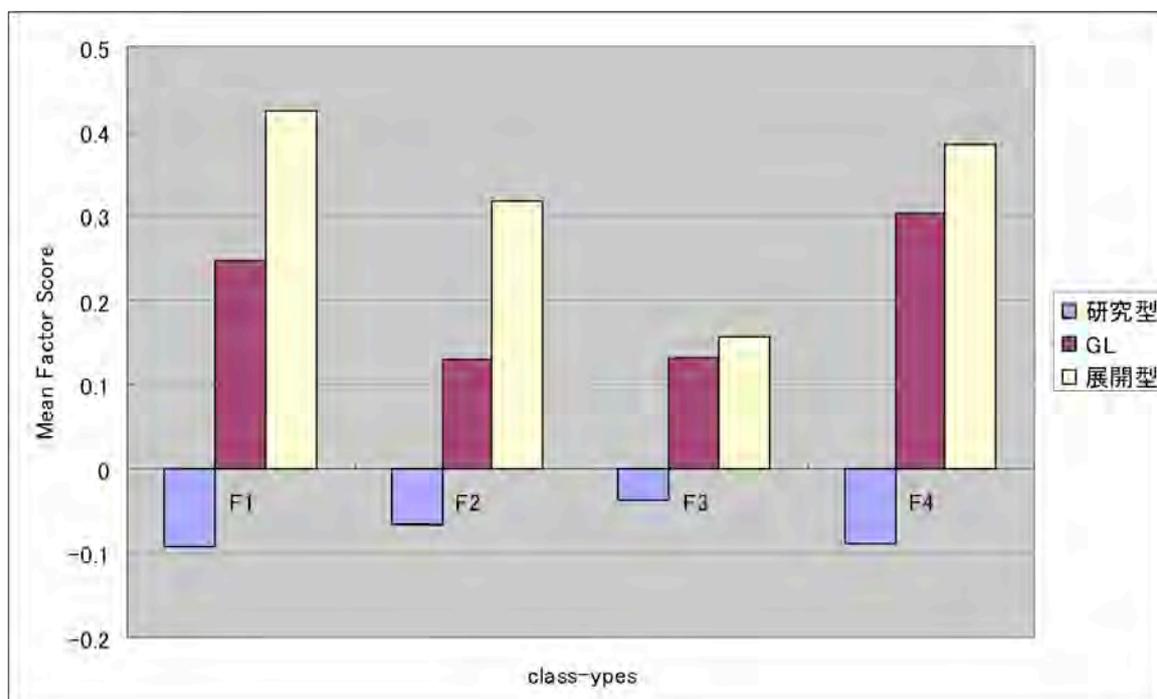
Factor 1 Fundamental Skills for L2 Communication

Factor 2 Social skills with considerations for other people

Factor 3 Skills for dealing with distress

Factor 4 Planning skills

Blue bar stands for mean factor scores in regular English lessons.

Wine-colored bar stands for mean factor scores in CCDL Global Literacy class.

Yellow bar stands for mean factor scores in the theme-based CCDL programs.

As you can see, the theme-based CCDL courses are better suited in enhancing the acquisition of Social Skills. We have seen in Motivation Experiment that CCDL Global Literacy program is better than theme-based CCDL courses in raising a learner's motivation. CCDL programs all together are a way ahead of regular English lessons. The students who participate in the CCDL programs are trying to perform up to our expectations and to stretch their ability in English to cope with an increasing number of problems whose answers come along with a dialog with their contemporary peers in Asia.

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Using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (COLT) for Classroom Observations

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Introduction

In our university, it is only our department that conducts classroom observation. This is done once a semester, usually a month after classes started. The question that any teacher might ask is: "Why are we doing classroom observation?" To many teachers outside Japan, this is an inappropriate question to ask because whether the purpose of classroom observation is to gather data for research, help a teacher solve a disciplinary problem, or sit in the classroom to make sure the objectives set for the course are achieved is pretty commonly practiced. However, teachers in Japanese colleges and universities and even in elementary and secondary schools will be surprised to hear that our department does classroom observation with the goal of assessing the curriculum.   Assessing the curriculum means to make sure the objectives for all courses offered for the semester are met. This can be checked through student evaluation usually using questionnaires, and through classroom observation. The latter entails talking to the teacher what is expected before the observation and giving feedback after the observation. These processes are not commonly done at Japanese colleges and universities for two reasons. One reason is that the curriculum is not defined. Out of more than a hundred colleges and universities in the country, may be only a few have a solid curriculum which they rigidly follow and assess regularly. I can attest to this based on my experience teaching at a high school for three years and at four different universities for five years, and many of the teachers would agree that a 'real curriculum' does not exist. We would come to a meeting wherein the chair or program coordinator would inform us about the course we would teach, and it was up to us to formulate our course objectives based on the course name and general goal of the course. The semester would start and end without any classroom observation. It is not the case in our department. We have established our curriculum which we have been using for two years now. And for two years, we have conducted

classroom observation because, after three decades of research, it has been proven to be effective as far as improving teaching is concerned. (Sheal, 1989)

The term classroom observation is not new in language teaching. Classroom observation 'arrived' in language teaching research as a research tool as early as 1960s in the U.S. (Allwright, 1988). In the early 1960s, Flanders (1960a) devised a system of Interaction Analysis, an instrument used to observe actual classroom behavior such as teacher talk and student talk. In the late 1960s, researchers like Jarvis, Politzer and Rothfarb utilized systematic classroom observation as the key procedure in their research work. Systematic classroom observation is a quantitative method of measuring behaviors from direct observations that specifies both the events or behaviors that are to be observed and how they are to be recorded (Medley, 1992). Research using systematic classroom observation has provided researchers and other people in the field of teaching with substantial knowledge base that has helped them understand effective teaching (Waxman et al., 2004).

Unlike Politzer's (1966) study which aimed at identifying 'bad' and 'good' teaching techniques, Rothfarb (1970) and Jarvis (1968) sought to determine how well teachers' actual behavior fitted the audiolingual ideal. With the shift from audiolingual approach to communicative language teaching which reached its peak in the early 1980s and still considered as the well-informed approach in language teaching (Brown, 2002), a number of researchers developed instruments to describe events in a communicative language setting. Allwright (1988) and Coulthard (1977) analyzed the discourse of teacher and learner speech. Van Lier (1988), on the other hand, utilized ethnographic approaches to classroom observations. None of these studies captured the complexity and variety of instructional events in L2 classroom settings. Thus, Spada and Frohlich (1995) designed COLT which was utilized in the present study. COLT, which stands for Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme, was developed to describe classroom processes and examine these in relation to learning outcomes. It was designed in such a way that it will avoid subjective, judgmental and impressionistic nature of classroom observation which is the reason for the bad reputation of classroom observation (Wang and Seth, 1998).

Research Questions

Aside from the goal of making the classroom observation as objective as possible by utilizing COLT, it was also the aim of this present study to create a state of imbalance in our teachers' perception of their own

behaviors and to provide self-awareness among our teachers which could increase their control of their actions and the possibility to modify them to improve their teaching. Specifically, the following questions were addressed in this study:

(1)   What is the nature of the communicative orientation in the English language classrooms at the Department of English Education of Kansai University of International Studies?

(2)   What are the implications of the findings of classroom observation for teacher, curriculum and materials development?

Review of Related Literature

Akbari   et al. (2009), in their study, identified five necessities of teacher observation. One is it is a means of attending to the need teachers have for assistance in understanding their classroom behaviors, classroom dynamics and teaching techniques. Two is it is a way of engaging teachers and administrators in a dialogue about effective practice. Three is it is a mechanism for assessing areas requiring improvement. Four is it a vehicle for fostering understanding about unique issues teachers face as well as for expressing appreciation for work they do. Finally, it is a tool for evaluating the teacher's performance. All five necessities, which can be categorized into three, are evident in the present study. In present study, the first category has to do with providing teachers with feedback as to whether or not the course objectives are met. The second has the goal of promoting good relationship between the supervisors and the teachers. The last has to do with the rehiring process. One cannot argue the fact that these reasons are important not only for the teachers but also for the supervisors, administrators and students. No matter how important classroom observation is, it is undeniable that it is not an easy task. In fact it is a very challenging task for supervisors to do. The challenge lies in making the teachers who will be observed feel comfortable with the classroom observation process.

In the study conducted by Wang and Seth (1998) in China, they found out that teachers viewed classroom observation as 'bad' because of its subjective, judgmental and impressionistic nature. In order to change this negative image of classroom observation, they employed a collaborative approach in their conduct of classroom observation. They gave teachers the opportunity to decide what they would like to do throughout the

classroom observation process. Results showed that this approach created a drastic change in teachers' attitude towards observation.

Lam (2001) conducted similar study on teachers' attitude towards classroom observation in Hong Kong. The results revealed two main reasons for teachers' adversarial attitudes. One has to do with doing classroom observation with the primary goal to evaluate teachers. The second relates to the idea of the principal or supervisor sitting in the back of the classroom checking the evaluation checklist, and making the decision what is good and bad teaching afterwards. The findings also revealed that teachers preferred to include teacher development and peer observation in teacher observation practices.

The present study took into account all the purposes of classroom observation cited by Akbari et al. The next challenge was to employ classroom observation in such a way that our teachers would see the necessities more than the disadvantages. One way to realize this was to employ the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation (COLT) scheme as an instrument for systematic classroom observation.

Prior to the use of systematic observational methods, research on effective teaching typically consisted of subjective data based on personal and anecdotal accounts of effective teaching (Nuthall and Alton-Lee, 1990). In order to develop a scientific basis to teaching, researchers began to use the more objective and reliable measures of systematic classroom observation. In the past few decades, several hundred different observational systems have been developed and used in classrooms and research studies (Anderson and Burn, 1989). The paper on interaction analysis as a feedback system by Amidon and Flanders (1963) utilized an instrument that looked into the verbal behavior of teacher in the classroom which is classified as either indirect or direct. This classification gives central attention to the amount of freedom the teacher grants to the student. The teacher can be direct, that is, minimizing the freedom of the student to respond, or he can be indirect, maximizing the freedom of the student to respond. Hough (1965), on the other hand, developed an instrument that could analyze both teacher and student behavior. It is a 16-category system which is grouped into four major subdivisions: (1) teacher indirect verbal behavior, (2) teacher direct verbal behavior, (3) student verbal behavior, and (4) silence or nonfunctional verbal behavior. These are among the many instruments developed for systematic classroom observation. Among the newest instrument that can capture the complexities of L2 classroom, and can determine the nature of communicative orientation in the classroom is the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation (COLT) scheme of Spada and Frohlich (1995) which the present study utilized.

Methods

Participants

Table 1. Part-time teachers observed using COLT

Teacher	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
Nationality	American	Japanese	American	Australian	Canadian	Japanese	Australian
Highest Degree	M.A. in Education	M.A. in Ling & Literature	M.A. in TESOL	M.A. Applied Ling	M.A. Eng Education	M.A. Medieval Studies	M.A. Applied Ling
# of Yrs of teaching experience	6 yrs	4 yrs	6 yrs	4 yrs	9 yrs	15 yrs	
Length of teaching at KUIS	Just started	Just started	Just started	Just started	Just started	9 yrs	2 yrs
Course taught during observation	Intro to Int'l Bus	English B	Community Planning	English B	Business Manner	Intermediate Listening I	Intro to Int'l Bus I
Major Skill Focus	Independent Writing	Integrated speaking	Reading	Integrated Speaking	Independent Writing	Listening	Integrated Speaking

As shown in Table 1, there were seven teachers involved in this study. All teachers observed, two Japanese and five foreigners, have Master's degree. Three have a graduate degree in education, three in applied linguistics or language teaching, and one in medieval studies. All of the participants have at least 4 years of teaching English either in a language institute, elementary, high school or university. Out of seven teachers, only two have been teaching with the Department of English Education for one year or so, and the rest just started teaching in the spring semester. All participants taught a course under the Department of English Education at the time of the observation.

Instrumentation

One instrument utilized in this study is Spada and Frohlich's Communicative Orientation Language Teaching (COLT) scheme (see Appendix). The scheme, was not modified for this study, is rooted within a theory of communicative language teaching and can capture the complexity and variety of instructional events in L2 classroom settings, such as the variety of activities and modalities used, the kind of language that learners produce in pair or group work, the kinds of questions teachers and students ask one another, the types of verbal interactions which take place within different activities or tasks, the content focus of the lesson, the control of content, and even the type of source materials used.

The COLT observation scheme has two parts, but only Part A is utilized in this study. As described by Yu (2006), Part A is referred to as the macrolevel analysis and is designed to conduct a real-time coding that describes classroom

activities at five major levels. The first, *activity type*, such as drill or roleplay, etc., is employed to help the observer identify the kinds of tasks and exercises that students need to do during the class. Compared to the other levels, it is not only qualitative (as opposed to quantitative) in nature, but is the only open-ended category within the context of which the information of classroom processes realized by the other levels are provided. The second level, *participant organization,* such as teacher-centered activities (like whole- class interaction) or student-centered activities (like group

work), records the amount of time spent on different types of class interaction. The third level, *content*, can be employed to determine whether an observed class is primarily code-based or meaning-based in its orientation. Code-based instruction is realized through a subcategory with an explicit focus on language (form, function, discourse, and sociolinguistic rules), whereas meaning-based orientation

is realized through the subcategory of *other topics*. The fourth level, *student modality*, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, or writing, measures how much time students spend practicing the four skills. The last level, *materials*, focuses on information regarding type, length, and source of texts being used. In short, the Part A analysis permits a description of classroom practices for different focuses of communicative competence within activities. For instance, if an activity is described as sociolinguistics-focused, the features of instruction are specified.

Besides using the COLT scheme and note taking, a video camera was utilized to record the lesson. Using video analysis to study teaching and learning resources and learning has special advantages (Stigler,

Gallimore, & Hiebert, 2000). One advantage is that it enables detailed examination of complex activities, such as the use of teaching and learning materials, from different points of view. The second advantage is that it preserves classroom use of teaching and learning materials by many people with different kinds of expertise, making possible detailed descriptions of many classroom lessons. The third benefit is it increases the opportunity to develop powerful theoretical observational systems to analyze the use of resources in the classroom and learning situations.

Procedure

The first step done in this study is the **explanation of the goals of classroom observation**. Before the start of the spring semester, teachers were informed that there would be classroom observation. Since classroom observation has been done for almost two years, this announcement was made especially for the newly hired part-time teachers. The eight goals of classroom observation (Borich, 2008) were made clear to all concerned teachers. The first is to achieve empathy, a willingness of teachers to see events from different and nonjudgmental points of view and to appreciate the observer's interpretations or reasons for acting they way they do. The second goal is to establish cooperative relationship. It was emphasized that there is a need for everybody to work with colleagues for ideas and support. The third goal has something to do with becoming realistic. Many teachers especially the new ones tend to have an idealistic view of higher education and teaching. Classroom observation can provide us with an opportunity for reflections which will make us more realistic in evaluating both what is desirable and what is possible in different classrooms. The fourth goal is to establish direction. This means to establish the professional goal toward which teachers want to work during their first year at our department. Through classroom observation, teachers will identify characteristics and practices they will want to emulate in their own teaching. The fifth goal has to do with attaining confidence which can be developed over time and with support from colleagues. Feedback from classroom observation can provide a venue for reflection of our teaching techniques, classroom management, what works best in the classroom and what need to improve to make teaching and learning successful. It is through this realization that we can build our confidence in teaching. The sixth goal is to express enthusiasm. If we see how we teach from classroom observation, we will learn how to calm our fears and attain our goals, perform activities, and produce results that we would like to accomplish. The seventh goal has something to do with becoming flexible. In order to achieve our course objectives, we have to take risks. Effective teachers most often achieve their goals in the context of

trials and errors. Feedback from classroom observation will provide an opportunity to see procedures and techniques which work and do not work in the classroom. The last goal is to become self-reliant. The greater our awareness is of our strengths and weaknesses and what is going on in our teaching environment, the greater our personal confidence, enthusiasm, and flexibility will be in achieving our goals.

The second step is the **introduction of the classroom observation instrument, the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme**. For the first timers, it is not easy to understand the COLT scheme by just listening to the explanation. In order for the participants to fully understand the use of the instrument, they had a hands-on experience of using it. First, the COLT scheme was explained using a video of a classroom lesson. The participants were encouraged to ask questions during the demonstration of the COLT scheme. The demonstration was followed by using the COLT scheme by the participants. Another video of a classroom lesson was shown, and the participants played the role of an observer, filling out the COLT scheme form as they watched the video.

The third step is **sending the classroom observation schedule** (see Appendix) **to the concerned teachers**. The schedule was sent three weeks prior to the classroom observation. This was to give time to the teachers to carefully plan what they should do in three weeks so that come the observation week, they could present the full lesson, from activating prior knowledge to homework assignment. The schedule contains the name of the teacher to be observed, the name of the teacher who will observe, the date and class time/period of the observation, and the course name the teacher is teaching, and the classroom number.

The fourth step has to do with **reminding all the participants of what would be expected during the classroom observation**. This included focusing on the course objectives, designing learner-centered activities, and enforcing the Department policies such as use of computer, homework system and speak English only rule. All of our students at our Department are required to have a computer. Each of the courses for four years at our Department has a general goal, specific objectives, grading system and textbook. The general and specific objectives and learner-centered tasks are anchored in the following principles which are theoretically well informed global understanding of the process of learning and teaching: (1) Teaching techniques should focus on or account for the needs, styles, and goals of learners; (2) Teaching techniques should allow learners to interact with each other; (3) Language learning should focus on meaning and should use authentic and natural language; (4) Language teaching should integrate the learning of subject-matter content with the learning of the second language; (5) Language teaching curriculum should incorporate content or subject material and the four skills of

listening, speaking, reading, and writing into the classroom; (6) Learners should be exposed to concrete experiences through which they discover language principles; and (7) Language teaching materials should engage learners in doing some comparable real world tasks and they should be assessed in terms of outcomes.

These principles provide us with methodological options for tailoring classes to particular contexts. For example, decisions about focusing on business, tourism and education content and TOEFL iBT for our classes were made. With this goal, the next step for us to do is determining *how* we will teach. Our students come to our Department with their own knowledge, experiences and interests. We consider these elements in my planning and execution of classes. To do this we think about our classes in terms of "what will students do," rather than "what will we as a teacher do." In this situation we give our students materials, set guidelines and goals, and be prepared to let them tackle the work. At the same time, we are ready to teach them when they have trouble. At the basis of this are the two theories of *need* and *error*. In other words, a goal was set for them, a *need*, which they achieve by developing skills such as paraphrasing, vocabulary, or summarizing—skills which were set to help them achieve success on the TOEFL iBT. The second basis is *error*. Rather than presupposing what they do and do not know or can and cannot do, and leading them through steps to achieve the skills and practicing them, we organize activities for them to try and find out where they need help by observing the errors they commit. Once they have committed an error, our job is to assist them.

The Homework Ticket System can seem very teacher- centered. However, much like us deciding what materials and language skills they need to develop we are in a position to make this decision. The ticket system specifically targets their dislike of doing homework. We also believe that many of our students do not have a routine of doing homework. And we know that unless they are actively studying while outside the classroom they will not achieve the goal of TOEFL iBT. We also know that students may not view teachers as good resource for their own learning, and we are encouraging them to see teachers as helpers by forcing students who do not do homework to spend time with teachers in the hope of changing their context of spending time with teachers. So the homework ticket system is intended to get students into the habit of studying outside the classroom and to develop a view of teachers as good resources. Finally, the system we have required students to leave the classroom unless they have the homework completed or the ticket signed. There are two purposes to this. The first is to promote independent learning. Homework should be designed to be used in class as part of the learning. If a student fails to complete the homework then they are not doing their part in their own learning. Second, to emphasize to students who have completed their homework the importance of homework as part of the learning

process. If a student is permitted to stay and complete the homework in the classroom, then two things are being communicated to students: first, the classroom teacher is accepting responsibility for the student for doing the homework, and; second, class time is a place to complete the homework. Both of these messages undermine the promotion of independent learning and the role of the classroom teacher as someone who facilitates the learning process.

The Speak English Only policy is intended to address the fact that we are in a non-English environment and in a society where speaking English has often been viewed as showing off. First, unlike the U.S. and other Anglo countries, students do not experience English outside the classroom, so are limited to how much English they are exposed to in natural settings. Our policy is to maximize their exposure to English, and to enable them to use the language. Second, students with a higher ability often 'help' their friends by not speaking English or translating for them in the mistaken belief they are helping them. This can be effective and has its place. However, it is often taken so far that the lower ability student can avoid facing their own deficiencies by relying on students with a higher ability. This is called Learned Helplessness. Learned Helplessness is a major obstacle for why some learners never improve out of the beginner level of English. One final aspect of our Speak English Only policy is to provide students with positive role models in using English. All Japanese teachers of English are fluent in English, and their abilities should not be a surprise to students.

Finally, the use of computer is included in the curriculum, hence we require all teachers to design their class activities and tests which need computer use. The reason why computer use is required it is because we would like to provide our students with the computer skills which are necessary in their future job whether it is in the field of business, tourism, or education. Examples of computer use are the departmental tests and the course survey questionnaires which students had to take on-line.

The fifth step is **coming to the classroom and observing the class.** The observer, who is either the program coordinator or chair of the Department, came to class ahead of time to set up the video camera. The observations started as soon as the teacher to be observed entered the classroom. The observer used the COLT scheme to determine the activities that transpired during the 90-minute class. The observer sat anywhere in the classroom and coded the COLT features in as unobtrusive a manner as possible. During the observation period, activity/episode descriptions were recorded on the scheme, and check marks were placed in all the relevant categories . At the same time, the video recording was made of the classroom interaction for verifications

purposes. After the classroom observation, the observer provided the teacher-participants with the copy of the COLT scheme.

The final step is the post classroom observation conference. This happened only if the teacher-participant requested for the conference, after reviewing the COLT scheme. Also the post observation conference was not required because it was assumed that all participants understood how to interpret the results and what to do after seeing the results.

Discussion and Analysis

Table 2. Percentage (%) of the COLT features in EFL classrooms

Teacher	Participant Organization			Content				Student Modality			
	Class	**G**rp	**I**ndiv	**F**orm	**F**unc	**D**isc	**S**ocio	**L**stng	**S**pkn	**W**ri	**R**dng
T1	10	**C&G** 24	**C&I** 66	24	0	47 **Fo&D** 29	0	16	**L&S** 29	12	0 **Vocab** 29
T2	81	0	0 **C&I** 19	4	0	94	0	48	38	0	0 **Vocab** 14
T3	76	11 **C&G** 12	0	36	0	64	0	10 **L&R** 12	0 **L&S** 45	11	21
T4	82	4	0 **C&I** 14	42	0	58	0	42	0 **L&S** 49	0	0 **Vocab** 9
T5	31	18 **C&G** 23	0 **C&I** 28	29	0	71	0	5	14 **L&S** 31	36	7 **Vocab** 7
T6	52	0 **C&G** 24	0 **C&I** 24	0	0	90	0	24	22 **L&S** 54	0	0

		0	**C&I**		0		**DS**		29	0	0
T7	37	**C&G**	55	31	**F&D**	48	10	1	**L&S**	**S&W**	**Vocab**
		8			11				7	8	40
	C	**G**	**I**	**Fo**	**F**	**D**	**S**				
Ave	53	5	0	24	0	67	0				
		C&G	**C&I**								
		13	29								

As seen in Table 2, only three features, such as *Participant Organization*, *Content* and *Student Modality*, were included in the analysis because these are the major features believed to answer the questions in this study. Under *Participant Organization*, it is evident from the data that Class organization has the highest average percentage (53%) followed by Class and Individual combination (29%), Class and Group combination (13%), Group (5%), and Individual (0%). This means that 53% of the lesson time was spent involving the whole Class in a central activity, 29% on a combination of Class and Individual seat work, 13% on a combination of Class and Group work, 5% on Group work and none on Individual activity.

The data for each teacher interestingly reveal that teacher 4 spent 82% on the whole Class activity which was led either by the teacher himself, a student or students (e.g. a group of students had a role-play or PowerPoint presentation and the rest of the class was the audience), or the whole class or individual groups participated in choral work (e.g. giving a correct response to a question raised by the teacher). Only 4% was spent on Group activity while 14% on the combination of Class and Individual seat work. Another interesting result is that of Teacher 2 who spent 81% of the time on the whole Class task and did not employ any group work at all.

In the literature on communicative language teaching, group work is considered to be essential in the development of communicative competence (Spada and Frohlich, ibid). Group work encourages learners to negotiate meaning, to use a variety of linguistic forms and functions and to develop overall fluency skills. This is exactly what we encourage all our teacher to utilize in the classroom. However, based on the data, it is clear that all of our classrooms were not learner-centered or communicatively oriented. In all our classrooms students to spent more time responding to the teacher's questions and rarely initiated discourse.

As regards Content, the average percentage shows that, generally, more focus of instruction in all classrooms was placed on Discourse (67%) and only 24% on Form. Specifically, although teacher 2 heavily put emphasis on Discourse (94%), there was a slight focus on Form (4%). The rest of the teachers, specifically teachers 1, 3, 4, 5 and 7, although put stronger emphasis on Discourse in their classrooms, it is evident that focus on Form was also given high importance. Only teacher 7 did not focus on Form (0%) at all.

The traditional second language teaching of putting strong emphasis on grammar and correction was not proven to be very successful in the development of either linguistic or communicative competence (Spada and Frohlich, ibid). This is based on the theory that second language instruction should be exclusively meaning-oriented because this is the way children learn their first language. Recent research findings on second language classrooms have proven that a combination of meaning and form, which is evident in the classrooms in the present study, may be more useful since not all aspects of learning a second language are similar to first language acquisition. This explains the considerable growth of content-based, subject matter-based and meaning-oriented instruction, all of which are described as communicative.

With regard to Student Modality, the average scores were not computed because each class had a major skill focus which was expected to have the biggest emphasis in the classroom. Specifically, based on the data, various skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, other which is vocabulary in this study) were not taught in isolation. All teachers integrated two or more skills into their activities. Another result that was expected to come out in this study was for one skill to dominate the other skills as far as skill focus emphasis was concerned. This is because each course had one major skill focus. For example, in teacher 1's classroom, the major skills focus of this class was independent writing, that is writing about one's opinion.   However, writing emphasis was only 12% which was less than listening (16%) and the combination of listening and speaking (29%). This true to the classrooms of teachers 3 and 6. The major skill focus of teacher 1's classroom was reading, but reading was only 21% as opposed to 45% for the combination of listening and speaking. On the other hand, teacher 6's major skills focus was listening which was 24% only while the combination of listening and speaking was 54%. The only classrooms which gave more emphasis on the major skill focus were that of teacher 5's and teacher 7's. Teacher 5's major skills focus in the classroom was writing (34%), specifically independent writing, which was more than the emphasis on the rest of the skills. Teacher 7, whose major skills focus was integrated speaking, utilized speaking (29%) the most in the activities than the rest of the skills of listening, reading and writing. What is striking is the biggest emphasis on vocabulary skill (40%). It was expected in this class that activities should

have utilized reading, speaking and listening skills more since this was an integrated speaking course. In fact there was no focus on reading (0%), listening was only 1%, the combination of listening and speaking was 7% and 8% for the combination of speaking and writing. The same is true for the class of teacher 2 whose major skill focus was speaking, specifically integrated speaking. It was expected that there was an equal emphasis on reading as listening and speaking. However, reading was 0% while listening and speaking skills were 48% and 37%, respectively. Although classroom of teacher 4, whose major skills focus was integrated speaking, gave strong emphasis on speaking and listening, none was given to reading. A combination of listening and speaking was 49% while reading (0%), which was expected to be given the same focus as speaking and listening, was not given emphasis at all.

One of the arguments made in the communicative language teaching literature is that students should be encouraged to integrate their skills practice to reflect a more authentic use of language (Spada and Frohlich, ibid). Generally, based on the data in this study, all teachers were able to integrate two or more skills into their activities. Although one skill was not integrated into those activities as evident in many classrooms, this does not mean the class was a failure. Based on the post conference with the teachers, the reason was the 90-minute class time was enough to cover all skills. For example, in an integrated speaking class, students were expected to learn the skills of reading and listening which were necessary for speaking. Students had to summarize what they read and listened, and integrate these two summaries as they spoke. The only skills which were covered in this one class period were listening, that is summarizing the listening passage, and speaking what was summarized. The rest of the skills were taken up in the next meetings.

Several implications for teacher development, materials development and curriculum development follow from the present study. The findings of all teachers controlling the activities in the class instead of groups or pairs of students all worked and interacting with each other on the given tasks, and some teachers not putting emphasis on the major skill focus of the course suggest that there is a need for the Department of English Education to conduct ongoing teacher development programs. Ongoing teacher development programs are crucial to the long-term development of teachers as well as for the long term-term success of the Department curriculum. To achieve these, teacher development programs should be carefully planned and focus on appropriate goals. Richards and Farrell (2005) suggest some goals for teacher development. These goals include understanding how the process of second language development occurs, how roles change according to the kind of learners we are teaching, and understanding the kinds of decision making that occur during lessons. Other

goals have to do with reviewing our own theories and principles of language teaching, developing an understanding of different styles of teaching, and determining learners' perception of classroom activities. Another goal which Richards and Farrell did not mention which should be included in the teacher development programs is developing an understanding of the curriculum of the place where the teacher works. In this present study, it is the Department of English Education. Understanding a curriculum means implementing it successfully. Successful implementation means achieving the desired goals of the course. One cannot fully grasp the entire curriculum by learning it alone. Even if there was an orientation at the beginning of the semester about the Department curriculum, based on the data in this present study, teachers failed to achieve what was expected from them in their classrooms. Therefore, there is a need for teacher development which should involve classroom observation which is believed to provide an opportunity for better understanding of pedagogy, curriculum and materials which might not be learned from self-observation and critical reflection alone.

Summary and Conclusion

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme as a systematic classroom tool used in this study provided valuable data as to the nature of the communicative orientation in the English language classrooms at the Department of English Education of Kansai University of International Studies. Utilizing only the selected COLT features, namely: Participant Organization, Content and Student Modality, results show that all classrooms were teacher-centered. Teachers led all the activities, restricting students in doing the tasks themselves and using the language. As for Content, the primary focus of instruction in all classrooms was both on meaning and form, emphasizing more on discourse or meaning. Finally, as far as Student Modality was concerned, two or more skills were integrated into the activities. The only problem was some teachers did not give more emphasis on the major skills focus in their classroom activities. These results suggest the need for the Department of English Education to conduct ongoing teacher development. Conducting classroom observation using COLT scheme as a strategy for teacher development will provide realistic data which will be useful for evaluating not only our pedagogy but also our appropriate choice of materials and successful implementation of curriculum. As Borich (ibid) puts it, each of us sees what we expect to see most of the time. When someone points out another view, or when we look at the situation with a different perspective, we often gain new insights. This is true of classroom observation. And in order for classroom observation to take place successfully, an

appropriate tool should be used and post classroom observation should be held. COLT scheme served its purpose in this study.

Appendix

Spada and Frohlich's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language

Teaching Observation Scheme (COLT)

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The Strategy Orientation of Language Teaching (SOLT): Development of an observation instrument for Strategy-Supported Language Instruction

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Abstract

In this paper, we will propose a new observation instrument for foreign language classroom. To date, various classroom observation schemes have been developed in the field of language teaching. The COLT (the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) proposed by Spada and Frohlich (1995) is no doubt the most famous and most widely used one. This scheme is to describe classroom events at the level of activities and analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between students and teachers within each activity. Drawing on the COLT, Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) invented a new classroom observation instrument, the MOLT (the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching) to assess the teachers' use of motivational intervention.

  In addition to these two crucial elements of effective language teaching proposed by the COLT and the MOLT, another feature has attracted many researchers and language teachers: i.e., the teacher's strategies instruction to enhance learners' self-directed learning. In order to describe and analyze this aspect of effective language teaching, we developed a new observation instrument: the SOLT (the Strategies Orientation of Language Teaching), employing the real-time coding principle and a post hoc rating scale of the two previous observation schemes.

  The SOLT describes the teacher's strategies instruction at the level of verbal intervention, and analyzes the quantity and quality of such instruction. In this process, the class procedures are divided into three stages: Pre-Task stage, In-Task stage and Post-Task stage, in every one of which the teacher's strategy-related utterances are analyzed from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. In order to examine quantitative aspect of strategies instruction, the number of all the teacher's utterances that may help students to understand and use learning strategies is counted. In this counting, the utterances are grouped into two types: one concerning meta-cognitive strategies that are considered useful for any type of tasks, and the other strategies that are considered useful for a specific task given in class. In order to clarify qualitative aspect of strategies instruction, the explicitness of utterances when the teacher refers to a strategy is tallied, because explicitness is claimed to be a crucial factor for effective strategy training (Chamot et.al., 1999; Macaro, 2001). This explicitness is scaled by three levels: Level 1, the lowest level, is given to an utterance that satisfies none of the four requirements of explicitness (what, why, when, how) but would induce strategic behavior in an indirect manner. Level 2, the middle level, is given to an utterance that satisfies at least one of the requirements. Level 3, the highest level, is given to an utterance that meets two or more of the requirements.

  Preliminary data analysis from initial use of the coding procedure reveals significant differences between the Strategy-Supported Instruction given by one of the authors and a common language class taught by a regular teacher.

Keywords: Learning strategies, Strategies-supported language teaching, SOLT(Strategies Orientation of Language Teaching), Classroom observation scheme

Key Aspects of An Experienced Instructor's Pedagogical Transformation

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Abstract

This presentation will report the key aspects of an experienced instructor's pedagogical transformation process. One-year case study was conducted in 2005, and discovered the key aspects in the instructor's transformation process. The case study examined the challenges an experienced English instructor faced pedagogical transformation through the new pedagogy using of Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

Introduction

Background

This presentation will discuss the key aspects of an experienced instructor's pedagogical transformation process. One-year case study was conducted in 2005. The existing data collected for the dissertation were used and reanalyzed to discover the key aspects of an experienced instructor's pedagogical transformation process. This was a qualitative case study collected multiple data sources. The subject was a veteran instructor with thirty-years' experience teaching English courses, including regular English courses as well as those designed for English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) students. He was a tenured faculty member at a Mid-Atlantic state university in the United States. He had been interested in using technology in a classroom for several years. Although he was thinking about how he could best help international students develop communicative English skills, he had been skeptical about a new instruction using technology. This proceeding will provide in the instructor's transformation process showing his evolving perception and the key aspects of decision-making.

Purpose of This Study
The purpose of this study was to investigate the case of one experienced English professor's pedagogical transformation process and to determine the key aspects that affected his decisions of using a new teaching methods.

METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

This research investigated an experienced instructor's evolving perceptions of implementing a new instruction using technology, and the aspects affected his decisions of changing his traditional instruction method. There were two research questions as follows. (1) How do the instructor's perceptions of using a new instruction using technology evolve over time?

(2)What are the key aspects that affected his decisions of using a new teaching method?

Literature Review

Hall, Loucks, Rutherford, and Newlove (1975) suggest the LoU. They indicated the *LoU Chart.* It showed that the innovation is a process that an individual goes through for adoption (Hall et al. 1975). The LoU included eight different levels to measure innovation adoption, which is especially applicable in educational settings (Hall et al. 1975). The initial stage begins with ignorance or no interest in innovation and develops into active and effective adoption.

Rogers (1995) states, "An innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption" (p. 11). Using a new teaching method is a new practice to the faculty. Some instructors may notice that innovation includes some advantages; however, those advantages are not always clear. They are often uncertain whether a new instruction can bring more effective than the current methods. If advantages are related to individual problems or needs, the potential users make efforts to know about the innovation (Rogers, 1995). Rogers (1995) describes that innovation does not occur instantly; rather, it includes several stages. Thus, it is a process including a sequence of attempting actions or decision-making. He suggests *a model of stages in the innovation-decision process,* which consists of five stages such as knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation. Each stage is tightly connected with an individual's perspective and attitude based on his perceptions of innovation.

Participants

The subject of this study was an English professor. He taught at a Mid-Atlantic, mid-sized state university in the United States. The instructor is a tenured professor and a veteran of 30 years' teaching English. He had been interested in implementing a new instruction using technology for a couple of years. He finally decided to use a new instruction for the first time in his course in the spring 2005 semester while receiving an advice from a technology mentor.

Research Design

This research used a qualitative case study method. The existing multiple data were used. The existing data were as follows. (a) the researcher's logs about the instructor's technical training, (b) email correspondences, (c) transcripts of asynchronous discussion forums, (d) weekly interviews with the instructor, (e) interviews with selected representative students (n=5), (f) the students' course papers, and (g) student informal course feedback.

Data Analyses

The existing data sources were examined focusing on instructor's perceptions of using a new instruction evolve over time, and the key aspects that affected his decisions of using a new teaching method. The data were coded specifically focused on two points above.

Settings

The setting of this study was an ESOL section of an introductory English writing course. The course was required for all students at the beginning of the college program. This course was hybrid course, with face-to-face classroom sessions and supplemental online activities. In this course, fourteen international students were enrolled in the course in fall 2005.

The Role of the Researcher

The researcher gave advice to the instructor how he could try a new instruction as the instructor's technology mentor during this research. The researcher also provided on going assistance to the instructor whenever he needed.

Limitations

Since this case study examined only one participant using the existing data, the findings may not be applicable to other instructors. This study was also limited by the influence of the potentially biased perceptions of the researcher's perspectives as a technology mentor.

FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

In the beginning of the spring 2005 semester, the instructor did not have any specific concerns about using a new method using technology because he had no clue what types of problems he would face. His initial interest in employing a new instruction was maintained after he received advice of the possible instruction using the technology in the individualized training   He actively collected the necessary information and sought help from others without hesitation. However, when he faced the unexpected problems, he had a little frustration about them. Yet, he was willing to continue to shift a new instruction

Although he was willing to use a new instruction in the spring semester, the instructor became very skeptical about employing a new instruction. He noticed that it could provide him with more varied opportunities in his classes. His skepticism was expressed regularly until later in the semester   Because he had some knowledge, he was able to imagine possible bad results of using a new instruction. He also stated his uncertainties about whether he could teach efficiently by using it. Furthermore, he expressed concerns about time issues and influence of the ineffective course. However, he finally decided using a new instruction. Yet, he was discouraged with and frustrated about technical problems. Although he expected the better results, his dilemma of a new instruction was clearly recognized. The dilemma had continued for a while. However, once he discovered the students' better outcomes, he seemed to be comfortable using a new instruction.

It showed that including a new instruction may not be easy and not occur instantly as Rogers(1995) states. As a result, an instructor 's pedagogical transformation process may be tightly related to one's perceptions. He initially desires to know about the new instruction expecting possible benefit, and then to wants to see whether it works or not. Next, the dilemma occurs while suffering from the concerns. Finally, discovering the better outcomes or benefits makes him conformable using a new pedagogy. This approach was supported by Rogers (1995) *a model of stages in the innovation-decision process*. The major key aspects of the pedagogical transformation were concerns and advantages. The two aspects included information, examination, and discovery. It means that an instructor needs appropriate information: however, he has to examine how it works and need to discover the positive outcomes. Specifically discovering the better student outcomes can help him employ a new instruction.

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Faculty mentoring in higher education:

The Bukidnon State University experience

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Abstract

The threefold purpose of this paper is 1) to describe how the mentoring program was developed at Bukidnon State University (Philippines); 2) to present the views about mentoring as experienced by the mentors and protégés, that is, after they went through mentoring process that aimed to improve their teaching styles, research capability and service learning strategies; and 3) to present insights and lessons learned.

The first section introduces the beginnings of the university's mentoring program. It also presents the synopsis of two studies that became the basis for initiating the mentoring program in this university. The second section of the paper explains the best practices that surfaced after the program was implemented. It features how mentoring takes place in set-ups such as one-on-one mentoring, peer mentoring, and group-mentoring. This section also presents the mentors' views as well as the faculty protégés' views about their experiences. For the purpose of identifying challenges and issues associated with mentoring, the third section presents emerging mentoring prototypes, lessons learned, challenges, issues and recommendations.

Introduction

Faculty mentoring in higher education as a tool for professional development is uncommon in Philippine higher education. In cases in which mentoring activities exist, the main objective is to guide and train student apprentices who are already in their senior year, e.g. 'critique teachers' mentoring student teachers or 'clinical instructors' mentor student nurses. Undue focus on this type of mentoring seems to explain why there

are no available empirical research reports on faculty-to-faculty mentoring in Philippine higher academic settings, except perhaps those conducted locally in our own university, the Bukidnon State University (BSU). Given the need for professional development that may result to professional or organizational development, this researcher believes that faculty to faculty mentoring is critical in higher education.

The threefold purpose of this paper is 1) to describe how the mentoring program was developed or designed at Bukidnon State University (Philippines); 2) to present views about mentoring as experienced by the mentors and protégés, that is, after they went through mentoring process that aimed to improve their teaching styles, research capability and service learning strategies; and 3) to present insights and lessons learned.

Bukidnon State University (BSU) is located in the Province of Bukidnon, Philippines. It is nestled at the heart of Malaybalay City, the capital of the province. First known as Bukidnon Provincial High School founded in 1924, it first offered a two-year high school diploma. After acquiring a 6.02-hectare land in 1927, this school attained a full-fledged status as a teacher institution offering a four-year normal course, and was thus renamed Bukidnon Normal School. It was only in 1976 that this institution was converted into Bukidnon State College. Thirty years after, this college became a university by virtue of R.A. No. 9456, and was inaugurated on June 15, 2007. An average of 130 regular faculty members, with approximately the same number of faculty guest lecturers teaches in this university. Likewise, an average of 8,500 students is enrolled in the graduate, undergraduate, secondary, elementary and pre-school levels.

The university has six colleges, one graduate school, as well two laboratory schools for both elementary and secondary students, respectively. The Social Sciences Department (SSD) is one of the 16 academic departments of the university, offering general courses to all students in the various programs in the university. These courses include history, philosophy, humanities, political science, economics and other general courses. The SSD also offers major courses for programs such as sociology, social science and economics. An average of 35 faculty members teach in this department every school year. Their teaching status may be regular or part-time.

The BSU mission statement requires its faculty and staff: "To develop competitive professionals who are committed to build a sustainable life for all through instruction, research, extension and production." This paper assumes that one way to accomplish this mission is to adopt and institutionalize a faculty mentoring program for each mission areas: instruction, research, extension and production. However, it was earlier observed that the scope of mentoring in BSU is not only along 'instruction' but is also limited to student-to-student (e.g. peer counseling) or faculty-to-student mentoring for instruction purposes (e.g. critique teachers guiding pre service teachers in the university's laboratory schools). Eventually, it was shown through informal undocumented interview that informal faculty-to-faculty mentoring has been in existence in isolated cases. For example, a certain faculty guide some novice teachers at the Department of Education. Likewise, another faculty was engaged in one-one-one research mentoring in the Natural Science Department. In both cases, mentoring relationships were formed simply because the mentor, out of concern and passion, merely wanted to assist less experienced faculty. Subsequently, meetings were irregular and voluntary.

For the faculty to help 'build a sustainable life through instruction, research, extension and production, they should be equipped to perform tasks not only in the instruction area but also in other aspects of the mission. It is on this vein that I initiated the design and development of faculty mentoring program for BSU. The program

however, was designed particularly for the university's Social Sciences Department that I was assigned to chair since 2006. I chose to design it by making use of the principles of 'rapid collaborative prototyping'. It was my aim to produce prototypes of mentoring over a short period of time for each of the four areas of the mission statement. The target users of the program are the BSU faculty, particularly the SSD faculty. They are considered the learners in the design process as facilitated by this researcher.

Trip and Bichelmeyer (1990) believe that design in the process of rapid prototyping should be coupled with 'research' in order to 'discover the complexities of the subject matter, prerequisite knowledge needed to understand the content, and the presentation modes that are most conducive to acquiring the material." (p. 7). This paper therefore presents the results of the research that simultaneously occurred during the design of the mentoring program. Research data are, however, limited to the mentoring experiences of the learners, as they themselves reported.

The research questions addressed in this paper are: How was the faculty mentoring prototypes of BSU designed and developed? What mentoring projects and mentoring models emerged? What are the mentoring perceptions of the mentors and the mentees? What are insights gained and the lessons learned?

Review of Literature

This section presents the mentoring literature, including my own studies that I used as bases for designing and facilitating mentoring activities at Bukidnon State University. In particular, this section presents the definition of mentoring; the mentoring models or the different structures of mentoring relationships; and the method for designing a mentoring scheme. Studies regarding mentoring and instructional design are also presented.

Definition of mentoring and mentoring practices

In higher education, faculty mentoring may be used to describe relationships between and among colleagues with the purpose of developing the career or profession of the more novice faculty. It may be formal or informal, structured or unstructured. Relevant to this study, mentoring in which the mentor is a teacher and the mentee or protégée is a novice or seasoned teacher may be defined as:

A nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as

a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends a less skilled or

less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or

personal development. (Anderson, 1987 cited by Bryson, 2001, p. 1)

Within the framework of a learning organization espoused by Argyris and Schon (1978), and contextualized by Parsloe and Wray (2000, p. 22), the mentoring activities are aimed to '. . . help and support people to manage their own learning in order that they may maximize their potential, develop their skills, improve their performance and enable them to become the person they want to be'.

In 2002, I conducted a survey for the purpose of exploring the current faculty-to-faculty mentoring practices at BSU, and of determining the mentoring preferences of its faculty (Torres, 2002). Results showed that informal faculty-to-faculty mentoring activities about developing teaching strategies were existent for the last 10 years. The mentoring occurred either within the classrooms or within a certain department's communal faculty rooms, e.g. Department of Professional Education in BSU or Department of Language and Letters . In this same survey, more than half of the senior teachers affirmatively answered when asked if they ever mentored anyone in BSU (then Bukidnon State College). They reported mentoring a fellow faculty for more than nine years, although some indicated mentoring a colleague for a period of three to five years. Their mentoring involvement was largely in the area of instruction, while research ranked closely behind. No extension-related mentoring was reported. Mentoring activities were taking place within an unstructured framework. On the other hand, when novice teachers were asked what they felt about their current mentors, the mentees revealed that they felt 'extremely inspired' and 'extremely attentive', although they also felt 'moderately scared' but 'not at all hostile'.

In the same study, perceptions about ideal mentors vary. For novice teachers (who do not have mentors yet), a mentor must be a friend but for those who already have mentors, a mentor must be a coach. The senior teachers, on the other hand, wanted a mentor to be both a sharer and a coach. The results indicate that faculty-to-faculty mentoring is not a novel idea in BSU, and that the practice has prevailed in an informal structure for close to 10 years already. The results of this study were not, however, enough to conceptualize a mentoring scheme for BSU.

Mentoring models

When I explored the literature for mentoring models, I found that there are three dominant mentoring models that may fit into a university set-up: the one-on-one peer mentoring (Woodd, 1997); the peer mentoring and group mentoring (Anderson, 2003), with Baird's model as a variant of group mentoring. Another variation of group mentoring is the 'alternative mentoring model' (Turk, 1999)

The literature reviewed by Woodd (1997) describes a one-on-one mentoring model within the context of higher and further education, which she calls 'peer mentoring' that exists for the purpose of 'instructional improvement' (Harnish and Wild, 1994, cited in Woodd, 1997). As a relationship between one experienced faculty mentor and one less experienced faculty (or a faculty new to the learning environment), she explained that the mentoring activities between each of the partners may be carried out in a 'non-hierarchical, non

judgemental way' that may transpire in a formalized scheme. The age difference between them does not affect their relationship that is supposed to be mutually supportive and collaborative in nature. In fact, the mentor in this structure views himself as a co learner hence freeing the mentee from any anxiety or fear involved in learning new things in a new environment.

On the other hand, there are two types of mentoring relationships cited by Anderson (2003): the peer mentoring and the group mentoring. Although he describes these models within the context of business companies, the same mentoring structures may apply to a higher education environment. In peer mentoring, 'self-directed learners' come together as one group of peers. They then take turns acting the group leader. 'One week, for example, one participant was responsible for researching a topic, presenting it at the next meeting, and initiating and facilitating the discussion. The next meeting another individual was responsible for reviewing the previous meeting, asking whether participants were able to implement the suggestion and ideas, and then leading discussion on the next topic.'

In group mentoring, one mentor or a team of mentors work with a team of protégées. The team of mentors have 'complimentary skills', while the latter have 'identical goals'. The mentors rely on each other as they deliver the goods together. They combine common tasks and reduce the overall workload. The mentees, on the other hand, depend on each other as they work towards their collective goals.

In Baird's (1993) model, which he calls 'helper-sharer-carer' model, the mentor acts as consultant or 'critical friend', performing collaborative tasks with a group of mentees. In Baird's own experience as research mentor at the University of Melbourne, he carried out duties he described as: 'organization/administration', 'conceptual guidance', 'sharing perspectives', and 'support' (pp. 49-50). Hence, as consultant, the mentor in this model carries out his task with less and less frequency and intensity as the mentoring progresses until such time when the team of mentees feels they could be on their own.

Another variation of the group mentoring is the 'alternative mentoring model' which Turk (1999) describes as a format in which a team of primarily experienced teachers work together to guide an individual teacher. "In a teaming environment, several members with various skills and expertise can assume mentoring roles, thereby broadening the support that they give to the beginning teacher," Turk wrote.

Design of mentoring program

The instructional systems design (ISD) models (e.g. Gordon & Zemski, 2000) suggest that the design and development of any program, project or activities may follow a linear instructional design process: analyze, design, develop, implement and evaluate. While it is possible that the mentoring program of any higher education institution can evolve this way, there is no available literature that confirms this, rather the literature shows that faculty mentoring programs have been designed by addressing issues related to faculty instruction or research. The two different lists suggested by Caruthers (1993) and Daresh (2001) were probably used.

In this paper, however, the design of the mentoring program uses the rapid prototyping method of instructional design. This design approach can result in the quick development of instructional materials or

activities (Reiser, 2001 cited in Knowlton, 2006). As the name suggests, the design is done 'rapidly' in a sense that design tasks are completed concurrently rather than sequentially through the project. Compare this to a traditional instructional design model in which the designer cannot move to the next step without completing the previous task.

Tripp and Bichelmeyer (1990) explain that in this method of instructional design, the development process begins with needs analysis, and content, and a statement of tentative objectives. The process continues with 'design and research, or construction and utilization' — done simultaneously with the learners who as potential users, utilize the prototype while it is being designed. The designer, on the other hand, determines the strengths and weaknesses of said prototypes by asking the users questions. Their answers are used to improve the prototype, to modify the objectives of the prototype, or to create new objectives. Then the process begins again. The design process ends with the creation of an appropriate 'artifact' customized for the intended users.

Available studies that explain the use of rapid prototyping as method for designing and developing instructional strategies include the design of a computer-mediated communication, e.g. electronic bulletin board, (Knowlton, 2006); *e*learning instructional design that incorporates action research (Cook & Crawford, 2008) ; software engineering (Tripp & Bichelmeyer, 1990); and design of courses for distance delivery (Johnson, n.d.). With regard to using rapid prototyping methods for designing projects similar to the nature of faculty mentoring activities, Jones and Richey (2000) cited studies related to the design of an electronic performance support system to support school teachers in the use of alternative assessments (Law, Okey & Carter, 1995); and a four-day instruction-led training school to give the pilot-course learners a sound learning experience, and to general feedback to be integrated in the next version of the course (Lange & Shanahan, 1996). Jones and Richey (2000) themselves conducted a development study using rapid prototyping methodology to design a one-day instructor-led training program for the learners.

Hence, this paper assumes that because rapid prototyping was used to design projects similar to a mentoring program, that is, in terms of improving the learning experiences of the product users who happen to be the designers themselves, then there is no reason why the mentoring program for BSU cannot be designed this way. Furthermore, drawing from the argument of Tripp and Bichelmeyer (1990), rapid prototyping as a design process for the BSU mentoring program is appropriate because the mentoring phenomenon in BSU can be categorized under the three types of situations in which rapid prototyping is applicable: "cases that involve complex factors which make prediction problematical, cases where we have experience but lack satisfaction with results derived from conventional methods, and new situation where there is not an abundance of experience from which to draw" (Tripp and Bichelmeyer, 1990, p. 9).

Methodology

The process of rapid prototyping involves, among others, the parallel processing of the various design and development tasks. The focus of this paper is the study of the perceptions of mentors and mentees involved in the design of the BSU mentoring program. This paper is therefore the 'research' component of the 'design' process— two concurrent activities needed for developing a faculty mentoring program.

Purposive sampling was utilized to gather qualitative data. Through interviews collected from the participants of the design process, mentoring experiences were drawn. Qualitative responses to interview questions were then analyzed to determine the mentoring models that emerged from mentoring participants' reported mentoring activities. The insights and lessons learned were further analyzed from the same qualitative data, in addition to the observations that I made as designer, mentoring facilitator, and researcher.

Within the Social Sciences Department that has an average of 35 faculty members every school year since 2006, the research participants coming from the department varied according to the mentoring project that the faculty are more inclined to join, or were assigned to participate. It should be noted that the faculty in the department is already divided into four groups corresponding to the four mission areas of the university: instruction, research extension and production. (As chair, I either retain or change the composition of each group every semester.) Thus, if a mentoring scheme is designed along a certain mission area, the participants are likely those who are members of that particular mission area. In some instances, however, I appoint participants in the design of a mentoring project if I see that certain faculty members are interested in the project, or have the potential to contribute ideas in evolving the project. In other occasions, however, participation is voluntary.

Interviews were conducted at different times within the span of school years 2006-2008, depending on the period at which the mentoring project was being designed.

Results and discussions

In this section, the prototypes of the mentoring projects that evolved along the mission areas of instruction, research and extension, are reported: how the each mentoring project was designed; the description of the mentoring model in which the mentoring relationships occurred; and the perceptions of the mentors and mentees of each mentoring activity. The 'production' as one of the four components of the BSU mission is not mentioned in this section.

Case 1: Mentoring project for 'instruction'

Two mentoring activities related to instruction are reported in this section: 1) faculty mentoring on teaching strategies in 2006; and 2) faculty mentoring on the use of electronic grading system in 2007. Both activities took place within a faculty group mentoring in which a single faculty member mentored a team of faculty members.

Faculty mentoring on the use of teaching strategies

As a teacher-training institution, it is assumed that the faculty members who are not teaching education subjects must also demonstrate teaching skills comparable to those teaching in the College of Education. To improve the SSD faculty's teaching skills, I organized a mentoring on the use of appropriate teaching strategies

during the first semester of 2006-2007. It did not only aim to improve teaching, but also to increase the repertoire of teaching strategies among new teachers in the department.

The mentor is a volunteer from the College of Education in the same university. As mentoring facilitator, I sent a letter addressed to all SSD faculty inviting each one to join. Four beginning teachers signed up. The mentor and the four mentees met and scheduled their sessions. Below are the perceptions of the mentor including one single mentee who claims that her experience is representative of the three other mentees:

Mentor: *Sometime in 2006, four teachers reported to me for sessions. We met three times, and after that they said they were busy, . . . (but) in my division, I am in touch constantly with young teachers . . . Most of them teach subjects that I teach and I discuss with them informally strategies in teaching. I (also) encourage them to put in writing what they do in their classes together with the materials (that they create) that they give to their students.*

C is coming up with cloze exercises she uses to end the major concepts of the course she teaches. B has shown her lecture notes which she has creatively constructed to enhance the lecture she gives to her classes.. D is another very open-minded teacher I love talking about strategies to/with her. V sits in my class anytime she wants. She claims she is my copycat. J freely talks about what she does with her classes. . . I would like to extend my expertise to more teachers. I hope more teachers would realize I can help them.

Mentee (from SSD)*: To be a mentee of Dr. A is like going back to school with a fervent interest to learn. Together with R, J, and P, it is but natural to feel the tension and pressure everytime we have our session for at least twice a week. Sometimes we sounded like our students complaining about teachers who seemed to talk fast. Luckily, we got along just fine with Dr. A. Well, that's how we'd like to believe.*

We have learned new things despite of several instances when we missed our class because of other responsibilities. What we actually learned so far were about the so-called 'teacher-centered instruction' which in particular deals with Exposition 1. Here, the teacher is expected to discuss for about 20 minutes and put in some important rhetorical questions. These questions may not necessarily draw a response from the students for these would only serve as something to think about by the students momentarily. These questions are designed to ask in the course of the discussion and the teacher provides the answer as she continues to discuss the topic. This teaching strategy is coupled with 'close procedure' to evaluate the students' learning.

The one-on-one impromptu conversation was such a relief. We did it! Dr. A gave us an assignment to come up with our topic to discuss in front of her. We thought it was the end of the session, however, it was only the beginning.

After the first semester of School Year 2006-2007, the teachers who went through the mentoring process were encouraged to informally mentor other beginning teachers. Likewise, all teachers in the department were encouraged to design lesson plans that may incorporate new teaching strategies learned either from the department's mentoring process or from any source. As an output, some of the faculty's lesson plans were published in the department's magazine.

Faculty mentoring on the use of electronic grading system

In 2007, instruction-related mentoring continues. This time, it was extended to computing grades—electronically. One of the faculty members voluntarily customized software for computing grades in our department. The purpose was to address the observation that our department's teachers cannot submit students' grades on time because of the bulk of grades that must be conventionally computed. Thus, an announcement was posted outside the department's computer room inviting any faculty member to go through mentoring. A total of eight (8) faculty members signed up. As in the mentoring on teaching strategies, the process took place in a group mentoring structure in which one faculty mentor worked with a team of protégées.

Below are the experiences of the mentor and the mentees:

Mentor . . . *mentoring sessions lasted for 30-45 minutes per session. Follow up sessions were conducted per request of the mentees. I explained the process of inputting scores and the generation of grades. Questions about the process were explained by demonstrating the actual use of the system . . . mentees difficulties were addressed right away.*

Mentee: *I was one of the mentees who eagerly signed up. Huddled in front of a computer, we watched and listened as Sir C demonstrated how to use the program while entertaining questions on the process. In a span of 20-30 minutes, we learned how to operate the program. Set flexibly, and conducted informally in a milieu of an eagerness to teach by a colleague who is always willing to address questions and points one that hasn't been raised or thought of during the session, the mentoring session provided an effective avenue for learning new things for people with hectic schedule.*

When more mentees were interviewed, they expressed other benefits: *'With this program, computing grades is no longer a hassle'; 'I can now beat the deadline for submission of grades'; and 'The computer can compute my grades for me in a few seconds!.* However, they also indicated some problems encountered, such as

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the need to have more computers for teachers; accidental erasures of files; and suspected computer hacking that caused changes to grades of students.

Case 2. Mentoring project for 'research'

During the second semester, School Year 2007-2008, a group of faculty researchers in this university set off a research (Alberto, Casiple, Dales, Mirasol, Torres, *in press*). At some point, the paper proposed three years ago finally reached its data-gathering stage that required mentoring sessions with the faculty mentees. Hence, four faculty members from the Social Sciences Department volunteered to go through the mentoring process.

There were three mentors who took turns having sessions with these four mentees. The topics based on needs analysis conducted in 2005, range from descriptive to inferential statistics, including interpretation of results/printouts from statistical computations and identifying types of measurement scales. Each session in this group mentoring format ended with journal writing which every mentee was required to write.

The following were some of the views of the mentors:

Mentor 1*: Mentoring took place in the Math department's office with three mentees, who were so enthusiastic and interested to learn how to determine what statistical tool is used in comparing variables. However, after giving the handouts which included the importance, and how to use the t-test (independent and dependent t) and one way ANOVA, some doubts were clarified. After the discussions, questions were asked on how to use the softwares like Excel and SPSS to analyze data.*

During the hands-on activities, mentees were given the chance to encode data and to analyze using the appropriate/correct statistical tool. After the computation, output was printed and interpretation followed. The mentees were amazed how the computer did the complicated job. They were confused, however, when to reject and accept the null hypothesis . . .

Mentor 2*: . . . there was a natural conversation related to the previous topics the mentees had experienced without their knowing that it was already a review of the concepts which linked to the present topic to be taken. After giving them the objectives, (they) were excited upon knowing that there will be a hands-on activity.*

Mentee 1: *. . . This opportunity of being a research mentee is quite timely. I really need to be refreshed and updated. I learned four (4) scales of measurements today, namely: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.*

Familiarization of the aforementioned measurements is important to avoid incorrect usage during the conduct of the study. An incorrect use of a measurement will largely affect the outcome of a research.

Mentee 2: . . . *I like the journal writing in our statistics tutorial. Although I find it cumbersome and time-consuming, it does help a lot in making us understand the topics better. It somehow forces us to review what we have just learned in a session thereby allowing us to identify what we have so far understood and what needs further explanation. It provides immediate feedback to both the mentor and the mentee.*

Mentee 3: . . . *journal writing . . . helps me recall the topics discussed.*

Case 3. Mentoring project for 'extension'

Two mentoring activities are illustrated in this section: 1) mentoring pianists on piano accompaniment; and 2) mentoring school children who are left behind (not performing well academically). In both cases, the faculty mentors of the SSD facilitated a mentoring activity that requires an adult mentor or mentors. Both mentoring activities also operated within a group mentoring structure. In the 'mentoring on piano accompaniment', only one single SSD faculty member facilitated a mentoring activity of another single piano teacher teaching a group of children. While in the mentoring 'no child left behind project', a team of SSD faculty members facilitated a mentoring activity of a group of faculty members teaching a group of children. This format is slightly different from Anderson's group mentoring because the mentor is not involved in direct mentoring. Rather, this emerging mentoring model allows the mentor to initiate and facilitate the activities between a group (or individual) mentors and a team of mentees. Thus, the facilitating mentor's support is in the form of organizing, networking, managing, supervising and evaluating the mentoring activities of the two groups.

Mentoring on Piano Accompaniment

During the summer of 2006, the researcher organized a piano accompaniment workshop for all accompanists at Bethel Baptist Church, Malaybalay City The author did this by partnering with a person who could conduct the workshop. In this mentoring activity, the former served as the faculty mentor, while the latter served as the faculty mentee who was tasked to tutor 20 children, on piano accompaniment. Again, the mentoring format here is similar to the mentoring in 'no child left behind project', the only difference is that unlike in 'no child left behind project' in which there was a group of volunteer mentors, there is only one single mentor in piano accompaniment. As mentoring facilitator, I merely initiated, liaised, and facilitated this mentoring activity. I do not know how to teach piano accompaniment but the person I asked to mentor has the expertise to teach it. He was not, however, a faculty from the SSD.1

After a series of workshops (around three times a week for a period of 2 hours per session), the mentoring activity concluded with a recital, with each participant showing off their acquired skills to a hundred of church audience. After the workshop, the mentoring continued when four kids from the group showed unusual interest and skill in piano. Their ages range from 14 to 16. This time they practised classical music pieces with the same faculty mentee. After six months, I was encouraged to organize a chamber piano recital for the children for children to perform classical music, together with the faculty mentee. Apparently, this faculty mentee extended the kids' interest from sheer accompaniment of congregational singing to solo performance of classical music. Another six months passed, and the same kids performed more complicated classical music before a much larger crowd. Recently, an international pianist visited our place and invited the kids to participate in a month-long international piano festival that will take place this year. At this time of writing, these pianists are busy preparing for this rare opportunity.

Faculty Mentor: *My role was to organize and manage a mentoring program for the piano accompanists. Serendipity. That was how this project was organized. I met someone who plays the piano well. Right away, I invited him to conduct a workshop for budding accompanists in our church, and he immediately said yes. After this informal conversation, the faculty mentee did everything in his end, while I arranged for permits related to the venue, schedule, donors, equipment, communication, and other pertinent training needs. After a year, I was amazed at the progress of the four children.*

When the faculty mentee was asked what his role was during the workshop, he stated that he considered himself as the conceptualizer, researcher, instructor, motivator, role model, and expert.

Faculty Mentee: *(Conceptualizer) I helped Ms. T conceptualize the whole workshop since it was done for the first time. Before I began, I had objectives in mind – to teach new skills, to find individuals who have high music quotient so I could help them improve, to bring more creativity to local church musicians, and to develop more Filipino Baptist musicians and composers. (Researcher) Even though I already knew a lot about music, I had to study more and refresh myself on the history and many theories. (Instructor) I did my best to simplify everything I knew about music and composition and teach it to the participants with ages ranging from around 7 to 40+. I had to adjust my advanced knowledge and bring it down to everyone's level. I designed the workshop so it would be interesting, enjoyable, effective and informative. It was a mix of short lectures, workshops and master class. (Motivator/encourager) Many of them were shy and unsure what to do. I had to encourage them continually that no matter how young or old they were, they could still be very creative. (Role model/Inspiration) I had to show them that I was a good pianist in addition to being a doctor. (Expert) I had advanced knowledge, skill and experience on classical and church performances compared to the participants. I was competent.*

When this mentee was further asked about the personal benefits he obtained from the mentoring

activity, he answered: 'friends', 'connections', 'fun', 'performances', 'influence', 'satisfaction', 'multiplication', and 'self-esteem'. Thus, he found friends 'who think the way (he) think(s).'; he experienced

"indescribable fun and happy days!"; he also found his opinions to be "increasingly . . . more valuable in the field of arts, culture, education, and people development.". Furthermore, he also found the experience as a way to 'increase' himself and to ' spread . . .ideas and dreams'.

For this piano mentor, motivating exceptional kids is his way to give back: "Many people in the past also mentored me and supported me. That is why I am what I have become. Mentoring new artists is the best way to repay them." When asked what it was like to perform during those festivals, he said that the experience has given him "(U)nderstanding (of his) own capability in music and human resource development and . . . new hope that (he) can still be an active concert pianist in addition to being a doctor."

Faculty mentoring on a 'no child left behind' project

During the first semester of school year 2007-2008, a friend from the community, who started a short-term 'No child left behind' project in an elementary school, was returning to America. However, she wanted to sustain her project even in her absence. Thus, the SSD department volunteered to continue the project but the department proposed to do it in another setting. This was how the SSD's mentoring project named 'Sa karunungan walang iwanan' (literally translated 'In education, no child should be left behind' started. In this project, around fifteen (15) SSD faculty members served as faculty mentors, while ten (10) volunteer teachers from the community were the faculty mentees. The role of the SSD faculty members was to facilitate the operation of the entire project; while the faculty mentees' role was to teach first and second grade children at the Barangay San Jose elementary school, a school around 4 kilometers away from the university. In particular, the faculty mentors were tasked to supervise, monitor and evaluate the mentoring activity at San Jose. The volunteer mentees, on the other hand, who were all unemployed during this period, were tasked to teach reading, writing and arithmetic to children who were doing poorly academically, compared with the average student in the first and second grades classes at San Jose.

The mentoring process at Barangay San Jose took place within the framework of a group mentoring structure in which a team of faculty mentors worked with a team of faculty mentees who served as teachers of around 30 children. The SSD faculty mentors monitored and evaluated the project; they were assisted with their senior students who were also present in the field.

Faculty Mentor 1: *The project has given us a new learning experience, and has developed in us a sense of service.*

Faculty Mentor 2: . . . *it is fulfilling to think that in some ways, we have contributed to bringing children who have been academically left behind, closer to the mainstream of development.*

Faculty Mentor 3: . . . *(the project) allowed both students and teachers to have a peek on the current state of community children, e.g. how they cope with in school despite their lack . . .; how we could possibly help them achieve their hopes and dreams even in our own small way*

Faculty Mentee 1 *(Volunteer teacher): My role was to hep the children, especially the slow learners, improve their reading and writing skills.*

Faculty Mentee 2: *I love to help the children especially the slow learners. Parents can no longer supervise them because of other problems*

Lessons learned

The analysis of the perceptions of the mentors and mentees in the form of assertions is presented in this section. These assertions were therefore drawn out from the collective experiences of both parties.

Assertion 1: Overall, the mentees perceive the mentoring process in terms of how the mentoring activity transpired in specific set-ups. In the instruction area, mentoring is viewed in terms of "lecturing", informal discussion on teaching strategies, sitting-in classes, journal writing, designing lessons, and modelling. In research, mentoring takes the form of "hands-on exercise", 'question and answer', return demonstration, giving of handouts, natural conversation, and journal writing. While in extension, the mentoring is reported to include teaching children who are not performing well in a regular classroom; or coaching exceptional children.

Assertion 2: Mentoring is also perceived by mentees in terms of ambience: informal (e.g., natural conversation), classroom-like (a bit of tension), modelling (tacitly done, e.g. designing lesson plans for others to pattern with); eagerness to learn.

Assertion 3: Group mentoring models are a dominant format among mentoring relationships.

Assertion 4: The mentors were also asked how they benefited from the mentoring activities. Overall, the benefits are related particularly to their role: being able to address the difficulties (of the mentees); and being able to provide experiential learning to the mentees. One faculty mentioned substantial personal benefits.

Assertion 5: Overall, it is clear that mentees believe they learn very quickly from the mentoring process than undergoing a regular class or reading a lengthy how-to-do instruction. They likewise view it as a good way

to review past lessons that are not at all given practical application; and a way to serve the community, or a means to perform civic duty.

Assertion 6: It is likewise clear from the anecdotes from indirect mentoring activities that the mentors who directly trained the children, claim personal benefits way beyond the expectation of this author..

Insights

Some general lessons emerge which might provide guidelines for any university seeking to adopt mentoring as an approach to developing its organization.

- Mentoring may start to occur in the departmental level for various reasons, including: to increase the faculty's teaching repertoire; to build and improve the capacity of the faculty to conduct research review the concept of and application of statistical tools for research; to facilitate community activities, e.g. to lead actual community work or to partner with different individuals or agencies.

- There is no single formula for good mentoring for as long as an individual or a team wants to mentor or be mentored, or for as long as a mentor wants to facilitate/supervise another mentoring activity that is not directly related to his academic preparation, but nevertheless has a passion for such activity.

- Mentoring does not have to occur spontaneously. Structured mentoring works and its small successes put together may create an impact.

- Mentoring does not always require large amounts of time. An experienced, perceptive mentor can provide great help in just a few minutes by making the right suggestion or asking the right question

- Mentoring activities are not limited to newly arrived faculty but to every teacher who wishes to improve his university responsibility to teach, to research, and to serve the community.

- Indirect mentoring, as it emerged from the BSU experience, can occur when faculty mentors network or liaise with an individual or a group of adult mentors who are willing to share their talents and consequently guide and train a group of learners, both young and adult ones.

- Mentoring occurs when a faculty mentor connects or links with another mentor. In this case, the former establishes an environment in which another mentor makes students' accomplishment limited only by the extent of his or her talent.

- The mentoring roles of the faculty mentor in the indirect mentoring that emerged in the BSU experience include: organisation/administration, conceptual guidance, sharing perspectives, and support. These were Baird's (1993) experience as direct research mentor, but could also be take place in the indirect mentoring structure.

- It can be arranged that at a mentor from a department other than one's own can be requested to mentor the novice or seasoned faculty, as needed.

- A mentor as role model can guide mentees through either words or action.

- As an outcome of mentoring, a network of contacts may be built. Likewise, a network of mentors may be formed, of which their experience might be crucial in finding a regular or better job, for instance.

- There is a potential for mentoring to develop people skills which include abilities to listen, to share ideas and to express oneself; to develop leadership; and to develop teamwork

- Outcomes for mentors may include improved understanding of the curricula that the department offers, immediate and future opportunities for extended networking, a better appreciation of their extra curricular programs, and the development of personal skills.

- Outcomes for mentees may include professional development, a broader understanding of the mission of the university and how this can be accomplished, increased knowledge specific to their work, and less tangible benefits such as an opportunity to enrich their resumes, to practise their profession while awaiting/applying for a job, to extend their network.

- Team learning in peer mentoring was unreported, so it can be assumed that tacit learning may have occurred during group reflection, e.g. when they prepared their modules, and when they conducted group evaluation on the journal entries of faculty mentees.

- There are organizational benefits from the mentoring or coaching process because it can be used as what Dansin and Rolff (1993) refer to as a method by which a university is able 'to organize its own

improvement processes and mobilize internal knowledge and skills for such work (p. 146). Explaining further Dalin and Rolff describe this phenomenon as a manifestation of a learning organization in which 'structures and change capabilities make it possible to initiate changes when needed'. Bryson (2001) calls this mentoring approach as a 'process of organisational transformation harnessing the fruits of individual learning' (p. 157), or team learning (Tumapon, 2002)

- The formal and structured activities that were initiated at SSD and facilitated by its department head, were either sustained or completed through the effort of the same person, and through the cooperation of her faculty. After the department head organized the group of mentor/s and mentees, the succeeding activities did not follow any agreed format or schedule. The lead mentor with the cooperation of the team coordinated the succeeding activities.

- The mentoring participants spent time to carry out the activities even if there was no economic incentive at all.

- What emerged from the BSU experience is that a mentoring program that addresses the three dimensions (instruction, research and extension) of the role of a university faculty, has the potential to transform a university into a learning organization without too much emphasis on the pedagogy of teaching.

- Whether the university faculty is assigned to teach, research or render community service, mentoring provides an opportunity to enhance competences in their role that is closely aligned to institutional priorities.

- In general, it seems that structured mentoring helps a university develop from within, and demonstrates that the capabilities of its teachers are valued.

Challenges, issues and recommendations

The results of this study appear to reinforce Bryson's (2001) claim that mentoring can foster organizational learning in a university. There are, however, challenges that must be addressed.

In the 'faculty mentoring on the use of teaching strategies', there is a need for intense mentoring which should require more time and commitment on the part of the faculty mentees. However, due to work overload, the novice teachers who are still struggling to adjust to the new workplace will most likely attribute non-participation to busyness. On the other hand, seasoned teachers may not be interested to increase their teaching

strategy repertoire anymore because of the notion that this will no longer make a difference considering the fact that they will soon retire from work in the university. There is likewise a need to find out why natural mentoring seems to work in one department yet unsuccessful in another department. Moreover, there should be a widespread involvement in mentoring if it has to generate positive changes in the university.

Addressing these issues may require reduction of teaching load, generation of resources for an incentive scheme, an emphasis on the concept of lifelong learning and its benefits, and a stronger advocacy on the benefits of mentoring across departments.

With regard to mentoring on the use of electronic grading system, this activity must be supported with sufficient supply of computer units if it has to attain maximum benefits. With the scarce resources of the department, the challenge to obtain more computers is compounded with the seeming indifference of some faculty to make use of the new technology. Security of grades is also an issue that must be addressed not only to ensure that important documents are protected but also to encourage the apprehensive sector of the faculty to utilize computers and hence totally abandon the non-electronic grading system. For the moment, what the sceptical teachers do is that they keep a hardcopy of their grades and then transfer data into the computer. This makes their work doubly tedious, and therefore defeats the purpose of a computerized grading system. Hence, it is important to fortify computer defences against hackers and viruses. A computer specialist in the department must obtain training. It is likewise recommended to infuse into future workshops in the electronic grading system, the rationale and importance of electronically preparing students' grades.

The challenges that faculty mentoring in research face is that the subject matter of the current mentoring activity could not ensure research output on the part of the faculty mentees. The topics were purely about the concept and use of statistical tools. To be refreshed on their uses and to be presented with sample studies using such tools may not altogether motivate the faculty to start researching. Another thing that hinders actual research may be the existing heavy workload of the faculty. Moreover, economic incentives for research are minimal especially to SSD teachers doing qualitative research. What may be done is to reduce workload, increase university-level incentive for research, create department-level incentive for researches that are either published in the department's magazine, or presented in the regular SSD colloquium. It may even be helpful if funding agencies outside the university may be sought for possible funding or publication of qualitative researches.

With regard to mentoring on piano accompaniment, linking with an expert mentor outside the university may become the prime stimulus for developing a child's talent to the maximum level, yet this can be impeded by the inability of the children's parents to fund attendance to piano workshops, for instance. This problem may even be exponentially increased if the respective family of the talented children does not truly understand the intricacies of training requirements e.g. sustained (but expensive) formal lessons with a qualified teacher or constant correct practice. Another problem concerns the availability of more qualified piano teachers. As of this writing, there are only two licensed piano teachers in the area.

An impingement of the faculty mentoring on the 'Sa karunungan, walang iwanan' project, on the other hand, is the perceived lack of encouragement and support of the school administration and/or the barangay government in which the project is based. Moreover, bureaucracy may also delay in accomplishing things within

the time allotted for the completion of the project. As a result of an evaluation conducted, the project also needed more learning materials, e.g. books, children's writing materials, and volunteer teachers' instructional materials. The need to develop the faculty mentors' interpersonal skills may encourage more support for the project. Moreover, if the goals of the project may be marketed to potential benefactors, there is good reason to believe that enough resources may be generated to sustain the project.

Summary and Conclusion

The focus of this study is the perceptions of mentors and mentees who participated in the rapid prototyping process for designing mentoring prototypes for Bukidnon State University (BSU), Philippines.

I started this study with one goal in mind: to develop a faculty mentoring program for BSU in order to foster professional development along the four BSU mission areas: instruction, research, extension and production. It began with the normal stages of instructional design as found in the literature, e.g. needs analysis (e.g. Torres, 2003; Torres, 2004), then the design using the rapid prototyping method proceeded to address the four areas of the BSU mission statement. Out of these preliminary efforts, five (5) initial mentoring prototypes emerged at different periods between 2006 to 2008: faculty mentoring on the use of teaching strategies and faculty mentoring on the use of electronic grading system (for the 'instruction' BSU mission area); faculty mentoring on research (for the 'research' BSU mission area); mentoring on piano accompaniment (for the clientele based on the community) and faculty mentoring on a 'no child left behind' project (both for the 'extension' BSU mission area). Apparently, no mentoring prototype yet for the 'production' component of the BSU mission emerged.

The perceptions of the mentors and mentees can attest to the potential of the prototypes to foster professional development, not only among the faculty mentors and mentees but also to the professional clientele that the faculty serve, e.g. community partners. Moreover, the perceptions of the mentors and mentees who participated in the design of mentoring activities seem to manifest characteristics of a learning organization described by Dalin and Rolff,(1993); Parsloe and Wray, (2000); and Tumapon (2002).

The reported mentoring activities took place within the framework of 1) one-on-one mentoring model; 2) group mentoring model (e.g. an individual mentor guiding a team of mentees or a team of mentors guiding a team of mentees); and 3) 'indirect mentoring' model which later emerged when the faculty got involved in community work..

The present study is limited to the Social Sciences Department of BSU, who participated in the design of mentoring prototypes. The design process however may be replicated by other departments to customize their own mentoring activities. In contrast, the prototypes may be modified or enhanced in such a way that its final product would suit the mentoring needs of the entire university. Alternatively, the same emerging prototypes may

evolve into additional prototypes to include mentoring prototypes that may address the 'production' mission area of the university. In any case, the mentoring prototypes can be used as a complementary tool for staff development and support for newly recruited young instructors.

Intertwined with this study is the instructional design process using the rapid prototyping model, for the purpose of generating mentoring prototypes for the faculty of Bukidnon State University. There were no specific procedures for involving the mentoring participants, and for evolving the mentoring prototypes. There were also no general time allotments provided for designing each mentoring prototype. These observations are, however, consistent with the nature of the rapid prototyping process for designing instruction. What was further observed was that the mentoring prototypes were usable, for at least one school year. They were produced in a shorter period of time, and most of all received by satisfied mentors and mentees who had been involved throughout the development of mentoring prototypes. In other words, the rapid prototyping method for creating mentoring prototypes worked. The success of this model for prototyping projects similar to faculty mentoring activities for BSU, was confirmed by the study of Jones and Richey (2000).

As prototyping of mentoring activities progresses, more qualitative inquiries should be concurrently conducted in order to verify this paper's assertions; and to determine if mentoring difficulties are addressed and effectively hurdled. Studies may also be made about the effectiveness and impacts of mentoring activities as part of the rapid prototyping process. The use of formal surveys, focus groups and other opportunities for input may be useful to the eventual establishment, expansion and institutionalization of an appropriate 'artifact' (Tripp and Bichelmeyer, 1990), which in this case, a faculty mentoring program, not only for the Social Sciences Department of Bukidnon State University but for the entire faculty in the different departments of this university.

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September 16, 2009

A Case Study of a Global Mentor-Mentee Relationship

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Abstract

This is a case study of Dr. Lincoln and me. We first met at the University of Arkansas in fall, 2000. She served as my academic advisor through my study in the Master and doctoral programs for six years. In 2008, I came back to Japan. But our relationship as a mentor-mentee relationship lasted. In this paper, I share my thoughts of what a global mentor mean and how she helped me go through many difficulties/challenges from miles away from me.

Literature Review

Thorpe and Kalischuk (2003) define a mentor as a wise, experienced, and faithful advisor to an aspiring professional. Owens and Patton (2003) found benefits for both mentors and mentees through a mentoring program. Mentees receive support and encouragement which enables them to further develop their confidence and professional identity, increasing their satisfaction in their career. On the other hand, mentors attain personal satisfaction and fulfillment that arises from supporting and assisting another member of the profession in their development. They concluded that the mentoring process encourages the development of leadership skills and advancing the mentors vision not only for their individual success but also for the future of the field as a profession.

According to London Metropolitan University (2009), there are 21 components to be effective mentors.

An effective Mentor is someone who:

- defines the relationship;
- achieves mutual respect;
- balances professionalism and friendship;
- knows about the course;
- knows the school really well;
- is committed to the process of mentoring and identifies appropriate training needs;

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- is action oriented;
- is non-threatening and approachable;
- offers time;
- has excellent interpersonal skills and communicates clearly;
- knows what good quality teaching is;
- empathizes, encourages and motivates;
- engenders respect and trust;
- can give negative feedback constructively;
- celebrates successes;
- genuinely wants to help others;
- represents the Trainee's interests;
- responds to individual circumstances;
- understands what teaching and learning are about;
- believes in a continuous learning environment;
- has a vision about helping the Trainee to develop.

In mentor-mentee relationship, friendship is not necessary. However, such relationships can have lifetime benefits for both parties, but a hierarchical arrangement still exists and problems may arise if boundaries are crossed (University of Wisconsin, 1998).

Meeting with Dr. Lincoln

In 2004, I went to study at the University of Arkansas as an exchanged student from a Japanese university. In the first semester, fall 2004, I took basic courses of Education, Sociology, and English as a Second Language (ESL) courses to improve my English. I was not fluent English yet, and I still had many difficulties in communicating in English.

In the middle of the fall semester, it was time to register for the coming spring semester. However, the academic advisor for exchanged students was not familiar with Education courses, and I was a little lost in not knowing which courses to take. Fortunately, one of my professors at the Education department told me about the ESL courses that I might be interested in and who to contact for more information. This is how I met Dr. Lincoln, the program coordinator of ESL education.

In the spring semester, I took two of her ESL education courses, and I learned so much from her. I was especially surprised to know how behind our researches on English education was in Japan compared to the ones in the US, and it made me feel like learning more about it from her. In addition, I could not improve my English as much as I expected, and it made me wish to continue studying abroad.

One day, I visited Dr. Lincoln and told her how I felt and what I wanted to do. She supported me to carry on the plan to come back to the University of Arkansas (U of A) to study after my completion of the bachelor degree in Japan in a year. I went back to Japan in May, 2001, and completed my bachelor degree in March, 2002. Dr. Lincoln helped me apply for the Master of Education (MEd) program at the U of A. During this period, our relationship was very formal student-professor relationship.

MEd at the U of A

In fall, 2002, I started my MEd program, and Dr. Lincoln became my academic advisor. So, our relationship was shifted from student-professor relationship to student-advisor relationship. During the two years in the program, she led me through the academic work and also helped me be more like a member of the society by offering me opportunities to learn about the culture there. For example, she took me for lunch sometimes and I started to eat at restaurants I had never been with my friends before. This simple act broadened the sphere of my activity to know more about the community. She also invited some international students during thanks-giving holidays to give us opportunities to experience how typical thanks-giving holidays are for American families. In this way, she not only supported me academically, but socially and morally. As a result, our relationship became less formal than before.

Ph.D. at the U of A

I never intended to move on to the Ph.D. program until the last semester of the MEd program. However, at the beginning of the last semester before completing the program, Dr. Lincoln asked me if I was interested in the Ph.D. program or not. At that time, my biggest concern was about the financial stability. However, there was an opening for a teaching assistant of Japanese, and fortunately, I got the position. So, I moved on to the Ph.D. program, and Dr. Lincoln continued serving as my academic advisor. Though I was a student as I had been and Dr. Lincoln was my academic advisor as she had been, this resulted in changing our relationship dramatically.

First, there was a significant change in my role. I was no longer just a student, but also a teacher for students in the Japanese program. However, by that time, I had very little classroom teaching experience. In addition, though I had experience in American university as a student, I was not familiar with the system as a teacher. I was not aware of a lot of academic culture of the U of A. As a result, I faced series of difficulties and challenges as an international teaching assistant (ITA). In addition, the change of my status changed the relationship with Dr. Lincoln from a student-professor relationship to a student/teacher-professor/mentor relationship.

In academic field, I started to work much more closely with her. We constantly did research together, submitted proposals to conferences, traveled together, and co-presented at conferences. We also started to go out for lunch or dinner more often than before just to enjoy ourselves. In addition, she was always there to help me go through every step to become a more successful ITA.

In the four years, our relationship was far much less formal. Dr. Lincoln became my academic advisor, a dissertation chair, a mentor, a colleague, a friend, and more than anything else, a great role model as a teacher and citizen of the society.

Professional Development & Meaning of Mentor

Before I became a teaching assistant at the Japanese program, the U of A, I had studied there for more than two years. So, I did have some opportunities how professors teaching at American universities. In addition, because I belonged to the education department, I had learned many things about common teaching pedagogy and education system in the US. However, I was still used to have very formal relationship with teachers as a part of Japanese custom even when I started to work as a teaching assistant and I was not familiar with American academic settings as a teacher. For example, I was not aware of the importance of syllabus, what to do when academic dishonesty happens, how to earn respect, and so on. As a result, I had several unpleasant and unexpected surprises and experiences with students in my new environment.

My supervisor at the Japanese program of course helped me go through all difficulties. However, he was also relatively new faculty member at the university and he was not a native professor. So, sometimes his perspective was based on a Japanese perspective which was not accepted in the American academic culture. However, fortunately, I had another place to go for help, and it was Dr. Lincoln. She was always patient to listen to me and gave me a lot of advice how to work in American academic settings, deal with its system and American students. Her support was not limited academically, but socially and culturally. She was always there to support me or give advice to me to be a more successful student, a more successful ITA, and a more successful resident of the community. She was much more than an academic advisor for me. She gave me academic, social, and moral support. She was my academic advisor, mentor, and role model.

Global Mentor

In May, 2008, I completed the Ph.D. program and came back to Japan. The first job I got was a part-time teacher at a junior high school in Kobe, Japan. I worked there from the end of August to the end of March, 2009, and faced many difficulties as a new teacher in Japan. Many difficulties and issues I faced were not just teaching itself, but more of issues with disruptive students and so on. And it made me lose so much confident in myself as a teacher. I often e-mailed Dr. Lincoln to share my feeling and experience. Her respond was always very sympathetic but positive to support me emotionally. To me, Dr. Lincoln is a friend, a colleague, a professor, and a mentor who

1. lives miles away from me,
2. knows how I performed in the US university both as a student and a teacher,
3. has unique/different perspective from my colleagues in Japan,
4. cheers me and believes in me,
5. is very enthusiastic about teaching,
6. is aware of multiculturalism,
7. is conscious of being my role model,
8. is surrounded by totally different environment and information from myself, and
9. reminds me to open my eyes to bigger world and broaden my perspectives.

And that's who I call a global mentor. Mentors don't always have to be with us physically. But one of the most important roles for mentors is to provide emotional support and provide opportunities to develop professionally. Mentors can fulfill their roles being miles away from mentees.

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Exploring the Links between Personality Traits, Professional Stress, and Coping Strategies among Mentor Teachers in Taiwan

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Abstract

One way schools have sought to raise teacher quality is through the establishment of mentor teacher programs, which emphasize collegial guidance and advice through the use of recollection, reflection, and consultation. Studies of such mentoring programs indicate that this scheme can be effective in preparing new teachers for daily professional demands, as well as for increasing involvement, commitment, and quality among senior teachers (Chang et al., 2005; American Federation of Teachers, 1998; Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 1993; Feiman-Nemser, 1992; Heller, 2004; Nolan & Hoover, 2004; Stanford et al., 1994).

Yet while a number of studies have examined the impact of mentoring on new teachers, few studies have examined its impact on the mentors themselves, in particular, the stresses and disturbances they may encounter while serving in this key organizational role (Chang, 2004). In some cases, such stresses may even threaten mentors' emotional and physical health to the point that their school's mentoring program is suspended entirely. It therefore seems important to examine whether suitable personality factors can be identified prior to senior teachers' participation in mentoring programs. In other words, at a time when senior teachers' expertise is highly valued, so too is greater knowledge in stress management. As Heller (2004) and Humphrey (2000) point out, many effective senior teachers do not necessarily become qualified, professional, and effective teaching counselors.

This study explores mentor teachers' reactions toward mentoring stresses and the application of related coping strategies. It likewise aims to reveal how mentor personality traits influence work stress and coping strategies with an aim to improve the selection of mentor teachers as well as the design of effective preparation courses. Base on data gathered from questionnaires and semi structured interviews, and examined using a variety of quantitative and qualitative techniques, this study traced connections between mentor personality traits, stress response, and coping strategies. Findings indicate that among the five main personality traits of mentor teachers, "Agreeableness" is the highest of them; the reaction on mentoring stresses is in the medium- low degrees; and coping strategies could deal with stresses actively. Among the five personality traits, "sensitivity" is the trait that can most accurately predict the reaction toward overall mentoring stresses, but it is negatively predictive. "Openness" and "Agreeableness" are the traits that can most accurately predict the coping strategies for the overall mentoring stresses. They have a positive, predictive effect. Finally, some suggestions are given to higher educationalists for reference.

Key words: Personality traits, coping strategies, mentor teacher, mentoring stresses

Directing The Collaborative ESL Classroom With Purposeful Seating Charts

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Abstract

The arrangement of the classroom is an integral part of any teachers' classroom preparation. Many teachers regard seating charts as primarily for the purpose of getting to know student's names, taking role or grouping students. A seating chart can have an influence on classroom organization, seating students in a way that will give them the opportunity to promote positive learning environments in specific situations. A seating arrangement can be a great tool for the ESL teacher in accomplishing the goals of the lesson.

This paper explores options in classroom-seating plans; in addition it will explore random seating charts and the effects of the approaches on the ESL classroom. It is the aim of this paper presentation to demonstrate how seating chart, and how utilizing a random seating plan can be advantageous in an ESL setting. This paper will present data gathered from a student survey and teacher experiences with random seating charts.

Introduction

Seating arrangements play a major part of a teacher's classroom activities and classroom management plans. The teacher, in deciding the seating arrangement needs to think about not only the organization of the room, the aim of the activity, but also the make-up and nature of the students and the teacher's own involvement in the activity (Sommer, 1967; Zifferblatt 1972; Sommer 1977; Becker, et al., 1973). The consideration for the physical environment of the room is so that teaching and learning can occur as efficiently and effectively as possible. In an ESL classroom, to achieve the goal of encouraging, assisting, and supporting students in learning in a way that the classroom seating is structured to support both the teacher to student support and student to student interaction. Other factors a teacher may consider while making a seating arrangement is the make-up of his or her students including the personality of the class, the number of students, and age of the students. Teachers also want to consider the goal of the classroom activity and how the classroom seating can best support the activities goal (Johnson, 1970). For example, in an ESL class, the teacher may want pair work or group collaboration with much student interaction or the teacher may want the students to do an individualized reading exercise or the teacher may want the attention of the class directed toward the teacher. By altering the seating arrangements the teacher can contribute to the success of the ESL student in the classroom. The teacher must look at what outcomes from the class they are striving to achieve and arrange the students to best meet these goals. Another factor to consider by the teacher is the personality of the class. There are a number of variables in considering the personality of the class. For example, the various levels of English, different strengths and that some students are shyer than their peers.

Seating arrangements can also have an outcome on the effectiveness of communication of the students themselves. From the point of view of the teacher, a factor deciding different seating plans is matching a style of teaching that best suits the instructor, to the objective of the lesson.

Along with the classroom layout, I would like to suggest and offer feedback from an in class survey suggesting that randomizing the classroom seating, or changing of the student's assigned seat, the student's group or pair makeup, changing where in the classroom the students sit every class or every couple of classes can be beneficial for the students development. I found that first, the students are perhaps meeting new people with different personalities and being forced to leave their comfort zone, being exposed to other personalities and strengths and weaknesses which especially beneficial in an ESL classroom. Second, if the teacher changes the classroom seating chart regularly, the students will get the chance to hear more people talk, work, and study in the English language, students will have the challenge of working with different level and abilities of English.

Advantages of Having a Seating Chart

I feel that the class needs can be best handled with a seating chart. For example, students with special needs could be placed appropriately also student individual needs could be best addressed (Poulou 20006). Stronger students could be placed near weaker students. This also works well for students with positive or negative classroom behavior could be seated near others who could benefit from a good role model. (Sommer 1977) Also, students had the comfort of knowing where to sit. Shy students may be more comfortable if told where to sit instead of making that decision. So, the class is not inconvenienced by who wants to sit where and next to whom. Seating charts also provide a quick and convenient way for the teacher to take attendance and learn student names.

Disadvantages of Seating Charts

There are disadvantages to a seating chart. By creating a seating chart it puts the management of the class arrangement exclusively on the teacher, placing the teacher as an authority figure (Holtrop, 1997). This method is good for some teaching styles, but it is not as good for others who want to give students as much freedom in the class as possible. Students may feel empowered by the opportunity to choose their own seats. Also, if the teacher provides new shuffled seating chart each class it makes more work for the teacher. The teacher must rethink the make-up each class.

Seating Arrangements

I will describe some possible seating arrangement styles that teachers have at their disposal. When deciding a seating arrangement, teachers should consider what will give the class maximum effectiveness and control and give students the best chance to grasp the lesson. Depending on how the instruction is being delivered or goal for the class, it makes sense for the teacher to change the layout.

The organization of the class is a major element to the classroom. In an ESL classroom emphasizes is often placed on collaboration and interaction is often encouraged. Different arrangements give students different ways to participate in the class and it gives the teacher different ways to provide instruction. The following is few of the more common seating arrangements: collaborative groups, cluster groups, rows, circle, semi-circle, and pairs. The best arrangement for each class depends on the class and teacher.

Collaborative Groups

The characteristic of a genuine collaborative classroom includes the sharing of knowledge among students and teachers, shared authority between the two, using teachers as mediators, and finally, heterogeneous groupings of students (Kulieke et al, 1990). When students divide into groups, group work can be enhanced. Group members are able to work together on a common goal. Typical roles in a collaborative group may include: a team leader, and recorder or clerk. When students utilize these roles in their collaborative groups, they develop skills in making group decisions, leading, and managing a group. This constructivist approach to teaching "puts the student in the drivers seat" and stresses the importance of active student engagement (Perkins, 1992).   All of these skills are of value for students in the future. In collaborative groups each group member has a responsibility of contributing to the group, each member has a responsibility. Students should be active seekers and processors of information, not passive recipients (Schunk, 1986; Davis & Murrell, 1994).

When students divide assignment tasks among themselves, small group work has the tendency not to work well. Groups working together, sharing information, listening to each other promotes learning and collaborating (Erickson & Strommer, 1991, McKeachie, 1986). From my experience, when students discuss and work together they arrive at a better sense of understanding and understand what parts of the activity needs further discussion and reflection.

In the classroom, I find that collaborative groups need to regularly assess the effectiveness of its communication strategies and seek ways to improve its group communication. I find that groups become more failure and comfortable with the collaborative group learning process and become better at the process. Periodically, we reserve time at the end of class to assess group dynamics. What is working? What isn't? How can the groups

function more effectively? I also encourage groups to discuss the group dynamics within the group.

Clusters

Collaborative groups are often arranged into cluster groups. A good way to integrate collaborative learning with ESL students is in a cluster group (Emmer 1995). Cluster groups are often made up of three, four or five students working together on an activity task. Students arrange their desks so every desk is facing one another to encourage group interaction. The class is made up of scattered groups of clusters throughout the class. In the class, the teacher walks around the room and works with the groups and monitors group progress. The make-up of the group needs to be thought about before class by the teacher or the student. The goal of cluster discussions is that each group member shares information towards a group task, and a common goal. In order for cluster groups to be effective, the students need to be able to work together, helping each other learn.

There are quite a few considerations when deciding to place students in clusters. It is advantageous to have students of different levels at each group so that they can work with others helping each other learn. The potential problem is that they will be close to one another and can easily chitchat with friends in their native language. Clusters also have the potential disadvantage of students who approach the assigned tasks in individualistic ways, rather than focusing on including all of the members of the group. For example, rather than work together in the group discuss, each student works alone on a portion of the assignment and gives the answers to the group without discussion. For the teacher, clusters can also be a disadvantage when addressing the class because students may not be oriented toward the teacher. Students may have their back to the teacher and not be focused to the front of the room, being focused on the group.

Traditional Rows and Columns

Traditionally, the arrangement for many teachers is a row and column style of seating layout. Many teachers used to favor the traditional form of row seating because it offers the teacher the ability to move around the classroom easily and allows the students have a clear view of what is happening in front of them, although this style has fallen out of favor with many educators today

This arrangement still has its benefits for teacher-centered instruction. It is easy for the teacher to monitor all the students in the class. Rows and columns put students facing the teacher and the instructional area. In an ESL classroom this may be advantageous in listening and reading activities.

The problem with this arrangement is that some students sit in the corners and in the back of the room, making participation and interaction less or more difficult for those students. This arrangement is also not advantageous for group work, by not allowing students to interact as well as other arrangements.

Pair Work

By Separating the rows and columns so that the two sides are facing each other transforms the classroom into another learning environment. This arranges students so that they face each other, and can encourage student interaction with pair discussions. For teacher, the aisle is also a convenient to monitor and offer support to students during the lesson.

The problem with this setup like rows and columns is that there are students that are in the back of the room and in the corners. Also, it is hard for the teacher to see all the students and monitor. The students are not facing the front of the room when sitting in pairs. It is difficult to have class discussions or provide feedback to the class without moving and looking around to see who is talking. Pair work is good for classroom situations where there is little direct instruction from the teacher and student's work is encouraged.

Circle

By placing desks in one large circle students are able to support each other in learning. They can solve problems

through class discussion and shared explanations. A circle of desks has the advantage of putting every student in the front row. The teacher then is centered in the lessons acting as a collaborator or facilitator. Again, the problem with this arrangement is there are students who will be at a disadvantage during the class feedback or instruction time. Also, it is may be hard for the teacher to see all the students and monitor their activities.

Semicircle

In a semicircle seating arrangement all the desks touch each other facing the front of the room in a semicircle shape. The teacher can easily see each student and the students can see the teacher's instruction. The teacher can use this arrangement in direct instruction, or student collaboration. In this arrangement, all the students can see each other; they can have discussions amongst themselves in pairs. Also, because the students all have clear vision of the instruction area, instruction from the teacher could be done easily. The teacher would have full control over the students. In semi-circle formation students' social interaction can be improved, asking more questions than other arrangements (Marx, Fuhrer, and Hartig, 1999).

The disadvantage of semicircle seating arrangement is that the teacher would have a hard time meeting with the students individually, because the seats are very close to each other. The semicircle also takes up the entire classroom so there isn't much room for activities outside the activity area. Because students are sitting next to each other the students can work easily together without much movement around the class, making collaborative learning possible. The teacher can take a passive role and listen to the students and let them run the class. The teacher walks around the room and monitors student work.

No seats

In an ESL teaching situation where conversation and class interaction is emphasized, a teacher may wish to have an even more engaging arrangement for interaction. This arrangement would be ideal for role-play activities or activities emphasizing interact. If this is the goal of the instruction, it may be best to not use seats at all. In this arrangement, interactions become much more lifelike and enable the students to use the language in the context of an actual situation. This arrangement cannot be done for the entire lesson but is well suited for portion(s) of the lesson. In this arrangement it is very easily to move students quickly amongst various groups and swapping partners in role-plays.

Randomized or Shuffled Seats

In combination with the arrangement of the class, I would like to propose that randomized or shuffled seating can enhance the class and benefits the teacher and student in many ways. I find that by shuffling the classroom seating arrangement the class is refreshed. With randomized seating the teacher chooses a seating arrangement and shuffles the seating arrangement so that students are given the opportunity to work with different students each class and are seated in different location in the classroom. There are going to be expected issues that the students are going to have when changing from one seating arrangement to another. For example, students must check their new seat location before each class and students must get acquainted with new group member for each class. Some students will have gotten accustomed to their seat and the people around them and not be as willing to sit in their new seat. Most of the students will like the change and will get used to it very quickly, even though it might come to as an adjustment.

Methodology

I would like to present data from a survey was given to two hundred and fifty, first and second year students from the Science and Engineering Department at Ritsumeikan University on their opinion of randomized seating. The students were surveyed anonymously, in class on there opinion of the randomized seating charts, which was used every class for fifteen weeks. The survey was conducted after the fifteen-week semester was completed.

The standardized curriculum in the Science and Engineering department is designed to be collaborative in fashion, working through the in class exercises in groups, the acquisition lesson occurring in individuals as a

result of group interaction. The instructor is more like a facilitator than a teacher. In this class atmosphere, I feel that a seating chart and shuffling of seats is an important part of the makeup of the class.

The survey was given at the end of a fifteen-week semester utilizing a randomized seating system. The following are the list of survey questions, results and opinions students wrote for each question of the survey that was given in class.

1. *Do you like changing seats every class?*

- Yes: 63%

- No: 18%

- No opinion: 19%

Reasons given by students who responded, "Yes":

- Communicate with others
- Talk with many people
- Hear various ideas
- Keeps the class fresh, more fun
- Make new friends
- Makes the class friendlier

Reasons given by students who responded "No":

- Stress
- Not a long enough time to make friends
- It is difficult to change seats and a bother

2. Does changing seats help you work with other people?
- Yes 87%
- No 2%
- No Opinion 11%

Reasons given by students who responded, "Yes":

- Communication skill
- Get different ideas and opinions
- We can learn from each other
- It makes class fun
- I can make friends

Reasons given by students who responded "No":

- I want to improve my own English

3. Does changing seats help you work with different people who have different views than your own?

- Yes 87%
- No 2%
- No opinion 11%

Reasons given by students who responded, "Yes":

- Communication skill
- Communicate with different people
- Hear others ideas opinions
- Communicating with many people is needed in society

Reasons given by students who responded "No":

- I can't give my opinion to new members

4. Do you prefer working with the same group members every week?

- Yes 21%
- No 72%
- No Opinion 8%

Reasons given by students who responded, "Yes":

- I can't communicate with others
- Makes the class interesting
- I want to make friends
- I can get other students opinions

Reasons given by students who responded "No":

- I can get familiars with group members
- It is easier to talk to the same people

5. If you change seats, how often do you want to change seats?

- Every class 32%

- Every 2 weeks 28%

- Every 4 weeks 15%

- Every 5 weeks 21%

- No Opinion 4%

6. Why do you think changing seats is good or bad?

  - Communicate with many people

  - Make new friends

7. Would you prefer big groups (6-10 students), small groups (3-4 students) or pair work (2)?

   - Small group 68%

   - Big group 12%

   - Pair 20%

Survey Results - Discussion

The students of the survey were given a survey with the following questions and were encouraged to additional comments on their own opinion.

1. Do you like changing seats every class?

2. Does changing seats help you work with other people?

3. Does changing seats help you work with different people who have different views than your own?

4. Do you prefer working with the same group members every week?

5. If you change seats, how often do you want to change seats?

6. Why do you think changing seats is good or bad?

7. Would you prefer big groups (6-10 students), small groups (3-4 students) or pair work (2)?

The results of the survey show that students have an overall favorable opinion of randomized seats. Many students feel that randomized seating helps them communicate in small groups. Students also expressed that randomized seating helps them communicate with a greater variety of people. Many students have expressed to me that randomized seats livens up the class by giving the class a new atmosphere. Some students also expressed that they would prefer to have permanent seating throughout the semester. These students expressed that they were unable to feel comfortable with a new group every week. Some students also feel that it is a bother to have to check the seating chart before class and change seats every class.

Our classes in the Science and Engineering Department are largely collaborative, which is an excellent opportunity for randomized seating. Obviously each teacher has their own style and purpose for each class, but these are observations that I have made in my classes and the results that I have found in my class. By my own observations, students were hesitant at first, but most soon enjoy working with other students. I find that by changing the class layout and shuffling the student's seats that it keeps the class fresh. As new student groups are formed each class, students have the opportunity to take on new roles. Each group usually has a dominant student who will emerge and lead the group in the discussion. When groups are shuffled from class to class students have the opportunity to take on new roles. In my opinion classroom will be very successful where students are able to get instructions but they are allowed and able to explore learning by helping each other and

doing hands on activities.

Conclusions

There are many options available to the teacher when planning the classroom layout. In deciding the seating arrangement the teacher needs to think about not only the organization of the room, the aim of the activity, but also the make-up and nature of the students and the teacher's own involvement in the activity. The end goal for a teacher when considering the physical environment of the room is to provide an environment where teaching and learning can occur as efficiently and effectively as possible. I have proposed that seating charts and randomized seating can be a valuable tool in the classroom, beneficial for both students and teachers.

The idea of randomized seating and seating arrangements all have different functions and are best used for different classroom purposes. No single one should be considered as a classroom's primary arrangement, but rather as a toolbox that can all be used from time to time. The important thing is to understand that the arrangement of students in the classroom can be a highly useful tool in making lessons more effective.

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Second-Language Oral Proficiency in Japan

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Abstract

This paper examines the difficulties associated with learning and speaking English as a second language (ESL) in Japan. A review of current work in this area is given, with a focus on public speaking anxiety of Japanese university students that has been tackled from a socio-psychological perspective. A combination of Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP) and Self-Disclosure methods was implemented in the form of a one-minute weekly public speech assignment given to 213 of first grade students at Ehime University. The English speaking course ran once a week for one 90-minute class over a fifteen-week semester. A therapeutic effect was achieved as students confronted their fears and discontinued their escape response. Students showed a dramatic improvement in both their English speaking and critical thinking abilities with overall enjoyment demonstrated in their response to course evaluation questionnaire. The gradual cognitive exposure techniques helped students establish a sincere belief that they are competent and that occasional imperfections or failures are the result of some other factor such as the lack of effort. The course ended with successful full oral presentations from all students who become more confident in their abilities and second language acquisition.   The paper discusses the role of sociolinguistic factors that impact second-language (L2) oral proficiency and how a combination of ERP and Self-Disclosure methods has worked effectively with the students to overcome a major obstacle to foreign language learning in Japan .The paper then reflects on the learners' motivation to ensure that the students would be properly prepared for their future academic challenges in Japan and overseas.

Keywords: ESL, Speaking, Exposure and response prevention (ERP), Self-Disclosure,

Public Speech, Sociolinguistic Factors, Second Language Acquisition

Introduction

Most of the difficulties that ESL learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language and self-concept differ from English language and western concept of self. For example, native speakers of Japanese, may face many more difficulties than native speakers of German, because German language and self-concept are closely related to English language and western self-concept, whereas the Japanese are not.   Learning a second language involves much more than learning the words, and the sounds of a language. Communication breakdowns occur not only due to the more commonly understood syntax and pronunciation difficulties but because when we learn a language we also learn a culture. Research on Chinese ESL students and British teachers found that the Chinese learners did not see classroom discussion and interaction as important but placed a heavy emphasis on teacher-directed lectures (McKay, Sharon; Schaetzel, Kirsten, 2008, Jin and Cortazzi, 1998). Moreover, there is a number of obstacles to overcome before mastering the four macro skills in a non-English speaking environment such as Japan.

Culture and the Self-Concept

The Self-Concept is influenced by culture. National culture is the set of collective beliefs that distinguish people of one nationality from those of another (Hofstede 1980). The four main dimensions of national culture that were identified by Hofstede (1980) are (individualism/collectivism), power distance, (masculinity/femininity), and uncertainty avoidance. This paper argues that three of the four main dimensions of national culture are relevant to second language acquisition in Japan. The dimensions are (individualism/collectivism), power distance, and uncertainty avoidance.

Individualism and Collectivism
Hofstede (1980) defines Individualism as a cultural construct, measures the importance placed on the welfare of the individual as opposed to the group. The importance of the group is reflected in collectivism. In individualistic cultures, "people look after themselves and their immediate family members only," whereas in collectivistic cultures, "people look after the interests of larger groups and collectivities in exchange for loyalty" (Hofstede, 1980).

In individualistic societies, individuals "can pursue private interests irrespective of their bearing on the interests of others, whereas in collective societies, obligations toward collective well being supersede the pursuit of personal gains" (Parsons and Shils 1951). Wagner (1995) equated collectivism with "cohesiveness, commitment, or conformity" and where person-group relations are perceived as enduring and important. Individualism is based on the assumption that person-group relationships are fleeting in nature (Wagner, 1995). "Selfishness" for individualists means attending to personal objectives and ignoring group interests, whereas "selfishness" for collectivists implies catering to group interests even at the expense of personal desires (Wagner 1995). Individualists will value cooperation only when it leads to the attainment of personal benefits that cannot be achieved by working alone (Wagner 1995). Horney (1937) held that individualism carried the seeds of potential hostility that pervade all human relationships. The advantages of collectivism, in creating stable long-term relationships, have been studied in detail in the Japanese contexts by various authors (Gerlach 1992). The norms of reciprocity are more prevalent in collectivistic Japan than in the individualistic U.S. (Johnson, Cullen, Sakano and Takenouchi 1996). The 'Guanxi' or 'special relationship' in the context of China, another collectivistic country, always involves a reciprocal obligation (Leung, Wong and Wong 1996).

Power Distance
Power distance as a cultural variable, captures the acceptance of hierarchies of power in a society. "Power distance can be defined as the extent to which less powerful members of organizations within a country accept the unequal distribution of power" (Hofstede 1980). Japan is a country with high power distance, where people are allowed to express their opinions on improving efficiency conditions though a process known as kaizen, they are not encouraged to propose ideas that contradict the basic practices or disturb harmony (Taka and Foglia 1994). At the organizational level, high power distance would pose a barrier to effective communication, thus underutilizing the potential for interaction. This would occur because power distance has an inverse relationship to a society's openness to objective sources of new information (Dawar, Parker and Price, 1996).

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is a cultural construct, measures the extent to which people in certain societies try to avoid uncertain, and risk taking situations by adopting strict codes of behavior. Hofstede (1980) defined uncertainty avoidance as "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations." Societies with low uncertainty avoidance are more risk taking (Nakata and Sivakumar 1996) and exhibit greater acceptance of dissident behavior. Cultures with high uncertainty avoidance tend to be distrustful of new ideas or behaviors because of their low tolerance for ambiguity (Dawar, Parker and Price 1996). Societies with high uncertainty avoidance also place more importance on rules as a means to avoid risk (Dawar, Parker and Price 1996). Uncertainty avoidance is inversely related to the level of openness in a society (Dawar, Parker and Price 1996).

Figure 1

Culture and Communication
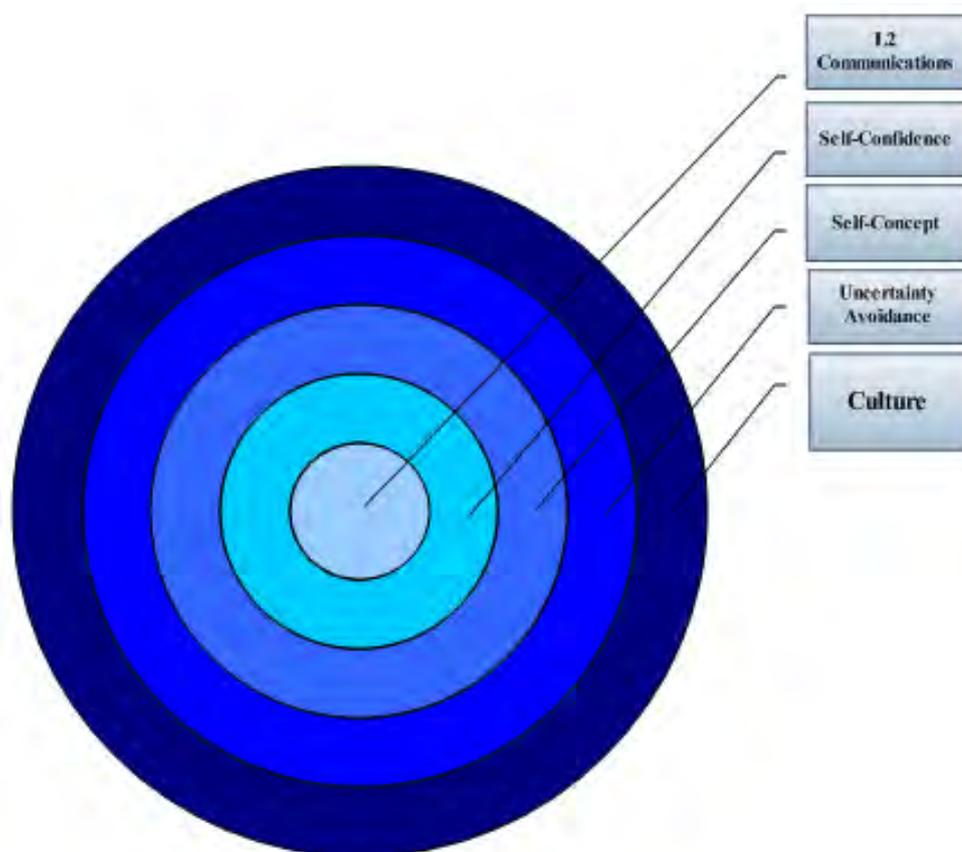
Speaking and the Self-Concept

Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney,

1998,). People speak to convey information and ideas, and try to maintain social relationships. Speakers have to choose the suitable vocabulary, construct appropriate grammatical structures and

use a comprehendible accent, plus the concurrent tasks of thinking and organizing ideas and expressing them at the same time.

In order to be competent in speaking English, the ESL learner needs to deepen his understanding for the western identity and culture ,and even the political factors of English, that are needed to speak appropriately with a new 'voice', an Englishman (Hughes, 2002 in Fitriana 2004:1). Learners of English need to have a certain amount of confidence to use their English effectively when communicating in L2 with other people locally or internationally. Self confidence can determine one's success or failure in speaking L2. This paper argues for the correlation between self-concept and

English speaking ability. Self-concept is the product of culture and experience and the main factor that has an impact to one's self-confidence(figure 1).

People sometimes do not have enough courage to speak in front of other people even in L1. Anxiety, as perceived intuitively by many language learners, negatively   influences language learning and has been found to be one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education (Horwitz, 2001).

As language learning poses a threat to learners' self-concept, in response learners may generate some particular beliefs about language learning and its use. Research on 'language anxiety' suggests that certain beliefs about language learning also contribute to the student's tension and frustration in the class (Horwitz ,1986). Such beliefs have been found to cast a considerable influence upon the ultimate achievement and performance in the target language. The researchers use terms such as 'erroneous' or 'irrational' to indicate certain widely held "beliefs about language learning which can be a source of anxiety" (Gynan, 1989 in Onwuegbuzie ,1999)

Speech anxiety

Speech anxiety "refers to those situations when an individual reports he or she is afraid to deliver a speech" (Ayres & Hopf, 1993, p. 4). Speech anxiety is also referred to as public speaking anxiety, stage fright, and fear of public speaking (Ayres & Hopf, 1993). Many researchers have pointed out that the skill producing most anxiety is speaking (MacIntyre and Gardner 1991). What distinguishes speaking is the public nature of the skill, the embarrassment suffered from exposing our language imperfections in front of others (Arnold, 2000).

Feelings of tension or nervousness centre on the two basic task requirements of foreign language learning: listening and speaking (Horwitz , 1986) because, in interaction, both the skills can not be separated.

About 14% of people in a basic public speaking course have high levels of speech anxiety (Ayres & Hopf, 1985). For some people their fear of public speaking is a phobia and they will refuse to even attempt a speech (Ayres & Hopf, 1993). However, the majority of individuals with speech anxiety "are afraid, feel their fear is excessive, but are able to deliver a speech if necessary" (Ayres & Hopf, 1993). Speech anxiety affects both how students prepare for their speeches and their performance (Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995). Students that are high in speech anxiety find if more difficult to choose a topic and find information for their speech, use less audience adaptation, are more uncertain when revising their speech, and are less likely to structure their speech in an organized fashion (Daly, 1995). Many learners express their inability and sometimes even acknowledge their failure in learning to speak a second/foreign language. These learners may be good at learning other skills but, when it comes to learning to speak another language, they claim to have a 'mental block' against it (Horwitz, 1986).

Learning a language itself is "a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition" because it directly threatens an individual's 'self-concept' and world-view (Guiora, 1983 in Horwitz, 1986). Language anxiety as a combination of other anxieties that create a separate form of anxiety intrinsic to language learning (Horwitz, 1986).

The Japanese Public Speaking Anxiety

 Japanese students tend to be self-critical, blaming themselves for their failures more than they admire themselves for their successes (Kurman, J., Yoshihara-Tanaka, C., & Elkoshi, T.2003). A self-effacing attributional style in turn is known to be negatively related to a number of personality traits, such as self-esteem, and positively related to others, including trait social anxiety (Leary &Kowalski, 1995). Anxiety in general is known to be detrimental to performance on tasks that require attention and deliberate effort (Roccas & Brewer, 2002) such as learning a foreign language or speaking in public. They do not seem to mind very much being negatively evaluated for other types of classroom performance such as poor attendance. Furthermore, some students will accept the certainty of negative evaluation in the form of bad grades for poor attendance or class participation rather than risk the possibility of being negatively evaluated or laughed at by their peers for making a mistake in public.

Students are also concerned about standing out and appearing to show off their abilities. One who displays one's knowledge is regarded in Japan as immodest, and immodesty is a negative behavior in Japan. Students' self-presentation is apparently internalized between the second and fifth years of primary school (Yoshida, Kojo, & Kaku, 1982, cited in Kurman, 2001). Students are caught in a double bind: if they make a mistake, they may face the embarrassment and if they answer correctly, they become intentionally prevented from taking part in the activities of their group. This also indicates a significant degree of discomfort at judging peers being common in the group as a whole in Japan. Such discomfort may be a result of lack of confidence or experience in rating peers, or the stress caused by fear of hurting, or being hurt by, classmates (Wen & Tsai, 2006; Nigel & Pope, 2005). Power relations are also a factor, as students often dislike having power over their classmates or peers exercising power over them (Liu & Carless, 2006). As a result, many students prefer to remain silent in the English classroom where oral productive communication is the central concern and learners are expected to participate actively in class. Teachers tend to reduce the performance pressure that many Japanese students experience simply by not asking them to "perform" English in front of the typically large classes.

McKay (2003) states that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) may not fit in straightforwardly with Asian educational culture. A number of studies have compared the communicative behavior of Japanese with those of other cultures. Ishii (1984) pointed out that Japanese are relatively quiet and reserved, and expect listeners to read their minds. Japanese speak less compared with Americans (Geatz, Ishii, & Kropf, 1990), and show less self-disclosure (Barnlund, 1975, 1989). Niikura (1999) argues that the assertiveness of Japanese was the lowest when compared with Malaysians, Filipinos, and Americans. Iwawaki, Eysenck, and Eysenck (1977) also observed that Japanese are more introverted than British people. In classrooms, Japanese students are sometimes characterized as passive, introverted, unmotivated, inactive and unresponsive (Hadley and Evans, 2001; King, 2005).

A Brief Overview of the Institutional Context

Committed to teaching and the advancement of knowledge, national universities provide the highest standards of excellence in higher education, foster intellectual and personal development, and stimulate meaningful research and services to humankind. In general, national universities attract the best students, faculty, and staff. They prepare students to be scientists and decision makers, articulate and principled, innovative and confident, and able to think critically with sound reasoning ability. Furthermore, national universities in Japan are research-intensive institutions where the faculty discovery enhances learning and prepares students to compete in a knowledge-based society and encourage and assist graduate students in applying for nationally recognized scholarships and funded research opportunities. Thus, Japanese graduates of national universities can produce research results that can contribute to the international research literature in overseas.

Ehime University is a Japanese national university in Matsuyama which has the biggest number of students in Shikoku region. The university was established in May 1949 as one of the many national

universities which were established by the Japanese government in the reformation of the education system after the defeat of the World War II. The English Education Centre was inaugurated in April 2001 and provides a range of English language courses for students at Ehime University. Given the severe competition for admission to Ehime University, everyone who is accepted into a national university in Japan has a high level of scholastic ability, intelligence, perseverance, and capacity for effort, qualities much valued in leadership positions in both national and private sectors. The view that these and other relevant qualities also can be developed and identified in other ways, places, and stages of life is simply not part of the Japanese tradition, but there is something missing. How can students see more meaning in learning English and think beyond the tasks at hand? How can they become motivated? Even at university level in small group discussions, for instance, some learners might feel anxious for fear of negative evaluation from their peers, possibly resulting in being quiet and reticent, contrary to their initial intention to participate. Such psychological dilemma of ESL learners between willingness to speak up in the classroom and fear of losing their self-esteem in front of others seems to be a phenomenon in foreign language classroom settings in Japan.

Speaking Course Structure

The 213 first grade students were divided into nine classes and the course ran once a week for one 90-minute class for each class over a fifteen-week semester. The course aim is for students to express their ideas clearly and concisely, and to participate actively in conversations and discussions.

One of the requirements for passing the course was that students had to attend 80% of the classes, participate in class activities, and successfully complete the course with a final exam.

Diagnosing student needs

This research divides L2 speaking problem in Japan into two parts (figure 2).First part is linguistic and the second is psychological.
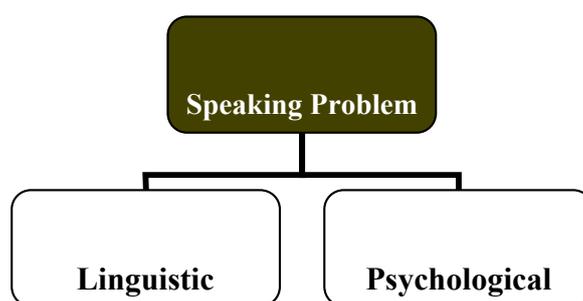
Figure 2

Breaking the problem into manageable parts

The speaking linguistic problem lies in the slowness of speech, which results from separating words as if they were syllables. English is approached as if it were a random collection of individual words, each word given the same stress, rather than an organized pattern of words grouped as phrases. Physical problems of pronunciation result from differences between the two languages in lip and tongue movement and breathing control. Most students who have not had good training on pronunciation justify their pronunciation by substituting close-sounding Japanese sounds that they are accustomed to using for new and discrete English sounds.

Although Japanese students may study English for many years, they often have a hard time with English articles. The articles, such as "a" and "the" not only do not exist in the Japanese language, but are also function words, which mean that they do not contain any meaning and are necessary for functional purposes. Therefore, Japanese students often cannot hear them while they are listening to English speech. This makes it hard for them to learn English articles. Besides, the rules on when to use the articles are so complicated that even the native English speaker cannot explain them exactly. In Japanese, the final verb in the sentence signals the tense in which that sentence takes place regardless of the verb tenses within the sentence. Therefore, it is hard for them to understand why they need to match all of the verb tenses in a sentence in English.

The students' anxiety symptoms were intense worry, blushing, rubbing the palms, perspiration, staggered voice, reluctance, poor performance in spoken activities, less enthusiasm or unwillingness to speak, less eye-contact, reading from the script while giving a speech. Moreover, some students stated that they try to avoid being exposed to the criticism from other classmates.

Strategies to Cope with Language Anxiety

• **Oral Presentation Methodology: One-minute Weekly Speech Assignment**
Students were required to do an additional 1-minute weekly public speech assignment throughout the semester designed from a combination of Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP) and Self-Disclosure methods once a week for one 90-minute class over a fifteen-week semester.

Exposure and response prevention (ERP) is a method available from behavioral psychologists for managing the anxiety. The one-minute weekly public speech assignment was based on the idea that a therapeutic effect can be achieved as students confront their fears and discontinue their escape response. There are several explanations for how exposure method has worked effectively with the students:

1. First, much of what we learn in life comes from things being paired together, such as public speaking and having people laugh at us. Much of what we unlearn, on the other hand, comes from un-pairing two things. With anxiety, this means un-pairing the fear trigger (public speaking) from the expected outcome (people laughing).
2. The second way that exposure works is through habituation. The more often we are exposed to something, be it good, bad, or otherwise, the less of an emotional reaction we will have.
3. Exposure works by giving the people new correct information about the things they thought were threatening.

Combined with ERP, Self-Disclosure plays an important role in the learning experience and producing positive learning outcomes. Morton (1978) classified self-disclosure in three dimensions: descriptive, evaluative, and topical. Evaluative intimacy pertains to disclosures that judge phenomena (Monsour, 1992) while topical intimacy refers to disclosures regarding sensitive topics (Canary & Cody, 1994; Siegman & Reynolds, 1983). For example, the ability to discuss topics such as animal experimentation, and human cloning signifies a significant bond with another individual. Similar to evaluative intimacy, the interact ant assumes more risk when engaging in communication over controversial topics.

• **Teaching conversational grammar**
The speaking course focused in part on essential concepts of grammar and methods of grammatical analysis. The goals of the course were to bring to the student's awareness the fact that many properties of languages can be described in terms of a limited set of basic concepts, to develop the student's skill in analyzing sentences, using English as an example and to sharpen critical thinking by practicing problem-solving. The course focused on methods of analysis, rather than on memorization of rules. An

additional goal of the course is to overcome any "grammar anxiety" students might have the feeling that grammar is something difficult and mysterious, and only useful for "correcting" writing or speech.

The psychological method implementation

Gradual physical exposure

Stage 1: Students Began classes with the speech by reading out loud what their prepared written speeches while sitting in their seats in the class room.

Stage 2: Students were asked to read out loud their written speeches while standing next to their seats in the class room.

Stage 3: Students were asked to read out loud their written speeches while standing in the teacher position in front of all students in the class room.

Stage 4: Students were asked to memorize their written speeches and deliver speeches while standing in the teacher position in front of all students in the class room using the eye contact and body language.

Feedback Loop inspired by Japanese karaoke

Japanese Karaoke is a form of popular entertainment, originally from Japan, in which recordings of the music but not the words of popular songs are played, so that people can sing the words themselves using a microphone and public address system.

At the start of the semester, students were asked to use microphones to amplify all speeches. Some students admitted to being nervous about using the microphones including students who confessed that they were shy about speaking in class in general. The microphones provided a feedback loop that helped students to monitor themselves and others as speakers and listeners, and behave (individually and together) in ways they felt focused and productive discussions possible. Students were unusually attentive, listening to each other with real care, making extremely thoughtful and increasingly articulate contributions, often building on what others had said, or referring to a previous point.

Assessing Speaking Skills
Ten assessment criteria were used to judge student performance included the following:

1.   Speech development and ideas
2.   Speech value
3.   Audience Response
4.   Answering questions
5.   Voice
6.   Manner
7.   Language
8.   Pronunciation
9.   Speed
10. Time (1 minute)

Speaking Anxiety Management

The combination of Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP) and Self-Disclosure methods was implemented to manage students speaking anxiety at all the three stages of language learning: input, processing and output.

Input

Krashen (1985), considering input as a basic stage of language learning, asserted in his 'Input Hypothesis' that "speech cannot be taught directly but emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input".

What causes incomprehensibility is learners' 'affective filter', i.e. anxiety or lack of confidence and this prevents utilizing fully the comprehensible input. For successful language acquisition, a learner's affective filter needs to be lower, otherwise a tense, nervous or bored learner may 'filter out' input, making it unavailable for acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). 'Affective filter' at the input stage may reduce the effectiveness of input by restricting the anxious students' ability to pay full attention to what their instructors say and reduce their ability to represent input internally (Tobias, 1977 in Onwuegbuzie ., 2000). Input anxiety is more likely to cause miscomprehension of the message sent by the interlocutors, which may lead to the loss of successful communication and an increased level of anxiety.

The combination of ERP and Self-Disclosure methods provided an environment for bolstering the learner's self-confidence by being under the spotlight in the classroom for a minute every week where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language. In addition, interactive speaking activities were provided for students to express themselves and understand the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance. Communicative language teaching was based on real-life situations that require communication. Students were encouraged in class to collaborate and work in randomly-matched pairs in every class to achieve goals or to complete tasks included the following activities

1. Discussions
2. Role Play
3. Simulations
4. Information Gap
5. Brainstorming
6. Interviews
7. Story Completion
8. Picture Describing and find the Difference

Processing

Anxiety at the processing stage, called processing anxiety, refers to the "apprehension students experience when performing cognitive operations on new information" (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). The Feedback Loop provided as a result of using microphones to deliver speeches in addition to having a weekly critical thinking assignment with Gradual physical exposure helped divide the speaking complex task into more manageable components. Students were able to prepare their speeches choose words, practice pronouncing them, and stringing them together with the appropriate grammatical markers at home in a week time frame before delivering them in class.

Output

Anxiety while communicating in the target language is more likely to appear at the output stage, which entirely depends upon the successful completion of the previous stages: input, and processing. Anxiety at the output stage refers to learners' nervousness or fear experienced when required to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

As a result of using the psychological methods, linguistic framework and grammatical support, students were able to express their thoughts in English in a positive manner and to speak English with natural pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm. In addition, they become able to express in English their thoughts regarding familiar topics and things of interest and give their opinions about topics of social significance

Class Evaluation

The Survey (available in the Appendix) was used for class evaluation. All participating students were asked to respond to the survey. The questionnaire contains 6 items measuring reaction to teaching and learning in class. Participants were asked to rate the extent from which they think with each item on a four point Likert-type scale ranging from "very useful" to "not useful". Study participants checked the place on the scale that best reflected their feelings about the item. Scores were then computed .The survey questionnaires were administered to all participant students during the tenth week of the speaking course   (figures 3,4,5,6,7,8).

Results
Results are reported under four categories: achieving goals, most valuable aspects, recommendations for improvement, and the overall effectiveness of the course(Collection rate: 87%).

Grading scale:

- Excellent: 4
- Good: 3
- Not good: 2
- Poor: 1

Survey Questions

1. How do you describe your study load out of the classroom

- Excellent:23.58%
- Good: 66.94%
- Not good: 7.95%
- Poor: 2%
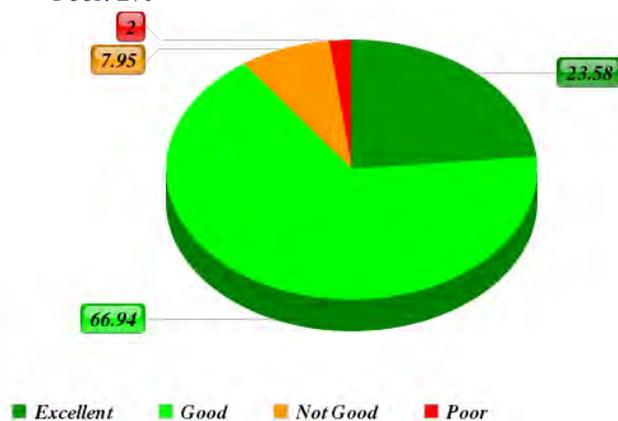
Figure 3

Student feedback on the course

2.   How would you rate your overall understanding for teaching instructions?

- Excellent:21.70%
- Good: 70%
- Not good: 7%
- Poor: 1.3%
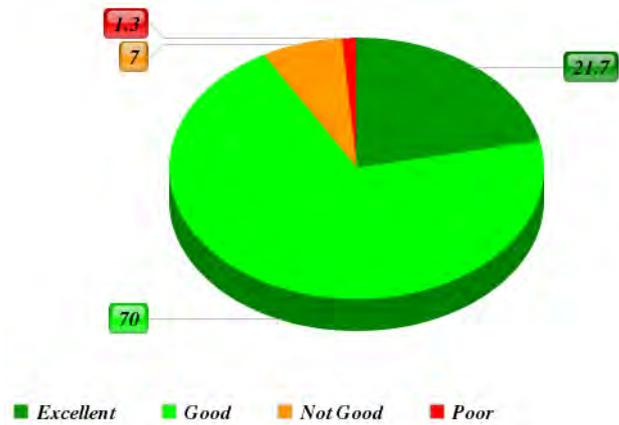
Figure 4

Student feedback on the course

3.   The usage of materials and teaching effectiveness?

- Excellent: 24%
- Good: 74%
- Not good: 2%
- Poor: 0%
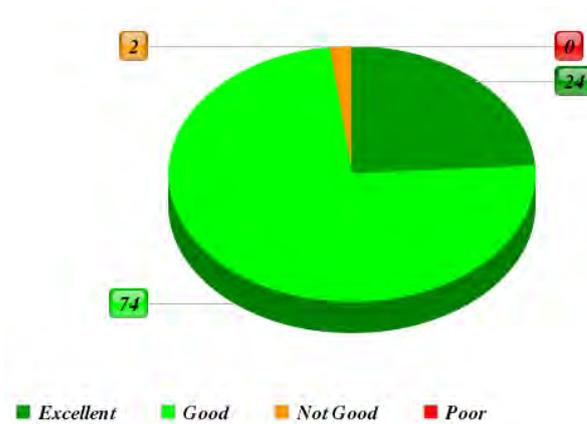
Figure 5

Student feedback on the course

4.   Chances of asking questions and expressing opinions?

- Excellent: 50%
- Good: 46%
- Not good: 3%

• Poor: 1%

Figure 6

Student feedback on the course

5. Class structure and time management?
• Excellent: 44%
• Good: 53%
• Not good: 2%
• Poor: 1%

Figure 7

Student feedback on the course

6. Were the content of this class and the level appropriate for you?
• Excellent: 18%
• Good: 66%
• Not good: 12%
• Poor: 4%
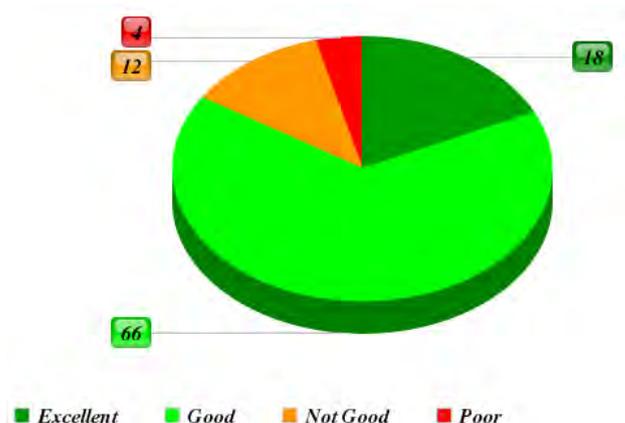
Figure8

Student feedback on the course

The comments on the lecture are as follows:

- I think my language capabilities have been increased.
- I listened to other students speaking better than me and that made me study English every day.
- If I study hard in this class my English will be better
- I think communication between students become better because of this class
- Now I have the courage to express my self in public because I can speak in front of people

The suggestions from the students are as follows:

- I would like to study reading and writing and listening along with speaking in the same class.
- No Japanese please
- I would like to talk to the teacher more

Conclusion

Western teachers have an important role in developing learners' self concept in Japan. This if students know they will be performing in front of an audience, there could be a marked improvement in motivation and classroom performance. Psychological support is necessary to stimulate Japanese students to communicate more actively along with a curriculum that can address the needs of Japanese students. The presence of a real audience with a built-in information gap would have an impact on Japanese students in terms of motivation and effort to communicate in English.

Making public speech presentations in English highlighted both the importance of grammatical competence (syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary) and strategic competence (gesture, body language, appropriate expressions). Learners experienced less anxiety and had more confidence in talking to each other and the instructor in L2. The speeches also show that they developed their critical skills, vocabulary and sentence structure in order to make impressive speeches with content.

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The Effect of Recast Timing on EFL Error Correction

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Abstract

The present study conducted the effect of recast timing on EFL error correction. The subjects are all Iranian female Persian-speaking of Kish Institute (Pasdaran Branch). They were all considered to be at the elementary level according to a homogeneity test given. The subjects are from 17 to 24. Sixty students were selected. There are experimental group and control group. All subjects' mother tongue is Farsi. The subjects are all female. The subjects are a number of Kish Institute students. The researcher is not the teacher of the classes but she observes the classes randomly each week.

Results supported the effect of recast timing in error correction on learners' speaking skill.

Instrumentation

In order to homogenize the participants in terms of their language proficiency, NELSON proficiency test was given to them before the treatment. The test is a NELSON elementary test. This test has been showed to many teachers in Kish Institute and has been found a reliable and valid test. After getting pre test and post test two means are achieved in order to compare these two means the researcher used a t-test.

Key words: recast, uptake, EFL

Introduction

Undoubtedly, feedback accounts for one of the important features in language teaching. According to Ur (1996), feedback is information given to the learner about his/her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance. Chastain (1988) believes that the type of feedback language authors and teachers provide students reflects their view of language and their objectives. If they view language as a perfectible grammatical system, they focus students' attention primarily on language, and they correct all the errors the students make when they speak it. If they view language as a functional communicative system, they focus the students' attention on meaning, and they respond to the content and the comprehensibility of what the student say.

Lyster & Ranta (1997) proposed six different types of feedback which   recast is one of them.

Feedback accounts for one of the important features in language teaching. There are various types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learners' errors. Here there are six of them which are presented by Lyster and Ranta(1997):

1. **Explicit correction**: teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect.

S.I go to school yesterday.

T. No, You should say ,I went to school yesterday.

2. **Elicitation:** teacher directly elicits a reformulation from students by asking questions such as "How do we say that in English?" or by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or by asking students to reformulate their utterance.

 S.I go to school yesterday.

T.I…..(pause) to school yesterday.

S.I went to school yesterday.

3. **Metalinguistic clues**: teacher provides comments, information or questions related to the well-formed ness of the student's utterance.

S. My father is sick, she is very kind.

T. Father is feminine?

S. Sorry, he is very kind.

4. **Clarification request**: teacher uses phrases such as "pardon?", "I don't understand".

S.I go to school yesterday.

T. Pardon? What do you mean I go to school yesterday?

S.I went to school yesterday.

5. **Repetition:** teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

S.I go to school yesterday.

T.I go(emphasize) to school yesterday?

S.I went to school yesterday.

Definition of Recast

According to Lyster & Ranta (1997) recasts involve the teacher's   reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus the error. Among corrective feedback types, recasts have received the most attention from researchers. There are several reasons why recasts have received so much attention from researchers.

   Recast is a type of corrective feedback that is generally defined as "involving the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46).

   Examples (from Ellis & Sheen, 2006):

E_1 T: Where you were in school?

S: Yes, I stand in first row.

T: You stood in the first row? (Recast)

S: Yes, in the first row, and sit, ah, sat the first row.

E_2 S: Korean is more faster.

T: Is faster. (Recast)   S: Is faster than English.

Method

   The main objective of this study is to determine whether recast timing has an impact on EFL learners' speaking skill. Researches on the recast timing enable teachers to choose the proper time which help the students to correct their errors, and this study aims at showing the significant relationship between recast timing and error correction.

Subjects

   The subjects are all Iranian female Persian-speaking of Kish Institute (Pasdaran Branch). They were all considered to be at the elementary level according to a homogeneity test given. The subjects are from 17 to 24. Sixty students were selected. There are one experimental group and one control group.

Procedure

In order to have two homogenous groups, the homogeneity test was administered on the first session. The subjects were given thirty minutes to complete the test. The researcher explained that they would get one point for each correct answer, and they would not be penalized for the wrong answers. The sixty students were divided into two groups. There are one experimental group and one control group. Our procedure consists of three separate parts: pretest, treatment, and then post test. In order to meet the inter-rater reliability of scores, the rater judged the students speaking skill three times. The researcher in this study prepared a scale and according to this scale, the speaking skill is divided to four sections: fluency, accuracy   (structure, vocabulary, pronunciation). The rater gave the scores out of 20 and at the end the researcher took the average of these scores. In the experimental group, the teacher should give delayed recast to the learners' errors and in the control group; the teacher should give immediate recast to their errors as it was done traditionally.

Statements of Problem

There are two moments when teachers may choose to deal with correction:

  (1) Teachers may correct learners immediately after the error.
  (2) Teachers may decide to delay correction until after an activity is completed which is called delayed feedback.

There is a research question in this study:

Is there any significant difference between the error correction of learners after immediate recast and delayed recast?

The main objective of this study is to determine whether recast timing has an impact on EFL learners' errors correction. To that end, the following null hypothesis is presented.

HO: There is no statistically significant relationship between immediate recast timing and delayed recast timing.

Literature review:

Bexi Perdomo (2006) has published many articles on EFL in Venezuela since 2006; she has conducted the effectiveness of oral recast in EFL classroom. The study was held for thirty-eight college students and a female teacher. The students have to learn the right use of the auxiliary verb 'to have",

and result supported the claim of her study (The effectiveness of recast compared to explicit negative feedback).Therefore, she recommended the use of recast in college EFL classes.

Braidi(2002): A response was coded as a recast if it incorporated the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect NNS utterance and also change and corrected the utterance in some way.

Long (2006): A corrective recast may be defined as a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object.

Sheen (2006): A recast consists of the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance that contains at least one error within the context of a communication activity in the classroom.

Results

Standardizing Nelson Proficiency Test

To have four homogenous groups participating in the study, Nelson test was used as proficiency test in this study. This test included 50 multiple choice questions. The test was given to 66 participants to assess their English proficiency. The following table shows the summary of the item analysis for standardizing Nelson Test. As it is known the items with Ifs that fall in range between 0.30 and 0.70 are usually considered acceptable and with the IDs upper than 0.30 are good items. As it is shown in table 4.1 no item was omitted.

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (FarazandehFinal.sta)							
	Valid N	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Variance	Std.Dev.	Standard Error
NELSON	66	31.95	33.00	15.00	44.00	55.92	7.48	0.92

As data shows in table 4.2 the mean of the final scores of 66 participants in Nelson Test was 31.95, the standard deviation was 7.48, and the standard error was 0.92. So, the participants were selected within one SD above and below the mean.

X±1SD=31.95±7.48=39.43,24.47

After achieving two homogeneous groups, the pretest was used in order to compare the results with the results of posttest to find out the degree of improvement in students' speaking skill.

The related descriptive data computed for the pre-test of the experimental and control group is presented in Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics of the Pre-test

Groups	Experimental	Control
X	14.75	14.14
S	3.47	3.27
S	1.86	1.81
N	30	30

In order to be sure that there is inter-rater reliability of scores in the pre-test, the researcher calculated the reliability of the three sets of scores which were given by the rater.

The inter-rater Reliability of Scores in Pre-test

Groups	Experimental	Control
$R_{1,2}$	0.85	0.87
$R_{1,3}$	0.91	0.84
$R_{2,3}$	0.89	0.86

As the result shows, there is a high degree of agreement between the scores of judges.

The related descriptive data computed from the posttest of two groups are presented in the following

table.

Descriptive Statistics of the Post-test

Groups	Experimental	Control
X	17	15.59
S	3.17	2.18
S	1.78	1.48
N	30	30

The statistics which was done for pre-test was again calculated for the posttest's inter-rater
reliability of scores.

The inter-rater Reliability of Scores in Post-test

Groups	Experimental	Control
$R_{1,2}$	0.92	0.93
$R_{1,3}$	0.89	0.87
$R_{2,3}$	0.91	0.87

To test the null hypothesis that there was no statistically significant difference between the average
performances of the subjects in two groups, a t-test was run. Since the researcher was concerned with
mere difference, a

Two- tailed test was used. The probability level chosen to reject the null hypothesis was 5 chances out
of 100 (0.05 probability level).

To arrive at the desired answer, the t-test formula was employed and the following result was
obtained:

t=3.36

Considering that a t value of 3.36 exceeded the t-critical value of 2.000 for 58 degree of freedom, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.05 level of significance.

As it was proved that there was a significant difference between the average performances of the subjects on the posttest, the researcher came up with a new hypothesis, i.e., the immediate recast does not improve speaking skill more than delayed recast.

Discussion

As the data analysis indicates, there is a significant difference between the average performance of the subjects in control group with immediate recast and experimental group with delayed recast.

The statistics shows the speaking skill of those learners who received delayed recast has been improved in contrast to those learners who received immediate recast.
Since it has proved that the immediate error correction of learners directly has influence on their feelings, so it is suggested by the researcher to avoid giving feedback on learners' errors immediately. This way of correction may cause debilitative anxiety to learners and it decreases their learning level.

Suggestions for Further Studies

In this research the researcher conducted her research only on elementary level with average age of 17 to 24 so it can be tested on other proficiency levels and different ages. The skill which was considered in this study was speaking so it can be conducted for other skills as well.

The subjects of this study were all female learners with their special feelings and characteristics, therefore; it is possible to conduct the same study on male subjects.

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The impact of classroom management in acquiring ESL in

Jordanian schools.

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes the role of learning English as a second language (ESL) in schools in Jordan. The Results Based Management (RBM) approach was selected to describe the input, management model, and the expected results in terms of output, outcome, and impact within predetermined strategic directions and educational policies. A survey of student records in the last year of high school graduates from a school was carried out to form the input for this model.

Keywords: RBM, ESL , Classroom management, Schools.

INTRODUCTION

English is recognized as the dominating language in the world. The dominance of English is clearly indicated in popular culture, and has become the main language of popular music, advertising, satellite broadcasting, home computers, and video games, it is the language of international airtraffic communication. It is used so extensively and deemed to be so important in the academic scientific and technoligical sectors that over 80 percent of all information is stored in electronic retrieval systems in English. More over internet is offers over 90 percent of its information in English (Chang, 2006). In arenas devoted to multilingualism and to the preservation of the wealth and variety of language in the world, criticism is commonly made of the aggressive expansion of English at the cost of other language, which has prompted some scholars to use the labels killer language and tyrannosaurus rex to refer to it (Liurda, 2004).

English today has especial status in at least 70 or so countries and is the most widely taught foreign language in over 100 other countries. In many of these countries, English also serves as the vehicular language in the general curriculum, and at times in the primary school (Ghosen, 2004).

Advances in language teaching stem from the independent efforts of teachers in their own classroom. This independence is not brought about by imposing fixed ideas or promoting fashionable formulas. It can occur where teachers, individually or collectively explore principles and experiment with techniques (Freman, 2007). Leeser (2004) pointed out that one of the challenges in content-based instruction in second language classrooms is how to focus on form in a way that is both effective and appropriate. Most researchers have tended to focus on methods and techniques to use in the classroom or on the analysis of the linguistic demands of the content areas. Much less attention has been paid to researching the process of co planning and co-teaching and to supporting the evolution of the partnership between ESL and content teachers (Davison, 2006). Attempts to explore the attributions that learners make in relation to teachers' gestures, focusing thus on the non-verbal discourse of the

language classroom have lead to suggest that one of the crucial things that learners learn in a language classroom is how to interpret teachers' gestures in conjunction with their verbal input in order to learn successfully (Sime, 2006).

Current foreign and second language methodologies have shifted from traditional teacher – centered instruction, to learner- centered classroom, where learning, learner and purposes, and meaningful processes of communication are integrated (Lacorte, 2005). Teachers are primarily responsible for creating and maintaining classroom communication competence, which based on an understanding that opportunities for learning are jointly constructed but primarily determined by the teacher (Walsh, 2003). Research of the past 20 years strongly suggests that interaction is a key to successful second language learning, classroom interaction (Ghosen, 2004). It has been argued that knowledge is most effectively constructed through dialogue arising from jointly undertaken inquiry. The assumption is that active verbal engagement with a topic of interest will help students to transition from everyday's to scientific concepts and master the modes of language use associated with schooling (Haneda &Wells, 2008).

Therefore, this paper aims at discussing the effect of teacher's method in managing the English language (EL) class on students' acquisition at Jordanian schools where class management is considered one of the general fundamentals that a qualified teacher should possess and which in return desired educational goals can be achieved.

Consequently, class management concept is a mutual effort between teacher and students in order to achieve planned goals by focus on:

-The role of student differences such as attitudes and motivation, aptitude, personality, gender, age, etc., and the characteristics of the environment in second language acquisition (English). There are two primary individual difference variables involved in learning language, ability and motivation, the student with higher levels of ability will tend to be more successful at learning the language than students less endowed. Similarly, students with higher levels of motivation will do better than students with lower levels (Gardner, 2006).

-The role of teacher in understands, expect, and feel comfort with the natural responses of students through interaction. And creating class environment where students feel safe, secure, and sense of belonging which help in reduce fear and anxiety. In addition to structure classroom activities and use strategies to support language acquisition and comprehension of classroom activities (Curran, 2003), and use the multimedia application which provide teachers and learners with effective means of language acquisition in the classroom. (Tschirner, 2001).

The importance of this paper stems from the importance of class management in general regardless of the subject being taught, as teaching and learning process is of an interaction peculiarity which supposed to be positive in order to achieve goals. This process requires suitable conditions that class management has to offer. The importance stems also from that English language is taught all over Jordanian schools; public and private from grade 1 to grade 12 as a second language, and it is significant in the Jordanian society as well regarding job requirements which English language has become one of its basics. So, it is essential to study factors that affect EL acquisition such as classroom management.

RESULTS BASED MANAGEMENT (RBM)

It is said that if you do not know where you are going, any road will take you there. This lack of direction is what results-based management (RBM) is supposed to avoid. It is about choosing a direction and destination first, deciding on the route and intermediary stops required to get there, checking progress against a map and making course adjustments as required in order to realize the desired objectives.

Results-based management (RBM) is an approach that seeks to focus efforts and resources on the expected results of a project, program or organization. RBM builds on traditional management approaches such as management by objectives or activities, but shifts the emphasis from inputs and activities to results. Definition of the terms used in RBM approach is given in Table 1. This approach can be applied to almost any project (CIDA, 1999 ; Resheidat, 1997).

RBM can mean different things to different people. A simple explanation is that RBM is the way an organization [or sector institutions] is motivated and applies processes and resources to achieve targeted results. Results refer to outcomes and intermediate outcomes that convey benefits to the community. Results also encompass the service outputs that make those outcomes possible [such as trained students and trained teachers]. The term 'results' can also refer to internal outputs such as services provided by one part of the organization for use by another. The key issue is that results differ from 'activities' or 'functions'. Many people when asked what they produce [services] describe what they do [activities]. RBM became a central aspect within the UN system and a global trend among International Organizations such as the World Bank, United Nations Development Program (UNDP), and Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).

RBM has been on UNESCO's agenda for several years and has been one of the main items of the Organization's reform process. This process is not a mere technical one as it involves a radical shift in the way we conceive interventions and in our approach to our work, with an increased emphasis on partnership, accountability and transparency for the achievement of well-identified expected results, implying changes in the very working culture of the organization. While from an institutional point of view, the basic purposes of RBM systems are to generate and use performance information for accountability reporting to external stakeholders and for decision-making, actually the first benefiting from the implementation of the RBM approach are the managers themselves. They will have much more control on the activities they are responsible for, be in a better position to take well-informed decisions, be able to learn from their successes or failures and to share this experience with their colleagues and stakeholders. The RBM approach is to be applied to all organizational units and programs, including extra budgetary projects. Each of them is expected to define anticipated results for their own work, contributing to achieving the overall expected result(s) defined for the organization. The integration of RBM in the implementation of large-scale organizational reforms can be seen as important as the application of RBM in small and definitive projects.

Considering classroom management as a target program or an educational project where the stakeholders of this project exchange the know-how, services, sustainability and maintaining the on-going momentum, requires the implementation of results-based management approach.

Table 1: Summary of RBM Terminology.

Input	The human, organizational and physical resources.
Activity	Action to be undertaken
Output	A short-term developmental results
Outcome	A medium-term developmental results
Impact	A long-term developmental results
Goal	Aim to be reached.
Purpose	The project objective to be achieved with the life of the project and which can be attributed to activities, outputs and outcomes.
Assumptions	Conditions that influence the achievement of or lack thereof result. Assumptions are issues over which the project planners and managers have generally little control. Yet, assumptions are necessary conditions for the project to perform. They represent the major risks and uncertainties.
Indicators	An indicator is "a pointer, measurement, a number, a fact, and opinion, or a perception that points at a specific condition or situation and measures changes in that condition or situation over time .Indicators may be either quantitative or qualitative in nature and seek to measure progress towards achieving results.
Risks	Risks indicate the probability that the assumptions will not hold true.

The following modules (Prince George's County Public Schools) may assist teachers in becoming proficient in the area of classroom management .

1. Establishing a Positive Climate**.**

"When students feel safe, secure, and are engaged, learning increases. Learning decreases when students feel threatened or unchallenged " :

-Promote and Maintain High Expectations

-Know Your Students.

-Engage All Students in the Learning Process

2. Organizing Your Classroom.

"In organizing your classroom, consider ways in which you can make students feel welcome, encourage involvement, and allows for learning experiences in a multitude of arrangements" :

-Ensure Furniture Arrangement Promotes Learning Opportunities

-Have a Seating Chart

-Maintain Plans for Materials and Assignment Management

-Create Bulletin Boards that Foster Learning

3. Developing Rules, Routines, and Procedures**.**

"It is critical for an effective teacher to have rules and procedures in place for students and who fully understand the working expectations. Class rules should be aligned with both the school's plan and the code of student conduct":

-Create and Communicate (Verbally and in Writing) Fair Expectations

-Develop Routines and Procedures for Tasks that Occur Regularly

-Set Up a System of Specific Consequences and Rewards

4. Assigning and Managing Work**.**

"Assignments should be based on instructional objectives and provide opportunities for students to extend, refine, or rehearse the skills or content of the lesson. The teacher must have a system for providing meaningful and relevant assignments and managing their work":

-Promote Student Responsibility and Accountability to Learning

-Develop and Implement a Fair and Consistent Grading Process

5. Preparing for Instruction.

"When students are actively engaged in learning, they are focused on the task and are involved with the material, so fewer behavior problems exist. Therefore, an effective teacher has prepared meaningful lessons that involve students for every minute of class time":

-Plan for Long-range Units and Daily Instruction

-Develop Plans that Include Best Practices for Instructional Delivery

6. Managing Behavior.

"To manage behavior in the classroom, effective teachers use anticipatory responses to reduce misbehaviors and are consistent in their delivery of consequences":

-Be Proactive

-Be Consistent

7. Maintaining Momentum**.**

"As the year progresses, stay focused on successes and maintain the momentum of continuous improvement **":**

-Build a Culture of Excellence

-Reflect and Seek Out Support

-Take Care of Yourself

Further e-learning can be found in the web site http://www.pgcps.org/~elc/momentum.htm

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: CASE STUDY

We have selected one school for this study: Yarmouk Model School. This school is housed and run by Yarmouk University in Irbid, Jordan. We anticipated that this school is unintentionally applying classroom management and always hiring qualified and well trained teachers. Students enroll in the school from the first grade till grade 12. It is a mixed school for boys and girls. The student population is about 2100 students. Every year 120 -130 students graduate from the 12th grade and sit for the general examination that is the gate for being admitted to the university or college education.

About The School:

No. of highly qualified teachers = 134, Supporting staff = 21

Facilities**:** Modern Library, Modern Chemistry, Physics and Biology laboratories, Educational studio, modern video and lecture hall, indoor and outdoor gymnasiums, workshops, health clinic, etc.

Incentives: Annual Best student award, Student Conferences, Talent Competitions

Further information could be found in the web site at

http://portal.yu.edu.jo/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=134&Itemid=292

Because of the private act, we were not able to get the records of students from the school or from the Directorate of Education in Irbid. Accordingly, we have contacted the parents of the students who were enrolled in the school and completed their secondary education and enrolled in universities. A trace study for those graduates has been extended even beyond that to working careers or higher education in different fields.

Figure 1 shows the components of RBM approach and will be described as follows:

Input	Classrooms, Teaching aids, Teachers and Students
Activities	Teaching, self learning, motivation by teachers, competitive awards, etc.
Results	Output as shown in Table 2.
	Outcome will be shown later after the results
	Impact will be shown later after the results
Management	School management, Classroom management
Monitoring	The progress of students is monitored by teachers, principals and parents
Indicators	Smart Indicators: **S**pecific**,** Measurable, **A**ttainable**,** Relevant**,** and Trackable
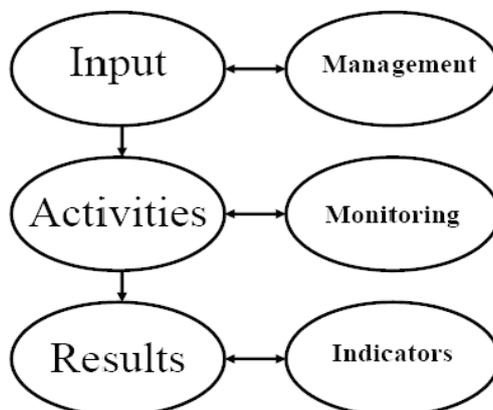
Figure 1: RBM Components

Statistics for the school year 2007/2008 :

Total number of students = 2129 and distributed as follows:

Kindergarten   520

Primary   524

Secondary   959

12th Grade   126

Table 2: Distribution of grades in the general examination run by the Ministry of Education.

Range of grades	90.0 – 99.9	80.0 – 89.0	70.0 – 79.9	60.0 – 69.9	50.0 – 59.9	< 50.0
Grading	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Pass	Fail
Number of students	33	54	18	11	1	9
%	26.19	42.85	14.28	8.73	0.79	7.14
*English grade %	97	91	86	73	68	-
* Records are based on the average of the group						

TRACE STUDY

The authors have carried out a trace study for the graduates of the Model School by direct personal contacts with the graduates and/or with their parents. This limited study dealt with 45 students whom have graduated from Yarmouk Modern School since 15 years until now and acquired 85 and above in English language at the general exam .

The students were enrolled in the university education as shown in Table 3. Because the majority of this sample pursued higher studies beyond the Bachelor's Degree, they sat for the test of English as a foreign language TOEFL. They have gained excellent records.

Table 3: Distribution of College Enrollment and TOEFL Scores

College	Medicine	Engineering	Pharmacy	Sciences	Economy	Other
Number	12	8	7	10	1	7
TOEFL	80-99 out of 120					NA

Another indicator about the proficiency of students in English, they sat for English examination run by the university. Those who pass the examination are exempted from the first course in English language. Our study showed that all students in the sample had passed this Examination.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

We will start discussing the results considering the inputs, monitoring, how to measure the results, the level of risk. We have to focus on two objectives:

• School Management

• Classroom Management

Classroom management stems from the overall school management. These two objectives are interrelated. In other words, they are like twins. Good school management at the planning level highly influences the performance of the classroom management. However, the risk level may be considered as a medium one for the school management is of a low level.

For the short tem results is measured by the performance of students who sat for the general examination run by the ministry of education. The achievement of students as shown for example in Table 1 indicates the high level of both school and classroom management. The passing average is about 93 % as compared to about 65 % for all students in Jordan. For English performance is also reached an excellent level.

Similar results were also reached for the cohorts of students in previous school academic years. These results were not included in this paper because of space limitations. On the other hand, as far the trace study is concerned, the English proficiency was also reached an excellent level whether at the high school or at the university levels. The outcomes of the trace study on the medium term are very obvious.

For this school, the set of outcomes accumulated over the years lead to the "Impact" on the students, their career, and their families and in turn on the country. It is no wonder that this school was rated as number one in the whole country.

In order to maintain this highly recognized performance of the Model School, incentives for school administration and teachers must be considered. The school environment has always stimulated parents to encourage students to enroll in it.

The school non curricula activities such as annual conferences and students awards maybe considered as significant milestones for all stakeholders; namely, the university, the school, parents and students.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions may be drawn from this study:

1. Classroom management plays a major role in the high school education.
2. School management must be the umbrella of classroom management.
3. Students participation and self learning is vital for motivating students towards learning
4. English language as a second language at the school level and as a language of instruction at the university level was an important indicator for the high scores achieved by students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The MEXT's Action Plan: Theoretical and Practical Hazards

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Abstract

This paper explores the collective voice of the key stakeholders directly, with a focus on the MEXT's 2003 Action Plan to Cultivate 'Japanese with English Abilities' (APCJEA). Analysis of the research interviews identified the key challenges, which can be divided into the following three categories; (1) discontinuity in EFL policy across diverse schooling levels, (2) gaps between SELHI and Non-SELHI schools and (3) APCJEA's unrealistic set-up goals. This paper constitutes a discussion of these issues.

Introduction

The Action Plan to Cultivate 'Japanese with English Abilities' (APCJEA) commenced in 2003 with the aim of enabling English learners in Japan to be confident with high-level English communication skills. This scheme, implemented by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology-Japan (known as MEXT), appeared to have had a considerable impact on the contemporary field of English education in Japan at the very first stage of its five-year period, which ran from April 2003 to March 2008. It may be considered a turning point to break away from the traditional English teaching styles and methods used in schools. APCJEA is an official public innovation of MEXT to transform the educational system, and this can be seen as an exceptionally novel initiation for Japan as it involves explicit aims and objectives based on concrete statistical evidence (Yamada, 2005). In the highly rigid Japanese education system, in which the implementation of the EFL communicative language teaching reform has been a casualty in the past (O'Donnell, 2005, cited in Sage, 2007), this breakthrough might have resulted in reshaping the mindsets of EFL teachers. However, the outcomes of the APCJEA campaign, which officially came to an end on 31 March 2008, should be reviewed and re-examined carefully with regard to the insights and reflections of those parties involved in its operation.

The theory and philosophy underpinning this project were touched upon in *Rudiments of Component Oral Interaction: Corresponding to the Latest Innovations Proposed by Japan's Ministry of Education* (Hasegawa, 2005). The study reported here attempted to build upon this previous article, by discovering the characteristic elements which have emerged at the conclusion of APCJEA's five-year implementation period. Several current studies of the influence of APCJEA have identified both achievements and negative elements in its their theory and practice Kashihara, 2008; Okuno, 2007). This study explored the collective voice of the key stakeholders directly, with a particular focus on the challenges of APCJEA. Analysis of the research interviews identified the key challenges, which can be divided into the following three categories; (1) discontinuity in EFL policy across diverse schooling

levels, (2) gaps between SELHI and Non-SELHI schools and (3) APCJEA's unrealistic set-up goals. The following sections constitute a discussion of these issues. Abbreviations for commonly used phrases can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Abbreviations

APCJEA	The Action Plan to Cultivate 'Japanese with English Abilities'
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
GP	Good Practice
IP	Interview Participant
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology-Japan
SELHI	Super English Language High Schools

Research Method

What sets this paper apart from others that have considered the merits of MEXT's reform of English education in Japan is its focus on the directly expressed negative responses of the organisers and other parties involved in APCJEA, from both theoretical and pragmatic perspectives. To best address these issues the interviews were conducted in Japan. Ten interview participants (IPs), including five Japanese EFL school teachers, four university professors, and one stakeholder from MEXT (refer to Table 2), were invited for a semi-structured interview. This was the maximum number of IPs available because of the researcher's limited time in Japan and the excessively orthodox and conservative top-down system characteristic of Japanese bureaucracy.

The interview sought participants' demographic information first and then moved to the main questions, shown in the appendix. The interviews were conducted in the participant's preferred venues. Each interview took approximately 45 minutes and was tape-recorded for the researcher's further investigation. In order to ensure that the interviewees understood the questions clearly, the interviews were conducted and analysed in Japanese and excerpts included in this paper have been translated into English by the researcher. All IPs were informed of their rights to withdraw at any stage from the interview without penalty.

Table 2: Interview Participants (IP)

IP1	University Professor
IP2	High School English Teacher (SELHI)
IP3	High School English Teacher (SELHI)
IP4	High School English Teacher (Non-SELHI)
IP5	University Professor

IP6	University Professor
IP7	High School English Teacher (Non-SELHI)
IP8	MEXT Officer
IP9	High School English Teacher (Non-SELHI)
IP10	University Professor

Challenge 1: Discontinuity in EFL Policy across Diverse Schooling Levels

The first challenge to overcome in the future is the establishment of the sequential EFL study environment from the lower to higher level, especially in the assessment of communication ability. The lack of an oral skills component in the senior high school and university entrance examinations may lead junior high school and senior high-school EFL learners to underestimate their importance and possibly discontinue exercising these skills.

The Japanese education system, especially at high-school level, has traditionally made it very difficult to implement new schemes or trials. IP1 pinpointed that this is possibly due to the large amount of course content taught in high schools, which is dictated by the content covered by the university entrance examination. Comments from two high school teachers expand on this issue:

> There are some students who believe that grammar-focused study leads to successful outcomes on the university entrance examination. And of course there are some parents who do so, too. For example, there are four lessons called 'reading sessions'. But, in fact, three out of the four per week were reading … and a different teacher took over the other lesson as 'reading grammar' [targeting the university entrance examination]. (IP3)

> The university entrance examination does not allow for the assessment of a student with good communication ability in English [which APCJEA promotes] as a highly achieving student. (IP9)

When asked about the introduction of oral communication assessment in English, IP5 commented that this is possible at the level of the high school entrance examination. In fact, there were some high school entrance examinations which included an orally conducted component, following the structure of *Eiken* (one of the most well-known English Proficiency Tests in Japan)   the written part first, followed by the oral communication. However, IP1 pointed out the danger here, citing cases in several prefectures in which organisers are ordinary teachers who have neither experience in organising an oral test nor any criteria on which to base a valid and fair assessment, and that no training session was conducted. At tertiary level, there is very little chance of candidates' oral skills being tested during entrance examinations for the primary reason that there is an excessively high ratio of examinees to examiners.

IP5 and IP10 commented that APCJEA had a powerful effect in transforming the structure of Japan's National Centre Examination for University Admissions (*senta shiken*), which attracts over 500,000 examinees each year and can be taken as the vertex of the standardised education system in Japan (Guest, 2008). The English portion of *senta shiken* excludes direct translation and the type of questions

which tend to be a better measure of examinees' familiarity with their specific format than of their English ability itself; instead, a listening section, which costs approximately 10 million yen to administer each year (IP1), was introduced into the test in 2005 (Guest, 2008). On the other hand, some respondents believed that this was not an outcome of APCJEA, but rather of consistent pressure by The Japan Association of College English Teachers over the past decade (IP1), or perhaps a response to requests from business and industry, or simply introducing improvements to the educational environment as a survival strategy designed to attract students (IP6).

In reality, however, despite the fact that oral communicative competency skills were promoted up to high-school level as part of the APCJEA initiative, compulsory assessment of these skills has not been introduced as part of most university (and high-school) examinations. Although, Carter (2006, p. 29) argues that '… many students will fail to distinguish between examination success and individual learning, because they see them as one and the same thing', the absence of opportunities to have their skills assessed is certainly a de-motivating factor for high school EFL learners, especially those who intend to continue their EFL study at tertiary level. Even if an oral component were established in most entrance examinations in the future, difficulties in measuring oral interaction performance would persist, since these examinations are dominated by judgemental assessment, whereas oral skills are concerned with '… what language ability (knowledge) is and how it can be measured' (Shohamy, 1998, p. 156). Although the quality of the *senta shiken,* for example, has been improved by the inclusion of an increased variety of texts and multi directed tasks, a greater focus on higher-level cognitive skills (that is, knowledge acquired via the study process at school), explicitness of statements, more contextualised knowledge and skills, and a broad range of focused texts and tasks, its overall purpose is clearly not for examinees to be assessed on their capacity to utilise English skills in real-world communicative environments (Guest, 2008). Thus, prior to the introduction of supplemental EFL campaigns such as APCJEA, with its expectation of a drastic reform of EFL education, a re-structure of the current EFL system in Japan in terms of the examination systems should have been undertaken. The EFL system in Japan has never had concrete strategies in place to ensure that EFL learners remain motivated across the various stages of their graduated learning process, and this is something which is beyond the scope of APCJEA.

Challenge 2: Gaps between SELHI and Non-SELHI Schools

It should be highlighted that APCJEA itself does not appear to be cognisant of this lack of cohesion and long-term vision of how EFL programs transition from lower to higher levels in Japan's English language educational environment. This means that its programs are likely to generate only short-term impact and improvement in Japan's EFL environment, and that ongoing benefits cannot be expected. Prime example of the irrational nature of MEXT's strategic long-term planning in terms of APCJEA is SELHI (Super English Language High Schools); MEXT appointed 169 high schools to be SELHIs (refer to *Shingakushuushidouyouryou de motomerareru eigoshidou o yosousuru*). Special financial support was provided for each SELHI-appointed school over a three-year period with the aim of achieving rapid improvement and establishing the innovative EFL program. In return, those SELHI schools were obligated to design and implement their own action plans and publish reports on their outcomes.

The number of SELHI-appointed schools in Japan (total 169) might seem to be a positive step, yet it does not account for even 4% of the total of 5313 high schools in Japan (MEXTb). The salient issue considered in this section is whether only SELHI-appointed high schools were able to have the opportunity to make valuable improvements to their EFL programs while the others were left without any reconstruction.

> I think that in terms of English ability, the gap between SELHI and non-SELHI was certainly broadened. This is due not to subject guidance *(kyookashidoo)* but more daily-life guidance

(seikatsushidoo) [which is related to this issue]. … Some students are not ready to study in school. More evident and drastic innovative solutions are needed to bridge this gap. It is a fact that there are schools who would like to apply the teaching style conducted at SELHI, but cannot do so readily because of a range of difficulties which are unrelated to English study itself. In addition, there is no real connection between those elements required for university entrance examinations and actual communicative ability in English. (IP2)

Identical examples were demonstrated by IP4, who was teaching at a non-SELHI school. She explained about her school situation, where students' behavioural problems and unsatisfactory academic performance were key issues. In addition, she lamented that many of her students' family and socio-economic backgrounds made it difficult for them to even attend school regularly due to their part-time work obligations:

Before arguing about teaching methodologies, we must consider that there are always students who do not wish to study at all. It is not about English, but all subjects. They do not like studying so sitting on their chair is nothing but a torture to them. Considering this harsh reality, what officers at MEXT are talking about seems to be very superficial. The people who established this APCJEA, do not give much consideration to the voices from the educational environment in the school. … Thus, English education itself may be far beyond the argument [of the reform/improvement of Japanese people's English ability]. (IP4)

The ideas and concerns described above have influenced the allocation of SELHI schools. IP2, who teaches at a school where both general and international study streams exist, indicated that his school was unsuccessful in its initial application to be a SELHI, which was put forward by its international stream. On the recommendation of MEXT that it apply from its general study stream, since a large number of SELHI schools already had international streams, its subsequent application was successful.

Changes such as these in MEXT's selection processes eventually caused a reverse-problem and confused the teachers further. University professors IP5 and IP6 both judged MEXT's reconsideration and handling of this situation to be appropriate. However, this is a case in which there was no coherent MEXT policy based on sound research, no solid philosophy leading it, and more importantly, no overt explanation and direction towards a long-term scheme. As for the SELHI selection process, there were no selection criteria or benchmarks. In other words, MEXT itself was also in need of a solid and persuasive mainstream philosophy leading to the aims and actions required for APCJEA.

Regarding SELHI, in fact, some schools which focused on internationalisation or English education were appointed at the early stage. However, for the last few years, more schools consisting only of general study streams have been appointed as SELHI. At that [early] time, there was certainly some tendency for confident and highly achieving schools to be appointed. But it is not like that these days. (IP5)

In the early stage, high schools which originally had high levels of English were appointed as SELHI. Hence, schools which already considered themselves to be SELHIs applied for the program. … However, outsiders began to wonder what the point was for high schools which were already at a high level to become SELHIs. … Then the tendency began to change to the establishment of 'drastically' improved high schools. (IP6)

Despite this imbalance in the implementation of EFL programs in SELHI and non-SELHI schools, some participants in the program remain optimistic that APCJEA will have a significant influence upon a large number of schools in Japan over a long-term period. IP7 expressed his concern regarding APCJEA, saying that he had not even taken a close look at its information. Although disliking the concept of APCJEA for its entirely top-down scheme, he concedes that some elements in it, such as SELHI, should be encouraged more.

> Teachers at SELHI schools study teaching methodologies and styles a lot. When they move to other [non-SELHI] schools, they can demonstrate what they have gained and acquired to other teachers at the school and have an impact in this way. So concentrating on the promotion of a larger number of SELHI programs will be much more effective [than carrying out other various schemes]. (IP7)

The comments above were supported by IP8, who is an officer from MEXT. He explained that the SELHI scheme did not in fact finish at the end of the APCJEA period, on 30 March 2008, but will conclude when the review of the SELHI program and reflections on its outcomes have been disseminated to non-SELHI schools. Subsequent discussion, however, failed to yield concrete strategies for conducting such a dissemination; one can only presume that the implicit doubt about the likelihood of such reviews actually taking place prevails in the field of EFL education in Japan and is shared by its teachers.

> Using the knowledge of the examination committee of SELHI, which mostly consists of university lecturers, … we provide guidance to the schools/teachers and are considering conducting surveys which will identify the basis of future educational reform in terms of SELHI policy, and the outcomes of this data collection will be distributed to schools. (IP8)

What IP7 and IP8 suggest above, however, can be achieved only while the SELHI program is under operation, with schools motivated by the promise of financial support in return for continual monitoring on the part of MEXT. In the absence of the establishment by MEXT of any concrete strategic support plan, it is unrealistic to say that the number of SELHI schools or SELHI-influenced schools will increase automatically in the post SELHI-era. It would be inappropriate to rely on the EFL policies of individual schools, since this is the situation which has prevailed in the past and SELHI is one of the APCJEA projects whose express purpose is overcome through this chronic problem.

As symbolised by SELHI, APCJEA targeted mainly high schools, whilst the majority of universities did not consider the APCJEA scheme. IP5 bemoaned this situation, saying that students who have improved their English ability at a SELHI school regress when they enter a university which does not require them to use English much. This leads to their becoming disheartened. IP5 and IP6 consider that MEXT may disagree with this, citing the Distinctive University Education Support Program, which is commonly referred to as Good Practice (GP). However, they note that while GP can be considered as the university equivalent program to SELHI, it is still an isolated practice, unlike the more comprehensive EFL reform, and improvements which encompass the whole university rather than specific academic areas have taken place in only some of Japan's universities. Although APCJEA raised implications for EFL study at university level, it failed to follow through on these in a practical sense; as IP1, IP5 and IP6 suggest, APCJEA should focus more specific attention on improving EFL programs not only up to high school but also university level, particularly in the post-SELHI era. IP1 proposed the following: 'Compulsory classes at university level in academic areas/courses which require English ability should be conducted in English [so their entrance examination should include an English test]' (IP1).

Challenge 3: APCJEA's Unrealistic Set-Up Goals

It is urgent to reconsider the diverse conceptual dissonance between the various parties involved in APCJEA, especially between its organisers and school teachers, in the interpretation of its aims and achievements. Investigation of the interviewees' perceptions about APCJEA's stipulated timeline (from April 2003 to March 2008) revealed pessimistic perspectives in the post-APCJEA period. The title APCJEA itself sounds like an attempt to achieve targets which are too broad. (APCJEA demonstrates explicitly that its aim of EFL applies not the particularly concentrated category of people but the whole Japanese population. Refer to MEXTa.) While admitting the lack of an alternative, more appropriate, title, IP3 commented, ' … but the problem is what level and what stage are implied by the phrase *eigo ga tsukaeru* (to be able to use English)'. Moreover, all of the plan's aims appear unachievable within the limited five-year time span. The following are comments made by two teachers about SELHI-appointed schools. It is interesting that not only IP4, who was a teacher in a non-SELHI school, but also IP2, who was teaching at a SELHI school considered to be one of the most exceptional and successful cases of the program, expressed the identical pessimistic view.

> MEXT's ideas are fine. But … it is impossible for the students in my school to achieve *Eiken* Level 2 by the end of Year 3. (*Eiken* is one of the most well-known English Proficiency Tests in Japan, grading from Level 1 (highest) to Level 5 (lowest).) Not even Level 3. … Introducing assistant language teachers (one of the APCJEA activities) … does not result in an improvement in students' communication ability. (IP4)

> To be honest, [the aims] are too high. Only a small number of schools can achieve those aims. … English is not the only subject a school teaches. Therefore, successful SELHI schools are those which conduct their English program in the school's English and international streams. To have a successful SELHI program within a school's general study stream, the introduction of a totally new program is required. … It is not that easy in reality. (IP2)

Although IP1 emphasised that a radical improvement in the English language ability of the Japanese nation within five years was unrealistic and pointed out the confusing nature of the program's title, he also noted that the title, Action Plan to Cultivate 'Japanese with English Abilities', which was simultaneously recognised as its aim, was used as a slogan for this immense challenge taken on by MEXT, and could be interpreted in multiple ways, commenting:

> 'Plans to enable some particular groups of Japanese to use English', or 'Plans to enable all Japanese to use English'. I personally take the meaning of the title as 'Plans to increase the number of particular groups of Japanese people who will be able to use English'. (IP1)

The connotation of multiple meanings led to similar confusion for others. This lack of clarity engenders doubt in people's minds and makes them unlikely to commit to the APJCEA scheme and its aims; this should have been addressed in the initial stages.

A more comprehensive explanation is required urgently, regarding not only the issue of who constitutes APCJEA's target group, but also the teaching guidelines known as *gakushuu shidooyooryoo*, since some teachers, in tumult, do not draw a distinction between these and APCJEA. In order to respond to those who label the co-existence of APCJEA and the teaching guidelines problematic, one MEXT officer, IP8 offered this careful explanation:

> The only regulation is the teaching guideline *(gakushuu shidooyooryoo)*. Teaching guideline benchmarks are administered by school education law *(gakkoo kyooiku hoo),* which is equivalent to a legal system in the field of Japanese education. There should not be any difference between different areas in Japan as they all carry out education based on the same teaching guideline. Thus addressing the differences [in our education style in Japan] is one of our roles. … APCJEA is one of our policies. It does not aim to establish a criteria or standard. … We will not take any specific action if people do not aspire to the aims [of APCJEA]. … Rather there is an existing standard in the [Japanese] compulsory education system and each person concerned makes efforts/actions in order to achieve that standard. This [APCJEA] simply adds an additional, higher step to the existing guidelines. (IP8)

Comments such as this indicate that there is some doubt about the explicit purpose of APCJEA's goal setting. IP8 was asked whether the aims outlined in APCJEA are actually unrealistic for learners to achieve within a five-year period, and are, rather, aiming at the future reform of EFL in Japan, over a much longer timeframe. He clearly answered that they are strategies for achieving the aims. 'We believe that people in education need to act in consideration of these higher standards' (IP8). IP5 was in agreement with these ideas, saying '… people would not make extra efforts if the stated aim was not slightly higher than the actual expectation' (IP5). In this light, MEXT's choice of a title which implies such high expectations, and its stipulation of such unrealistic aims, becomes understandable. However, some teachers became extremely frustrated and/or became reluctant to participate in the program after taking the title's meaning and the aims of APCJEA literally. With regard to the issue that MEXT may be misleading some educators in its conduct of this pilot study, IP1 analysed the MEXT strategies which underpin APCJEA, linking them to political strategies within Japan.

> Policies which seem to be pragmatic and realistic are not accepted. Rather, with regard to the achievements of politicians and government officials, some degree of 'bluffing' is more readily accepted. There is nothing wrong with conducting steady and step-by-step tasks, but acute insight is required to assess their quality, and this does not attract attention. If there is no attention, financial support cannot be provided. (IP1)

APCJEA focuses on the EFL education system throughout the whole of Japan. Undertaking educational reform in each local community leads to the development of it in the larger scale. Only if there is sound reform in each broad area can there be reform at prefectural level. And only then can Japan-wide reform be targeted. Thus, logically speaking, the process of the practical implementation does not follow the top-down strategic APCJEA. The current process for EFL grant approvals, which is linked to the political nature of the underlying finances, impedes the implementation of a desirable bottom-up system in which teachers' opinions are sought and considered.

IP8 commented that there is a range of opinions, even within MEXT itself - for example that not only EFL education but also more Japanese-language or maths/science education should be improved to a higher level. In fact, financial assistance cannot generally be offered solely to EFL education as an isolated grant. In any political campaign, there are two distinct groups, in that there are those who set up the plans and those who carry them out. If the latter group identifies areas of dissonance or difficulty in the execution of those plans, then this feedback should be conveyed to the former group and adjustments and/or offers of alternative arrangements made. In terms of APCJEA, the International Education Division *(kokusai kyooikuka)* at MEXT is the central body for planning APCJEA, whereas the School Curriculum Division *(kyooiku kateika)* runs junior high schools and senior high schools, as explained by IP6:

> They are different departments. … The International Education Division is like shooting off fireworks without conducting any clean-up, while real-life guidance is run by the School Curriculum Division. The International Education Division needs to secure finance and attract public attention. In some ways, their relationship may be like that between dream and reality, and this quality can also be observed in the aims of APCJEA. (IP6)

It is important that not only the strategies and policy of the education system in Japan, but also the MEXT's decision process itself, should be examined and reshaped in order to successfully reform the EFL education system in Japan (IP9).

Conclusion

Each of the issues discussed above needs to be considered separately and on its own terms in order to ensure the advancement of APCJEA's aims. Setting aside the issue of the underlying politics, the success of APCJEA should be measured neither in terms of the smooth implementation of action plans nor an increase in English usage by the Japanese. Rather it should be based on improvements in the English ability of Japanese learners. (Of course, it is difficult to measure improvement as well as determine how much improvement can be considered a successful outcome.) Within the context of such an approach, a reassessment of APCJEA's successes, as well as of the dilemmas and/or negative effects which have emerged to date from statistical evidence and the voices of the various stakeholders, becomes necessary. Conducting such a reassessment as a basis for the formation of future strategies would enable MEXT to feel confident, for the first time, that their strategies are working to further the aims of APCJEA.

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Appendix: Semi-structured interview questions

1.   How long have you been involved in APCJEA?

2.   Any changes before/after APCJEA? If so, what are they?

3.   What are the positive and negative elements of those tasks?

4.   Theory: What do you think about APCJEA's aims, concerning the following points;

        (1) improvement of the quality of a simple interaction: achievable/unachievable?

        (2) examples of conversation/discussion at a high level, which are demonstrated in textbooks in a natural manner (= very high level of language ability and communicative competence with flexibility): an achievable/unachievable under APCJEA?

5.   Practice: What is the impact on financial support and teaching conditions created by changes in teaching curriculum? How do you think communication/discussion (introduction, procedure, and conclusion) should be taught?

6.   Can you tell me whether or not you would like to follow the APCJEA's policy in the future?

Education Policy in California for English learners

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Introduction-This paper argues, with evidence, that there are several aspects of the schooling of English language learners where EL students receive an education that is demonstrably lesser to that of native English speakers. California is also by far the center to more limited English students than any other states. However, with such a large population of English learners, it is surprising how little attention is actually paid to the basic learning resources these students receive in California, and in the nation. English learners are distributed throughout the schools, from kindergarten to grade 12. For example, these students are assigned to less qualified teachers, are provided with mediocre curriculum and less time to cover it, are housed in inferior facilities where they are often separated from English speaking classmates, and are assessed by invalid instruments (The California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE)-ELA, English-language arts) that provide little, if any, information as indicator about their real achievement.

There are very few California schools that report having no English learners among their student population. Today, the typical California school is composed of both English learners and English speakers. Although most English learners are found at the elementary school level, a larger percentage of English learners (hereafter also referred to as ELs or EL students or ESL, English as Second Language) is found secondary schools than commonly believed. I begin this article with an examination of the achievement data on English learners in California. I think it is first important to establish the degree to which these students' achievement represents a challenge to the overall productivity and welfare of the state's education system. In other words, I attempt to make the case that the achievement gaps are so wide that they threaten the well-being of the state and its economy, and therefore should be a concern to everyone. We then follow with a discussion of several of test indicators that we argue contribute significantly to this situation. Finally, there several some external factors of the problems faced by ESL students, nor can they be neatly compartmentalized.

Some, like the shortage of skilled teachers, represent both input shortcomings (e.g., insufficient numbers of qualified teaching personnel) as well as process problems (e.g., inadequate instruction in the classroom) simultaneously.   Therefore, I present these factors approximately in the order in which I think they affect the condition of schooling for English learners and are amenable to policy intervention. I end with a set of policy recommendations for addressing these issues. Therefore my recommendations provide directly to the kinds of actions that all stakeholders might undertake in the shorter term time frame

Now, let us look at CAHSEE.   First of all, according to its official website, the origin of CAHSEE is defined as "State law, enacted in 1999, authorized the development of the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE), which students in California public schools would have to pass to earn a high school diploma. For the 2008–09 school year, all California public school students were required to satisfy the CAHSEE requirement, as well as all other state and local requirements, to receive a high school diploma.

The CAHSEE requirement could be satisfied by passing the exam or, for students with disabilities who tested with modifications, receiving a local waiver pursuant to *Education Code* Section 60851(c)." Furthermore, "the purpose of the CAHSEE is to improve student achievement in high school and to help ensure that students who graduate from high school can demonstrate grade-level competency in reading, writing, and mathematics. " And, finally, "The CAHSEE consists of

two parts: English-language arts (ELA) and mathematics. Test questions address California State Board adopted content standards that a High School Exit Examination Standards Panel, appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, determined students should know to graduate from high school."

So what is English-language arts? And what are the testing measurements and indicators for the educators, the students, and the parents? The ELA part of the exam, which addresses state ELA content standards through grade ten, has a reading section and a writing section. The reading section covers vocabulary, informational reading, and literary reading. This section includes approximately 50 percent literary texts and 50 percent informational texts. The writing section covers writing strategies, applications, and conventions. The ELA part of the exam consists of 79 multiple-choice questions (seven of which are field test items and are not scored) as well as a writing task (essay) in which students are asked to respond to a specific topic or a literary or informational passage.(www.cde.ca.gov)

ELS and the English learners

Here, we want to know what is education department's policy for the English learners on the ELS exam. Were they given adequate resources and assistances prior to the examination? English learners were permitted to take the CAHSEE with certain test variations if used regularly in the classroom. For example, English learners were permitted to hear the test directions in their primary language or use a translation glossary if these test variations were used in the classroom. Students who are English learners were required to take the CAHSEE in grade ten with all other grade ten students. During their first 24 months in a California school, English learners were to receive six months of instruction in reading, writing, and comprehension in English (*Education Code* Section 60852). During this time, they were still required to take the CAHSEE.

California High School Exit Exam- The California High School Exit Exam is a major part of California's education accountability system. (http://cahsee.cde.ca.gov/)

California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) Results
for Mathematics and English Language Arts (ELA)
by Program (Combined 2009) for (Grade 10)
State Report

Location	Tested or Passing	Subject	All Students	English Learner (EL) Students	Socio-economically Disadvantaged	Not socio-economically Disadvantaged
Statewide:	# Tested	Math	*474,221*	*75,631*	*234,291*	*194,411*
Statewide:	Passing	Math	*378,353 (80%)*	*39,823 (53%)*	*168,185 (72%)*	*173,511 (89%)*

Statewide:	# Tested	ELA	*476,768*	*76,676*	*235,589*	*195,434*
Statewide:	Passing	ELA	*377,637 (79%)*	*30,977 (40%)*	*164,086 (70%)*	*176,212 (90%)*

The California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) is a major element of California's education accountability system. The need for improving the education provided by California's high school is undeniable. Although accountability measures may be necessary to this effort, there is early evidence that the CAHSEE presents exceptionally high stakes for EL students. EL students are much less likely to pass the CAHSEE than are English speakers. The rule does allow for districts to defer the requirement that students pass the exam until the pupil has completed six months of instruction in reading, writing, and comprehension in the English language. However, no student, including those who are still classified as English learner, will receive a high school diploma without passing the exit examination in English.

  It is possible that EL high school students do not receive the same instruction or have access to the same range of courses as their English-speaking native classmates puts in serious questions the curricular validity of these tests for English learners. In addition, the condition of these students as English learners, who do not have the same level of understanding of all English instruction as fluent English proficient students, brings serious concerns about the instructional validity of the exam. This also reflects on EL students in classrooms with teachers who do not have special certification or preparation in English learner teaching strategies.   According to its legal authorization, the CAHSEE is exam designed to meet the instructional and curricular validity. Curricular validity is defined as the exam is consisted with textbooks content, and instructional validity is the material expected to be taught.

  By definition, the quality of a test is traditionally considered in two statistics called validity and reliability, the first being more important. In short, validity consists of correlation between the test and the world outside it, while reliability of correlations within the test.

Validity is the answer to the question "what does the test measure or predict, and how good is it at doing so?'. This answer lies in two groups of correlations with concepts outside the test:

1. Correlation with other test;
2. Correlations with real-life measures like education level, job performance, social background, age, sex and so on.

From these one can infer what the test measures or predicts. Reliability is the answer to the question "if it were possible to take this test again, without any learning effect between the two test administrations, would I then get the same score?".   Reliability can also be understood as the correlation between two hypothetical very similar versions of a test. Test validity is requisite to test reliability. If a test has low validity result, then reliability is meaningless. In other words, if a test is not valid there is no point in discussing reliability because test validity is required before reliability can be considered in any significant way.

Conclusion

There is a difference between a condition and a problem. We as human being tolerate all manner of conditions everyday: bad weather, unavoidable and untreatable illnesses, poverty. Conditions become defined as problems when we come to believe that we should do something about them.   Problems are

not simply the conditions or external events themselves; there is also a perceptual, interpretive element. There are great political stakes in problem definition. Some are helped and others are hurt, depending on how problems get defined. Various mechanisms such as indicators, focusing events, and feedback-bring problems to their attention. We can all use indicators to assess both the magnitude of and the change in a problem. We, as educators, our interpretation of indicators (ex: High School Exit Exam, CAHSEE) can turn out to be a process more complicated than a straightforward assessment of the facts. (Stone, 1988; Stone, 1989; Jones, 1998)

While it has been notably difficult to establish a strong correlation between the quality and condition of school facilities and the educational outcomes for students, because the quality of school facilities is so highly related to wealth of students and communities that schools serve. There is considerable consensus that it is difficult to both teach and learn in inadequate facilities.
 Finally, parents are a resource that is too often overlooked for English learners. Even parents without high levels of education can make significant impacts to their children's schools. The involvement from the parents is known to be an important predictor of students' success in school; it is critically important that the schools find ways to involve them. Both parents and teachers should all work together as a team to provide supports for English learners. Administrators should focus less on the politics but more on retaining well-functioning principals at the same schools, and policy makers must design regulations that help to ensure consistency and stability. Administrators must assist teachers to create supportive communities, and break down the isolation that teachers often feel, especially in challenging schools.

While California is still the world's number eighth- largest economy, California ranks next to last in states where the adult population has at least a high school education, according to a report released by the California Faculty Association at Cal State Los Angeles(www.calfac.org). While other states have made greater gains in building educated workforce and moved past California, California is slipping toward educational and economic mediocrity among states on the measure of state competitiveness, prosperity, and success. The majority of English learners students are immigrants or the children of immigrants. There is a strong evidence that immigrant students, and the children of immigrants are more academically ambitious than native-born students. Here, the suggestion is that there is a critical window of opportunity in which to influence these children's academic futures.

Education Policy in California for English learners

Currently, California finds itself in the awkward position, resulting from its own failures to act when economic times were good. Even while the state provided billions of money in class reduction, it failed to make the one important improvement in the area of its English learners. Though it developed a comprehensive plan for leading the progress of its students with multiple assessment and tests for its English learners.

Given the state's high jobless rate at a fresh post-World War II high in July at 11.9%, the situation is a particularly difficult one. (www.edd.ca.gov). Moreover, with the state in virtual bankruptcy, it is unclear where the resources can be available for the increasing number of underperforming schools. Where can we find qualified teacher for every English learner when it lacks the resources to provide the teacher with any adequate support in the classroom?
Now, as they become a larger and larger percentage of the school population, and threaten any real academic gains for the state as a whole, the success of California's reform efforts depends on its ability to raise the achievement of its English learning student. The people of California are tired of the same old politics and failed policies. We want pragmatism. As my professor, Peter Drucker, wrote in his book in 1960s (Drucker, 1969) that the major changes in society would be brought by information, and that knowledge has become the central, key resource that knows no geography. The largest working group will become what he calls knowledge workers. The defining characteristic of these knowledge workers is the level of their formal education. Therefore, education and development, and specialized training, will be the central concern of a knowledge society. English learners in California, and in the nation, represent a potentially rich intellectual and economic resource if the state invests in them.

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International higher education in Japan

-Global solutions to local problems?-

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Abstract

That Japan aims to attract 300,000 international students by the year 2020 is fundamentally an exercise in student recruitment. Based on secondary literature and official documents, this paper takes the approach of the push-pull model to analyze and highlight the problems that Japan is likely to face during the implementation of the said plan.

Introduction

As is widely reported in the popular press, Japan's higher education sector has a problem. There is an over-supply of places in the universities on the one hand, but demand for those places on the other hand is slowly but surely diminishing. Japan has set her sights to tackle this problem with some help from outside. The solution is to take in 300,000 foreign students within the next decade. This basically infers that Japan is about to seriously get involved in international student recruitment along with the associated activities like marketing, promotion fairs, and information dissemination through the internet.

Student recruitment calls for intimate knowledge on what drives foreign students to select one country and/or institution over another. This 'decision making factors' is the focus of the paper. We pit these factors against what the 300,000 students plan is ostensibly offering. We posit that for the targets to be achieved, some critical issues need to be addressed. For the most part, the 'product' or rather 'service', must be perceived to be worthwhile for the potential consumer-students.

If all goes well as planned, Japanese universities and the Japanese higher education sector might turn 'robust' with foreign students mingling about in the campuses. However, Japan's reputation might somewhat suffer should the plan backfire due to mishandling of the issues that may surface along the way.

Some literature on factors

The 'push-pull' model is widely used in international student mobility literature to dissect the decision making process of potential foreign students. [See for example, McMahon (1992), Habu (2000), Nattavud (2005), Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008), and Vo, Muntasira, and Jiang (2009)].

Mazzarol (1998), focusing on international students in major English speaking nations, proposed that potential foreign students undergo a three-stage decision making process. In stage one, a series of domestically-derived 'push' factors is important in the process. These factors normally are beyond the host countries' jurisdiction and they may touch on the political, economic, and social aspects from the viewpoint of the potential students.

In the second stage, 'pull' factors accruing to host nations like Japan come into the forefront. These include factors such as overall level of knowledge and awareness of the host nation, personal recommendations from parents, relatives, or friends, cost issues, environment with regards to climate and lifestyle, geographical proximity, and social links as in family and friends living in the host nation.

The third stage concerns factors that distinguish one particular institution from another. In terms of importance to the potential foreign student, these factors are 'quality and reputation of the institution, the recognition of the institution's qualification in their own country, the international strategic alliances the institutions had, the quality of the institution's staff, its alumni base, and its existing international student population' (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002).

Bourke (1997) in her study on international students in Ireland listed the recognition of host institution's degree overseas as the most important factor when choosing an institution. This is followed by factors such as the host institution's quality of courses, the availability of courses, the status of the university in the home country, the cost of education at the host institution, its entry requirements, and its learning and teaching styles.

Looking at Asian students in Canada, Chen (2006) proposed that the key factors influencing the choice of an institution relates to what is called 'academic pulling' factors and 'administrative pulling' factors. Specifically, these factors touch on reputation, quality, and ranking of the university and the programs. This is followed by factors like the availability of financial aid and cost issues.

To summarize, while the above albeit limited literature listed out a variety of factors influencing prospective international students in their choice of country and institutions, the one constant and over-riding factor is 'quality' and 'reputation'. This point is consistent with IDP's research which revealed that the quality of education (and employment outcomes) is the most important driver of growth for the global international education community (IDP, 2002).

The problem

Amidst the rather bleak notwithstanding recovering economic situation, the Japanese higher education sector is facing the twin problems of declining enrolment and excess capacity. Compounding these problems particularly for the national and public universities is the issue of annual budget cuts amounting to 1% per annum scheduled until 2010.

The Japanese higher education sector is one of the largest in the world. OECD (2009) notes that there are about 716 universities; eighty-seven are national, seven three are public, and 556 are private universities which include two year colleges. About 80% of undergraduate students enroll at private universities.

The declining enrolments at universities are due to the shrinking population of the 18-year olds. This group peaked at over 2 million in 1992 and has since gone on a steady decline. By 2020, the 18 year old population is predicted to drop to 1.16 million (AEI, 2009).

This condition is made worse in that, an increasing number of Japanese youth are beginning to explore their options by choosing to enroll in degree programs at universities abroad, especially those in the U.S. and U.K. (Kuwamura, 2009; Ishikawa, 2009). This new trend has a significant bearing in that Japan universities have long been characterized by a high percentage (over 90%) of university enrolments coming from the 18 to 22 year-old cohorts.

While the 18 year old population is undergoing a decline, Japanese universities took the opposite path to expand their numbers and thereby, capacity. According to Goodman (2005), there were 98 national, 41 public, and 384 private four-year universities in 1992. In 2004, as national universities were merging while undergoing the corporatization process, the overall numbers ballooned to 88 national, 77 public, and 545 private universities.

One main cause of the expansion in capacity is that, many two-year colleges upgraded themselves to four-year universities in a bid to survive. However, this was untenable and it was only a matter of time before consolidation takes effect, beginning with the lesser known, regional, and private universities (Akabayashi, 2006). In January 2003, Risshikan University in Hiroshima Prefecture became the first of such universities to fail followed by Hagi International University of Yamaguchi Prefecture in 2005 (Terada, 2007). Most recently in August, Japan Times (2009) reported in a survey that 'nearly half of all colleges nationwide failed to meet their enrollment quotas for the academic year that began in April as the shrinking birthrate continued to deprive them of students'.

The consequent financial crunch has led universities to look for new ways in funding. Developing new markets such as professional schools (as in law and management), programs for adult students (such as evening and weekend classes) and non-degree courses in lifelong education are some examples (Goodman, 2005).

However, it is the international student market that is getting the most attention from Japan. Japanese universities are poised to tap into this expanding market. According to projections made by IDP Education Australia, the global international student market is predicted to swell from 2 million in

2003 to 7.6 million in 2025 (IDP, 2002). About 70% of total demand is expected to come from Asia, particularly from China and India.

The solution

Formulating her estimates on these figures, Japan under the Fukuda administration in 2008, embarked on the so-called 300,000 International Students Plan. This is 'part of the "global strategy" to open up Japan to the whole world and expand flows of people, goods, money and information between Japan and countries in Asia and other regions in the world… Japan will aim to accept up to 300,000 international students by the year 2020'. The plan pledged to make efforts 'to strategically acquire excellent international students, as well as to accept highly capable students' (MEXT, 2008).

In plain words, Japan hopes to take in a large number of international students to fill up the increasingly vacant seats in her universities. Mustering the resources of six ministries (Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Foreign Affairs, Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, Justice, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, and Health, Labor and Welfare), this plan is presented in five measures as reproduced below from MEXT sources.

1. Inviting international students to study in Japan – Offering incentives to study in Japan and providing one-stop service –
2. Improving introduction of entrance examinations, enrollment, and entry into Japan – Facilitating procedures for studying in Japan –
3. Promoting globalization of universities and other educational institutions – Creating attractive universities –
4. Improving the environment for accepting international students – Efforts to create an environment under which students can concentrate on studying without anxiety –
5. Promoting acceptance of international students in society after their graduation or completion of courses –Globalization of society –

(MEXT, 2008: 3-4)

In brief terms, the first measure sets out to market Japan to potential international students. In doing so, Japan hopes to motivate potential students to come to Japan for studies. From within Japan, the various ministries, universities, and related institutions are to use the internet to transmit information. At the same time, in addition to holding student fairs abroad, Japanese embassies and consulates, overseas offices of independent administrative corporations, and overseas bases of universities and other educational institutions are to coordinate in disseminating information on Japanese universities. Plans are already underway to establish eight overseas promotion offices at Moscow, Tunis, Hyderabad, Tashkent, Hanoi, Cairo, Bonn and New Delhi (WENR, 2009).

The second measure pledges to allow potential students to take entrance examinations in their home countries instead of the costly and cumbersome requirement of having to come to Japan just to sit for the entrance examination. Under this measure, universities are encouraged to grant admission to potential students into the programs and approval for accommodation prior to arrival. Consequently, Japan pledges to ease immigration entry procedures for potential students.

The third measure promises to 'make universities attractive to international students' by developing a system to allow students to obtain academic degrees by studying only in English. Thirty 'global' universities are to be selected to spearhead this endeavor. Japan plans to hire a large number of foreign faculty members to assist in the development and provision of programs in English.

The fourth measure focuses on improving accommodation facilities and scholarships for foreign students. Japan is nudging the local municipalities and private companies to allot at least a portion of the municipal housings and company dormitories for foreign students to use. Finally, the fifth measure promises to provide potential foreign students with employment support after graduation. Japan expects to hire as much as 50% of the graduating foreign students as stipulated in the plan.

Some critical issues to ponder over

Considering that Japan has about eleven years to attract 180,000 plus students to add to the current numbers of around 120,000 students, the plan is without doubt a bold one. In the previous major plan to take in 100,000 international students, which is much smaller number, Japan needed about twenty years to achieve the target (MEXT, 2004).

If the current plan is successful, Japan can expect to fill up some of the gaps in her university classrooms with foreign students while at the same time, hoping that foreign students can act as a catalyst to induce more competition into her universities. Similarly, Japan can also look forward to employing the young, able bodies, and intelligent minds of the foreign students to help prop up the shrinking labor force.

However, Japan will probably face a string of rather formidable obstacles on top of the ambitious target number and narrow time span allotted for the plan. In this respect, it is crucial that Japan has a good hold on what potential foreign students are looking for.

Picking up from the previous section, quality and reputation is foremost in the minds of prospective students. As Chen (2006) noted, international students are on the lookout for a perceived high quality of education at competitive costs. Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) further stressed that 'quality of reputation is likely to remain the most important factor influencing study destination choice'.

In a 2009 report, OECD allocated considerable space to highlight this area. To quote: 'Many aspects of the Japanese tertiary system demonstrate very high levels of quality, including its world-class research universities and its excellent system of technical training in national colleges of technology. However, during its visits to higher education institutions the Review Team learned from faculty and students that the pedagogical approach used might not be up to best practices followed in many OECD tertiary education systems' (OECD, 2009). The OECD added that they 'are not alone in this observation.' [For similar observations, see for example Ishizuka (2004) and the several papers in Eades et al. (2005)].

As an example, the OECD (2009) highlighted the situation in the graduate programs, particularly those of the doctorate level in social sciences and humanities. Compared to other OECD countries like the U.K. and U.S., the programs in Japan are 'less extensively developed' and have 'no structure in place

at the institutional or national level to promote graduate student recruitment, retention and success.' (The OECD however admitted that recently, there has been a range of noteworthy initiatives aimed at sprucing up the graduate programs.)

The OECD made a recommendation for Japan to use her strong regional links through bodies such as UMAP (University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific) to strive for an EU-styled regional wide framework to integrate and rationalize the 'recognition of qualifications, the quality and status of higher education institutions, and the comparability of curricula' among participatory states. The OECD also suggested that the NAID (National Institution for Academic Degrees) along with other evaluation bodies take the lead to 'develop guidelines and a suitable methodology for the evaluation of educational services provided by Japanese universities operating in other countries' as a start (OECD, 2009).

In the same light, the OECD also called on top research universities of Japan to act as 'movers' to initiate improvement systems for quality assurance as well as to establish mission statements befitting their status as world class research institutions vis-à-vis their 'undergraduate-graduate student number balance, the nature and importance of the international dimension in their quality assurance and improvement strategy, their funding situation, and the further strengthening and enlarging of their graduate programs.' Such a step may encourage other 'lesser' institutions in Japan to follow suit.

In addition to the issue of quality and reputation, the availability of courses is also an area of importance to foreign students. As mentioned above, by the logic of Japan declaring that foreign students can graduate by studying in programs that use only English, Japan intends to attract English-speaking students. Considering that over 90% of foreign students studying in Japan are already from Asia, it is understandable that Japan wants to take in more students from areas outside of Asia.

In July 2009, the government selected thirteen top national and private universities to act as 'global universities'. They are expected to offer programs conducted in English. To do so, foreign professors are to be imported in large numbers to develop and teach courses in the English-based programs. Preliminary proposals indicated that up to 20% of all classes in the global universities are to be taught in English. In addition, up to 30% of the professors are to be hired from abroad to sit on the faculty specifically designed to enroll foreign students.

However, if past records are consulted, it seems that Japan may not have an easy task in hiring foreign professors. For a start, although Japanese laws have authorized in 1982 the employment of foreign professors at Japanese national and prefectural/municipal universities on similar terms with Japanese staff, the law left the period of service to the discretion of each university (OECD, 2009).

In addition to this, foreign professors found additional obstacles in the living environment for family members, the high price of goods, and language barriers both in daily life and in transactions within the university. Compared to other OECD countries, it is thus not surprising that the percentage of foreign professors even at top universities is very small. For example, in 2005, only about 1% of professors and 3% of associate professors at Tokyo University were foreign nationals. In 2007, the respective percentages of foreign professors in Japan, U.S., U.K., and France were 3.4%, 19.3%, 17.6%, and 5.4% (Huang, 2009). Considering these circumstances, a sudden leap in numbers of foreign professors within a short time span seems daunting (OECD, 2009).

A third issue this paper wishes to highlight concerns facilities such as housing and support systems for foreign students. OECD (2009) noted that these facilities are 'underdeveloped' when compared to the practice at other member countries. For decades, Japan has provided student housing to only 25% of international students. The rest, 75% of them, has no choice but to live in private facilities which are expensive and complicated to secure.

Closing remarks

The issues addressed above are not new for Japan as they are in fact, 'artifacts' from the previous era of the 100,000 students plan (MEXT, 2004). Japan has not been able to sufficiently address these issues then. Yet, it did not deter Japan from embarking on a successive plan to take on a bigger number of foreign students. It appears that Japan has to work doubly hard to overcome these issues this time around.

This little paper merely deals with a limited range of issues. These included quality and reputation issues, availability of courses in English, and student support services especially in accommodation. There are much more to these but space constraints dictate that they be addressed in a future paper. Besides the ones mentioned above, students these days seem to increasingly rely on university rankings in their decision making. Moreover, career prospects and the lure of immigration may have influence on some students who may wish to stay on in the host nation after graduation.

Note: The views of this paper belong to only the author and do not represent those of any institution whatsoever.

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A Survey of Attitudes towards Critical Thinking among Hong Kong Secondary School Teachers: Implications for Policy Change Both Locally and Globally

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Abstract

"Critical thinking" is a common term used in educational circles as well as by the general public. The term is frequently found in educational policy documents in sections outlining curriculum goals. It is also a term heard in the media, often decrying the perceived deficiency of thinking skills being taught in schools and universities. Despite this high profile nature of critical thinking, however, precise definitions of what it really means for pedagogical purposes are lacking.

In keeping with the conference theme, this study set out to examine a local problem whose solution may have applications at a broader level. Specifically, in Hong Kong, although the term "critical thinking" appears prominently in education policy documents under the headings "Learning Goals" and "Generic Skills" (to be attained), there is no clear direction regarding the meaning of the term or how to engender it in students. Rather, it is assumed that critical thinking is a self-evident concept that needs no further elaboration.

In this study, 72 in-service high school teachers in Hong Kong were surveyed and interviewed on their beliefs about the meaning of critical thinking as well as their commitment to the concept as an educational goal. This mixed method approach employed a questionnaire yielding quantitative data, while interviews with five key informants produced supporting qualitative evidence. Results indicated the teachers had a sophisticated, yet narrow understanding of the term. For example, many believed that a good critical thinker is one who looks at issues from diverse viewpoints. However, many others claimed that a good critical thinker is one who supports opinions with sound reasoning and evidence. Further, the participants expressed strong support for the inclusion of critical thinking in the curriculum, while conveying a desire for training in how to teach it. The findings suggest a more precise definition of critical thinking is needed in educational documents in addition to training programs that help teachers make it a part of their practice.

The findings from this study may have relevance beyond the local context. Curriculum documents from several other countries were viewed as part of this research and it was apparent that the meaning of term "critical thinking" was often assumed. In this presentation, the researcher will suggest how the term "critical thinking" can be unpacked and given a more precise definition so that curriculum planners and teachers can better approach and apply teaching strategies that stimulate higher order thinking skills.

Keywords: critical thinking; secondary school curriculum; educational goals; thinking skills

Translation in EFL Classes

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ABSTRACT

As English has become a global language which is used all over the world, local cultures of different areas, has turned out to be a distinctive obstacle that affects the correct understanding to listeners. Such phenomenon protrudes in real life when two persons from two countries are talking, especially when one is from the west and one is from the east as their culture background are enormously apart. In our English classroom, cases of such are frequently found and most of them are caused by the linguistic differences while a certain amount of them appears owing to the lack of the counterpart culture. It is believed that such problems are not unique to students from any particular country; it should be a common problem for any students who take English as a foreign language. So in this presentation, we are going to analyze some examples to show the linguistic setbacks and misunderstanding results from cultural distinction. It will mainly cover:

1. Chinese Structures VS. English Structures

1) Chinese active voice vs English passive voice

2) Chinese verbs vs English preposition

3) Chinese "have" vs English "there be"

2. The Western Culture VS The Chinese Culture

1) Religion

2) Value

3) Traditional view and customs

4) Privacy

5) Idioms

These problems do not only exist in our students; it should be a global issue as well. Therefore, how to solve problems of these kinds is a thing that requires all teachers who teach English as a foreign language to give it a critical thinking. By doing the presentation, we not only expect to arouse our peers' intense attention to the issue, but also look forward to eliciting effective approaches for such issue.

An Analysis of the English Training Market in China

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Abstract

The English training market is thriving nowadays in China. It has become an important supplement to the traditional English education system. Therefore, it is of great significance to carry out some research on this market. This paper has analyzed the results of some of that research. Great opportunities and serious problems both exit in this market. We should take advantage of the opportunities and find proper solutions to the problems.

1. Preface

With the development of economy and the increasingly rapid pace of internationalization, English has become a more and more important tool in China. A good command of English is a key factor in pursuing higher degrees, finding good jobs, learning advanced technologies, sharing ideas with people from other parts of the world and doing business around the world. Obviously, a good command of English cannot be achieved simply by taking exams or remembering vocabularies and grammars. We need to practice. We need a platform where we can get opportunities to fully practice this language. Therefore, English training institutions emerged.

Some media pointed out that China has been crazy for English. Meanwhile, global English training institutions have been crazy for China. As shown by the report "Chinese Citizen's Consumption Activities Survey", the market value of current English training market in China has reached 20 billion RMB and there are more than 50 thousand institutions doing business in this market. The English training market in China has become the world's largest one.

2．Analysis of the Demand for English Training Market

2．1 The Internationalization Calls for Talents with Good Command of English

After joining WTO, China has officially become a member of the international market. That is to say, China has to compete and cooperate with foreign countries in this market. This situation brings a need for talents with a global perspective and an ability to think globally. For example, as a manager, one has to draw up the company's development strategies and business plans based on the world economic environment; as a product designer, one should not only pay attention to the domestic demands, but also the requirements and favors of foreign consumers; as an investment expert, one needs to be familiar with the economic status and investment policies of different countries in order to seek best investment opportunities internationally. Doubtlessly, a good command of English, the international language, will help one form a global perspective.

Moreover, under the background of globalization, people need to possess certain internationally recognizable qualifications to prove their talents. Nowadays, these qualifications are key factors in evaluating candidates when companies recruit staff. There are different certificates for different industries, such as MCSE for IT, ACCA for accounting and MBA for management. Possessing these so called "international talent passport" means a better job and a brighter future. However, most of these qualifications should be obtained by taking courses and exams. Those courses and exams are often carried out in English, so one needs to master English to obtain those worldwide recognizable qualifications.

What's more, globalization requires people to communicate in English. With the development of internationalization, lots of foreign companies opened branches in China while many Chinese companies also began to do business in other countries. The staff of those companies may come from different countries and have different mother languages. In this situation, work is often carried out in English. Moreover, nowadays China takes part in or hosts many international

conferences and activities, such as the 2008 Olympics, the 2010 World EXPO, the APEC and the SCO. These international activities and conferences are all carried out in English.

In addition, internationalization also requires people to use English as a tool in learning about the most advanced ideas and the most sophisticated technologies. Nowadays, business competitions and science competitions are international. People need to master the world most advanced ideas and most sophisticated technologies to win competitions. Those ideas and technologies are often spread by internet, TV, magazines and books and, most of the time, in English. Therefore, one with good English listening and reading skills can learn about those ideas and technologies more quickly and more easily. That is an important way to enhance one's competitiveness.

2．2 The Study Overseas Rush Creates a Huge Demand

Lately, more and more Chinese people decide to study abroad. According to the survey conducted by the UNESCO, the number of Chinese students studying overseas has become the largest in the world. When study abroad, one can learn about more advanced ideas and more sophisticated technologies so as to enhance oneself and lay a solid foundation for one's future work. Meanwhile, one can also experience the exotic culture, broaden one's horizon and become more independent, strong and mature through studying overseas. Additionally, some people may already have good jobs, but work stress and competitions drive them to continue to study; some people may have reached certain positions but feel the difficulty in improving, so they choose to study abroad to enhance themselves; while others may not be satisfied with their current jobs, so they try to improve their skills and learn more by studying overseas in order to find better jobs. Above all, with the development of economy, more and more Chinese people can afford the tuition fee of foreign schools. As a result, a study overseas rush appears in China.

However, as a student from a non-English speaking country, one needs to prove his English proficiency when he applies for schools, so he has to take some internationally recognized exams, such as IELTS, TOFEL, GRE and GMAT. Take IELTS as an example, the number of candidates has exceeded 210 thousands in 2007, increased by 50% compared with 2006. China is now the number one source of IELTS candidates. Take TOFEL as another example, in 2008 there are more than 100 TOFEL exam halls in China, increased by 100% compared with 2007. They are located in 33 cities. One can conveniently choose an exam hall near his home. Nevertheless, the traditional exam-oriented education form makes Chinese students less independent in preparing for exams. They have been used to follow guidance. High schools and colleges don't provide specific guidance for international English exams, so students turn to English training institutions for help. That creates a huge demand for English training market.

2．3 The Drawbacks of Traditional English Education System Bring Great Opportunities

2.3.1 Exam-oriented Education Makes Students Incapable of Practical Application

The traditional English Education in China is exam-oriented, and those exams are normally focused on grammar and vocabulary instead of capability of practical application. The world famous English language expert Alexander, author of "New Concept English", once opened a troubleshooting column on a Chinese newspaper. Once he was asked by a Chinese student: what's the difference between an attributive clause and an appositive clause? Surprisingly, he answered: "Knowing this distinction does not improve your English. It just at most broadens your knowledge related to English." After giving a few examples and explanations, he even concluded "There is not so called attributive clauses. At least, I don't know any of them." Another typical example is that there are very few native English speakers who are good at grammar and syntax. They just know how to speak and write, but can't explain clearly why. If we make a wrong sentence, they will feel weird, but can't explain why it is wrong. Foreign teachers seldom talk about grammar and syntax at class. Instead, they lead students to read materials and discuss some topics.

As a result, almost every Chinese student can be called "English expert" in terms of grammar. They are even better at grammar and syntax than native speakers. However, it is hard to find a good interpreter in a bunch of bachelors, masters and doctors.

Many training institutions realized this drawback of traditional English education system in China, so they offered various kinds of application-oriented courses, such as Business English, Travel English and Oral English. Those courses are so welcomed that they do not only bring training

institutions great fortune, but also partially make up the drawbacks of traditional English education system.

2.3.2 A Lack of Education Resources Brings Down the Quality of English Education

China has a very large population, but education resources such as teachers and teaching halls are quite limited. Therefore, there are often dozens of students at one class. In this case, it is very hard for teachers to take into account the individual characteristics of each student. Students also don't have enough chance to practice speaking and listening.

Lots of training institutions realized this situation, so they opened many classes with a small number of students in each class. Each student then was allocated enough education resources. Thus, they can fully practice speaking and listening at class and receive specialized guidance according to their individual characteristics and English level, but of course, they have to pay a large amount of money for taking those education resources.

2.3.3 Inadequate English Education at Primary Schools Forces Parents to Turn to Training Institutions

In most regions of China, primary schools have not opened enough English classes. In some places of inland China, students even don't take English classes until they enter middle schools. However, receiving English education in early childhood is vitally important. According to a report conducted by Johnson and Newport in 1991, if a non-English speaker continuously studies English from 3 to 7, there is a chance that his English proficiency gets close to native English speakers when he grows up; if he starts studying English from 8, that chance turns smaller; if he starts after 11, there will be a marked gap between him and native speakers. Results of numerous psychology research on children and long-term education practice have proved that only children can quickly master a language, because "Broca's area", a place takes in charge of studying language in the brain, is most active in childhood. One's mother language is stored there. As people grow older, "Broca's area" gets less and less active, that is why it is much harder for an adult to learn foreign languages.

All of the conclusions above indicate that children have natural abilities to learn English easily and quickly. If adequate learning materials and a good study environment are provided, children can master English quite well.

Consequently, training institutions opened numerous kinds of English classes for children to make up the contradiction between vital importance of childhood English education and inadequate English classes at primary schools. In order to let their kids receive good English education in childhood, lots of parents spare no expense to put their kids in those classes. Once again, the English training market gains great fortune due to the deficiency of traditional English education system, but also to some extent makes up that deficiency.

3. The Status Quo

3.1 A Hot Pursuit of Venture Capital

According to "2007 investment report on education and training industry" released by China Venture, as of October 31st, 2007, there were 36 venture capital investment cases altogether in education and training industry in China. 25 enterprises benefited from a total of 356 million US dollars investment. This upsurge trend has continued to this year. As shown by the China Venture's first quarter report, the number of venture capital investment cases and the total amount of investment have grown by 150% compared with the same period of last year. Normally, bubbles emerge whenever some industry gets overheated. However, venture capital experts believe there are no bubbles in the education industry. The reason for venture capitalists to put large amounts of money into this industry is simple: like medical care, education sector is protected by the government. Meanwhile, huge demands exit in this industry, so it can make money. Many investors talk about clothing, food, housing, transportation, medical care and education in the same breath, because they are all indispensable elements in people's daily lives. Few people become millionaires in one day in this industry, but they seldom lose a lot of money in one day either. In recent years, New Orient, Global IELTS, Wall Street English, REITs children's English, New World Education Group and other institutions are favored by venture capital.

3.2 A New Era of Brand

July 14th, 2008 was the last day of New Orient summer camp commencement last year. It is said that on that day, a serious traffic jam happened in Beisihuan of Beijing where New Orient was located. Sweating parents and students with heavy luggage formed a long queue. The queue twisted under the burning sun, extending to the high way. According to Mr. Hu Min, headmaster of New Orient, the number of enrolled students last summer hit a record high.

Nevertheless, the manager of a small unknown training institution in Beijing was very upset about the enrollment last summer vacation. He complained:" Normally, the summer camp enrollment was three or four times as many as usual. I sometimes had to change offices into classrooms. However, the number of enrollment decreased by 30% this summer vacation compared with last one. Some classrooms were even vacant throughout the summer vacation.", though the tuition fee of this institution was almost only half of New Orient's.

That summer, every training institution which had established well-known brands was very popular. Dell English opened 20 more classes and the number of students increased by 35%; Universal IELTS rented numerous new classrooms and every classroom was run at full capacity. Classes started from 8 in the morning and did not end till 9 in the evening.

Some experts believe 2008 was a turning point in the history of English training market. Yu Minhong, chairman of New Orient, pointed out 10 years ago, when New Orient was just founded, there were hundreds of training institutions in Beijing and everyone was similar to each other, but now a few well-known brands such as New Orient, Dell, Web, Wall Street, Universal IELTS, etc have occupied the market. Small institutions are in difficulty. The English training market is coming to a new age marked by well-known brands.

3.3 Practical English Has Become the Main Role

A survey conducted by Sohu Education reveals that in China 47.34% of people enroll in English training classes for job requirements, 22.58% for business communication, only 20.39% for exam preparation. Coincidentally, China Social Survey Office also carried out a research on the aim of people taking English training classes. 1500 people from 8 major cities of China were interviewed. 80% of them claimed they had taken or was taking English training classes. 42.7% of those interviewees said they took English training classes to enhance their ability to use English at work, 26.4% to find better jobs, 28% to have fun or to prepare for travels, only 25.7% to prepare for academic exams. We can tell from those two surveys that English has become a practical social skill, instead of an academic course in China. People want to learn English because they need to use English, rather than because they want to shoot a high score in English exams. Practical-application-oriented training classes are more popular than exam-oriented ones.

3.4 English Training Classes for Studying Abroad Boomed

The number of people going to study abroad has sky-rocketed from 860 in 1977 to 144,500 in 2007. In 2008, this number had exceeded 200,000, reaching a record high. One can easily tell the heat of this study overseas rush from the bustling scenes of a series of large international education exhibitions in China.

As more and more people choose to study abroad, relevant English training classes become more and more popular. Official statistics shows that the number of people receiving IELTS trainings grows by more than 50% each year since 2006. In 2006, the growth rate is 52%; in 2007, it is 60%; in 2008, it is as high as 200%. It is estimated that this year the growth rate will remain to be as high as more than 50%. Accordingly, IELTS training has become one of those projects which have the highest growth rate in the English training market.

Two main factors contribute to the popularity of IELTS training classes. Firstly, IELTS has become more and more recognizable. As of this year, except the schools in UK, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand and other Commonwealth countries, there are more than 2000 schools in Europe and America accepting IELTS as the proof of English proficiency of international students. Secondly, more and more people choose to study abroad. This is partly due to the positive effect of financial crisis, and partly due to the more lenient visa policy. For example, the visa policy of USA has gradually become lenient since 2007. The current visa application pass rate has exceeded 80%.

This rate of UK, Australia, Canada and many other countries has also significantly grown. Besides, the downward trend of the exchange rates of US Dollar, British Pound, Euro and Canadian Dollar remarkably brings down the cost of studying abroad, enabling some working-class people to study abroad.

3.5 The Positive Effect of Financial Crisis

The current financial crisis makes it even harder for college graduates to find jobs. On one hand, more than 6,110,000 college students graduated this year. They need jobs. On the other hand, some companies cancelled the campus recruitment programs. This dual pressure for college graduates is very painful and difficult to ease.

In addition, an increasing number of enterprises are affected by the financial crisis. The declining profit margin forces them to strictly control cost, so layoffs and wage reductions become the most widely used method. As a result, the unemployment rate skyrockets. An old Chinese saying goes: "to collect wealth in bullish market, to acquire knowledge in bearish market". In face of the spreading unemployment crisis, many job seekers and white-collars go to enroll in training classes and hope that attending training classes can help increase their competitiveness in the job market. As a result, the winter of economy becomes the spring of training market. Moreover, though some people don't have to worry about being laid off at present, the declining business enables them to have time attending training classes. This factor also contributes to the prosperity of training market.

4. Problems and Solutions

4.1 Problems

The main problems of the current English training market in China are reflected in the following areas:

4.1.1 Some Institutions Are Not Qualified

On one hand, due to the relatively easy market access, all kinds of capital swarm into the English training market. Some operators are not professional in English education. They have no idea how to arrange classes, select teachers and pick up textbooks. Some operators, though, have some experience in English education, all they care about is how to make money. Improvidence and desire for quick success and instant benefit make them neglect the teaching quality.

On the other hand, most of the teachers serving in training institutions are teachers from traditional schools. Teaching in training institutions is just their part time job. Though most of these teachers are quite experienced and qualified in English education, some of them hardly take the training classes seriously. They just come to training institutions to earn more money, so they seldom carefully prepare for classes. They are not at all responsible and only concern about getting wages. Moreover, some institutions even hire college students to be teachers. These students lack of teaching experience and their own English may not be good enough either, so the teaching quality cannot be guaranteed. Additionally, many foreign teachers of training institutions are not professional in English teaching. They are hired just because they are native speakers, but in fact they don't know how to make their classes effective and helpful. Summarily, these problems are caused by a lack of efficient teaching quality evaluation mechanism and supervision system.

4.1.2 Fake Advertisings and Frauds

Most consumers don't know how to judge the teaching quality of an English training institution when choosing institutions. They only make their choices based on advertisings and promotions. However, there are many fake advertisings and frauds in this market. For example, an institution promises:" we can help you speak fluent English in three months" in its enrollment brochures. Those people who are eager for quick improvement are often easily cheated by such advertisements. However, any person who knows about the basic rules of learning a foreign language is aware that no one can remarkably improve his English proficiency in one day. Significant improvement can only be achieved by hours and days and weeks and years of constant work and practice.

In addition, some institutions promise a lot of things in their enrollment ads such as professional teaching staff, updated teaching method, sophisticated facilities and comfortable classrooms, but seldom fulfill those promises in reality. Students sometimes even encounter such problems as reduced teaching hours, increased student number in one class and dilapidated classrooms after enrollments. What's more, some institutions even disappear without a trace after collecting tuition fees, leaving a bunch of angry students.

4.1.3 Disordered Competition and Pricing

There are almost 300 new institutions establishing every year in Beijing and there are also about 300 institutions closing down at the same time. In face of this rat race, many institutions have to reduce prices at the expense of quality. A serious price war is going on. Take a three-month oral English training class as an example. Some institutions charge 3000RMB for it while some only charge 600RMB. In this brutal price war, many institutions close down. Every failure of institutions also causes great loss to students in terms of money and time.

4.2 Solutions

4.2.1 Set Strict Accrediting Criteria

Just as I mentioned above, the easy market access enabled many unqualified institutions to exist in the English training market and harm the interest of consumers, so it is very important to set strict accrediting criteria. In China, it is the educational administrations' responsibility to monitor the establishment of training institutions. They should carefully inspect the running conditions of each establishing institution, including teaching staff, facilities, finance and so on, set high accrediting criteria and never approve any unqualified institutions to establish.

4.2.2 Strengthen Supervision

At present, training institutions solely rely on internal supervision system to manage teaching quality. The whole market lacks of external regulators, so training institutions can act freely as they wish. In this situation, external regulators involving students and educational administrations should be established to protect the interest of consumers. Moreover, some monitoring methods should be taken, such as carry out questionnaire survey among students regularly and disclose the results through media; require each teacher to possess National Teaching Certificate and evaluate the teaching level of foreign teachers by experts to decide whether they are qualified to teach in training institutions.

4.2.3 Establish a Reasonable Rating System

Since most consumers are not professional in judging the teaching quality of training institutions, they normally make choices based on advertisements when choosing institutions, so they sometimes get cheated by fake advertisings. Therefore, it is of great importance to establish a reasonable rating system for training institutions just like the rating system for bonds. In that way, consumers can make choices based on the grade of institutions. Additionally, a reasonable rating system can also strengthen the self-discipline consciousness of training institutions and stimulate them to improve teaching quality.

4.2.4 Avoid Irrational Price War

Price war is a low-level competitive method. Reasonable pricing competitions can eliminate market bubbles and improve market order, but irrational price wars will do great harm to both training institutions and consumers. In order to survive in price wars, training institutions have to cut down costs and this is often done at the expense of teaching quality. Therefore, a market guidance price should be set based on the grade of training institutions and the services they provide to avoid irrational price wars.

5. Conclusions

The English training market is thriving nowadays in China. Great opportunities and serious problems both exit in this market. Opportunities lie in the facts that the internationalization calls for talents with good command of English and that the studying overseas rush and the drawbacks of traditional English education system create a huge demand. However, problems are reflected in the following areas: some institutions are not qualified; fake advertisings and frauds flood the market; disordered competitions

and irrational price wars frequently happen. We should take advantage of those opportunities and find proper solutions to those problems. Above all, it is important to make the English training market a good supplement to the traditional English education system.

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Administrative Practices in Teaching English as a Second Language(TESL) in Chinese Tertiary Institutions.

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Keywords: Academic Practices, Administrative Practices, English as Second Language Teaching, Teacher's Motivations, Learning styles.

Situational Introduction of the Case Study

I've chosen the two colleges I've worked for as the basis for the case study: Jiaying University, Meizhou (Guangdong Province), and Xingjian College, Nanning (Guangxi-Zhuang Autonomous Region). The objectives and goals of Jiaying and Xingjian as social institutions are the same: the standardized educational project in China – training in the English language, communication in it, basic knowledge of English-speaking countries, American, British and other major countries' culture, preparing students for the national exams and, eventually, the Chinese job market. In case of Xingjian College, it's even potentially commercially viable in the future when (and if) it will gain reputation and prove itself to be an expensive alternative to a top provincial school and a cheap alternative to training in the West, but it is not the primary purpose at the moment.

The state-run Jiaying University is positioning itself in the educational market as a public school functioning in accordance with the state standards, with long traditions (has existed since 1913), with stables conditions and strong support from the regional government.[i] These factors are important for foreign teachers as well, also important are the facts that this is a public university with good living and working condition, guaranteed high salaries, lively local communities in the middle of the Hakka region in Northern Guangdong, with its own distinct lifestyle, history, subculture, dialect, cuisine etc[ii]. In case of the private Xingjian College, the commercial and English teaching quality factors come to the fore: most of subjects are taught by foreign teachers, its campus is in fact a part of the Guangxi university campus, its graduation certificates will include the name of Guangxi University (the key-school in the Guangxi-Zhuan Autonomous Region in the South of China) although not for the current freshmen.

In terms of quality of students, there is no big difference between Jiaying and Xingjian, but the basis of the comparison comprises academic practices of both colleges and administrative mechanisms behind them, so I assume that the students' level is the same.

Methodological Introduction of the Embedded Case Studies and the Paradigm Shift

The rapid modernization of China and Chinese educational institutions has caused an unprecedented situation when the country aiming at the superpower status in the world in the near future has a relatively obsolete and traditionally weak educational system in need of a quick overhaul. The urgent need of this rapid improvement and modernization is exacerbated by the sheer size of the Chinese education system and by the fact that it is expanding rapidly and involving bigger and bigger percentage of the young Chinese high-school graduates into the tertiary level education in practically all spheres of university curriculum. So the Chinese are solving the two big problems: expanding and modernizing their huge university system (probably already the biggest in the world) simultaneously. So when it comes to resolving too many issues within a lifespan of one generation there may be many irregularities and abnormalities as the Chinese are trying to complete an unprecedented task within the shortest time and the people who are leading these reforms at different levels are very often not up to the huge task and project they happen to manage and head.

It's very hard to answer the questions why there is so much frustration regarding the Chinese administrator's management practices in connection with foreign teachers they invite and value so much[iii]. Even in the very carefully tailored and conducted Ming Sheng Li' research *Perceptions of the Place of Expatriate English Teachers in China* she mentions that "Though many of the Chinese administrators at the departmental level had been educated in the English speaking countries, they often had difficulties making their recruitment decisions faced with the diversity of academic qualifications and professional training in the West. As a result, they unconsciously fall victims to their cultural exclusions while grappling with the intricacies and complexities of certifying procedures, and qualification status relativities and educational qualities." (Ming Sheng Li, 1999, p.p. 185-186) The complexity of language Ming Sheng Li employs in this description of the Chinese administrators' difficulties assessing the foreigner's credentials signals that she is really afraid to call a spade a spade.

Once, on page 123 of her extensive research she notices: "In addition, the lack of the screening procedures and the management practice on the part of the Chinese administration, might have contributed, to some extent, to the recruitment of irresponsible teacher" (Ming Sheng Li, 1999, p. 123). Even her word choice: "might have contributed, to some extent" etc. speaks for itself. The only thing I can say is – give me a break! Nobody pressures the Chinese administrators to hire any foreigner, they can screen, interview, assess, question anyone as long as they want. It's not a "lack of the screening procedures" – it is the inability to implement and apply the existing ones.The need for direct observation and for calling incompetence an incompetence has become obvious.

The paradigm shift in ESL teaching was well described and analyzed in George Jacobs and Thomas Farrell's *Paradigm Shift: Understanding and Implementing Change in Second Language Education* (Jacobs, G., Farrell T, 2001).[iv] It's time to say that the research paradigm should also move forward towards more field studies and anthropological research of what's happening at the grass root level of teaching and administrating. The new situation in education and mushrooming of new colleges like Xingjian make traditional sociological and pedagogical research methods based on qualitative and quantitative analysis of data obtained from carefully tailored questionnaires, if not obsolete, but at least much less reliable and effective than they used to be with regard to traditional opinion polls and analysis of the administrators and teachers' response. In case of poor, blurred and inertial motivation of the learners and teachers, there is no reliable database for any conclusion based on the non-motivated people's responses.

The only feasible point of view from which some conclusions can be made, especially on the particular case studies and in case of small scale research, is the point of view of an internal observer who really works on the ground and talks to the people at the grass-root level as the administrators, visiting researchers, external polls, questionnaires and very often students and learners themselves provide wrong or at least partially true information. So the most effective method for this sort in inquiry into the new academic paradigm of Asian colleges cannot be based on questionnaires and polls exclusively as most of proponents of this "bimethodological" sociological research in the sphere of ESL teaching and learning would claim, particularly Ming Sheng Li in her important work *Perceptions of the Place of Expatriate English Teachers in China* (Ming Sheng Li, p.p.57-58).

She claims after R.B. Burns that "both qualitative and quantitative methods are used collaboratively to develop lines of inquiry to provide multiple sources of more accurate and convincing evidence than a single source of information (Yin, 1989) and to ensure research credibility (Davis, 1995). The two research approaches, derived from different philosophies, can be legitimately used as a research tool proving alternative insight into human behavior (Burns, 1994, p.241). The qualitative mode enables the researcher to explore the complex nature of the research questions that might be unattainable through the quantitative approach while the latter can supplement the qualitative approach with statistical data" (Ming Sheng Li, 1999, p.p.57-58). This synthesis of the qualitative and quantitative approaches has a few deficiencies with regard to Ming Sheng Li's research. First, her research and polls were conducted in 1997 when the phenomenon of the new, edutaining, academic paradigm was not so visible in China, so she simply could not notice such a drastic change when edutainment became, if not prevalent in general, but at least dominating in many, particularly private, Chinese colleges.

The limits of my analysis are also obvious as I'm claiming that the quantitative methods based on questionnaires and opinion polls amongst students, administrators and teachers are mostly misleading and irrelevant in the new academic paradigm. So what's left? First, the qualitative analysis based on personal interviews, private conversations and personal experience of working in the particular new academic milieu that suits the definition of edutainment is the only solid ground for conclusions on the nature of this new teaching paradigm. Second, some qualitative methods and analysis of opinions can still be used as a supplement, particularly when it doesn't contradict common sense and the dominant mindset of the institution where the interviews were conducted. Finally, I'll repeat one of the Western researchers in the Asian context: "My subjectivity is pivotal in my own research since it ultimately defines the boundaries of any observation study I do" (McKinley J., p.139, 2005).

Raising the Academic Level

At Jiaying University, foreign teachers have been teaching Oral English, Writing, Survey UK/US, sometimes Newspaper Reading and British Literature, maximum 4-6 hours a week out of up to 30 periods. At Xingjian College, foreign teachers dominate in the time-table and they teach much more than 50 % of classes, up to 20-22 hours out of 30 on average. The Chinese teachers are bound to instruct in Translation, English Grammar and the Humanities. In fact, it is an entirely different education despite the fact that it stays within the same education standard. A kaleidoscopic rotation of

foreign teaching methods, accents, backgrounds and faces broaden the students' horizons and understanding no matter if sometimes the teachers' qualification is relatively low. At least, the students can compare their teaching methods and attitudes.

It is hard to judge what happen in the Chinese teachers' classes in details, but at Xingjian College they are openly assigned by the administration to prepare students for the national exams that traditionally takes a lot of students efforts as the Chinese employers actually pay big attention to graduates' certificates and how many of the national certificates of honour a graduate obtained such as Test for English Majors-4 and -8, College English Test-4, 6 and 8, The College English Test-spoken English Test (CET-SET) etc. (Jingyang Jian, 2006, p.p. 30-34)[v] So in those still pretty much exam oriented classes taught by Chinese teachers something valuable is learned there and some knowledge acquired. In this regard, not much can be done, a 3000 years of Chinese educational exam-oriented tradition cannot be scrapped quickly, but the purpose of reducing this exam-orientation influence is clearly visible.

When it comes to foreign teachers' schedules, there is big number of subjects that repeat themselves. Some subjects taught by foreigners have some content related to English culture and the Humanities, such as British Literature, American Literature, American Culture, English Speaking Countries where history, social systems, culture of English speaking countries are studied. At the same time, there are many disciplines based exclusively on communication and students' use of the language: Communication, Listening, Writing, Comprehensive English, Extensive Reading, Integrated English Skills and special language courses such as Interchange, Passages. Such abundance of communicative subjects is understandable as outside those classes with foreigners Xingjian students have very few chances to speak and use the learned language (English speech contest, English corners, some relatively rare seminars, lectures and classes, otherwise what is left are just self-study, phone calls to friends in other countries, TV and video, karaoke bars, written communication with schools and companies students want to continue their studies or work for).

Each class has at least three courses based on communication in English such as Communication, Interchange, Comprehensive English, Integrated English Skills in addition to more traditional Creative Writing, Extensive Reading, Listening. As a result, the students practice similar communicative skills in different situations under the guidance of different foreign teachers in accordance with the principle "the more English communication, the better". Perhaps, the administration and the students' parents who pay three times more for the same standard course of English do not mind. The curriculum development is a professionals' business and the experts can always explain and back up their choice of courses. Plus, the preparation for the national exams TEM-4 and TEM-8 still continues to dominate in the students' (as well as their parents') minds, so the foreign teachers help the students pass the Chinese exams many teachers even have no idea of.[vi] Needless to say, the TEM-4 and TEM-8 pass rate at the college is very low as the majority of the foreign instructors do not know about the Chinese national exams for English majors. It makes it one of the most obvious contradictions within the Chinese education system in English.

There is a doubt whether this big amount of teaching hours spent on studies of the oral English language under various rubrics of Interchange and Passages raise quality of education. First, oral English studies in big groups of students of different levels are not very productive by definition, although the size of classes at Xingjian College is 30 students only. At Jiaying University's Foreign Languages Department, this number is much bigger, 40 or even 45 on average while it can be up to 60-70 people in a class of non-English majors. Second, normally, ESL foreign teachers hired as ESL teachers cannot offer anything else as their professional competence varies significantly from college teachers and engineers to landscapers and truck-drivers. Their professional competence is often superfluous as, even if they may be able to teach some subjects related to their professions in the past, the Chinese students have came to this college not for studies of Mechanics or Electronics, but for courses on English language, culture, elementary managerial and business practices. So a foreign ESL teacher at Xingjian (as well as at thousands other colleges in China) has to teach ESL and English speaking countries culture related subjects and courses exclusively, so very often it turns into just teaching the students basic English, some personal experience and, sometimes, elementary business practises. As the teaching is mostly based on personal experience, edutainment prevails. It certainly has some value and teaching function, but hardly can be called an education in proper sense of the word as the students' logical and interpretational skills, generalization abilities and cultural horizons are not developing alongside the language speaking skills, but very often stagnating as there are not enough professional teachers to help develop these skills.

This is the main problem of educational projects in the English language in Chinese colleges like Xingjian: from the sociological standpoint, the educational process is based on repetition of similar or even the same educational situations under the guidance of different non-professional teachers. The

student has to repeat the same phrases in different situations, but eventually it is the same ESL i.e. grammar, syntax, communication in English, reading of texts aimed at just understanding and reading comprehension but not acquisition of various interpretation skills and strategies what a proper education in the learned language should be based upon. So the Chinese college of very expensive and even, to a certain extent, elitist education in English function as a karaoke-bar where faces, music and lyrics change, but the communication and performance standard is the same – repeating, following or lip-synching the teletext. In this case, the students certainly learn something valuable, but not as much as they could and pay for. Their talents, basic logical and generalization skills stagnate. As it's impossible to sing better than a singer in a karaoke sample, so the students can never do better than in the original. Ideally, students should have such a chance of doing better than the karaoke-original, but the college doesn't provide it.

Academic Stability, Normalcy and Predictability

Another big problem of Chinese colleges like Xingjian is their instability, not in terms of finance, but in terms of academic curricula and teaching practices. In well-established western universities, very often it doesn't matter who teaches the course, conducts seminars and tutoring as the level of teaching, standardized procedures, syllabi, teaching practices have been stabilized for a long time, if not for centuries. Plus the students' orientation to gain knowledge independently and the teacher's role as a facilitator in this process help motivate the student audience. In China, the role of personality of the teacher is still very important as the foreign teachers' academic level, backgrounds, motivations, experiences are vastly different even within one college and often vary from a retired truck driver or church minister to a retired or acting university professor. In the situation of low motivation and lack of real perspectives to use the English language in everyday life in China, the teacher's level and personality type really matter

In such an unstable academic situation when the contingent of foreign teachers is hired randomly on the basis of not their teaching and research credentials (many people Xingjian college hired within the last 3 years, for example, just did not have them at all, and most of 100.000 English teachers hired in China annually do not have teaching experience, let alone teaching experience in China) and academic achievements how it always happens in western colleges and many Asian universities now, but, in fact, on the first come/first hired basis, the secondary elements of the traditional academia should be emphasized: stability of curricula and syllabi, predictability of courses and textbooks, clarity of contracts and their extensions, predictable policies and micromanagement practices. The system "Chinese college-foreign teacher" needs stability and predictability of teaching plans and syllabi to give teachers more time to prepare for courses as it happens in the best Western universities. If a teacher knows what s/he will teach next term, next year, in 2 years, s/he will prepare better and it will look like a serious job with serious attitude rather than a search of tourism opportunities. With the college high salaries, by Chinese standards, the teacher doesn't need to change places in China often, s/he can travel around China in holiday. And it the administration adds some opportunities from research and supervising students dissertations helping them with their research, then it will eventually look like a solid western university.

When the number of foreign teachers exceeds 25 like at Xingjian College, the everyday micromanagement tasks should be assigned to an authoritative group-leader, a professional with big teaching experience but not a Chinese administrator with minimal international experience or foreign dilettante-teacher. This teacher can be paid a full salary just for administrative job and setting up exams and syllabi which will result in a unification of the teaching processes. There will be no need in co-ordinators, all other intermediary leaders and administrators as the process will be similar to the normal practices of traditional western universities, so the academic situation and paradigms will be close to normalcy.

The factor of stability and predictability of courses and teaching loads is becoming crucial as the number of poorly motivated students in Chinese college classrooms exceeds the limits teachers in Western countries have got used to, so the teaching and communicative skills, variety of teaching techniques, various classroom student centred activities and extra teaching materials are vitally important to keep the students interested in the process. All these things require the teacher's time, experience (that should be acquired within a few months, if not weeks), desire to change and learn in the completely new teaching environment when the teacher and just a few good students in classroom are really interested in learning, and they both have to make efforts to keep the class silent majority at least partially involved. The situations like the one I described are very common at Xingjian College. A foreign teacher with minimal or zero experience (they keep hiring this sort of people despite the clear tendency that these newly converted English teachers don't stay at Xingjian longer than a year) will in

100 % cases prefer to establish friendly relationship with students first and very often at any cost, but he majority of the students want an easygoing and relaxed teaching approach, minimum or no home assignments and just a pleasant classroom atmosphere.

So the teacher, particularly a newcomer to China, faces a dilemma. S/he inevitably has to cater for the interests of the two (sometimes 3) clearly cut groups, the minority who seriously want to learn, to use time productively in classroom, participate and the majority who just want to have a good time, to entertain themselves, to relax and, maybe, to learn some easy things. The 3rd group can be just those ballast students who can join both groups depending on their mood or the teachers' policy. For an experienced teacher with a strong will and communicative skills, a lot of teaching techniques and prepared material, normally, this is not a big challenge as the situation may be similar to the one in a problematic public school in the US or Britain, and after 3 or 4 years of teaching in this environment people can handle the arising problems with motivation and discipline relatively well.

The newly arrived teachers are very often completely lost facing such a problematic Chinese class, so the struggle to find a way of balancing between the two competing groups without giving too much preference to any. Here is the crucial moment when the Chinese administration can really help. They have to abandon their attitude based on the native-speaker-ideal fallacy[vii] and recognize that even if they hire native-speakers on the basis that they are considered better teachers, these NS teachers are not automatically competent in any aspect of English teaching and many of them actually need elementary help in class-management and everyday communication with students. The most important help from the college administration that a freshman English teacher can rely on is, apart from the expected (but not often provided at all) detailed job induction and thorough introduction of the strong and weak sides of the particular college's students community.

The crucial moment in this fragile process of establishing the right work ethic among the poorly motivated college students is when the college administration has to unquestionably support hard working and motivated students. These class leaders and the best students should be instructed on how to establish the good working relationship with a new teacher and how to help a new foreign teacher with minimum or no experience to teach in the most effective way.

The next big problem is what to do about the (unfortunately, dominant in many Chinese private colleges) vast majority of mediocre, inept students who are generally not good at academic studies and they just happen to be at this college due their family financial support and pressure to learn English. Their academic difficulties can be also attributed to the different learning styles they prefer from visual, analytic to tactile and kinaesthetic. These students can be even called the victims of this recent frenzy and common fashion of English learning in China as they naively anticipate that they will learn the target language quickly and easily, but in still very big Chinese classes of 30 students, achieving a high level of oral and written English proficiency is rather an exception than a rule. As soon as those mediocre students realize that learning English at the highest level is not a cake walk, they lose interest and become a burden for the teachers and classmates.

Rao Zhenhui, the Chinese ESL expert, suggested "that teachers employ instruments to identify students' learning styles and provide instructional alternatives to address their differences, and that teachers plan lessons to match students' learning styles while at the same time encouraging students to diversify their learning style preferences. By doing this we can assist our students in becoming more effective language learners."[viii]

The obvious rational objection to Rao Zhenhui's suggestion is that similar mismatches between learning and teaching styles happen in every classroom all around the world regardless of the students' dominant learning style which is, in all probability, visual as the recent influence of TV, movies, video, etc. So the ESL (and other) teachers all around the world normally cater to this new shift in their students' preferences of learning styles, and the use of visual teaching materials, PowerPoint presentations is on the rise in classrooms everywhere. But there is one big difference between the western universities' classroom and the one in Chinese private colleges that reinforces the need for teachers to cater to all students' exclusive and individual learning styles and intelligences whatever exotic they may be: in western universities students (with such exotic and rare learning styles like musical or spatial as they described in Phyllis Ghim-Lian Chew's *Globalization, Multiple Intelligences, and ELT in Singapore*) have to adapt to the dominant visual, verbal and analytical teaching styles, because if they will not do that, they will fail the particular course and eventually be expelled from the college. At Chinese private colleges and many 2nd or even 1st tier colleges, Chinese students do not have to adapt and do not feel forced to adapt as they will not be expelled from school on such an insignificant reason as failing one or two courses, even if they fail a foreign teacher's course many times. The student's chance of failure and eventual expulsion from school makes a big difference, and many foreign teachers at Chinese colleges would certainly like to see a much bigger number of lazy and unmotivated students to be just expelled.

At western universities, nobody will care about switching the university class to a dancing or singing or drawing contest, as most of the time, the students have to adapt to social dominant rules. In Chinese classrooms, the financial reasons, face-gaining and preserving issues, guangxi-based relationship between college administrators and students' parents happen a way too often, and this loophole allows many apparently lazy and undisciplined students hamper the others' progress.

Conclusions and Suggestions

The principle "the more English communication, the better" for the system "Chinese college-foreign teacher" is questionable. Eventually, it has to be converted into "The more quality communication in English, the better". The administration should find out what other strong sides foreign teachers have apart from being native speakers of English, to find out where their best professional competence is, and try to distribute courses in accordance with the competence. Similar communicative courses like Interchange, Integrated English Skills, Comprehensive English, Communication where students do the same things should be diversified and supplemented where possible by other courses foreigners can deliver such as business practices, internet technologies, computer technologies, practices of multinational businesses, western culture, philosophy, sociology, history of some countries (let it be Australia or New Zealand, countries the course of English Speaking Countries is normally not focused on).

It should be their real history with real problems (not the teacher's personal adventures there), the syllabi can be productively borrowed from Australian and New Zealand universities and schools, so level of the course and teaching will be higher and the teacher's task will be just to adapt the course to the low motivated Chinese students. In any case, the raising of the teaching level will keep away people who come to China for a change, to relax, to find a girlfriend, to raise the low status in their home country, to spend some time before retirement etc., but it will eventually improve the college reputation. Those strangers in teaching profession and second youth seekers will have to go to less demanding places or just start working better.

The amount of plagiarism in writing students dissertation should be drastically cut down. This is the crucial moment when the Chinese administrators should act quickly and decisively, even if their understanding of what academic plagiarism is still may be blurred.

The administrators should stabilize the academic environment at private colleges, provide a semi-western or at least westernized teaching and academic situation with priorities given to those students who are actively participating in real plagiarism-free research projects an eventually get a high retention ratios. They should rely more on foreign teachers' expertise and utilize it fully in terms of courses people are given to teach and research projects they conduct with students instead of so common, but boring dinners the beginning and the end of semesters and team-building meetings that help to report about "cultural synergy and collaborative culture where foreign expertise could be fully utilize to serve the Chinese ELT purposes" (Li Ming-sheng, p.225), but in reality they just waste people's time.

Finally, Chinese education in English should be presented not as a commercial project only with all its shortcomings such as the reluctance to expel students for bad examination results and plagiarised dissertations, i.e. the education should be transformed from a cake walk edutainment under the guidance of not-demanding dilettante-teachers into the traditional academic paradigm as the hard work endeavour with a risk of failure.

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NOTES

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[i] There are a few English websites on Jiaiyng: http://www.admissions.cn/jyu/; http://www.davidson.edu/academic/anthropology/erlozada/papers/jiada/jdeng.htm; http://www.study-in-china.org/school/guangdong/jyu/majors.asp
[ii] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meizhou
[iii] Niu Qiang, Wolff Martin *China EFL: An Industry Run Amuck* // ESL\EFL in China. Articles written by Niu Qiang, PhD and Martin Wolff, J.D about English language teaching and learning in China. (http://www.usingenglish.com/esl-in-china/esl-amuck.pdf)
[iv] George Jacobs and Thomas Farrell's *Paradigm Shift: Understanding and Implementing Change in Second Language Education* // *TESL-EJ: Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* - Vol. 5. No. 1, April 2001 (http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/past-issues/volume5/ej17/ej17a1/)
Paradigm Shift in Second Language Education: In second language education, the principal paradigm shift over the past 40 years flowed from the positivism to post-positivism shift and involved a move away from the tenets of behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics and toward cognitive, and later, socio-cognitive psychology and more contextualized, meaning-based views of language. Key components on this shift concerned:

1. Focusing greater attention on the role of learners rather than the external stimuli learners are receiving from their environment. Thus, the center of attention shifted from the teacher to the student. This shift is generally known as the move from teacher-centered instruction to learner-centered or learning-centered instruction.
2. Focusing greater attention on the learning process rather than on the products that learners produce. This shift is known as a move from product-oriented instruction to process-oriented instruction.
3. Focusing greater attention on the social nature of learning rather than on students as separate, decontextualized individuals.
4. Focusing greater attention on diversity among learners and viewing these differences not as impediments to learning but as resources to be recognized, catered to and appreciated. This shift is known as the study of individual differences.
5. Focusing greater attention on the views of those internal to the classroom rather than solely valuing the views of those who come from outside to study classrooms, evaluate what goes on there and engage in theorizing about it. This shift led to such innovations as qualitative research - with its valuing of the subjective and affective, of the participants' insider views and of the uniqueness of each context.
6. Along with this emphasis on context came the idea of connecting the school with the world beyond as a means of promoting holistic learning.

7. Helping students to understand the purpose of learning and develop their own purposes.
8. A whole-to-part orientation instead of a part-to-whole approach. This involves such approaches as beginning with meaningful whole texts and then helping students understand the various features that enable to texts to function, e.g., the choice of words and the text's organizational structure.
9. An emphasis on the importance of meaning rather than drills and other forms of rote learning.
10. A view of learning as a lifelong process rather than something done to prepare for an exam.

[v] Jingyang Jian, *Communicative Activities in EFL Classrooms*, Zhejiang University Press, 2006. p.173: "Some college and universities have included the oral test as a course requirement. Students feel more motivated to practise oral English, even though it is an extrinsic motivation, but it is better than none at all" (p.34).

[vi] Chinese students and administrators are still preoccupied the national exams. There are many examples of the negative influence of the exam-oriented system on the students' achievements such as: "However, Nobel Prize has never been issued to any scholar from the Chinese mainland, as examination-oriented education here pushes students to become interested only in the result of examinations, rather than the mastery of knowledge." // http://www.7139.com/ennews/edu/200808/64909.html

[vii] "The native-speaker-teacher ideal has remained as a central part of the conventional wisdom of the ELT profession. As with many hegemonic practices, there has been a tendency to accept it without question" - Phillipson R. *ELT: The Native Speaker's Burden?*// Hedge T., Whitney N.(Eds.) *Power, Pedagogy & Practice,* Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1996.p.p. 27.

[viii] In all academic classrooms, no matter what the subject matter, there will be students with multiple learning styles and students with a variety of major, minor and negative learning styles. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. Hinkelman and Pysock (1992), for example, have demonstrated the effectiveness of a multimedia methodology for vocabulary building with Japanese students. This approach is effective in tapping a variety of learning modalities. By consciously accommodating a range of learning styles in the classroom in this way, it is possible to encourage most students to become successful language learners. (Zhenhui Rao, *Matching Teaching Styles with Learning Styles in East Asian Contexts* // The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. VII, No. 7, July 2001 (http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Zhenhui-TeachingStyles.html)).

Overcoming obstacles to integrate of Media Education in school curricula

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Abstract

The production of media messages contributes to the development of critical skills on the analyses of media messages. However, teachers and students do not have opportunities to work in the production of media messages at school. This paper presents the preliminary results of a research project whose aim is to help teachers and students in the production of on-line and/or printed school newspapers in order to develop Media Education in the Region of Castelo Branco, Portugal.

1 - Media Education: overcoming obstacles

Media Education has never been so present in the agenda of educators and the researchers as nowadays. Following the efforts of Unesco that started in the 60s and Grünwald Declaration in 1982 the development of Media Education was not equal in every country. Nowadays countries like Canada, Australia and New Zealand overcome the expectations when implementing this area in the curricula so important for the long life learning of the citizens of the 21st Century.

Most of education comes through media that do not show reality but represents it (Potter, 2005). Citizens must therefore be able to interpret critically media content besides producing media messages. Production is a key skill to develop critical analyses of media messages (Carlsson e von Felitzen, 2006).

Media Education will be the pedagogical activities developed in order to increase Media Literacy of citizens being the later result of the first. (Buckingham, 2003). We identify with the following definition: "Media literacy is the ability to access, understand, analyze, evaluate, create and communicate information in a variety of contexts and formats, including print and non print, in order to empower citizens to control their relationship with the media" (Comrie, Vacarino, Fountaine e Watson, 2007, p. 14).

So we can understand the effort of other countries and organizations to follow the most developed countries in this area. This year the United Nations through the Alliance of Civilisations and Grupo Comunicar (Frau-Meigs and Torrent, 2009) published a book on the situation of Media Education in several countries of the five continents. In the book it is clear that in spite of existing good practices, the true is that many obstacles still exist in the development of Media Education. Another good example arose this year in the United States of America with the creation and the realization of the first conference of National Association for a Media Literate America (Namle), in August 2009. In this conference it was clear that Media Education should be integrated in the curricula of all teaching levels, especially in the initial and in-service teacher training of all scientific subjects. This feeling is similar in the European Union, especially in the beginning of this century with the realization of the first European Congress on Media Education and the creation of the Media-educ (2004) network on-line. Two years after this network evoluted to Euro Media Literacy network, that produced and published the European Charter for Media Literacy (2006), signed by hundreds of people of several countries. In 2007 the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona was asked to produce the state of the art of Media Education in the European Union. The results showed that there is a great work to be done in relation to four fundamental aspects: i) designation and consensual definition of Media Education; ii) teacher training; iii) integration of Media Education in the curricula; iv) the development of research projects on Media Education in schools (UAB, 2007).

As a consequence of the state of the art, the European Commission (2007) published a Declaration that defends the urgent integration of Media Education in all curricula of all teaching levels. This proposal was reinforced in a document approved by the European Parliament (2008), as a consequence of an Austrian proposal. This one was also one of the twelve proposals published by Unesco in a conference held in Paris to commemorate the 25th anniversary of the Grünwald Declaration.

As a consequence of these documents and having in mind the work developed by several European researchers (Buckingham, 2007, 2008; Frau-Meigs, 2006, 2008; Rivoltella, 2007), we identified several obstacles that the development of Media Education face, as follows:

a) The digital divide between: rich and poor countries; generations; students;
b) The conservative character of the educational systems;
c) The indefinition about the best way to insert Media Education in the curricula;
d) The low support politicians dedicate to Media Education;
e) Copyright questions (*i.e.* non-acceptance of fair use);
f) The low interest media demonstrate about the media messages produced by children and young people;
g) The lack of educational resources both in human and in technological terms;
h) The lack of cooperation between different knowledge areas, educative, social and political actors;
i) The lack of evaluation of the projects developed, which is fundamental to give visibility to these projects and also to good practices could emerge.

These obstacles are common to other countries in the World as well as the proposal to overcome them. Out of those proposals we summed up 20 organized in five groups:

Education and training

a) Media Education must be inserted in the curricula of every teaching level (including teacher training) that may be adaptable to local contexts.
b) Initiatives in the field must be on production of media messages, creativity and interactivity within and outside the school;
c) Media Education must be faced within cultural logics and not within a functionalist one;
d) Media Education must be included in life long education;
e) It is necessary to pay attention to copyright;
f) It is necessary to mobilize all the actors of the schooling system to integrate Media Education in the curriculum.

Academic research

g) Develop research in the field;
h) The research must: *i*) be interdisciplinary ; *ii*) include literature review; *iii*) assess practices; *iv*) define quality criteria; *v*) define skills to acquire each school level; *vi*) help field projects; *vii*) analyse the contribute of other actors (parents…); *viii*) include dialogue with teachers that work in direct relation with students;
i) Define evaluation criteria on citizens literacy as well as criteria for evaluating initiatives and projects;
j) Develop pedagogical resources (in traditional and/or digital support) validated with students, teachers, researchers and media professionals;
k) Create dissemination networks of research outcomes at local and international level, increasing international cooperation;
l) Define methodologies that foresee an evolution of the role of the teacher and the higher participation of students and connection with the community;
m) Create ethical recommendations for researchers.

ICT and media

n) Promote the access to media in a ecological perspective so that everyone can accede all traditional and digital media;
o) Discuss educational licenses so that schools have access to the most recent technologies and contents;

Institutions

p) Involve regulators in order to promote co- and auto-regulation with;
q) Organize seminars, meetings, international conferences to exchange experiences;
r) Sensitize and mobilize the policy makers to the importance of Media Education showing them outcomes of the developed initiatives;

Civil Society

s) Alert public in general to the importance of Media Education of citizens of the 21st Century;

t)   Mobilize all the actors, parents, teachers, media professionals and youth associations.

2 – Media Education in Castelo Branco (Portugal): 2005-2010

A research project to overcome the situation in Portugal started in 2007. We had in mind the obstacles and the proposals to overcome them and the research steps were based on the following:

a)   Develop pedagogical multimedia tools to support students and teachers in the production of media messages;
b)   Validate material with experts, teachers and students;
c)   Develop research in schools with students and teachers;
d)   Associate university research, teachers and media companies;
e)   Involve the Ministry of Education;
f)   Disseminate the Project and his outcomes in a Internet site as well as in national and international conferences;
g)   Organize two conferences (one national and one international) to present the final outcomes.

First we decided to work with printed school newspapers because new media did not replace the old media (Lievrouw and Livingstone, 2006). Besides school newspapers are among the media most present in schools. The great majority of Portuguese schools publish regularly a printed school newspaper (Gonçalves, 2007).
In Portugal since 1991 there is the National Contest of School Newspapers promoted by the daily newspaper Público (2005) and the Ministry of Education. Every year around four hundred contestants participate either in paper or on-line. The National Curriculum of Basic Education also points out actions to be developed by each teacher in order to help students to develop skills like: i) bring together school and current life, with particular emphasis on important issues; ii) help youngsters to decode media language; iii) develop a critical approach; iv) encourage the school population to read newspapers; v) guarantee a more active learning of the Portuguese language. Among those actions there is one that foresees the need to establish a narrow link between school, media and ICT (Ministério da Educação, 2001).
Our interest is in newspapers mainly school newspapers because we think that they can have an important role introducing Media Literacy in the curricula. School newspapers are nowadays published either in paper or on-line, being a link between traditional and digital media. The school newspaper is to Pinto (1991) an easy and cheap media, an important resource to develop critic sense, reflexive styles and habits and creativity, respect for diversity of opinions and the interest in up to date news. He also states that the newspaper can be used in the classroom as a meaningful pedagogical and didactic help in several subjects.
School newspapers production can increase citizens Media Literacy level but there are several obstacles to that production. According the research developed by several authors (Abrantes, 1998; Beach, 2007, Breda, 2005; Carlsson e von Felitzen, 2006; Chenevez, 2007; Costa, 2006; Gonçalves, 2007; Gonnet, 1999, 2006; Lescaille, Correy and Famery, 2004; Mediappro, 2006; Pinto, 2003) we identified the following obstacles to school newspapers production:

a)   Lack of teacher training;
b)   Lack of students training;
c)   News not following journalistic rules;
d)   Students do not participate at every stage of school newspaper production;
e)   Inexistence of a deontological code for youth;
f)   Topics of news for the school newspapers are imposed to the students;
g)   Copyright issues;
h)   Inexistence of school newspaper data bases;
i)   Poor printing quality and limited editions;
j)   Limitations to circulation;

2.1 – Production and validation of the CD-Rom "Let's produce school newspapers"

We have decided to develop and validate the CD-Rom "Vamos fazer jornais escolares" ("Let's produce school newspapers"), whose aim is to help 11-16 years old students and their teachers in the production of school newspapers either printed or online.

At a specific level the CD-Rom aims to: *i*) training and motivation of students and teachers to the pedagogical use of newspapers; *ii*) develop skills in students in order they become critical readers; *iii*) develop skills in students that allow them to produce critical and reflexive media messages; *iv*) citizenship education. As far as the contents the CD-Rom is organized in seven units: newspaper organization, writing to the newspaper, newspaper production, newspaper analysis, from paper to the www, resources and FAQs. In these units written text, audio, photos and videos are available. It also includes a navigation map, a glossary, help and a section about the CD-Rom, where the contents, objectives and types of activities are explained.

DVD main entrance

The CD-Rom was validated by multimedia and newspaper experts, and was tested by 104 students and four teachers in two Portuguese schools along a school year. Classes were video and audio recorded and field notes were also taken. The results from this PhD thesis showed that:

a) 102 in 104 students referred they liked working with the DVD;
b) 99 in 104 students referred that the DVD helped them in the production of contents for the school newspaper;
c) According to the teachers involved the texts written by the students came close journalistic texts;
d) The number of collaborators to make the school newspaper overcome, for the first time, 50 people in each school;
e) Students wrote texts specifically aimed to be published in the school newspaper;
f) Texts that motivated the students more were those whose topics were chosen by them or negotiated with the teachers;
g) Teachers referred that the DVD was innovative, underlined more motivation, autonomy and responsibility by the students.
h) Before using the DVD students wrote mainly about: *i*) major issues; *ii*) other school issues (i.e. study visits); *iii*) important dates like the Father's Day, Mother's Day, St. Valentine´s Day, and so on. When the DVD was used, students wrote about: *i*) animal protection; *ii*) sports (i.e. World Cup); *iii*) history of the ice-cream; *iv*) music (the hip-hop culture; MTV Music Awards); *v*) The replacement classes; *vi*) The school bar schedule; *vii*) The bad quality of the food of the school bar.

The students have also interviewed ex-school colleagues that were already working, the Spanish teacher and the new school principal. One of the issues that seemed important was the fact that students worried about writing articles about matters that interest them but in their opinion also interested their school mates. They worried to write for an audience at the same time they were part of that audience, because they were readers of the school newspaper (Tomé, 2008).

2.2. – From the PhD thesis to the research project

The results were quite good. So we decided to present a research project having the PhD thesis and the improvement of the CD-Rom as the starting point. The Project was funded by Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia and European Social Fund. It was called Media Education in Castelo Branco region and

aims to: *i*) allow students and teachers a better knowledge in relation to the several steps in the production of a printed or online newspaper; *ii*) improve newspaper reading; *iii*) contribute to students become critical decoders and reflexive producers of media messages; *iv*) increase the use of digital media (DVD, Internet, ...); *v*) improve contents and graphics of existing school newspapers in the region of Castelo Branco; *vi*) approach schools to the educational community.

The Project also developed a handbook to help teachers with pedagogical activities, a website (www.literaciamedia.com) and a template to help teachers and students producing online newspaper.

The website of the Project underlines mostly the essential news to be developed during the three years of the Project. It is a mean to get in touch with the newspapers produced in schools by students and teachers, having also a fundamental role – to enlarge the relationships among the researchers, and the teachers of the participating schools. Besides the support of members of the project in schools whenever necessary the objective is to take advantage of new technologies. All the doubts and problems that may arise may be solved through the creation of a forum in the project website that may prevent travelling around the region and a waste of time.

Project Website

Although authors as Breda (2005) and Gonçalves (2007) considering that it is too soon to what they call "cybernetic derive" of the school newspapers as they estimate that the number of schools that edit a school newspaper does not reach more than 10 per cent, we decided to create tools so that students and teachers could produce on-line school newspapers on a regular basis, even without expertise in the field.

 Template for on-line newspapers production

We created a platform, to be available to all participating schools during the first semester of this school year, with the following characteristics:
   a)   Each school can produce one or more newspaper, with different editions of each one;
   b)   Titles, subtitles and contents are personalized, so sections and subsections are defined by the newspaper editor;
   c)   News can be in various formats such as text, images, audio, video, as well as files with more than one format, i.e. multimedia;

d) Image, audio, video or multimedia content can be inserted no matter the format or the file of the file because the platform has a system that adapts the file to be visualized on-line;

e) Contents can be edited by school administrators, newspaper administrators, teachers and students, however the contents produced by the students must be allowed by the editor before being shown on-line;

f) Content insertion can only be done by registered users. The registration is done by the editor of the newspaper and so users can only introduce news for the newspaper they are registered in;

g) The newspapers produced by the schools can be printed as the platform creates a PDF version automatically;

h) The platform has a system that allows news to be visualised in PDA cell phones with Internet.

The handbook frames Media Education in Europe and in Portugal, explains the Project as well as the DVD "Vamos fazer jornais escolares" contents and some pedagogical worksheets that teachers can use with their students. In the second part 14 technical worksheets are included in order to help teachers interacting with newspaper production online platform.

3 – Preliminary results

The DVD, the handbook and the access to the online platform were given to the 24 schools in November and December 2008. 50 teachers and 623 students are working in the Project. Besides the material the research team was always available to support teachers and students going two schools whenever asked.

The research team is made up by researchers of five Portuguese universities and two foreign universities (Italy, France), and has the support of media a company Netsigma and the biggest newspaper in Castelo Branco, Reconquista, that prints the school newspapers produced freely.

After the data analysis of the interviews made to the teachers we concluded:

a) Schools published more editions with more copies: 23 out of 24 schools published a printed newspaper (15 schools published three editions and the others only two) with one thousand copies per edition.

b) Only five schools published an online newspaper and only two used the online platform. Those who did not published an online newspaper justified it with lack of time, the existence of a school Moodle platform, hardware problems and the existence of a PDF edition of the printed newspaper.

c) The DVD was used by the students of the 12 schools that had a journalism club. In three schools a DVD was used by the students only once or during the first week of classes (3) being locked up afterwards. In the other schools it was used only by the teachers (4 schools) or it was not even used. Teachers who did not used the DVD said they had no time or had no instructions to use.

d) The DVD was mainly used in the computer room, in the journalism club or in regular classrooms with laptops. It was also used in Portuguese and ICT but mainly in non-disciplinary areas (Project, Citizenship Education and Accompanied Study).

e) Teachers considered the DVD accessible (E8, E24), helped to structure the news (E1, E14), and to produce news according to the different journalistic genres (E9, E 10, E12, E24), besides facilitating the contact with newspaper lay out (E2). It was also used as a guide (E11, E17, E19, E20), explained where to search images with no copyright (E9, E14), followed the concept of hypertext (E12) and it was used to teach the units on journalistic text in the 3rd Cycle (E14, E22). "11th Grade students looked up for chronics and wrote some. I think we gave them wings to do and to publish their work" (Teachers from school E14r).

f) Teachers did not point out difficulties in the use of the DVD but referred obstacles in the implementation of the Project. Students copied text from Internet and used them as their own (E4), besides hardware problems (E5, E8, E14). "The Computer Room was not free in the schedule of the journalism club. The room given to the club had computers that did not work properly. The laptops available had lots of virus" (Teacher from school E8).

g) Only 12 out of 24 teachers admitted that the DVD had a positive impact in the production of the school newspaper mainly concerning to the news structure (E1, E15), the quantity of news and improvement for the next edition (E2, E4, E9), in terms of enthusiasm, discovery and novelty (E12) and the students autonomy in the production (E15). It was also important because the newspaper contained more news written by the students (E14, E17, E22, E23). "Before the newspaper only had news written by the teachers. The importance is that it becomes a newspaper written by students and that is what a school newspaper should be. And

had section as Books, Films, Games, sections the students wrote" (Teacher from school E14). In the other schools nothing changed in the production of the school newspaper.

h) The handbook given to schools printed and in PDF format was only used by five teachers but not really explored. In the majority of the cases it was kept and the pedagogical worksheets related to the use of the DVD were not used. In the schools it was used it supported the interaction with the online platform.

i) This school year only 16 out of the 24 teachers coordinating the project in the schools are available to work in the project. Three teachers were assigned to other school, five teachers that stay in the same school said they were tired, had no support and no time to go on developing the Project.

j) In four schools were the project is going on with the same teachers important improvements were verified: *i*) in the E19 school they proposed the school board a specific Project on the production of media messages; *ii*) in the E16 school the teacher asked for the school board more hours to develop the project; *iii*) in the E21 school the teacher is going to work with a class, before he was in charge of the library; *iv*) in the E2 school the Pedagogical Board approved the creation of a journalism club.

4. Conclusion

The DVD "Vamos produzir jornais escolares" can have an important role in the support of teachers and students as far as the production of school newspapers either printed or online. Its use depends, however, on the availability of the teachers as well as the functionality of hardware. Teachers that used it before consider that it had meaningful impact in the process of school newspaper production namely in what concerns the respect of the journalistic text rules, the quantity of texts produced, autonomy of students and inclusion of text written by students in the newspaper. In the schools the DVD was not used the school newspaper went on being produced as usual with texts written not for the school newspaper exclusively and with no concern with the rules of journalistic texts.

In spite of an online platform being created its impact could not be verified because only two schools used it. The rest of the school said they had no time and experienced difficulties with the platform. Our intent is therefore the inclusion of a template of a newspaper that each school can use to create its own online newspaper. Besides these two schools only three others published an online newspaper which is according to the literature that refers that is too soon to the cybernetic derive as far as school newspapers.

The handbook was only used in five schools so the pedagogical worksheet had no effect as they were not used. We intend to present and disseminate the handbook to the teachers now we have the final printed version.

From the data analysis we could verify that the schools that used the DVD more often were those with a journalism club. But the biggest issue seems to be the lack of time. Teachers only have one to three week hours to produce news with the students and the newspaper, what makes many to work extra hours to complete the task. Lack of time is also referred by students has one of the teachers stated: "The project is very interesting. It is a pity that teachers and students can not afford time. Students have examinations, homework. Our teaching is this way. Their schedule is fuller and fuller with more activities" (Teacher from school E14). It is important therefore that all educational teachers but manly policy makers concern with this area so that Media Education can be a reality in the curricula in Portugal.

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Acknowledgments

Teaching about media: a borrowed solution in education for worsening media environment in Taiwan

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ABSTRACT

Following the expansion of Taiwan's mass media after the end of military rule in 1987, there has been growing concern about the worsening media environment. The worsening media environment has been a long-lasting social phenomena in Taiwan since the early 1990s after the lift of martial law and the open of media market. This phenomena brings various debates and causes moral panic among parents. Advocates from difference sectors of Taiwanese society successfully lobbied the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2002 to initiate media literacy education which is viewed as one solution to the worsening media environment in Taiwan. As the first country in the East Asian region to promote media education in both formal and informal education systems, Taiwan's media education policy occupies a significant place in the development of media education in the region. This policy initiative aims at preparing students for a complicated media environment through borrowing the idea of media literacy from other countries like the UK, US and Canada.

This paper is going to explore the following issues:

1. How and where did the Taiwanese look for a solution to a local problem globally?
2. To what extent did the borrowed idea practice in a local context?

Empirical data are from interviews with policy-makers and stakeholders as well as the policy text. Drawing on theoretical and methodological approaches from policy sociology and critical discourse analysis, this paper focuses on how the discourse of media literacy which is borrowed form other countries is constructed to suit the local context and provide a potentially workable solution to the social problem locally. The importance of the paper is to provide a case study of policy borrowing and transferring in the East Asian context.

The Need to Teach Ungrammatical English

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Educators in the world need to be totally objective about the usefulness and linguistic status of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and incorporate it in their curriculums if they genuinely wish to achieve their aim of English Language Teaching (ELT), namely helping students to develop (verbal) communicative skills in English. From a pedagogical point of view too, ELF is systematically accommodated for nonnative speakers and thus more learner-friendly than native speakers' English.

1. Introduction

Ministries of Education in many countries where English is being taught as a foreign language look to countries where English is a native language for appropriate methods, and they have adopted Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which is indeed used widely by native English-speaking teachers in their own countries (McKay 2003). As Bax (2003) points out, however, this is rather unfortunate, since CLT has always neglected one key aspect of language teaching – namely, the context in which it takes place. As a result, CLT has never worked in countries like Japan, where main focus of education is still on heavy-duty examination preparation.

In today's globalized world, it is often the case that nonnative speakers of English communicate in English with other nonnative speakers, and what becomes crucial in this context is modification of native speakers' English for easier comprehension between nonnative speakers. This is English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and it even works in communicating with native speakers. After all, the aim of CLT is to help students develop communicative skills, and therefore the concept of ELF is fully compatible with CLT, the actual practice of which also emphasizes fluency rather than accuracy, in order to instill self-confidence by fostering a positive learning environment. Then why not adopt ELF from the beginning?

In what follows, I will argue, with special reference to the context of Japan, that if CLT is to be adopted in English teaching, the target should be ELF, not so called standard British or American English, and that written exams should all be replaced by oral proficiency tests based on ELF. I will also argue that educators should be totally objective about the status of ELF, since there is nothing illegitimate about these varieties of English from a purely scientific point of view. It will also be explained in passing how ELF might be more approachable for students who are culturally inhibited from speaking up, such as most students in Japan.

2. Background

Bax (2003) quotes a young teacher describing his arrival in Japan:

> In the manner of H.G. Wells' Time Traveler, I stumbled on a school that had remained oblivious to developments in language teaching, where teachers looked at me strangely when I questioned their obsession with Grammar-Translation and suggested that speaking was the most important skill involved in learning a language. (Diploma essay)

Bax then writes that this teacher immediately criticized far more experienced teachers as failing "without any reference to the culture, the learning context, student needs and wishes, and other contextual factors" (ibid.), only because he was a native speaker of English and he was armed with CLT. Bax calls this the "CLT attitude," which has been shared by the majority of native English-speaking teachers for many years.

Is CLT effective even in countries like Japan, where English is not necessary for building a successful career? The answer must be no, since we are still hearing things like "We need to do something about our ineffective English education system. Most Japanese still can't speak English at all," the same remarks that we heard 30 years ago, despite the fact that in 1987, the Ministry of Education started the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Program, through which native English-speaking assistant teachers have been sent to virtually all secondary schools in Japan to implement CLT. According to *2008 TOEFL Test and Score Data Summary* by the ETS (Educational Testing Service), Japan's TOEFL iBT average score (66) is still among the lowest of all the participating countries in Asia, followed only by Cambodia (65) and Laos (59). It is true that in Japan, very many people, including rather poor

learners of English, take TOEFL yearly, whereas in most other Asian countries, only selected elites can afford to take it, which results in their relatively good average scores. But the number of Korean examinees (128,445 in the 2005/2006 academic year) now surpasses that of Japan (78,635 in 2005/2006), although their population is only 48 million, as opposed to more than 127 million of Japan. Likewise, more Taiwanese than Japanese take TOEFL every year in terms of number of examinees per population; 33,327 Taiwanese out of the total of 23 million ($\approx$ 0.14%) took TOEFL in 2005/2006, whereas only about 0.06% of Japanese (78,635 out of 127 million) did in the same year. And yet, both Koreans and Taiwanese constantly score higher than Japanese, as the following table indicates.

	TOEFL CBT			TOEFL iBT	
	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006	2007	2008
Korea	213	215	218	77	78
Taiwan	203	205	206	72	73
Japan	190	191	192	65	66

CBT (Computer-Based Test): 300 max; iBT (Internet-Based Test): 120 max

Hence, the fact that many ordinary Japanese take TOEFL cannot be a good excuse for their unimpressive performance. As White (1995) points out, educational reforms will be resisted, or modified to fit within established norms if they are perceived as incompatible with or disruptive to the context into which they are introduced. It seems that this is exactly what has happened to the JET Program in Japan.

Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education still holds the CLT attitude and has recently revised its Course of Study (or Teaching Guidelines) for Foreign Languages to further push CLT to high schools. (In reality, "foreign language" is synonymous with English in most Japanese high schools.) Education is compulsory up to junior high in Japan, so every junior high student is thus urged to do communicative English once again. As for senior high English, the new Course of Study specifically states that English classes ought to be conducted in English, in order to ensure that CLT will be adopted without fail. Since more than 96% of junior high graduates now go to senior high school, this means that virtually every Japanese student is expected to practice communicative English for at least six years.

3. Culture

Since English words and phrases are everywhere in Japan, many Japanese youngsters answer yes when asked if they wish to be English speakers, blindly believing that English is a must for success in any career, even though they haven't the slightest idea what it takes to achieve that goal. Moreover, they don't seem to realize that Japanese culture, with which they are totally saturated, is there, for the most part, to hinder their acquisition of practical English skills.

First of all, Japanese culture forces one to ask of oneself questions like *Will I look silly?* or *Will people laugh at me?* whenever they try to do something in public; this is the (in)famous "Japanese sense of shame" that most people come to develop as they grow up in Japan. Students in general thus avoid taking risks of feeling shame at all costs by not voluntarily speaking up in class. So it is only natural that Japanese students "rarely initiate discussion, avoid bringing up new topics, don't challenge the instructor, seldom ask questions for clarification, and don't volunteer answers" (Anderson 1993) even in English speaking classes. This aspect of Japanese culture is so deeply ingrained in Japanese mind that no matter what English teachers do (e.g. Doyon's (2000) suggested strategies to create a more relaxed and intimate atmosphere in the classroom, such as removing the "teacher's" mask, moving away from the evaluational paradigm, etc.), their efforts will simply be wasted unless the whole of Japanese culture changes and starts embracing outspokenness, and classes of all other subjects are conducted in communicative ways as well. Although CLT has been adopted in Japan for the last 20 years or so, the reality is that not much progress has been made. Needless to say, classes of other subjects still remain traditionally Japanese. Thus, failure of CLT in Japan has always been predicted, and it will stay ineffective, even with the new teaching guidelines issued by the Ministry of Education.

4. TENOR

Abbot (1981) coined the term TENOR (teaching English for no obvious reason) to refer to English programs like EGP (English for general purposes) offered widely at Japanese colleges and universities

to non-English majors. "TENOR learners are generally classified as school students whose motivation levels are low and unclear and who have few if any specific needs" (Langham 2003). Thus, these students, "(l)acking any clear extrinsic motivation beyond getting a passing grade" (Cogan 1995), usually do not improve their English much in their English classes, which generally have forty or more students and meet only once or twice a week for 90 minutes. The table below indicates the average TOEFL ITP scores of Japanese university students between 2003 and 2006; many universities participate in this testing program (more than 60,000 examinees each year) and use the paper-based version of TOEFL as achievement test, pretest and posttest of English programs, part of an entrance examination to graduate school, etc. Notice year-to-year progress is negligible and that the average scores remain very low compared with the average scores of university students in Taiwan (506.73), Korea (527.97), and China (561.18) in 1998/1999 (data from CIEE).

TOEFL ITP	2003	2004	2005	2006
University Students	448.4	448.07	450.59	449.86

ITP (Institutional Testing Program): 677 max
(data, courtesy of CIEE)

Therefore, "(v)ery often, such courses lack a clear rationale for their existence" (Cogan ibid.). Surprisingly, however, most of these seemingly ineffective EGP courses are nonetheless required courses, regardless of students' majors.

In contrast to university students, junior and senior high school students have a clear reason for studying English, namely, passing entrance examinations to senior high school and university, respectively. But the English part of entrance examinations is largely a set of multiple-choice questions that mainly require skills of reading and translating, along with knowledge of prescriptive grammar, and not much else. Therefore, it is understandable that main focus of English teaching in high school is still placed on heavy-duty exam preparation, which is most effectively done in the Japanese language. Thus, CLT is viewed as TENOR by many Japanese teachers of English and their students alike. This is one of the reasons why JET Program has failed to achieve its stated goal of implementing CLT in Japanese high schools (Kushida 2006). If the Ministry of Education genuinely wishes to produce, through education, creative individuals who are fluent in spoken English, it needs to guide universities and senior high schools to develop entrance examinations that require much more listening and speaking ability. Unfortunately, however, this is not happening.[i]

5. Teachers
Traditionally, Japanese high school teachers of English have been trained to meet student needs of exam preparation. Most teachers are thus not prepared to do CLT, so if they have to do it, they are going to have to practice spoken English themselves first. *Asahi Shimbun* (December 23, 2008) reported a case of a high school English teacher in Yokohama who did just this at a private English conversation school for three years. In the classes he conducted at his high school, his students gradually noticed improvement in his pronunciation and complimented him on it. And yet, he admits that no matter how hard he tries, 30 minutes is the longest he can carry out his lessons in English.

Preparing for CLT-based English classes is time-consuming. In elementary schools too, English is going to be officially added to the existing subjects in 2011, and many teachers are currently busy preparing themselves for it. Since elementary school English will be nothing but communicative English, teachers must do CLT. However, according to the evening edition of *Asahi Simbun* on February 23, 2009, teachers are now complaining that preparation is taking too much of their time; one teacher was reported as saying, "If you want to conduct an interesting 45-minute lesson, you need to spend four days preparing."

Returning to high school English, most teachers already have more than enough to do every day. Mori (2007) conducted a survey of 108 junior and senior high school teachers of English in Fukui Prefecture and reported, among other things, that junior high teachers average 120 hours and 21 minutes of overtime work a month (28 days), and 80% of them exceed the number of work hours that might cause *karoshi* (death from overwork) estimated by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare; at senior high

school, 60% of the teachers run the risk of *karoshi* by working overtime. Hence, it seems unrealistic to force these teachers to start doing CLT in addition to their old daily routines.

6. Comparison with Chile

It is often said "intercultural dialog" is important in this age of globalization and that in order to have dialogs with foreigners, we need to be able to speak English, so-called international language of the 21st century (e.g. Funabashi 2000). In a way, this is true, but does this mean that everybody in Japan needs to speak with foreigners in the 21st century? The answer is negative; only selected few have genuine needs for such communication in Japan, where everything is and will always be conducted in Japanese (e.g. Suzuki 2001). Besides, according to a survey of top international companies in Tokyo by Kirkwold et al. (1995), most of these companies do not need fluent speakers of English for their everyday operation; communication in English, when it is required, is primarily in written form, through letters, faxes, and e-mail. If so, CLT-based English instruction should only be an elective course for those who need or want it for one reason or another, but shouldn't be part of compulsory education. And yet, the Ministry of Education is trying hard to force CLT to every Japanese student, as we saw earlier. In this respect, I think we have a lot to learn from the decision that the Ministry of Education in Chile made regarding English education in that country.

In Chile, before 1998, "teachers were encouraged by the Ministry of Educaiton to use CLT methods. More specifically, they were encouraged to make regular use of group work"
(McKay 2003). But "(i)n 1998 the Ministry of Education presented an overall Chilean school curriculum reform that specified teaching objectives for various fields of study for primary and secondary schools," and "the major change in the [English] curriculum is the emphasis given to receptive skills (reading and listening) as opposed to productive skills (speaking and writing)" (ibid.). The rationale given for this change is that "for most Chileans, English will be used to access the growing amount of information available in that language, which will often be of a technical nature, rather than for speaking or writing. The Ministry believes that an emphasis on receptive skills reflects the local English needs of Chilean youngsters, who will need English to partake in a global economy and information network" (ibid.).

Chilean teachers of English are very happy about this change. McKay (ibid.) quotes a teacher she interviewed: "Before the reform, we were encouraged to use the communicative approach, but how are you going to do this with 45 students and evaluate them? Students don't like to speak English." Thus, the decision that the Ministry of Education in Chile made seems very reasonable and practical. But the Ministries of Education in Japan has gone in the opposite direction.

7. English as a Lingua Franca

Of course, the easiest suggestion for our Ministry of Education is to say that CLT should be demoted to second place in our compulsory education as well, and in senior high school and university, CLT-based courses should be offered only as electives. But I know this is easier said than done. In fact, a (blind) respect for CLT was so strong on the part of the Ministry of Education that, as we noted earlier, they even decided to introduce communicative English to elementary schools, believing that students will better cope with CLT later in high school if they get exposed to spoken English while they are still innocent children. There is no proof, however, that this is true. Indeed, many scholars and educators argue otherwise and strongly oppose to adding English to elementary school curriculums (e.g. Otsu 2004, 2005, 2006). Nevertheless, teaching English in elementary school is now official, and it starts in full swing in two years. So CLT is definitely staying in Japan. Then, given this situation, coupled with Japanese culture and the existing teachers, I would like to suggest adopting ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) in our school curriculums.

Following the previous educational reforms in 1991, Keio University was reported to have started a "language immersion program" (Hadley 1999), in which an emphasis was placed on cooperative learning and fluency, rather than on accuracy, in order to "foster a positive learning environment." A major aim in this program was said to be "to motivate students to speak English without undue levels of anxiety" (ibid.) This shift of focus from accuracy to fluency was a sensible decision to make, because, as McVeigh (2001) points out, Japanese students typically do not answer in class or refuse to, or even pretend not to know when called upon, since they feel instruction is difficult and are afraid of making mistakes (or even afraid of instructors). If so, why not make English grammar and pronunciation easier for Japanese students to handle by adopting suggestions like those in Suzuki (2001)? – e.g., we should accept utterances such as *He speak English*, *I goed to school*, *I have three*

childs, etc., all of which may be ungrammatical but are nonetheless fully meaningful; we should also accept L1 transfers like substitution of *th* with *s*, as in *Sank you* (for *Thank you*), as long as they are comprehensible. If these forms and pronunciations are accepted, students will certainly feel less anxious about speaking English.

It should be noted here that this kind of "modified" English is virtually the same as English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), whose lexicogrammar is characteristically much simpler than, but as systematic as, those of native speakers' English. In addition to reducing students' anxiety about correctly obeying complex linguistic rules, there is another good reason to adopt this kind of English in school education in Japan, to which we now turn.

Cogan (1995) pointed out that "the vast majority of [Japanese] students are not being prepared to live in an English speaking country or even to interact on a regular basis with native speakers of English," but as Hadley (1997) found out through his survey on cultural influence in Japanese ELT (English Language Teaching), "outside the educational field, Japan is blissfully happy to continue as a monolingual society" anyway. Moreover, according to Anderson (1993), even if Japanese students are ever called upon to use oral English to communicate, it may well be to interact with Chinese, Koreans, or other Asians; considering Japan's proximity to these countries, this is certainly not surprising. In fact, it must be part of the general trend of growing use of English between nonnative speakers from different countries worldwide, which in turn promotes development of various varieties of English.[ii] According to Jenkins (2006), through natural evolutionary processes of language contact, local linguistic and cultural influences "have led and are continuing to lead to the emergence of a range of educated L2 English varieties which differ legitimately from standard [native speakers'] English."

If we accept this general trend, English we teach at school doesn't have to be either British or American, although it has always been (tacitly) assumed that it has to be either variety. In this respect, our Ministry of Education too only says in its Course of Study that teachers should use "materials that are useful in deepening international understanding from a broad perspective, heightening students' awareness of being Japanese citizens living in a global community, and cultivating a spirit of international cooperation." If so, why not adopt ELF in our schools, since, as Jenkins (2006) writes, "(t)here is nothing "international about deferring to the language varieties of a mere two of the world's Englishes, whose members account for a tiny minority of English speakers"?

8. Obstacle

An English curriculum based on ELF would place its main focus on "the capability to render one's discourse intelligible for their interlocutors through a process of accommodation (for example, making repairs, paraphrasing, rephrasing, or even allowing for linguistic errors that might facilitate communication" (Sifakis 2009). Then, linguistic modifications Suzuki (2001) proposes are actually good examples of ELF accommodation that aims for more efficient communication between Japanese and non-Japanese and therefore use of them should be encouraged, not penalized, in ELF-based English classes. After all, the resulting English, just like other World Englishes, still works as an effective means of communication, and although it will inevitably have a Japanese "flavor," it will still be comprehensible even to native speakers of English (Suzuki ibid.).

But will teachers be willing to teach ELF? Sifakis (2009) reports that teachers in Greece say no, complaining that adopting this kind of English lowers the academic and professional standards of teaching. Since "(i)t is changes in teaching which keep pace with changes in testing and not vice versa" (Jenkins 2006), if examination boards embrace ELF, it is very likely that teachers will then follow suit. But are examination boards willing to accept ELF? The answer seems negative as well at the moment, which led Jenkins (ibid.) to write: "Unfortunately, their apparent inaction in this time of shifting sands means that they risk seeming to bury their heads in them."

In Japan, where educators are typically very conservative, adopting ELF in school education seems unimaginable at best. Currently, CLT is being strongly encouraged in the classroom, but examinations are still, for the most part, written tests based on academic English of British/American type, a very contradictory situation. Moreover, as in Greece, English does not have an official status in Japan, so "its knowledge is not necessary in carrying out important transactions" (Sifakis 2009). Therefore, even for English teachers, the majority of whom are nonnative speakers, English classrooms are the only domain of English use. Hence, their English can be largely characterized by management-oriented fixed phrases, and their communicative use of English outside the classroom, if any, "would have many

of the features of an ELF variety" (ibid.). Let's be honest here. If teachers' spoken English is ELF, it is not fair to expect students to speak like British or American native speakers. Hence, if CLT is to be taken seriously, it is strongly suggested that traditional written exams be replaced by oral tests that focus on fluency rather than accuracy, i.e. proficiency tests, of ELF. The teachers and students will then have a concrete motivation to practice communicative English à la ELF.

9. Conclusion

In this globalized world, even countries like Japan that are virtually monolingual have to have a certain number of individuals who are fluent in spoken English in order to develop/maintain peaceful and productive relationships with other countries. But to force every student, regardless of their personal interests or needs or even ability, to acquire good enough skills of communicative English is very impractical. To be honest, I am still of the opinion that English (CLT or otherwise) should only be offered as elective courses beyond the level of compulsory education in countries like Japan.

However, if CLT must be employed in compulsory education for one reason or another, it should definitely be based on ELF for the reasons given above, i.e., cultural constraint and the current trend of growing World Englishes. Conservative teachers may adamantly say, "We do not want to teach ungrammatical English like *a staff*, *four furnitures*, etc.," but what they don't seem to realize is that these forms simply reflect nonnative speakers' creativity, which is no less legitimate than native speakers' creativity that has produced expressions like *three teas* and *two coffees* for *three cups of tea* and *two cups of coffee*, respectively (Jenkins 2006). Notice that there is an unscientific prejudice behind this attitude against ELF, namely, the valuing of native speakers' language forms above those of nonnative speakers even though the former do not lead to greater communicative efficiency for the majority in international context of use (Ammon 2000). Although ELF may not be an omnipotent answer to ever-increasing needs for smooth international/intercultural communication, it is definitely more teachable to and more easily usable for nonnative speakers than native speakers' English taught through CLT methods will ever be.

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Notes

[i] There have appeared over the years some entrance exams that include a listening section, the most notable of which is that of "Center Exam," which is the standardized state-administered college entrance examination. However, the written section of this exam's English part has the total of 200 points, whereas the listening section does only 50. Therefore, there are many high school students who ignore the listening section altogether when preparing for the exam as a realistic test-taking strategy. Incidentally, TOEIC has 50% of listening and 50% of reading.

[ii] The number of second language speakers of English is steadily increasing, giving rise to more and more language contacts all over the world; in fact, it is said that the number will soon surpass that of native speakers (Graddol 1999).

Assessing native pronunciation raters from different English variety backgrounds

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As noted by Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996), pronunciation's place in foreign language teaching has been anything but static. At times, pronunciation has been viewed as a crucial element in the language learning experience, such as when the Audio-lingual method was the most common language teaching methodology. At that time, learners were encouraged to mimic the pronunciation of the target language as much as possible as a means to acquire the language. Later, other methodologies placed less emphasis on pronunciation, and in some cases so little attention was paid to pronunciation that it was all but ignored (e.g., in the grammar-translation method).

Many current teaching methodologies are based on communicative approaches that view the ultimate end of language learning to be communication with others. As such, teachers and researchers have begun to pay more attention to the factors that can enhance comprehension in communicative situations. Because pronunciation stands as one such factor, pronunciation's status in the teaching and learning of foreign languages has once again been elevated.

Even with the recent increase in second and foreign language learner's pronunciation studies, there remain several areas yet to be researched. In particular, it is apparent that although studies have shown positive effects for learners who have engaged in pronunciation training, what has been overlooked to date are listener perceptions of learners' pronunciation. In other words, what has yet to be examined are how listeners – especially native speakers – perceive learners' pronunciation. This area is crucial when one considers that listeners may come from different English variety backgrounds and therefore natively use different English pronunciation. There being no single "standard English" used in the world, it becomes necessary to determine how such native speakers perceive learners' pronunciation, as these differences could mediate the effects of pronunciation training, for what is deemed acceptable pronunciation by a speaker of one English variety may not be deemed acceptable by a speaker of another. These differences in pronunciation perceptions may be most apparent when training involves production of phonemes that are (a) not extant in the learners' native language, such as /r/ and /l/ in Japanese, and (b) natively pronounced differently by speakers of different English varieties.

The current article details research involving native English speakers from different English variety backgrounds rating native Japanese speakers' English /r/ and /l/ pronunciation prior to any pronunciation training. The article will begin by providing background to recent pronunciation research, particularly research that discusses rating language learners' pronunciation. Information about the research and its results will then be presented. This is followed by a discussion of the conclusions drawn from the research. Finally, the article will discuss future research directions.

Literature background

As mentioned, research regarding second and foreign language learners' pronunciation has seen dramatic swings, the most prominent increase of which occurred during the 1990s. Beginning in that decade, pronunciation, pronunciation instruction, and pronunciation training all became greater concerns for language instructors. Beyond the typical benefits of improved target language pronunciation for language learners (see below), instructors came to realize that pronunciation, being one component of oral production in the target language, had for too long been overlooked and that pronunciation can impact and influence not only how learners' speak in the target language but also how others perceive them to be as target language users. Pronunciation instruction and training came to be thought of as more than simply remedial activities aimed at a select few learners with highly discernable and/or detrimental pronunciation difficulties.

Understanding the basic mechanics of target language phoneme production has become a central concern for instructors. Even more importantly, the ability to teach those mechanics to learners has been noted to be "a skill that teachers cannot do without" (Benrabah, 1997, p.157). With this new awareness of and attention paid to pronunciation in second and foreign language classrooms,

instructors have begun to actively seek ways to efficiently incorporate effective pronunciation training into often already overcrowded curricula (e.g., Acton, 1997; Celce-Murcia, 1987; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Kendrick, 1997; Kenworthy, 1987; Levis & Grant, 2003; Lin, Fan, & Chen, 1995; Macdonald, Yule, & Powers, 1994; Makarova, 1996, 1997).

The need to include pronunciation as a mainstay in the foreign language curriculum is clear. Problems or difficulties with a foreign accent can give rise to miscommunication (Jarvis & Stephens, 1994). In EFL (English as a foreign language) settings, pronunciation remains an important component of foreign language manipulation, especially for international business personnel, scientists, and other professionals, as commerce, trade, and communication often relies on effective spoken English. In educational spheres, university instructors and academic research scholars in higher education can benefit from increased comprehension and proper utilization of English pronunciation, as they are often required to give presentations on their research at international conferences and must communicate with others in their field. Students can also benefit from having more comprehensible pronunciation, in particular those who wish to enter English-speaking colleges and universities to pursue higher degrees (Morley, 1991).

Recent research has shown the many benefits that pronunciation instruction and training can bestow upon learners. For instance, it has been revealed that learners more familiar and adept with the pronunciation of the foreign language under study, particularly after receiving pronunciation training, were able to improve their comprehensibility and intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 1997; Derwing, Munro, & Wiebe, 1998; Kashiwagi & Snyder, 2003; Kenworthy, 1987; Munro, Derwing, & Morton, 2006) as well as their target language listening and comprehension skills (Bohlken & Macias, 1992; Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002, 2005). It has also been found that native speakers possess more positive attitudes toward non-native speakers deemed intelligible compared with those who are not (Bresnahan & Kim, 1993; Bresnahan, Ohashi, Nebashi, Liu, & Shearman, 2002, cited in Carlson & McHenry, 2006).

Even with these benefits readily apparent, there remains an area of target language production related to pronunciation and pronunciation training that has received little attention. In the above-mentioned research that focused on learners' improved comprehensibility and intelligibility after receiving pronunciation training, the research foci were always, unsurprisingly, the learners and their pronunciation production. This makes sense, as they are the ones learning the language and attempting to produce oral utterances in the target language. However, what is missing from this research is attention paid to the listening component of these comprehensibility and intelligibility checks, which in these cases are the raters of the learners' pronunciation.

Pronunciation has both productive and perceptive components (Brown, 1992). When reviewing the above-mentioned research, it is clear that the researchers either (a) assume the raters are fully capable of accurately rating the learners' speech simply because they are native speakers of the English variety the tested learners are learning and/or are expected to produce when in testing situations in the research or (b) give no consideration at all to the listeners' English background variety, as the only rater prerequisite is being a native English speaker. In either case, it would appear that there could be bias on the part of the raters to rate either in accordance with (a) the pronunciation of the local dialect or the pronunciation the learners were specifically taught or (b) whatever each individual rater's own English variety's pronunciation happened to be. The literature makes no mention of consideration for how comprehensible or intelligible learners' speech was for listeners outside of the "localized" area or to native English speakers with disparate English background varieties.

For instance, Derwing and Munro (1997), Derwing, Munro, and Wiebe (1998), and Munro, Derwing, and Morton (2006) conducted their research with ESL (English as a second language) learners in Canada. Their raters were native English speakers born and raised in Canada. The raters assessed the learners' speech in terms of accentedness and nativeness of prosody, but these ratings were based on how accurately or closely the learners could mimic the pronunciation of the English variety used by the raters (and, ostensibly, the pronunciation the learners were exposed to in the ESL environment and/or explicitly taught in the classroom). In other studies mentioned (e.g., Kashiwagi & Snyder, 2003), no indications were given regarding the raters' English variety background(s), which means that nothing is known about the criteria the raters used to judge the learners' speech. Not considering or providing information about such criteria is cause for considerable concern, for it may be suspected that, for

instance, a rater with an American English dialect would have different perceptions of what constitutes "correct" or "proper" pronunciation compared against a rater with a British English dialect. Having different perceptions would, in turn, influence how such raters would assess learners' pronunciation, either before or after conducting pronunciation training.

It is therefore apparent that current pronunciation research has not taken into account the raters' background English variety, as how the raters speak English may impact how they perceive spoken English, especially with regard to possible improvement by learners who have received pronunciation training. There is no single "standard" English that all English learners learn (whether they be native speakers or otherwise), nor is it the case that all learners are constantly exposed to the same target language pronunciation. As native English-speaking instructors can come to the classroom from all corners of the globe, they will naturally bring with them their own variety's pronunciation. Furthermore, instructional materials (e.g., textbooks audio CDs) may present accented speech both different from what the instructor uses and different from what is found in the learners' environment (e.g., the environment that lies outside the language classroom door). What is therefore apparently needed in pronunciation research is more consideration of the raters' background English variety as well as a determination of whether or not differences in English varieties can create disparate perceptions when rating learners' pronunciation.

The research

Impetus

In order to ascertain if there may be indeed differences in native speaker perceptions of learners' pronunciation due to differences in English variety background, a preliminary study that focused on the production of the phonemic contrasts of English /r/ and /l/ in word-, sentence-, and narrative-level utterances as spoken by native Japanese EFL majors was conducted. The research was not concerned with any effects from pronunciation training. Rather, the learners' English speech utterances were rated by native speakers of American, Australian, and British English either in terms of phoneme heard (for utterances at the word level) or acceptability (for utterances above the word level).

The phonemes /r/ and /l/ were chosen because Japanese does not utilize either of these sounds. Instead, Japanese uses that which can possess wide phonetic variation and can range anywhere from being a "slightly retroflexed lateral approximant, through to an alveolar tap or flap" (Ingram & Park, 1998, p. 1163). These variations are often attributed to speaker differences, as this Japanese liquid (usually written phonetically as the flap /ɾ/ or, in some cases, as the alveolar lateral flap /ɺ/) has no precise point of articulation, which goes far in explaining why Japanese speakers of English often sound as if they are substituting /r/ for /l/ (and vice versa) when speaking English (Ohata, 2004). Having raters assess Japanese learners' pronunciation of /r/ and /l/, therefore, means that they would assess how well the learners can produce sounds not found in their native language and to which they have no native exposure. In terms of rating the potential effects of pronunciation training regarding such phonemes (i.e., through pre- and post-tests of learners' pronunciation), one should be able to see the level of effectiveness of the training and/or the level of awareness that learners display regarding their own pronunciation of the language under study.

Participants

The participants of the present study consisted of two groups: the learners and the raters. The learners were 24 native Japanese university students majoring in English, all of whom were freshmen who had volunteered to participate in the study. They had limited or no travel abroad experiences and at the time of the study had not received any specific English pronunciation training apart from what they may have encountered in the course of their English learning endeavors prior to university matriculation. All learners were considered high intermediate to advanced learners of English.

The raters were three native English speakers, all of whom were professional English instructors with extensive English teaching experience both in Japan and abroad. The raters natively utilized different English varieties: American English, Australian English, and British English. All three claimed to possess normal hearing.

Procedure

As the current research meant to ascertain if differences may exist between the perceptions of native English speakers with different English variety backgrounds regarding native Japanese EFL learners'

production of /r/ and /l/, three different yet similar PowerPoint presentations were constructed that would allow the learners to utter /r/ and /l/ at the word level, at the sentence level, and in a free narrative. For production at the word level, 35 /r-l/ minimal pairs were selected. These minimal pair words contained /r/ and /l/ in word onset position, as second elements of an onset cluster, in intervocalic position, and in word ending (i.e., post-vocalic) position.

To test sentence-level production, one word from each minimal pair was randomly selected and placed into natural-sounding sentences that consisted solely of one independent clause each. Only one word from each minimal pair was selected so that the testing time for each learner could be reduced. The free narrative was based on the learners discussing a six-panel cartoon of a man raking leaves in a park, only to have the wind blow away the leaves once he had gotten them all in a basket.

The presentation of the minimal pair words, sentences, and narrative cartoon and the recordings of learners' pronunciation went as follows. Each learner sat before a personal computer and was randomly presented one of three PowerPoint presentations, all of which had complimentary content. Onscreen instructions in each presentation told the learners that they would first see individual words, one at a time, and that with each click of the mouse they would be presented with another word. When a word appeared on the screen, they were instructed to say that word in a loud, clear voice with their best English pronunciation. They were allowed to consider each word's pronunciation before speaking. The 70 minimal pair words were presented at random and in different order, depending on the PowerPoint presentation. The learners were presented these three different presentations in order to reduce rater fatigue and to make it so that the raters would not come to guess what the next word is when it came time to rate the recordings.

Similarly, for the sentence-level words, the learners were informed that with each click of the mouse they would see a new sentence. They were instructed to take their time reading each sentence first before reading them aloud. There was no reason to randomly present the learners these 35 sentences because, when rating, the raters would understand which word was meant to be pronounced (e.g., "crime" or "climb") based on the context of the sentence. For the cartoon for the narrative, the learners were then shown all six cartoon panels at once. They were instructed to study the cartoon to understand what was happening. With each click of the mouse, they were shown each panel of the cartoon, one at a time. They were instructed to say as much as they could about what they could see in each panel, that is, to describe what actions were taking place and what the characters in each panel were thinking or feeling. After all six individual panels were viewed and discussed, the learners were once again shown all six panels together and were allowed to clarify or add further information if they so desired.

The recordings were made using audio recording software and an external USB microphone. Recordings were created at a rate of 44 kHz with 16-bit resolution and saved as WAV audio files. The researcher later edited the recordings so that any of the researcher's explanations to the learners during the testing and any periods of silence lasting longer than five seconds would be removed. Additionally, short, low tones were added in places in each recording (e.g., after every 10 minimal pair words) so that the raters could keep better track of where they were for each learner's recording. The recordings generally lasted between 12 and 15 minutes.

Each rater was provided with (a) a digital copy of the edited recordings, (b) one rating sheet for each learner, and (c) a copy of the narrative cartoon. The raters used high-fidelity headphones to listen to each recording and were instructed to take frequent breaks when rating to reduce fatigue. For the ratings, the raters were told to judge how well the learners pronounced /r/ and /l/ based on the pronunciation of these phonemes in own English variety. Stated differently, the raters were to judge how acceptable the learners' pronunciation was when compared against how those phonemes would normally be pronounced in their own dialect in their own variety of English and not, for instance, on how they know Japanese native speakers tend to pronounce these phonemes.

In the word section, for each word heard, the raters marked their rating sheet to indicate if they heard /r/ or /l/. If what they heard was either indeterminable or was clearly a Japanese liquid flap, they put a mark in the "?" space. For the sentence-level utterances, the raters rated each minimal pair word spoken as either "excellent," "good," "fair," "poor," or "unintelligible," based on how the learners pronounced that word when compared against what would be acceptable in the raters' own English variety. When rating the narrative section, the raters listened and provided a global score of the

learners' /r/ and /l/ pronunciation by using the same five categories used for the sentence-level utterance section.

Results

Because the aim of the current research was to determine if native English speakers with different English variety backgrounds similarly perceive /r/ and /l/ phoneme production, the data was searched for all instances of matches in ratings (i.e., when both the American and Australian raters claimed to hear an /r/ in a word section utterance or when both the Australian and British raters rated the /l/ production in a sentence-level utterance to be "good," etc.). Table 1 presents the number of complete match instances and the resulting percentages for the word, sentence, and narrative sections, as well as a breakdown of the number of matches in the word and sentence sections for /r/ and /l/ in the four word positions.

Table 1: Number and percentages of complete matches between the raters

Category	Amer. – Aus.		Amer. – Brit.		Aus. – Brit.	
Words–All	1459/1680	87%	1342/1680	80%	1348/1680	80%
Words–Word onset	580/672	86%	511/672	76%	520/672	77%
Words–Second element of an onset cluster	543/624	87%	509/624	82%	500/624	80%
Words–Intervocalic	125/144	87%	118/144	82%	122/144	85%
Words–Word ending	211/240	88%	204/240	85%	207/240	86%
Sentences–All	534/840	64%	421/840	50%	559/840	67%
Sentences –Word onset	225/336	67%	165/336	49%	218/336	65%
Sentences –Second element of an onset cluster	209/312	67%	159/312	50%	198/312	63%
Sentences –Intervocalic	38/72	53%	31/72	43%	53/72	74%
Sentences –Word ending	64/120	53%	66/120	55%	90/120	75%
Narrative	18/24	75%	11/24	46%	8/24	33%
TOTAL	4006/5064	79%	3537/5064	70%	3823/5064	75%

As can be seen from the data, the percentage of complete matches is generally relatively high, particularly for the number of matches in the word section. Matched ratings in the sentence section were somewhat lower but nevertheless occurred roughly two-thirds of the time. Narrative matches saw the lowest percentages of all, especially with the British rater matched against the other two raters. However, the data presented in Table 1 only indicate complete matches. Thus, while the British rater may have given a rating of "good" in a particular instance, the other raters may have given ratings of "fair" or "excellent," which are close but do not constitute complete matches.

Looking at the last line of the table, it can be seen that the total number of complete matches between the raters span a range of 70% to 79%, meaning matches occurred roughly three-fourths of the time. These results seem to indicate that while the raters were generally hearing the same phonemes and judging the learners' utterances with roughly the same level of acceptability, there were nevertheless indications that discrepancies existed, meaning that the raters were not always in agreement regarding the phonemes heard. It therefore appeared that there were a sufficient number of instances of mismatches between the raters to indicate that differences in English variety background may cause raters to perceive phoneme production differently.

To determine if these mismatches were statistically significant, One-Way ANOVA tests, followed by Tukey's HSD Post Hoc tests, were conducted. These 11 tests correspond to the same 11 categories found in Table 1. Only two ANOVA tests indicated statistical difference. The first such test was that of the "Words-All" group, $F(2, 5037) = 10.33$, $p < 0.0001$, with Tukey's HSD Post Hoc test (HSD = 0.049) indicating statistical differences between the mean differences of the American and Australian raters' ratings (MD = 0.094) and between the American and British raters' ratings (MD = 0.055). The second test that indicated statistical significance was that of the "Words-Word onset" group, $F(2, 2013) = 8.15$, $p = 0.0003$, with Tukey's HSD Post Hoc test (HSD = 0.025) indicating that there were

statistical differences between the mean differences of all three raters (American versus Australian MD = 0.137, American versus British MD = 0.074, Australian versus British MD = 0.063). Statistical significance was not found with any of the tests on the sentence-level utterances or the narrative.

Conclusion and discussion

The conclusion drawn from this preliminary study is that, statistically speaking, the background English variety of a native English speaker has no bearing on the pronunciation perceived of native Japanese speakers' /r/ and /l/ production in typical communicative contexts, that is, on pronunciation in connected speech. Native English speaking raters who utilize disparate English accents were generally found to hear the same phonemes spoken by the non-native English learners, or at least judged them similarly. Though statistical significance was found at the word level, specifically with /r/ and /l/ in word onset position, most oral communication occurs above the word level, that is, in utterances at the sentence level or in longer strings of discourse (e.g., a narrative, an explanation).

The results of this study therefore indicate that it is possible to use raters with different English variety backgrounds to assess learners' pronunciation. In other words, differences in English variety background may not necessarily cause discrepancies in acceptability judgments, at least when the utterances being judged are above the word level and provide context for the raters. However, several caveats exist that potentially present limitations to the study and may constrain the generalizability of the study's results.

First, this study used only three raters, and these raters came from three specific regions (i.e., the U.S., the U.K., and Australia). Different results might be found if native English speakers from different regions (e.g., Canada, New Zealand) had been used. Second, the raters were instructed to rate only the learners' /r/ and /l/ production. This is different from other research that considers comprehensibility and intelligibility on a broader level.

Third, it is understood that most verbal discourse occurs above the word level (i.e., in sentences or longer strings of discourse). While no statistical differences between the raters' ratings were found above the word level, it remains unclear if the flow of longer discourse contributed to pronunciation that matched each rater's perceptions of acceptability or if context clues from the connected speech utterances overshadowed any pronunciation deficiencies. Finally, it must be pointed out that any matches found in the data do not necessarily indicate good pronunciation on the part of the learners. All that was examined in this study was the extent to which the raters matched in their perceptions of the acceptability of the pronunciation heard. Thus, no inferences can be made from these results regarding how well the learners were actually producing the /r/ and /l/ phonemes.

A call can be made for continued research with pronunciation raters with different English variety backgrounds. Concerning the data from current study, further research could examine which specific words in the word section caused the most "mishearings" for the raters, that is, which /r/ words were heard more often as /l/ or vice versa, or which words were most often considered indeterminable. If trends in these mishearings reveal specific phonemes being misheard or phoneme location (e.g., word onset position) to be a source of mishearings, this information could then be applied to improve pronunciation instruction and pronunciation training in the second or foreign language classroom. Additionally, as the learners in this study had received no explicit pronunciation training, future research could be conducted that examines the effects of pronunciation training, such as by conducting pre-, post-, and delayed post-testing.

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Author note

Comparing the Effectiveness of Using Monolingual and Bilingualised Dictionaries in Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract

Researchers have long contended that monolingual dictionaries are more useful to L2 learners than bilingual dictionaries. Although monolingual dictionaries include relevant lexical information on the target language system, L2 learners of varied proficiency levels frequently seek the mother tongue equivalents of the unknown words in bilingual dictionaries. As a result of consumer reality, to use Laufer and Hadar's term (1997), bilingualised dictionaries began to appear in the late 1970s. While hybrid dictionaries have flourished for more than two decades, they do not seem to be as appreciated by L2 learners as a tool for meaning discovery as the other two types of dictionaries, monolingual or bilingual. Moreover, there is insufficient empirical evidence to support the claim that the juxtaposition of L2 definition and L1 translation of new vocabulary is more beneficial to vocabulary learning and retention. Thus, the current study focuses on the effects of dictionary type on vocabulary learning. The participants of the current study consisted of four classes of freshmen enrolled in the Freshman English Program for Non-majors. Two classes were labeled high achievers (48 students), while the other two were labeled low achievers (38 students). Both the high-achiever classes did significantly better in the K1 and K2 Vocabulary Levels Tests and the pretest. Following the initial round of testing, one high-achiever class and one low-achiever class were assigned to the Monolingual Group, while the other two classes became the Bilingualised Group. Results show that participants using monolingual dictionaries learned more words than those using bilingualised dictionaries. The Monolingual Group scored higher than did the Bilingualised Group in the delayed test two weeks later. As for the efficacy of dictionary use for vocabulary retention, the type of dictionary used did not appear to affect low achievers. For high achievers, however, the Monolingual Group did better in the post test and outperformed the Bilingualised Group.

Key words: **monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, bilingualised dictionary, vocabulary learning**

The Disturbance on Evaluating Teachers' Teaching from the Colleges Students

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Abstract
Teacher evaluation is to assess the teaching and then with the estimation to promote teachers' faculty development. The evaluating outcome will be the reference materials on teachers' promotion, curriculums selection by students, and administrations' re viewing curricula quality (Ellett, Annunziata, & Schiavone, 2002;Iwanicki,1990; Ribas, 2000). In order to evaluate the college teachers' teaching, we always ask students to assess through questionnaires. Which always includes teaching attitude, teaching materials, classroom management, teachers' characteristics, teaching content, teaching skill, assessment, teacher interacting with students, and so on (Arreola, 1995). But are they valid or reality? We hope to find the disturbance on evaluating teaching from the college students' opinions. And then explain the evaluation data fairly.
The research instrument is the questionnaire of the Opinion on Teaching Evaluation including 9 factors with 55 items. It was conducted on 950 college students who came from 32 universities utilized stratified sampling from North, Middle, South, and East of Taiwan. The results were found:
1.The teaching type and curriculum arrangement was high to disturb the assessing.
2.The disturbances were significantly different on the day/night school, the inquiry way, and the inquiry time.
3.Most of the disturbances were got lower scores by the students, while a few disturbances were got higher scores by them.
The study yielded the following thinking: (1) The instruction language of the questionnaire has better to write clearly and to describe the evaluation meaning. (2)Teachers should know the disturbed factors before the curriculum arrangement. That was their rights. The study pointed out some recommendations about the evaluating in college. It offers some stimulating ideas to researchers and practitioners for faculty development in college. These findings may reveal some useful information in developing policies, educational practices, research topics, and teaching strategies.

Keywords: students' evaluating, teaching evaluation, professional development, college

Lecture note taking in first year undergraduates
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Abstract
In Taiwanese colleges, lectures continue to serve as a primary delivery method for large-scale teaching. How do students learn from lectures? Note taking is a popular learning strategy among college students. Although previous studies on lecture note taking have recognized the effects of note taking on learning performance, little evidence comes from the works in realistic academic situations. According to the model of student self-regulated note-taking proposed by Van Meter et al. (1994), college student's lecture note taking is self-regulated by the student. It happens not only during the class but also after the class. Also, it might evolve throughout the term. Since the first year in college is a critical year for learning change, this study aims to investigate Taiwanese first year undergraduates' lecture note taking in a course and examine the relationship between lecture note taking and learning performance. Thirty-two freshmen enrolled in a two-seme
ster General Psychology class of a university in southern Taiwan were recruited as participants. Targeting the second teaching unit of each semester, "Biological Foundations of Behavior" for the first semester and "Memory" for the second semester respectively, it collected the notes taken by students during and after the lectures on these two units as well as students' performance on these two unit tests. Participants' notes were scored and standardized for quantity (number of content areas mentioned in notes/ total number of content areas mentioned in lectures) and quality (quality scores of content areas mentioned in notes/ total quality scores of content areas mentioned in lectures). The results showed that both the quantity and the quality of Taiwanese first year undergraduates' notes correlated with their learning performance positively and moderately, whether in the first or second semester. First year undergraduates' lecture note-taking did evolve in a
course. Not only the quantity but also the quality of notes increased significantly after a semester. Based upon the results, the implications of this study were discussed.

Keywords: lecture note taking, undergraduates, first year in college

Fostering Creative Thinking through Reading and Writing

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this study is to understand if extensive reading or writing helps promote creative thinking. In total, 196 university students in Taiwan participated in the study by filling out a questionnaire and completing a creativity test, the Abbreviated Torrance Test of Adults (ATTA). This quantitative study concludes that creativity scores, especially scores of elaboration, are significantly correlated with attitudes toward reading or writing, and with the hours spent on reading or writing.

KEYWORDS

creativity, creative thinking, elaboration, reading, writing, reading habit, writing habit

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A large amount of research (Amabile, 1983, 1985, 1989; Brown, 1989; Guilford, 1981; Plucker, Beghetto, & Dow, 2004) has recognized creative abilities as essential in solving complex individual, social, and global problems. With such understanding, promoting creativity has also been one of the major issues in education (Le Métais, 2003; Pan et al., 2003; Sharp & Le Métais, 2000).

According to the literature, creativity is constantly associated with abilities required for reading and writing, and many factors that facilitate creativity can be encouraged through reading or writing activities (McVey, 2008; Sak, 2004; Scanlon, 2006; Smith, et al., 2000; Sturgell, 2008). Traits encouraged in English reading and writing appear to be the same traits creativity researchers have suggested for fostering creativity, such as the freedom and ability to communicate ideas (Amabile, 1996; Beghetto, 2005; Cropley, 1992, 1997; Gardner, 1988; Torrance, 1992), an emphasis on self-discovery (Amabile, 1996), and attention to the individual (Albert, 1980; Harrington, Block, & Block, 1987).

A certain amount of research has endeavored to design creativity courses through reading or writing activities (Annis, 1998; Chen et al., 2005; Zachopoulou et al., 2006). However, whether or not personal regular activities on reading or writing can help promote creative thinking has not been examined.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Therefore, the primary objective of this study is to understand if personal reading or writing activities help promote creative thinking. By comparing students' creativity performance with their attitudes toward reading and writing and their hours spent on different reading and writing activities, it attempts to understand the relationship of creative thinking with reading and writing. With statistical evidence, this study intends to understand if students who spend more time reading and/or writing would perform better on a measure of creativity.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Even though creative abilities have been viewed as critical in many domains and endeavors, research about how education can promote creativity has not been as robust as expected. Research that aims at promoting creativity tends to focus on planning a creative way to teach a certain subject (e.g., Chen, Bernard, & Hsu, 2005), or designing a special program outside regular curricula (e.g., Zachopoulou et al., 2006). Whether creativity can be developed simply through regular practices (such as doing extensive reading, having habitual writing, or simply taking a reading and writing course) have not been properly addressed. This study will (1) be beneficial to

many students if any regular practice can prove its value for fostering creative thinking, and (2) provide empirical evidence to verify the assumption that extensive reading and writing facilitate creative performance.

DEFINING CREATIVITY

Before discussing creativity research it is necessary to define creativity. Creative performance in this paper refers to the test results of the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA). This study, using the ATTA as the measurement tool for creativity, adopts the Torrance research definition. Torrance (1965; 1966; 1988) defines creative thinking as the ability to sense problems, make guesses, generate new ideas, and communicate results. According to Torrance (1988, 2000b), and also Tayor and Sackes (1981), creative potential exists among all people, and can be improved through learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Factors that Facilitate Creativity

According to many researchers (Niu & Sternberg, 2003; Rudowicz, Lok, & Kitto, 1995; Straus & Straus, 1968), factors that influence different creative performances may be cultural or educational, and creativity can be fostered through teaching activities (Neethling, 2000; Torrance, 1987, 1988). Many creativity studies suggest traits that teachers should value and encourage in their students. Important aspects include cognitive factors, motivation, personality, and social factors.

freedom, resources, encouragement of originality, freedom from criticism (Amabile, 1996; Amabile & Gryskiewicz, 1989; Witt & Beorkrem, 1989)

First, for cognitive factors, creativity is suggested to be promoted through thinking, remembering, and reasoning (Campbell, 1960; Cropley, 1992; Pollert et al., 1969). Second, for motivation factors, traits to be encouraged are an emphasis on self-discovery (Amabile, 1996), autonomy, courage, curiosity, willingness, and task commitment (Beghetto, 2005; Cannatella, 2004; Cropley, 1992, 1997; Gardner, 1988; Torrance, 1992). Third, for personality factors, self-confidence, self-esteem, determination, persistence, tolerance for ambiguity, and the openness to new experiences are regarded as important for creative thinking (Amabile, 1996; Bean, 1992; Beghetto, 2005; Cannatella, 2004; Cropley, 1992, 1997; Diakidoy & Kanari, 1999; Gardner, 1988; Torrance, 1992; Von Eschenbach & Noland, 1981). Finally, social factors include independence, nonconformity, and the ability to communicate ideas (Amabile, 1996; Beghetto, 2005; Cropley, 1992, 1997; Gardner, 1988; Torrance, 1992).

As Ogilvie (1974) particularly emphasizes, the environment that fosters creativity should be one that "provides for both freedom of expression and good quality association reservoirs" (p. 129). In accordance with these suggested factors, the characteristics repeatedly rated as the most important for the creative person criteria are determination, curiosity, independence (in judgement and thinking), persistence, self-confidence, a willingness to take risks (Diakidoy & Kanari, 1999; Torrance, 1975; Von Eschenbach & Noland, 1981). Finally, in a series of studies, Torrance (1975) and Fryer (1989, 1994, 1996) confirmed that teachers who value characteristics which the experts think of as facilitating creativity actually help students to achieve high creative performance.

Reading, Writing, and Creativity

To encourage the characteristics that facilitate creativity, researchers have endeavored to design so-called creativity courses (Annis, 1998; Chen et al., 2005; Zachopoulou et al., 2006). In a latest research article, McVey (2008) elaborates, "any kind of writing is a creative act" (p. 293), and reading and writing should be promoted for "endless creative possibilities" (p. 294).

When examining the relationship among creative abilities and test scores of different subjects, Wang (2007) discovered that creativity test scores, especially the scores of elaboration, was significantly and positively correlated with English reading and writing scores. Although no empirical evidence of creativity progress can be seen to prove reading and writing help promote creativity, many studies

endorse the idea that reading, writing are linked with creativity (Sak, 2004; Scanlon, 2006; Sturgell, 2008). Sak (2004) demonstrates how reading and writing are incorporated in fostering creativity in the gifted classroom. Scanlon (2006) indicates how reading and writing are more important than mathematics and science for business in the real world. Sturgell (2008) presents how texts provide abundant resources for creative ideas to flourish.

After reviewing creativity literature, Smith, Paradice, and Smith (2000) summarize the essential elements to prepare a creative mind: knowledge of three categories (of the field in which one intends to create, of techniques that enhance creativity and factors that inhibit creative efforts, and of other fields) and behavior (learn something new everyday, seek out constructive criticism, incubation, and put knowledge to work). The elements are actually included in everyday reading and writing procedure: reading for cumulating knowledge, and writing for putting knowledge and personal ideas to work. In addition, from the above factors that facilitate creativity, many of the characteristics can be encouraged through a reading or writing classroom, such as thinking, remembering, and reasoning abilities, curiosity, self-confidence, tolerance for ambiguity, openness to new experiences, and freedom of expression.

The above review of creativity research brings evidence to support the following statements: (1) factors commonly found in the contexts of high creativity were abundant resources and emphasis on a child's personal growth and self-expression (Albert, 1980; Dhillon & Mehra, 1987; Dudek, Strobel, & Runco, 1993; Harrington et al., 1987; Lichtenwalner & Maxwell, 1969; Runco, 2004; Srivastava, 1982); (2) reading and writing are linked with fostering creativity (McVey, 2008; Sak, 2004; Scanlon, 2006; Smith, et al., 2000; Sturgell, 2008; Wang, 2007).

It appears that reading and writing tend to encourage critical ability, analytical ability, self-expressive ability, and self-discovery (CBEST, 2007). Also, the factors which are conducive to creativity can more easily be found in reading and writing activities. Nonetheless, it is a speculation, rather than a conclusion supported by empirical evidence. It is where this study finds its place by providing empirical evidence to this particular aspect.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Therefore, this study intends to answer the following questions: (1) Will personal attitude toward reading and writing influence creative performance? (2) Will more hours spent on reading and writing help improve the scores of a creativity test? (3) Will students of different educational backgrounds perform differently on the creativity test?

METHODS

Population and Procedure

The sampling subjects in this study were students in a university in Taiwan. Participants were solicited from four departments in the school: respectively from the departments of English, Chinese, Mathematics, and Information Science. Teachers in the selected classes helped encourage their students to voluntarily participate in the project. As an incentive, a 100NTD gift coupon was provided for every student who participated in the research. During regular class time, the participants filled out a questionnaire and completed a creativity test, the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA).

Measurement Tools

Two measurement tools were employed: a questionnaire and a creativity test (ATTA). The questionnaire inquires information about (1) personal attitude toward reading and writing; (2) estimated hours spent on different reading and writing activities; and (3) background information. The background information includes gender and major.

The measurement tool used to measure creative thinking ability is the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA). Based on the most widely used and most researched creativity test, the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) (Cramond, 1998; Rosenthal, DeMers, Stilwell, Graybeal, & Zins, 1983; Runco & Albert, 1985), the ATTA, the shorten version of the TTCT, has proved to be reliable and valid

(Chen, 2006; Goff & Torrance, 2000; Torrance, 1981, 1988, 2000; Torrance & Safter, 1990).

A report of the ATTA provides the Creativity Index (CI), a composite of any creative indicators plus four sub-scores: (1) fluency; (2) originality; (3) elaboration; (4) flexibility. The four creative components are scaled as 11 to 19. The overall creative performance, the CI, is ranked as seven levels, with values ranging from one to seven.

Students' attitudes toward reading and writing were surveyed through a 5-point Likert scale (5 = strongly agree; 1 = strongly disagree), whereas their self-evaluated hours spent on different reading and writing activities were rated through a 6-point Likert scale (6 = more than 15 hours a week; 5 = 11-15 hours a week; 4 = 6-10 hours a week; 3 = 1-5 hours a week; 2 = less than one hour a week; 1 = never).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 Summary of Participants

Major	Male	Female	Missing	Total (N = 196)
English	6	49	0	55
Chinese	6	48	2	56
Information Science	28	7	3	38
Mathematics	29	18	0	47
Total	69	122	5	196

In this study, 196 valid surveys and creativity tests were collected. The majority of the participants were female students from departments of humanities. Except for the respondents who did not provide background information, there were 122 female and 69 male students: 55 from the department of English, 56 Chinese, 38 Information Science, and 47 Mathematics. Table 1 summarizes the background information of the participants. Also, the majority of participants from the departments of humanities were female, whereas most of those from the departments of science were male.

When analyzing the attitudes, the hours, and creative performance, differences on majors and genders were found in the whole sample. However, no significant gender differences could be noted within each department. Therefore, in addition to investigating the relationships of creativity with attitude and reading/writing time, differences in creative performance among groups of different majors were also explored. The results described here are organized as follows: (1) the relationship between creativity and attitudes toward reading and writing; (2) the relationship between creativity and hours on reading and writing activities; (3) the relationships between creativity and different majors.

Creativity v.s. Attitudes toward Reading and Writing

Significant correlations were observed between creative performance and students' attitudes toward reading and writing. Table 2 presents the significant correlations between any creative ability and reading attitudes. About positive statements about reading, a positive and significant correlation (elaboration $r = 0.172$, CI $r = 0.143$, significant at the 0.05 level) between creativity and the level of preference to discuss books indicates that the more one likes to discuss books, the better the one performed on the creativity test. Also, the more one enjoys reading, the higher the creativity test scores are (elaboration $r = 0.170$, CI $r = 0.161$, significant at the 0.05 level).

Table 2. Correlations between Creativity and Reading Attitudes

Total Sample (N = 196)	Like to discuss books	Enjoy reading
Elaboration	0.172 (*)	0.170 (*)
Creativity Index	0.142 (*)	0.161 (*)
Total Sample (N = 196)	Only read when required	
Fluency	- 0.198 (**)	
Elaboration	- 0.245 (**)	
Creativity Index	- 0.216 (**)	
Total Sample (N = 196)	Reading makes one bored	
Fluency	- 0.212 (**)	
Elaboration	- 0.294 (**)	

| Flexibility | - 0.206 (**) |
| Creativity Index | - 0.293 (**) |

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As for negative statements about reading, negative and significant correlations still support the link between creativity and reading. The more one disagrees that he or she reads only when required, the higher he or she scores in the ATTA (fluency $r = -0.198$, elaboration $r = -0.245$, CI $r = -0.216$, significant at the 0.01 level). The stronger a student disagrees that reading makes him or her feel bored, the higher the creativity test scores are (fluency $r = -0.212$, elaboration $r = -0.294$, flexibility $r = -0.206$, CI $r = -0.293$, significant at the 0.01 level).

Table 3. Correlations between Creativity and Writing Attitudes

Total Sample (N = 196)	Only write when required
Fluency	- 0.173 (*)
Elaboration	- 0.235 (**)
Creativity Index	- 0.153 (*)
Total Sample (N = 196)	Writing makes one bored
Fluency	- 0.168 (*)
Originality	- 0.180 (*)
Elaboration	- 0.226 (**)
Flexibility	- 0.156 (*)
Creativity Index	- 0.255 (**)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Regarding attitudes toward writing, significant correlations were also observed. As Table 3 shows, significant and negative correlations were noted between creative performance and the following two statements: (1) one only writes when required (CI $r = -0.153$, significant at the 0.05 level); and (2) writing makes one feel bored (CI $r = -0.255$, significant at the 0.01 level). It means that students who have low creative performance tend to write only when required, and tend to feel bored when doing any writing activity. However, keeping diary, enjoying writing, and the preference to discuss writing did not seem to affect the creative performance.

Creativity v.s. Hours on Reading and Writing Activities

As for hours spent on reading and writing activities, significant and positive correlations were discovered between any creative ability and hours spent on the following activities: (1) reading for fun (fluency $r = 0.165$); (2) reading magazines or articles (fluency $r = 0.176$, elaboration $r = 0.150$, and CI $r = 0.170$); (3) reading online news (originality $r = 0.145$); and (4) writing assignments (originality $r = 0.171$). Table 4 indicates the detailed correlations. Still, hours spent on some reading and writing activities did not influence their creative performance; the activities include reading textbooks, newspapers, or personal blogs, and writing for fun, on BBS (Bulletin Board System), or on personal blogs.

Table 4. Correlations between Creativity and Reading or Writing Hours

Total Sample (N = 196)	Reading for fun
Fluency	0.165 (*)
Total Sample (N = 196)	Reading magazines or articles
Fluency	0.176 (*)
Elaboration	0.150 (*)
Creativity Index	0.222 (**)
Total Sample (N = 196)	Reading online news
Originality	0.145 (*)
Total Sample (N = 196)	Writing assignments
Originality	0.171 (*)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Creativity v.s. Majors

This section describes the results of the ATTA. The ANOVA was performed, and as Table 5 demonstrates, significant differences between the department groups were observed in their levels of creativity index (F = 6.124, *p* < 0.001), and every component ability, especially the ability of elaboration (F = 6.535, *p* < 0.001). Therefore, the following paragraphs explore how different each department group performed in the ATTA.

Table 5. Significant Differences on Creative Performance among Different Majors

Majors (N = 196)	F	Sig.
Fluency	3.069	0.004
Originality	2.308	0.036
Elaboration	6.535	< 0.001
Flexibility	2.166	0.048
Level of Creativity Index	6.124	< 0.001

Obviously, the majority of English-major (32.7%) and Chinese-major (33.9%) students demonstrated a high level of creativity (CI = 6), whereas the majority of Science-major (44.7%) and Math-major (27.7%) students showed an average level of creativity (CI = 4). Table 6 shows the frequency distributions of the CI in the four departments.

Also apparently, although Science-major students demonstrated the highest mean scores on the ability of originality, English-major students scored the highest in almost every aspect of the test. Table 7 compares the means and standard deviations of the scores of creativity index and the four sub-scores.

Table 6. Distribution of the Level of the Creativity Index (CI)

CI Major	1 Min.	2 Low	3 Below	4 Avg.	5 Above	6 High	7 Substantial	Total
English	0	0	3	11	7	18	16	55
Chinese	0	2	4	14	11	19	6	56
Science	0	1	4	17	8	7	1	38
Mathematics	3	5	9	13	6	7	4	47

* CI: (1) Minimal; (2) Low; (3) Below Average; (4) Average; (5) Above Average; (6) High; (7) Substantial.

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores on the ATTA

Creativity Major	Fluency		Originality		Elaboration		Flexibility		Creativity Index	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
English	15.41	1.42	16.33	1.89	17.24	1.30	15.13	1.80	5.63	1.25
Chinese	14.63	1.64	16.30	1.99	16.64	1.53	15.00	2.03	5.05	1.29
Science	14.24	1.32	16.37	2.16	16.00	1.38	15.08	1.75	4.50	1.09
Math	14.23	1.83	15.32	2.49	15.32	1.92	14.17	2.07	4.09	1.65

* Scaled scores: Fluency, Originality, Elaboration, and Flexibility = 11-19; Creativity Level = 1-7.
** ANOVA shows significant differences between the groups.

Students with different majors take different required courses. Students from the departments of English and Chinese were required to take more credits on reading and/or writing courses, and they had more essay-type assignments than those in the departments of Science and Mathematics. To a certain degree, English-majors were required to take more credits than Chinese-majors in courses that require many reading and writing assignments, especially literature courses. However, students from the departments of Science and Mathematics did not take many credits on reading courses, nor did they register in any writing courses.

CONCLUSION

From the above statistical evidence, the study confirms the relationship of creativity with reading and writing. Obviously, personal attitudes toward reading and writing will influence creative performance, and hours spent on certain reading and writing activities will help promote creative thinking. Therefore, creative thinking is strongly connected with positive attitudes toward reading and writing, and more hours spent on reading and writing.

In addition, from the above significant correlations between creativity and reading/writing (Table 2, 3, 4), the ability of elaboration constantly emerged as the most prominent and constant connection with reading and/or writing. Even in the results of the ANOVA (Table 5), the most distinct difference on creative performance among the four department groups appeared in the ability of elaboration. Originality and flexibility seem to be less differentiated among the four groups. Therefore, it is possible that a constant habit on reading and writing help promotes the ability of elaboration.

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ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION IN MACEDONIAN NATIONAL STRATEGY FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: PROMISE AND PROSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

The year 2009 marks the completion of the first half of the UN Decade on Education for Sustainable Development (ESD). This provides the opportunity to critically reflect on what has been achieved so far and which tasks and challenges remain to be addressed in terms of education for sustainability in a country. The aims of this paper are: (i) to provide a comprehensive critical review of the National strategy for sustainable development of the Republic of Macedonia from environmental education point of view, and (ii) to provide an appropriate context for continuing dialogue and to identify a relevant framework for desired future action. Content analysis has been used to examine the quality of the National strategy for sustainable development of the Republic of Macedonia.

Our general conclusion is that the inclusion of environmental issues in the National strategy for sustainable development of the Republic of Macedonia is 'left to chance' and lacking in appropriate planning for consistency and theoretical grounding. There is a need to provide incentives to promote and foster ESD in The Republic of Macedonia by A National Strategy for Environmental Education for Sustainability for the United Nation Decade of ESD (2005-2014). It is important the Strategy to be used in conjunction with UNESCO's International Implementation Scheme, which provides more detailed background information and global directives for education for sustainable development.

INTRODUCTION

Support for the Preparation of the National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Macedonia promotes national development based on three key pillars – economy, welfare and ecology. In this regard Republic of Macedonia should secure its citizens clear vision and perspective of the development of the country in the following 22 year range (2008-2030).

National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Macedonia is of international political significance with regard to European Union (EU) integration. Sustainable development is the fundamental goal of the EU and the core of the European model of society. Through the status of the country candidate for EU membership since December 2005, Republic of Macedonia was obliged to prepare a National Strategy for

Sustainble Development.

Even though Republic of Macedona, as a country candidate for EU membership can not comply with the time frame set for the more developed countries of EU it still has to initiate its transformation towards society based on knowledge without any further delay. Building a society based on knowledge is not only crucial for quicker integration of the country in EU, but is primarily crucial for providing improved life standard of Macedonian citizens (Republic of Macedonia, 2008).

Raising the awareness of the citizens about the issue is one of the crucial elements for fulfillment of the goals previously set. The National strategy will achieve its ultimate goal only if it is understood and accepted by each and every citizen. Consequently it is rightly believed that in this respect education has an irreplaceable goal. The educational component of this strategy was the major force to engage in this research.

METHODS

The purpose of this article is to identify the quality of environmental education and/or education for sustainable development in the Support for the Preparation of the National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Macedonia-draft document. Tasks of the examination are: (i) To identify to what extent EE and/or ESD are currently incorporated into this document?, and (ii) To identify the promise and prospects in the field of EE and/or ESD in The Republic of Macedonia?

We estimate the quality of the Support for the preparation of the National Strategy for sustainable development of the Republic of Macedonia by contents- which explicitly include environmental education (EE) and ESD. Content analysis has been used to examine the extent to which EE and/or ESD are addressed within this document.

We analyzed this document by Indicators for education for sustainable development (UN, 2007a) and Suggestions for developing a national strategy for environmental education (UNESCO, 1980). The indicators are determined by the objectives of the UNICE Strategy for education for sustainable development. They are focus on ESD issues and not on sustainable development as such.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Republic of Macedonia is dedicated to undertaking measures for complete implementation of the basic principles encompassed in the Renewed Strategy for Sustainable Development of EU from 9 June 2006 - 10117/06. Out of the ten principles of the Macedonian sustainable development, (Human rights promotion and protection, solidarity within and among generations, open and democratic society, citizen involvement, business and social partners involvement, political coherence and governing, politics integration, making use of the best knowledge available, protection principle, polluter-pays), the educational component is solely mentioned in the principle for citizen involvement. The principle states: "The Republic of Macedonia (RM) enhances the participation of citizens in the decision making process. RM promotes education and public awareness on sustainable development. RM informs its citizens about their impact on the environment and their options for making sustainable decisions".

One of the key goals of the Macedonian vision for sustainable development and state mission is interdepartamental policy which supports the society of knowledge. Support of the development of the society based on knowledge in the Republic of Macedonia will provide the citizens with the key competences and functional literacy which determines the global competitiveness and at the same time develops the citizens' relation towards sustainable development. The success in the annulment of the unsustainable trends

largely depends on the higher education including sustainable development education at every educational level including education on topics such as sustainable energy usage and transportation system, sustainable consumption, health, media competency, and responsible world citizenship (Republic of Macedonia, 2008).

In the Support for the Preparation of the National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Macedonia, EE and/or ESD are completely marginalized. In the paragraph "Awareness raising of the environment and education" ESD is explicitly mentioned. It states: "Awareness raising about the environment such as education in the field, are important steps towards achieving sustainable development. The condition of the environment maybe improved if the citizens recognize their own power, their own responsibility, and their ability to contribute to the development and advancement of the environment. Healthier environment may not be achieved only through accepting the new legislation, however it may be achieved only if the citizens understand and support this legislation and at the same time respect the individual responsibility for protection and the advancement of the environment.

The general condition of the education is by all means reflected in EE and/or ESD. Having this in mind we will address EE through the SWOT analysys conducted in this document.

Strengths

 In line with this strategic document education is considered the key factor for achieving the goals for sustainable economic development. A major precondition for the development of education in the forthcoming periods should be the increase of educational expenses. Indicators exist that the educational component of GDP will increase. This will undoubtedly reflect positively on the development of the school network in the country. Currently it consists of over 1000 primary schools, about 100 secondary schools, 4 state universities as well as several private universities. This means that major infrastructural investments for enhancement of the education are not necessary. Primary and secondary education in The Republic of Macedonia is mandatory and the enrollment in primary education is high.

Even though the existence of the strategy for development until 2005 in the document is considered as strength, we can unfortunately state that it contains serous weaknesses in terms of EE, especially in terms of ESD (Srbinovski, 2005b). These terms are barely mentioned. With regard to the legislation we will state that the basic laws in the field already exist. This is a solid foundation for further reforms in the sector.

It is of crucial importance that in the last years the number of students attending private studies is significantly increased. Consequently the competition between state and private universities is increased. This was supposed to improve the quality of the education process itself, since the republic of Macedonia already started the restructuring of the higher education according to the bologna Declaration. The process of education modernization is stimulated by a larger member of international and bilateral donators (for instance EU TEMPUS program). It was expected to provide transfer of the experiences in the educational sector.

Weaknesses

 Apart from the stated strengths of the educational process, Macedonian education is facing with several significant weaknesses. The same have negative influence in the area of EE and/or ESD. Low quality of the educational system is basic weakness of the Macedonian education. According to the performed evaluations on international level, the level of student knowledge is low in comparison to the EU countries and the neighbouring countries.

For example, the results of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) confirm the relatively low level of student knowledge (The International Study Centre and The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, 2000). TIMMS (1999) was designed to provide trends in eight-grade mathematics and science achievement in an international context. Thirty-eight countries participated in TIMSS 1999. Six content areas were covered in the TIMSS 1999 science test: earth science, life science, physics, chemistry, environmental and resource issues, and scientific inquiry and the nature of science. These topics were included in the Environmental and Resource Issues: pollution (acid rain, global warning, ozone layer, and water pollution), conservation of natural resources (land, water, forests, and energy resources), food supply and production, population, and the environmental effects of natural and man-made events. Macedonian students' performance in environmental and resource issues was significantly lower than the international average. Macedonian students had a significantly higher average only compared to students in Morocco, the Philippines and South Africa (The International Study Canter and The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, 2000).

The following weakness is result of the insufficient resources for maintaining and capital investments. The main part of the expenses is used for payment of the salary to the employees. The part planned for maintaining of the premises, supplying teaching materials and the rest of the equipment to modernize the educational process is insufficient. Furthermore many schools lack classrooms. The lack of classrooms results in conversions of labs and other specialized rooms into classrooms. All of the above mentioned facts reduce the quality of the educational process. The researches of Srbinovski M. (2005b) have shown that the priority in improving the quality of EE and ESD should be given to the improving of classrooms and improving the other conditions in the schools. Many schools in our country do not meet the pedagogical minimum for normal teaching process.

Disbalance between the number of graduates and the real demand on the labor market-economic reality also has negative influence on the general atmosphere in schools. In a situation when the gradutes did not acquire the appropriate skills, the business sector is forced to invest in additional training of the new gradutaes.

Many factors determine the quality of educational system. The emphasize is given to the quality of the sylabuses, the teaching materials as well as the methods and techniques of instruction. Reserach done by Srbinovski (2003a, 2004 and 2005); Ismaili et al. (2007), Srbinovski & Palmer (2009); Srbinovski et al. (2007 and 2009), Abazi et al., (2009) etc., have shown that in our curricula and didactic materials exist serious gaps and weaknesses in terms of EE and/or ESD. Education is still dominated by traditional teaching and frontal methods. Memorization of the contents without developing the other skills is still required from the students. (Srbinovski, 2003b, 2004b, 2005a,b, 2006). In such circimstances the functional knowledge is completely neglected.

Environmental education should strive to transform the entire country into one educational community. Therefore the need of appropriate reach to the groups and communities in the educational process still exists. The data confirm that a low level of enrolment still exists among certain groups (for instance Roma population and a young people from distant rural communities). Finally the general state is determined by the incomplete implementation of the legislation. This applies to the incomplete secondary legislation or the administrative capacities to apply the same.

Opportunities

The strategy lists several opportunities. The first one results in introduction of IT skills

through the project "Computer for every student". During the implementation of the project the improvement of the quality of the educational process is expected as a result of the opportunities given by the IT technology. Nevertheless, the educational practice has shown that the number of factors complicate the implementation and the realization of this project's goals. Although in many schools the computers were installed they are not functioning up to date.

Certian possibilities for development of educational system come out of the usage of the IPA funds. Republic of Macedonia has access to all of the components of these funds planned for educational development . The component IV funds can be used to promote life long learning and acquiring new skills and knowledge.

Redesigned VET programs tend to satisfy the labor market needs. The same are predicted to reach 1/3 of the entire number of students. The close cooperation with the private sector guarantees better success of this project.

Framework strategic coherence 2007-2013 predicts coordination of the reforms from several sectors. The educational reforms can be realized only if other reforms in the country are implemented at the same time.In that way the educational reform is completely supported by wider community.

Threats

The primary threat to the reform in the educational system are the insufficient financial resources. The implementation of the reforms requires additional financial means.Therefore the solution should be sought either in providing additional resources or redfining the consumption of the existing one. We can expect these processes in the future to be limited beacause of the slow implementation of the legislation, meaning the Bologna Process and VET law.
A serious threat to the education in general is the process of population aging and the expected decrease in numbers of the school population in the republic of Macedonia. The demograhic trends and expectations point to drastic decrease of school population in the following decades. At this moment a complete estimation of the possible consequences of this threat to the educational system does not exist.

Decentralization process enters the second phase and the transfer of competences from central to local government proceeds. Unfortunately this process is followed by many problemes, some of them influence the education directly.

The increase of number of the private educational institutions caused increased number of students studying there especially at undergraduate level. In absence of control and monitoring of this process there are risks related to the quality of education in the country.

The problem of introducing systems of good governance related to SD is present even in developed countries but is even more emphasized in countries with less capacities and experience in this area. Republic of Macedonia belongs to the second group because the concept of SD is not sufficiently build in the governing system. The constitution of the Republic of Macedonia contains the basic philosophy of SD and prescribes equal economic and social opportunities for the citizens as well as appropriate protection of the natural resources, flora and fauna. Nevertheless, decision making processes and the implementation of the policies and legislation in the Republic of Macedonia reflect limited awareness of SD on all levels of government and society, lack of policies for SD, inappropriate cooperation among policy makers from different sectors and using of the approach "from top to bottom" in decision making which causes difficulties for incorporation of the dimension of SD in the sector policy. Usually, relevant national government individually create economic, social and evirionmental policies rarely provide

cohesion of the policies from aspect of SD. In addition there is a lack of such cohesion regarding the sector legislation because they insufficiently include the dimension of SD (Republic of Macedonia, 2008).

Sustainable development and ecology are almost neglected and in the National draft program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia 2005-2015. Sustainable development is mentioned in the introductory part where it is stated that the National program attempts to give full contribution to realization of sustainable development, improving the society and its affirmation as equal and respectable member in the European and wider environment " and page 23 where it states "Investment in education, training, science and research are always payable investments and are the strongest factors of the national competency and competitiveness and also basic factors of the SD of the country" (Srbinovski, 2005b).

CONCLUSION

The understanding of the concept of SD is basic assumption of creating and implementation of appropriate policies for ESD. In that regard raising of the awareness of SD on all levels should be a permanent task of the formal, non-formal and informal education. People are the core of SD and only well educated population can contribute to the realization of the principles of SD/ The National strategy of SD of the Republic of Macedonia has major weaknesses and draw backs from the point of view of ESD and EE. The notions EE and ESD are not even mentioned . They are treated in the general framework of education, the SWOT analysys points out that the Macedonina education which means EE and ESD and in very specific situation in which it can be expected that thae positive sides and opportunities will be inferior compared to the threats and weaknesses.

Our general conclusion is that the inclusion of environmental issues in the National strategy for sustainable development of the Republic of Macedonia is 'left to chance' and lacking in appropriate planning for consistency and theoretical grounding. There is a need to provide incentives to promote and foster ESD in The Republic of Macedonia by A National Strategy for Environmental Education for Sustainability for the United Nation Decade of ESD (2005-2014). It is important that the Strategy be used in conjunction with UNESCO's International Implementation Scheme, which provides more detailed background information and global directives for education for sustainable development.

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ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT OF NON-PROFIT PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN A MULTI-ETHNIC, MULTI-LINGUAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

The South East European University (SEEU) was founded in 2001 in Tetovo as a non-profit university established by co-operation between the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), USAID, the European Commission and the Government of the Republic of Macedonia (or fYRoM) as a contribution towards conflict prevention following the breakup of the former Yugoslavia and the conflict in neighbouring Kosovo. The Republic of Macedonia has a significant Albanian-speaking population, about 25% of the total, but until the establishment of SEEU there was no legalised provision of higher education in that language.

There has been a gradual transition from a centrally managed project to a modern form of organisation and governance attracting favourable comment from OECD-IMHE and the European Universities Association (EUA), most recently in July of this year. Although originally treated as a private university to circumvent the legal obstacle preventing teaching in Albanian in public institutions, in 2008 SEEU was granted by the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia the status of public-private, non-profit university, the first in the region, reflecting its emphasis on working in the public interest. The case study illustrates the different stages of the transition, the problems encountered along the way, and suggests lessons to be learned in implementing similar initiatives elsewhere.

Introduction

The Republic of Macedonia (R Macedonia or fYRoM) is a small country in Europe formerly part of the Yugoslav Federation, from which it seceded peacefully in 1991. Before 2001 the higher education system consisted of two state universities teaching in the Macedonian language, a member of the South Slavonic group, and one unrecognised private initiative teaching in the Albanian language, a distinctive language with Indo-European origin.

The Law on Higher Education 2000 was a first stage in a gradual process allowing recognised higher education to be conducted in a language other than Macedonian. At that time only non-state institutions were permitted to teach in the Albanian or other minority languages, subject to a number of restrictions. The establishment of the first (and as yet the only) not-for-profit private (since March 2008 public-private) recognised and accredited university in R Macedonia, operating in the public interest, but teaching primarily in the Albanian language, presented a unique challenge. The Law permitted the university's foundation as a private entity but did not distinguish between profit and non-profit institutions and, while imposing certain licensing and operating requirements, left the organisational structure to the university's founders. What is described here is the process of transition from the original project developed in 2000/2001 to the current structure, influenced by external factors including the political processes in this small country, now a candidate for accession to the EU. The current status of public-private, not for profit, implies that the University, while independent of the state, operates its programmes in the public interest, is eligible for government funding based on contract,

and re-invests all surpluses in educational activities or operating reserves.

Background

The governance, leadership and management of a modern university represent a range of complex and critical challenges. How to ensure 'good governance' of universities is a recurrent theme in Europe, the United States and other parts of the world: presentations at the August 2009 European Association for Institutional Research (EAIR) Conference in Vilnius, Lithuania, received papers from China and Taiwan and participants from other countries in Asia in addition to those from Europe, Africa and North America. As R Macedonia is a European state, and Macedonian universities are members of the European Universities Association (EUA), we follow in particular developments in Europe. As the introduction to the EUA Report 'Managing the University Community: Exploring Good Practice' (EUA, 2007) states, sound governance is one of the top issues on the work agenda of European university leaders today. It was the topic of two conferences of EUA in 2007 and 2008 focussing on the linkages between higher education and society, and on ways of engaging the academic community, of teachers and students, in planning and development of institutions, and the theme of governance engaged participants in the EUA conferences in Prague, Czech Republic and in Giessen, Germany in 2009. The EUA Report also illustrates the barriers to institutional management including 'the difficulty inherent in abandoning the comfortable dependence on government for the more challenging aspects of true autonomy.' The case studies in the EUA Report, the issues arising from the EUA Institutional Evaluation Programme, Workshops on Governance and Leadership and Trends Report V, coupled with the research undertaken by the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) for the report 'The extent and impact of higher education governance reform across Europe' (2006, DG Education and Culture) provide a useful background to the development of sound governance in the SEE region as institutions change from a position of subservience to detailed state intervention to one of partnership with the state. As Lambert and Butler in 'The future of European universities: Renaissance or decay?' (CER, 2006) state, 'Many decades of state domination has [sic] left most European universities with limited autonomy and poor systems of governance.'

Under pressure from the commitments given in the Bologna Process, reflecting also the work of the Council of Europe's Legislative Reform Programme in Higher Education and Research (1991-2000) (LRP), increasing emphasis on accountable governance of autonomous universities is reflected in such legal provisions as the introduction of a Board into the University of Prishtina in what is now the Republic of Kosovo as early as 2003 and Councils into state universities in R Macedonia in 2008. There is recognition of the importance of similar bodies in strategic planning, human resources development, diversity in financing, quality assurance and audit in the laws and practices of R Serbia and Bosnia & Herzegovina. South East European University has had a Board since 2002. The principles are recognised throughout South East Europe, although the details differ. If institutions are to maintain their autonomy they need to demonstrate that they are capable of, and can be trusted in, looking after their own affairs.

A number of published documents, including the University's own Strategic Plan and Reports and reports from OECD-IMHE and EUA, have identified the difficult problems in higher education associated with the disintegration of the former Yugoslavia and formation of R Macedonia in 1991. Foremost among these problems was the lack of provision for legalised and accredited higher education in their own language of the significant Albanian minority population (representing some 25-28% of the total). SEEU was founded as a result of OSCE initiatives to redress this problem while providing opportunities for interethnic and multilingual learning. Initial donations totalling some €35m were obtained from different sources, about 50% from the US. A 'clean slate' was available on which to design the ultimate best form of governance for such an institution. The European influence was prominent, given the secondment of a senior university

administrator from the UK who had also worked since 1994 in twelve countries of the former Yugoslavia and Soviet Union in legislative and governance reform. Administrative help, and assistance with formulating a sound system of governance, were also offered through a USD3m USAID linkage, but the US approach, based on the experience of state universities, although welcome and valued, was not fully applicable in the European context and available resources were switched into curriculum development in specific fields. The results of some European Union TEMPUS projects, particularly in the area of quality management, have also been useful. All the most modern approaches to governance have been considered carefully, and appropriate ones incorporated into strategic planning and organisational change. In addition much emphasis was placed on the outcomes of the LRP, during which the second author developed a structural model for higher education legislation based on analysis of laws and practices across all of Europe. This structural model assisted the development of the R Macedonia laws from 2000 to the latest law of 2008, as well as the laws of other countries in the region.

Description

Since donors were understandably cautious about how their significant contributions, some USD17m in the case of the US plus the USD3m project already referred to (and a further USD3m linkage from 2004-2007), €5m from the EU (€2.25m more in 2006) and the balance of an initial total of about €35m, were to be managed, the University was set up through an International Foundation (IF) established in Switzerland in 2000. This controlled the international funding, and a National Foundation (NF) was established in R Macedonia to comply with local law and to manage local funding, licensing, permits for construction, tax issues, etc. The first author was appointed as Director of the NF and the second author as a member of the IF and NF. Construction of the University using prefabricated buildings started in March 2001, and continued during the period of considerable political unrest leading to the conflict of summer 2001. The University opened to its first 860 students in October 2001 and the Director of the NF took up his position as Rector. The second author became the founding Secretary-General and accordingly resigned from the NF.

During the first year of operation the IF maintained full control over financing, staffing and other resources including a € 20m building schedule and developed, through management consultants based in Switzerland, all the University's initial academic and other policies. The NF was advisory, participating along with other local experts in the construction of the first curriculum. In early 2002 the Boards of the two Foundations formed a Joint Board, to which were delegated most of the functions of the IF, and which from then on determined all financial, academic and other policies of the University. With the adoption of the first University Statute in autumn 2002, as the University matured and tripled its student numbers, the structure of Board and Senate common in new higher education laws in the region was adopted, the Joint Boards becoming the Board, which gradually relinquished its control over details of academic work, while still maintaining the final say over the University's 'educational character and mission.' The IF with few residuary powers was dissolved in 2004, the NF was also dissolved, and a new Foundation created essentially as a trustee of the assets of the former IF and NF. The current SEEU Foundation has identical membership to the University Board. In 2007 the structures were developed further, with decentralisation of some functions to Faculties, and in 2008/9, in a University having grown to 8600 students and 400 staff, a more sophisticated resource allocation mechanism has been put in place. In July 2009, the EUA Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP), which reported favourably on the University's governance structures in 2005, published its report of a follow-up study which again commended the structure and made recommendations relating to the university-faculty relationships.

The SEEU Foundation, in addition to acting as trustee of the donated assets, also acts as a fund-raising vehicle for the University. In this connection, it has contracted with

Indiana University Foundation (IUF) to deposit some of its reserves with the IUF to fund staff and student exchanges with the US, and scholarships. The University Board and Foundation are constituted of nine members, three from outside the country - one of whom from western Europe is President, one other from 'new' Europe and one from the US,- three from the community in Macedonia representing business, academic and public interests, and three from the University Senate. There is a proposal to increase the membership to 11, taking into account the provisions of the new Law on Higher Education adopted in R Macedonia in 2008 and the size of the University. Of these six members would be from outside the University. The Board has the strategic functions normally associated with a Council or Court in a UK University and those modelled on the British system in Asia and Australasia.

Certain decisions including amendment of the Statute, closure, merger or transformation of the University and other issues as determined by the University Board, require a special form of vote including both national and international external members. The latter protects the 'public' investment, albeit that investment, apart from the site itself, has all been internationally funded, while the former protects the Macedonian interest.

Issues

Unsurprisingly, the path of progress has not always been smooth. Some issues have taxed us, including the following:

(i)   The input of the donors and their expectations set against the autonomy of the institution as provided in the Constitution, the Laws on Higher Education and the University's statutes. Naturally the decision to donate was based on each donor's assessment of the need for the initiative and how it could be controlled effectively in such a volatile climate. (Leading in fact to an armed conflict in summer 2001). USAID in particular undertook extensive preliminary investigations. All of them required extensive reporting for developed, and different, systems of accounting and audit which did not then exist in R Macedonia and therefore took up considerable IF resources. In addition, sometimes donor representatives, who were constantly changing under normal diplomatic rotation, sought to influence the academic curriculum in various ways. It is difficult to balance academic and institutional autonomy, and the University's own strategy based on market demands and political reality, against the demands of donors, and it is a tribute to the diplomatic skills of the first President of the Board that generally speaking we managed to offend scarcely anybody. As the IF transferred its authority to the Joint Boards and subsequently to the national structures, and as SEEU grew in stature and recognition, donor influence directly on SEEU has decreased, although scholarship providers wishing to secure value for money sometimes seek to change practices established for good reason. Instead, generally speaking, the international community takes positive steps to help SEEU to collaborate with institutions outside the country.

(ii)   Continuous political upheaval and changes in attitudes towards the University. Changing coalition governments had electoral prospects always on their minds so the attitude of the parties to the university initiative varied considerably. Tetovo had had a 'private citizens' initiative' unrecognised university since 1994, closely associated with, and drawing staff and students from, the equally unrecognised 'Albanian University of Prishtina,' the result of the expulsion by the Milosević regime from the University of Prishtina of the Albanian workforce and students in 1991. The stated aim of SEEU was to provide opportunities for students at the unrecognised Tetovo University to enter accredited, quality higher education and then for that initiative to

quietly terminate. However the authorities of that initiative were not willing to go so quietly, public opinion was not ready for what was perceived as a u-turn, and campaigning for its 'legalisation' continued until 2004, when a new State University of Tetovo was created essentially from the old one. While attracting praise from all sections of the community, from the Government, Parliament, local businesses, members of the public and students, and continuously from the international community, SEEU still receives virtually no state funding and derives almost all its resources from student fees. Hence the Board's duty to maintain the financial solvency of SEEU is critical and its strategic planning abilities vital.

(iii)   The problem of achieving equal treatment of ethnic groups while maintaining the mission to contribute to the provision of higher education in the Albanian language. This has been a difficult process because while on the one hand SEEU wished to be open to all, in practice to have more than about 25-30% students entering to study in the Macedonian language would, at least in the early days, have caused major political problems. This occupied many hours of debate in the IF and subsequently. A major pressure up to about 2003 came from the US Embassy and USAID, as already noted, generous donors, which wished the University to move rapidly to increasing the use of the English language, perhaps even to the extreme view that no student should graduate unless achieving a high level of English competence, in effect becoming a kind of American institution. No pressure of that kind came from other donors and the strongly European-oriented board members managed to resist this on academic and practical grounds. SEEU's Board had to balance this pressure against the obvious difficulties in providing professional courses in local disciplines – it was not clear for example why an Albanian speaker who had also to work in the completely different Macedonian language and wished to become a local lawyer should need to devote large parts of her/his study to becoming fluent in a language (s)he might never use in her/his professional career. SEEU did so by developing the concept of 'flexible use of languages' which could be the subject of another discussion! Students are admitted in language groups according to the resources available, principally human resources. For now, suffice it to say that it was possible to steer a middle course which benefitted students of all linguistic abilities while preserving a commitment to help students in internationally marketable fields to learn English (and indeed French). Having a mixed Board with a wide range of expertise and interests helped to iron out the problems associated with the adoption of this policy.

(iv)   Difficulties in effecting a transformation from the 'state' mindset to the private/ public-private one. Apart from focussing on the reality that, at least after the cessation of the active work of the IF, nothing was done for us unless we did it ourselves, this relates to the adoption of the 'Nolan principles' (originating in the UK) of operation of the Board. From the start the strategic planning and development of the University was concentrated in very few people, not all but mostly internationals, who had no political or other connections in Macedonia. Recruiting and training of Board members who have a real commitment to the University is not easy, and together with colleagues in other universities in the Region (Macedonia, Albania and Bosnia-Herzegovina) we have applied for TEMPUS funds to allow us to move this forward.

(v)   Inevitably, finance. Relying almost entirely on student tuition fees which are higher than those charged at the state universities, somewhat lower than those charged by the for-profit private institutions, means that we have to be highly responsive to the market and spend a considerable amount of time and

resources on ensuring quality. SEEU has a highly developed quality management structure, with practical steps taken through staff evaluations, teaching observation, research selectivity, staff development and student involvement to ensure that we remain at the top of the quality league in the region. Somehow or other we have to break away from old ways of thinking relating to the structure and remuneration of the academic profession. Research undertaken by one of our Faculties indicates that overcoming the traditional mindset has been one of the key issues facing our graduates entering the world of compulsory education, one that requires continuing support of our alumni through programmes of continuing education, close liaison with employers and so on. Developing new approaches to work, and thus having a more stable and incentive-led remuneration policy, is an essential element of quality enhancement and therefore our appeal to students and their parents. The governing body – the University Board - has to take the lead in this.

In addition, the University was founded, planned in all aspects (financial, estates, academic) and opened in a more or less fully functioning form in less than twelve months. A remarkable achievement, and essential in the volatile political climate of 2001, but a number of policies and procedures were introduced, and academic programmes developed, which had to be changed significantly within a year or so of starting operation, since there had been relatively little interaction with the local prospective staff. Significant sums of money were spent on what was with the gift of hindsight, inappropriate procurement, particularly of IT systems, vehicles and ancillary premises. IT was a particular problem, as the IF entered into contracts which had significant recurrent financial consequences, particularly licensing. All of these systems have now been replaced with software developed in house or available free. The moral of this story is that if you have time, take it. Look carefully at the medium term objectives and design systems around them.

Conclusion

What have we learned from all this which can be applied to other projects? We accept that it is unlikely that something exactly like SEEU will be created in similar circumstances. While the experience of SEEU has been debated as a potential solution to the otherwise segregated higher education in Kosovo, and as identified by OECD, EUA, OSCE and others as a 'model' at least for the region if not for the wider world, the political circumstances are dissimilar. So we concentrate here on what works well and how others might learn from our experience. We think that it is important for potential donors, e.g. USAID to learn from positive experiences and to appreciate the constraints under which projects operate.

First it is important to have the right leadership. In our case the first four years of our development were led by a highly experienced and influential diplomat. He directed the transition from the project to the present structure, skilfully deflecting irrelevancies and refusing to be side-tracked. He was supported by an experienced former rector of a Swiss university who subsequently made a major contribution in the area of organisation and financial control. Their joint legacy leaves an institution with strong international and national support, well-managed and financially viable. A transition to a fully locally sustainable structure is envisaged over the next four years or so, but the international input remains important to us.

Second, it is important to move as quickly as possible to a governance structure reflecting the structure proposed in the Council of Europe report so far as consistent with the laws of the country. In this respect also, SEEU provides a model for the region, albeit it is not quite so strictly circumscribed by domestic law as the state institutions, but there is still

much to be done on training and developing members of the governing board so that they are less reliant on foreign expertise. However, the structures developed are of interest for all countries in transition and for institutions which are considering changes in their forms of governance, particularly where there is private-public interaction. We have concluded that a step by step development of different forms of governance over a period of time, involving at all stages relevant stakeholders (donors, staff, students) alongside changing external environments, has enabled us to devise a system meeting modern standards and fit for purpose.

Finally, do not be thrown off course by short-term perturbations in the local political and social climate. Stick with the mission: naturally if circumstances dictate a change in direction, follow the trends, but establish a clear strategic planning framework within which changes can be effected in a sensible way. This is probably the most difficult area to manage. It requires a combination of a consultative, collegial approach and strong management.

European studies in Hong Kong: between local and European realities
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The theme "'Local Problems, Global Solutions?" echoes an interrogation brought about with the increased pattern of internationalisation of higher education. Even if internationalisation aims at transcending boundaries within the academic arena, it might induce academics and decision-makers to overlook some local peculiarities. These peculiarities, challenges, and sometimes problematic situations, require mixed solutions with a local and global dimension. This is the reason why contextualisation plays a major role, as for the failure or success of an academic programme.

Hence, one of the key features of a successful academic programme is the attention given to a combination of various factors. Among these factors we may mention the profile of the students, their expectations, the newly introduced Outcomes-Based Teaching & Learning (OBTL) educational philosophy as well as the shift observed in the academic discourse from traditional academic knowledge to the need to include skills and attitudes, the current socio-economic situation of the country/region where the programme is offered, the needs and expectations of potential employers, the support provided by representatives of the community… Another challenge is the ongoing trend to integrate professional experience (short-term internship) or/and to include an academic semester abroad in undergraduate programmes. Needless to say that this list is not exhaustive. The main aim of this paper is to illustrate how the above-mentioned factors are dealt with in the frame of the European Studies Programme (French stream) at the Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU).

Globalisation, internationalisation and contextualization

For several years now, the process of "globalisation" and "internationalisation" has been recurrently analysed in the discourse about higher education worldwide. Altbach defines globalisation as typically making reference to "the broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education and are largely inevitable in the contemporary world." (Altbach, 2009:23), while describing internationalisation being more related to the "specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to deal with globalization" (Altbach, 2006:123). Internationalisation may be seen as increasing the process of globalisation by forging a common platform for intercultural exchange without little room for cultural diversity (De Wit, 2002) and by relying upon the use of English as academic *lingua franca*. Nevertheless, some don't consider globalisation as a monolithic phenomenon: "It is nuanced according to locality (local area, nation, world region), language(s) of use, and academic cultures" (Marginson, S. and M. van der Wende, 2007:5). It seems then inevitable to adopt a contextual approach to investigate the facts and trends to be observed in higher education in any given country/region.

Contextualisation is here to be understood as the knowledge and appraisal of the local context at the national and institutional level, since the context includes

> "the culture, the political and legal system, the stage of economic development, or the economic system at one point in time. It also includes the history, the geography, its ecology, and all that has transpired over time and in space that have produced what and why a context is the way it is today." (Tsui, 2006)

National and institutional contexts as well as the overall aims of the universities and where they want to position themselves nationally, regionally and internationally play here a major role. Bartell (2003) and Davis (1995) pointed out to the importance of these contexts as for the internationalisation policy of universities. Hence, various factors such as the system of values of the country, its social and economic environment, its historical development, etc. together with the education system as a whole have to be taken into consideration when elaborating and implementing an academic programme: "options cannot be discussed without taking into account the particular national policy context of a higher education system, and in particular its tradition and culture" (UNESCO, 2006).

Internationalisation at Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU)

Founded as a private college in 1956, Hong Kong Baptist University became a publicly funded institution in 1983. The University set up its language policy with English as medium of instruction in 2003, while encouraging proficiency in Putonghua (Mandarin). Baptist University […] strives to be "an outstanding university in China" and believes that a "worldwide vision" will enhance its capacity to act as "a gateway between mainland China and the global community. Thus, HKBU aspires to be a good national university and its goal through internationalisation is, first and foremost, to serve the motherland" (Chan, 2006:212). The University seeks to enhance its position as an international gateway between mainland China and the global community by strengthening its international networks, as expressed by the president of Hong Kong Baptist University:

> "It is because we can claim to have found our roots, or cultural footing, only after we thoroughly understand our own history and culture. This is essential if we are to understand and appreciate the cultures of other countries. This also enables us to develop our national and global perspectives, so that we may indeed live and work in our heterogeneous community and multicultural environment" (Ng, 2001; quoted in Chan 2006:106).

This is the reason why the president of HKBU preferred to use the term "translocalisation" instead of "internationalisation" in the perspective of recruiting mainland students and collaborating with Chinese universities (Chan, 2006, 213). He explained the use of this term as follows:

> "under our one-country-two-systems political arrangement, we have a rather unique situation in Hong Kong. The term translocalisation enables us to include mainland students, whose presence constitutes a very important part of our campus diversity." (Ng, 2001; quoted in Chan, 2006:106)

In fall 2009, there are altogether 207 students from 26 regions/countries (among which 41 will continue on for the spring semester) at Hong Kong Baptist University. Twenty-five of these students are French and ten of them will stay two semesters. Among these 207 students, 38 are German and only one of them will stay two semesters. China and the United States are also well represented with respectively 36 and 32 students. At the same time, 182 HKBU students are studying as exchange students outside Hong Kong. Twenty-nine of these students are Year III European Studies Programme students in France, Germany and Austria. The number of mainland China students is expanding rapidly (HKBU, International Office, 2009a).

Last year, the HKBU International Office conducted a university-wide survey to collect UGC-funded undergraduate students' views on academic exchange programmes. The survey aimed at gathering information from students on their needs and desires, as well as possible barriers that hinder them in participating in academic exchange programmes. The survey has revealed the top four concerns that deter a student in taking part in exchange programme: financial difficulties; perceived difficulty in credit transfer; worry that participation in an exchange programme will prolong studies and/or delay graduation; fear of being unable to enrol in the desired/needed courses at the host institution. The top four benefits perceived by the students were: personal enrichment; gain first hand knowledge of another culture; learn another language; live in a different geographic area (HKBU, International Office, 2009b).

Some facts and trends in Hong Kong education

On 1 July 1997, after more than 150 years of British control, Hong Kong was handed back to the Chinese authorities and became a Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China. Ethnic Chinese constitute 95% of the city's population of nine million inhabitants. Financial services, trading and logistics, tourism, and producer and professional services are the four key industries in the Hong Kong economy.

The language policy of the Government is to enable students and the working population to be biliterate in written Chinese and English and trilingual in Cantonese, Putonghua and English (Education Commission, 2006:24). The status of English as an official language in Hong Kong is guaranteed by the Basic Law, the mini-constitution promulgated by the National People's Congress. As the recognized global language, its market value is very high and it also echoes Hong Kong's policy "One country, two systems". From 1998, most secondary schools were ordered to use Chinese rather than English as the medium of instruction (MOI). Textbooks are written in standard modern Chinese, but teachers lecture in Cantonese, the dominant dialect in southern China and

the mother-tongue of most students. Cantonese differs greatly from Mandarin (Putonghua), the Chinese national language. A 2009 decree allows more secondary schools to use English as the result of "persistent complaints in the community that English standards had fallen because of the so-called mother-tongue teaching policy." (Lau, 2009) Nevertheless, the language proficiencies of Hong Kong students seem to be gradually improving (Education Commission, 2006:29).

The 2000 Education Reform, which is student-focused, aims

> "to enable every person to attain all-round development in the domains of ethics, intellect, physique, social skills and aesthetics according to his/her own attributes so that he/she is capable of life-long learning, critical and exploratory thinking, innovating and adapting to change; filled with self-confidence and a team spirit; willing to put forward continuing effort for the prosperity, progress, freedom and democracy of their society, and contribute to the future well-being of the nation and the world at large" (Education Commission, 2006:5).

Hong Kong has 12 degree-awarding higher education institutions, including eight institutions funded by the public through the University Grants Committee (UGC), three self-financing institutions and the publicly-funded Hong Kong Academy for Performing Arts. Eighteen percent of the 17 to 20 age group are offered first-year-first-degree places through the institutions funded by the UGC. For students with Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination results, the Joint University Programmes Admissions System is a scheme and the main route of application to apply for admission to publicly-funded degree and selected sub-degree programmes offered by the eight UGC-funded institutions[i].

In Hong Kong as in many other countries, "there has been a growing emphasis on the "outcomes" of higher education. In other words, evaluators are looking for new data and indicators to demonstrate that students have mastered "specific objectives as a result of their education" (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009). The idea behind is that usual indicators, namely "inputs, activities and research outputs, such as resources used, classes taught, and articles published […] provide no indication of the degree to which HEIs [higher education institutions] actually develop the knowledge and skills of their students" (OECD, 2008:3). On the contrary, "learning outcomes refer to the personal changes or benefits that follow as a result of learning. Such changes or benefits can be measured in terms of abilities or achievements." (OECD, 2008:7) The UGC has strongly encouraged HEIs to move away from the traditional content-based mode of teaching and delivery to an outcomes-based teaching and learning approach (OBTL) in order to enhance student learning and teaching quality. At BU, course syllabi are usually presenting what the students will be able to do in terms of knowledge and understanding, skills and attitudes.

A major reform is being implemented in the secondary school curriculum which will be shortened from seven to six years (a three-year junior secondary and a three-year senior secondary). The normative length of the undergraduate university curriculum will expand from three to four years. This so-called "3+3+4" structure began at senior secondary level in 2009, with the first admissions to the new undergraduate curriculum being in 2012. This new academic structure will have substantial resource implications for Hong Kong universities in terms of staffing and estates. This will be particularly the case in 2012 when there will a double intake of students during the transitional year from the old to the new curriculum. About 1,000 new academic staff are expected to be recruited in the sector by 2012. Hong Kong's HEIs have been engaged in planning four-year undergraduate curricula.

It seems that greater emphasis is put on the graduates' preparation for the world of work, which echoes the belief that "preparing students for competence in the workplace is a major goal of higher education" (OECD, 2008:11). This is, of course, mainly due to the morose economic context: nowadays, the unemployment rate stands at 5.4%. The gross domestic product for 2009 as a whole is now forecast to contract by 3.5-4.5% in real terms. In July 2009, the values of Hong Kong's total exports and imports of goods both fell markedly, by 19.9% and 17.8% respectively over a year earlier. It is expected that the

unemployment rate will continue to face upward pressure as business sentiments remain cautious and employers are generally conservative in hiring new hands.

The European Studies Programme (ESP) at HKBU

The Bachelor of Social Sciences (Honours) in European Studies (then Bachelor of Arts) was established in 1994. It is centred in the Department of Government and International Studies. It is the only major academic programme in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, which focuses on Europe, the European Union and, more specifically, on the French- and German-speaking countries within that continent. It is unique in that it offers the opportunity of a systematic study of European political, social and economic affairs in combination with foreign language acquisition (French or German). It is already a four-year course: two years of full-time study in Hong Kong, a third year spent in Europe with academic study and, whenever feasible, working experience in companies or institutions, followed by a fourth year in full-time study in Hong Kong. Political science provides the disciplinary core, which is underpinned by history and contemporary area studies. Knowledge of Europe is deepened by the Honours Project, a dissertation (in French or German) in which students conduct their own research into a particular subject related to Europe[ii]. The annual student intake is set at 36 students, to be equally distributed between the French and the German stream of the course.

The curriculum devotes considerable room to language study. The first year French language seeks to introduce the French language in context of living, studying and working in the French speaking areas of Europe. Students at the end of this course achieve the A2-Level of Competence of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) laid down by the Council of Europe. The CEFR is a document

> "which describes in a comprehensive manner i) the competences necessary for communication, ii) the related knowledge and skills and iii) the situations and domains of communication. […] [The CEFR] facilitates a clear definition of teaching and learning objectives and methods and provides the necessary tools for assessment of proficiency. The CEFR has become a key reference document and valuable tool for educational and professional mobility"[iii].

The Year 2 language course aims at equipping students to pursue academic studies as well as internships in France during year III. Final year language classes help the students to reach a sufficient and autonomous level in spoken/written French language; collect useful information about French civilisation and contemporary society; and last but not least, acquire the right attitudes that will enhance their learning and communication strategies. Students at the end of this course achieve the B2-Level of Competence of the CEFR. The course systematically focuses on topics related to academic writing and students' own research for the Honours Projects. It is worth mentioning that all language courses in the new four-year course curriculum have been retitled "Language in Context" to illustrate that language learning is multi-purposed and context-oriented (daily life communication, academic environment, and professional setting).

European Studies subjects are integrated in the language-related area background studies. It means that from the very first semester, language classes include themes related to European societies. This is essential, since "although businesses based in French and German-speaking countries are well represented in Hong Kong, the two languages have no salient presence in the community, and their appearance in curricula is a result of the colonial past more than of anything else. There is virtually no potential exposure to them outside the classroom" (Humphreys and Spratt, 2008:316). Nevertheless, the French community is the most important one in Asia with 7,000 nationals and Germany with approximately 2,500 nationals is Hong Kong's most important European trading partner (600 German companies).

The Year III study component in Europe is carefully constructed to meet individual students' interest and academic performance, predominantly within the range of Social Sciences and Business. Students also undergo intensive and rigorous training in French up to certified proficiency level prescribed for full-time academic study and/or professional activities in French speaking countries. The European Studies course maintains student exchange programmes with universities in Europe, such as for the French stream: École Supérieure des Sciences Commerciales d'Angers (ESSCA) and

CIDEF (Centre International d'Etudes Françaises) at Angers; Centre International d'Etudes des Langues (CIEL) and École Supérieure de Commerce, at Brest ; Institut d'Etudes Politiques and École Supérieure de Commerce, Dijon ; Institut d'Etudes Politiques (Sciences-Po) at Lille; Institut d'Etudes Politiques (Sciences-Po), Paris ; Institut de Management Europe-Asie (ISUGA) at Quimper ; Institut d'Etudes Politiques at Rennes and Institut d'Etudes Politiques at Strasbourg. Several years ago, some students spent a full academic year at Lausanne, Switzerland (Cabau-Lampa, 1999).

When the Programme was launched, it seemed that the French stream would have to face a big challenge, i.e. to offer internship positions to Year III students while in France. In fact, this was mainly due to the fact that the academics originally involved in the elaboration of the programme had limited insight of the French educational and vocational culture. In France, "an issue that seems to be consistently raised by stakeholders […] is the lack of parity of esteem between academic qualifications and VET [Vocational Education Training] qualifications when seeking or keeping a job, especially for young people entering the labour market." (Recotillet, 2009:4). The situation is different in Germany, where there is a social consensus on the value of apprenticeship training. The consequence in the German educational system "is its emphasis on a strong interlocking of theory and practice [which is] particularly well exemplified in the apprentice system […] that combines practical knowledge and early integration into the working process with a deepening of theoretical knowledge in school." (Brunstein, 1995:92). From an external point of view, it seemed then that the German stream was more successful, not to say profitable for students' interests, since German companies were generally more "generous" than their French counterparts in terms of internship positions. Nevertheless, the situation has gradually changed and the reputation of the French stream in that regard improved due mainly to two factors: first of all, the morose economic environment and the increasing rate of unemployment in Germany (as in the rest of Europe) is affecting German employers' enthusiasm to offer trainee positions to our Hong Kong students. Second of all, when the French stream students graduate look for a first job, their full year exchange programme at a renowned political/business institution in France compensate most of the time their lack of professional experience in the eyes of potential recruiters. The fact that our students "survived" in an academic French-language environment so demanding as for methodology, communication and presentation skills, analytical thinking… make them very interesting candidates on the Hong Kong job market.

Students' profile and expectations

A study of the Hong Kong Chinese (language) learner is beyond the scope of this article. Nevertheless, it is essential to refer here to some of the discourse frequently heard in the Hong Kong academic setting as for the differences between the Western and Chinese learning style and process, attitudes and beliefs about effective teaching, relationship teacher-students, teachers' and students' expectations. As Kennedy (2002:431) points out, "the learning styles adopted by Chinese learners are often attributed to 'Confucian values'", according which self-assertion and individualism are discouraged". But Hong Kong has been a British colony for over a hundred years and exposed to Western thoughts and cultures before the 1997 retrocession to China. Hence, "Confucianism may be too narrow a focus for understanding the behaviour of Hong Kong Chinese people." (Chan, K.w, 2008:262) However cautious the teacher has to handle these stereotypes, these differences do exist. It is important to mention here that a large majority of ESP teachers are Europeans; furthermore, as already mentioned, Year III students spend a full academic year in Europe.

According to a survey of students and faculty members from six different departments spread over four Hong Kong universities, Western teachers are generally more inclined to consider problem-solving and critical thinking as more challenging and important learning than foundational knowledge than their Hong Kong Chinese colleagues. Furthermore, they consider "rote memorization […] as antithetical to understanding", whereas memorization can also be a "means toward understanding the content *as it is authorized*" (Pratt, Kelly, Wong, 1999:246, 253). There is also a difference in the teacher-student relations and attitudes between expatriate Western faculty members and their

Hong Kong Chinese counterparts: the former tend to create a more egalitarian relationship with their students, while preserving some distance in order to remain fair and objective in their learning assessment (Pratt, Kelly, Wong, 1999:247). In our European Studies Programme, our task is to explain our students going to France that they should not expect (all) French teachers to be ready "to participate in extracurricular activities, have an open-door policy with their office, and be available and willing to talk to students about all manner of things." (Pratt, Kelly, Wong, 1999:248). They are not to ask for their lecturer's notes. On the other hand, they should be ready to be challenged by the French teachers to think aloud and defend what they know, and "in turn, [they are] expected to challenge the content presented by teachers and texts, as a means of coming to understand that knowledge" (Pratt, Kelly, Wong, 1999:249).

Every Hong Kong teacher is aware of the importance of avoiding any situation where a student might "lose face", i.e. having his/her status lowered in front of others. This is the reason why some students are reluctant to speak out and rather passive during classes. Hence, one of the major problems for (second) language teachers is to get more student oral response (Tsui, 1996:146). The result is that "Hong Kong students are usually characterized as hard-working and diligent but lacking in creativity and originality" (Kennedy, 2002:432). We may here quote again Kennedy (2002:442), when highlighting the fact that most of the time, the Chinese second language learning is often presented as incorporating a deficit, with "inferior" learners and old-fashioned modes of learning. He correctly concludes that "Chinese learning styles' are far more subtle and complex than they are often made out to be. Common assumptions, such as the notion that memorization and understanding are mutually exclusive categories, may be in need of reappraisal." It is also here important to remember that French or German is their fourth language (after Cantonese, English and Putonghua).

Traditionally, in Hong Kong as in many other parts of the world, German generally evokes the images of trade, industry and technology, whereas French is associated with arts and culture. Hence, it took a few years for the applicants to understand that they should not expect courses related to French architecture, literature... A 2003 study involving more than five hundred Hong Kong tertiary students (among which Hong Kong Baptist University ESP students) and aiming to explore their motivation towards the learning of English, Putonghua (both compulsory languages) and a chosen third language (French, German, or Japanese) highlighted the importance of the integrative dimension, i.e. the extent to which respondents wanted to be like target language speakers, for French and German (Humphreys and Spratt, 2008). As for the two compulsory languages, English emerged as a "highly rated language" and the respondents considered that "being able to speak English was regarded as more a part of their Hong Kong identity than being able to speak Putonghua, which they seemed to see as a not altogether welcome necessity of modern life" (Humphreys and Spratt, 2008:322, 320). The three chosen languages also presented the advantage of a possible promotion of motivational engagement, since they were not compulsory.

There is no doubt that the one-year stay in Europe included in our programme represents the highest attraction point for Hong Kong students. Whereas some years ago, some of them had some difficulties in grasping the profile of our programme, i.e. social and political studies oriented, it seems now that they are more aware of the high expectations of host institutions in France – not only political studies institutions but also management/business schools (Cabau, 2008). These last years, the number of our graduates desiring to prepare a Master's degree in France represents one fifth of a cohort. Every year, one or two of them are offered a scholarship through the French and the Belgian academic support network in Hong Kong.

Concluding remarks

According to our experience, an academic programme incorporating a large dimension of foreign language and culture has to preserve a delicate equilibrium between diverse interests and objectives (educational, economic, social, political…) of different partners (students, teachers, higher education decision-makers, local and foreign potential employers, foreign partner institutions, embassies/consulates, chambers of commerce…) at different levels. The components of an undergraduate course must reflect the needs of

the local and foreign community in terms of human resources on the job market, but also respond to students' increasing demand to pursue postgraduate studies. It is in this perspective that the new OBTL educational philosophy should be understood: students are to acquire theoretical knowledge together with task-oriented skills and behavioural techniques and should develop strong communication skills in various formats. The HKBU European Studies Programme is trying to encompass local and European perspectives in its curriculum. This dual academic scope means that one of its motto has to be "flexibility" and that it relies upon the strength of a diversified network which needs to be constantly cultivated. As teachers, we have the responsibility to equip our students with multi-faceted competencies, i.e. knowledge, *savoir-faire* (how to do), *savoir-être* (how to be) and *savoir-agir* (how to act). These competencies should be transferable for successful transitions to work, and ultimately, careers within global companies/organizations as well as for further postgraduate studies.

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Inter-Ethnic Tolerance among Malaysian Youth: Reality or Fantasy

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Abstract

Malaysia is a model of a successful multi-ethnic, multicultural, and multi-religious society (Lijpahrt, 1977). And the diversity of its population is an asset as well a challenge to the government. The main challenge is how to integrate the various ethnic groups while not violating their uniqueness or disrespecting their belief systems which may contribute to ethnic conflicts. As such, the country requires vigorous effort, including researches that can adopt new perspectives for maintaining harmony and unity. Considerations should go beyond common topics of economy, social, education and politics. Instead, we should identify the inner strengths of our individual youth. Hence, this study discusses the relationships between knowledge, attitude and religious personality in measuring the inter-ethnic tolerant behaviour among middle youth of Malaysian multi-racial community. A total of 563 secondary students voluntarily participated in the study and completed the Universal Religious Personality Inventory (URPI) and the Inter-ethnic Tolerant Behavior Questionnaire (IETBQ). Path analysis was carried out to determine the interdependencies amongst all the correlates and their influences on perceived inter-ethnic tolerant behaviour. The correlates consisted of knowledge, religious personality (pro-social behaviour, ritual behaviour, and anti-social behaviour), and attitude. As a result, a suitable model which is able to explain the inter-ethnic tolerant behaviour among Malaysian youth was established.

SOURCES OF STRESS AMONG UNDERGRADUATES AT MALAYSIAN UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract summation

The present study was carried out to determine the major sources of stress among undergraduates at Malaysian public universities. This paper reports major stressors experienced by the student population according to field of study and year of study. The study also found a significant difference in the level of stress between field of study and year of study. Findings of the study suggest that specialised intervention through guidance and counselling or psycho-educational activities can be tailored to meet the needs of this group.

1.0   Introduction

Stress has been defined as the strain that accompanies a demand perceived to be either challenging or threatening and depending on its appraisal, may be either adaptive or debilitating (Sanders & Lushington, 2002). According to Evans and Kelly (2004) stress is a disease and could indicate a complex dynamic transaction between individuals and their environments. Day and Livingstone (2004) defined stress as a psychological threat, in which the individual perceives a situation as a potential threat. Therefore, what can be seen is stress being defined in negative terms based mainly on individual evaluations. Stress levels can also be measured and factors that contribute to stress may be identified. Sources of stress are known as stressors.

Today, students in institutions of higher learning are subjected to many experiences that could contribute to different kinds of stressors. The UK Council Report CR112 (2003) stated that students in institutions of higher learning experienced changes from a structured and general education from that of school and home to a less structured university life that could result in an impact on their mental health. As such, mental health status is often a reflection of their level of stress. According to the report, students currently face challenges such as competitive job markets and demands, financial burdens and the pressure to get their degree.

A decade ago, Garrison (1995) stated that today's university students are unique whereby the following factors have a propensity to influence their behaviour: (a) isolation and its consequences; (b) their understanding of the boundaries between faculty, staff, and administration and students; and (c) their reason for going to university. Garrison and Hersch, cited in Hernandez and Fister (2001), claimed that the most striking difference between today's university and students of 20 to 30 years ago is their profound isolation from adults and from a traditional cultural context. They feel isolated from the decision-making resources and experience the 'lonely responsibility' (Garrison, 1995, p.11) of looking out and caring for themselves, and are often expected to resolve problems isolated from a cultural context.

In terms of psychological and social development, most university students can be categorised as young adults as these students are generally in the transition between adolescence and adulthood. Young adults who are undergoing developmental transitions and pressure to master new age-related tasks can be particularly vulnerable to the general stresses of academic demands and social life on campus.

Sax, Astin, Korn, and Mahoney (1995) stated that today's students are increasingly disengaged from the academic experience and are less involved in learning than they are in social endeavours. Hernandez and Fister (2001) claimed that the proliferation of technology actually leaves many students unskilled in social graces and incapable of developing appropriate relationships with peers and faculty

members. In addition, today's college and university students also have blurry perceptions of the boundaries between themselves and the faculty. This 'loosening of boundaries' (Hernandez and Fister, 2001) reflects the operationalisation of their isolation from accepted social and cultural norms. This results in them failing to see themselves as functioning in the same social hierarchy as the faculty. Instead, they see themselves functioning within a structure in which all members are peers.

Roberts, Golding, Towell, and Weinreb (1999) in their study of British university students found that there was a higher level of mental health problems experienced by this group compared to a non-student population matched for age and sex. Surtees, Wainwright, and Pharoah (2000) in their study conducted at the University of Cambridge found that around 20% of students reported at least one problem causing substantial worry during each of the three annual academic assessments. Around one in five women and one in ten men reported an episode of either depression or anxiety during each of the assessment periods indicating that psychological morbidity appeared to peak at times which coincided with university examinations. Six per cent reported suicidal ideation and one percent of students annually reported actual suicide attempts. The study also noted that six per cent of women even reported multiple problems with diet during this period.

Evidently, too much stress can lead to negative effects such as smoking behaviour (Magid, 2009) and poor psychological well-being (Honglin, Yu-Cheung, Moa-Sheng and Christine, 2009). Sherina, Lekhraj and Nadarajan (2003) found that 41.9% of medical students at one Malaysian university experienced emotional disorders as an effect of stress. Apart from that, Zaid, Chan and Ho (2007) indicated that 46.2% of medical students in a private medical school in Ipoh, Perak, Malaysia exhibited emotional disorders. Emotional disorder is the result of unmanaged stress that leads to negative consequences.

In Malaysia, the number of students entering institutions of higher learning increases every year. According to statistics from the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, there were 223 968 undergraduates in 2006 and the number increased to 247 881 undergraduates in 2007. Therefore, the increasing number of students in institutions of higher learning needs to be given due attention since the topic of stress among undergraduate students is important and has been of concern to many parties. Thus, a study should be conducted to identify the major sources of stress among students in the university. This is significant since previous research has proved that having poor psychological well-being could lead to negative consequences such as suicidal behaviour and the feeling of hopelessness (Kay, Li, Xiou, Nokkaew and Park, 2009). Hence the present study was undertaken with the following objectives:
1. To identify major sources of stress among Malaysian undergraduates
2. To determine a significant difference in level of stress among Malaysian undergraduates from different fields of study and year of study

2.0   Previous Research
Ross, Shannon, Niebling, Bradley and Heckert (2008) indicated that, the major sources of stress among the college students they investigated were "change in sleeping habits", "vacations or breaks", "change in eating habits", "increased workload" and "new responsibilities". Abdulghani (2007) concluded that the main sources of stress among medical college students at King Saud University in Saudi Arabia were "their studies" and "home environment". He also found that first year medical students had a higher prevalence of stress (74.2% of respondents) followed by second year students (69.8% of respondents), fifth year (49% of respondents), third year (48.6% of respondents) and fourth year students (30.4% of respondents) respectively.

Sreeramareddy, Shankar, Binu, Mukhopadhyay, Ray and Menezes (2007) found that the sources of stress among medical students at Manipal College of Medical Science in Nepal were "staying in hostel", "high parental expectations", "vastness of syllabus", "test or exam" and "lack of time and facilities for entertainment". In addition, this study also indicated that the prevalence of psychological morbidity was higher among students with a basic science background compared to those with a clinical science background.

Seyedfatemi, Tafreshi and Hagani (2007) concluded in their study that the major sources of stress among students at the Faculty of Nursing and Midwifery in Iran were related to the interpersonal ("finding new friends" and "working with people they did not know") followed by the intrapersonal

("new responsibilities" and "started college"), environmental ("increased workload") and academic sources of stress ("placed in unfamiliar situations" and "waiting in a long line").

Dahlin, Joneberg and Runeson (2005) indicated that there was a significant difference in terms of the degree of pressure or level of stress among first, third and sixth year students. The respondents in this study were medical students at Karolinska Institute in Stockholm and the study concluded that first year student's exhibit the highest degree of stress compared to third and sixth year students. There was a significant difference of degree of stress and it was also stated that medical students experienced higher depression levels than the general student population.

Stanley and Manthorpe (2002) in their survey of academic staff at the University of Hull found that over a third of their respondents reported their experience of having supervised students who were experiencing a mental health problem. In terms of problems presented, 60% of problems were classified as those with minor mental health problems, while 28% were described as experiencing 'severe' or 'life threatening' mental health problems. They claimed that this pattern was not significantly different from that of staff in other institutions. The difficulty most frequently experienced by the staffs was students' inability to acknowledge their problems or to accept help (27%).

Zaid et al., (2007) indicated that there was a significant difference of emotional disorder in terms of year of study among medical students. The first and final year students had a higher prevalence of emotional disorders and among those who experienced extreme levels of stress, it was often due to examinations (68.3% of respondents) and among those who were not involved in a romantic relationship (51.7% of respondents).

Woolfson (1997) in a study conducted at the University of Wisconsin found that 92% of students who were presented to the University counselling service showed signs of academic impairment - 16% were mainly depressed, 43% moderately depressed and 41% had severe depression.

3.0   Hypotheses
To study the major sources of stress among Malaysian undergraduates, we test the following hypotheses.
Ho1:   There is no significance difference of stress level among social science, technical and science Malaysian undergraduates.
Ho2:   There is no significance difference of stress level among first, second, third and fourth year Malaysian undergraduates.

4.0   Research Method

4.1   Population and Sample
The population for the study comprised of undergraduates students at Malaysian public universities. From the twenty public universities in Malaysia, five universities were randomly selected. The universities were Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Universiti Malaya (UM) and Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS). Initially, a sample number targeted in this study was 1500 Malaysian undergraduates. However, only 1468 Malaysian undergraduates were recruited as respondents in this study. The sample size in this study was calculated through a software i.e. the G*Power 3 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang and Buchner, 2007). At the confidence interval level of .95, with the power of 95% and the alpha of .05 and with small effect size of .02, the calculation based on the G*Power software found an estimated sample size of 1229 respondents to be appropriate. Thus, the sample size in this study is sufficient to represent the characteristics of the undergraduate student population in Malaysia.

A multistage cluster sampling was used to select the respondents. The sample of undergraduates from five universities was generated by stratifying them according to fields of study, namely, Science, Technical and the Social Sciences. These categories were selected according to the classification given by the Ministry of Higher Education in Malaysia. Then, one faculty or school was randomly selected from each field of study. Next, each field of study was stratified again according to year of study, i.e. cohort year 1, 2, 3 and 4. Then, the sample was selected from each year of study with assistance from the faculty or school administrators. The questionnaires were distributed during class periods and were collected on the same day by the researcher.

4.2   Procedure
A self administered questionnaire was used in this study. Written approval was obtained from the Dean of each faculty or school. They then helped identify classes where data collection could be conducted. Then, the researcher and appointed enumerators distributed the questionnaires during the class period. Before administering the questionnaire, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to the respondents and they were told of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses and their right to withdraw from the study.

4.3   Measurement
The major source of stress was measured using an adapted Student Stress Survey (SSS) by Ross, Shannon, Niebling, Bradley, Heckert and Teresa (1999). The scale contained 31 items that was developed based on two scales i.e. the Student Stress Scale by Insel and Roth (1985) and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale by Taylor (1953) and other potential sources of stress that were identified based on the reviews of literature. Items were carefully conceptualized to suit the culture and experiences of Malaysian undergraduates. The Student Stress Survey used in this study was translated from English into Malay and the "forward translation" procedure was employed.

The SSS comprised four subscales or dimensions i.e. interpersonal (4 items), intrapersonal (13 items), academic (7 items) and environmental (7 items) sources of stress. Respondents were asked to check each item they had experienced during the current university year by either stating "Yes" or "No". A higher score indicated a higher level of stress. The minimum and maximum score was 1 and 62 respectively. The reliability coefficient determined by Cronbach's Alpha was 0.79.

5.0   Data Analysis
Data for the study was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 16. Firstly, descriptive statistics i.e. frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum were used to describe demographic information and sources of stress among Malaysian undergraduates.

Secondly, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine the significant difference of stress levels among Malaysian undergraduates in terms of field of study (Social Science, Technical and Science) and year of study (first, second, third and fourth year).

6.0   Results

6.1   Description of Demographic Information
Descriptive statistics was used to describe demographic information i.e. age, gender, ethnicity, religion, institution, field of study and year of study among respondents. Firstly, a formula (mean ± 1S.D) was used to categorize age of respondents into three groups. From the data analysis, it was found that the majority of respondents were 20 to 21 years old (M=20.83, S.D = 1.459). There were 400 (27.5%) respondents aged 22 and above and 15.5% of respondents aged 19 and below.
There were 894 or 61.3% female and 564 or 38.7% male undergraduates in the study. These comprised 835 or 57.4% Malay, 418 or 28.7% Chinese, 126 or 8.6% Sabahan or Sarawakian, 69 or 4.7% Indian and 12 or 0.5% from other ethnic groups. As for respondent's religion, the majority (869 or 60.3%) were Muslim, Buddha (330 or 22.7%), Christian (175 or 12.14%) and Hindu (67 or 4.6%). This percentage reflects the current normal distribution of undergraduate students in Malaysian universities.

As for distribution by institution, there were 321 respondents from UPM or 22% of total number of respondents. This was followed by UMS (299 or 20.4%), UM (298 or 20.32%), USM (296 or 20.2%) and UKM (252 or 12.2%).

There were 299 or 20.4% social science respondents, followed by science (480 and or 33.3%) and technical undergraduates (466 or 32.3% of respondents). Finally, as for year of study, the highest number of respondents composed of second year undergraduates with 483 or 33.3% of respondents, followed by first (441 or 30.4%), third year (411 and 28.3%) and fourth year undergraduates (115 or 7.8%).

6.2 Description of Major Sources of Stress

Respondent's major sources of stress were assessed in this study. Descriptive statistics were used to identify major sources of stress with 60% and above of response rate reported by the respondents. The analysis of data revealed that, on average the respondents scored 48.961 on the Student Stress Survey (S. D = 4.993). The percentages of the responses to each item on the Student Stress Survey are shown in Table 1.

From 31 items on the Student Stress Survey, the analysis found that the top ten sources of stress were "new responsibilities" with 85.5% of respondents' stating that they were stressed by it. In other words, most Malaysian undergraduates were experiencing intrapersonal sources of stress which was related to their newly found responsibility as students in the university. According to Erikson (1964), at this stage, young adults need to focus on important things in life such as getting married, having a special girl or boyfriend and a career that will provide a stable future in life. These important developmental tasks required of young adults contribute to the new responsibilities that young adult need to face. Hence, if young adults failed to adapt to the situation, it would lead to negative impacts such as social isolation and stress.

The interpersonal source of stress as major source of stress found in this present study was similar to that found in a study by Shannon et al., (1999). They concluded that a major source of stress among respondents was the intrapersonal dimension. However, the item which contributed most to interpersonal stress was "a change in sleeping habits". The researchers used 44 items on Students Stress Survey to measure the sources of stress and the respondents were undergraduate students at a mid-sized Midwestern university in the United States.

Similarly, Seyedfatemi et al., (2007) concluded that major source of stress was related to the interpersonal dimension. However, the most stated item that contributed to stress was "finding new friends". The researchers used the Student Stress Survey to measure the sources of stress and respondents were undergraduate nursing students at the Iran Faculty of Nursing and Midwifery at a tertiary institution in Iran.

The results of this present study showed that the other major sources of stress was "an increased workload", followed by "a change in social activities", "putting a task on hold for extended period of time", "an anticipation of graduation" "a change in sleeping habits", "change in eating habits", "speaking in public", "lower academic grade than anticipated" and lastly stress due to "computer problems".

Table 1: Percentage of respondents reporting each sources of stress using SSS

CATEGORY	YES n (%)
Interpersonal	
Change in social activities	76.4
Fight with boyfriend/girlfriend	30.1
Roommate conflict	20.3
New boyfriend/ girlfriend	17.4
Intrapersonal	
New responsibilities	85.5
Change in sleeping habits	66.8
Change in eating habits	65.5
Speaking in public	65.4
Financial difficulties	58.6
Outstanding personal achievements	46.7
Decline in personal health	39.8
Minor law violations	39.2
Held a job	16.5
Death of a family members	12.3
Death of a friend	7.2
Severe injury	4.9
Influence to use alcohol or drugs	3.1

Academic

Increased class workload	84.4
Anticipation of graduation	69.6
Lower grade than anticipated	60.1
Change of major	20.7
Search for graduate school/job	20.4
Serious argument with instructor	3.8
Transferred faculty/school	3.6

Environmental

Put on hold for extended period of time	71.3
Computer problems	60.0
Waited in long line	57.7
Change in living environment	57.7
Vacation	54.8
Placed in unfamiliar situation	43.4
Messy living conditions	25.4

6.3 Hypotheses Testing

Ho1: ***There is no significance difference of stress level among social science, technical and science Malaysian undergraduates.***

To test Ho1, a one-way ANOVA was used in this analysis. The analysis found a significant difference of stress level with an F-ratio of 5.780 which was significant at the 0.05 level (p = 0.003). Therefore, Ho1 was rejected. In conclusion there was a significant difference of stress level among Malaysian undergraduates from different fields of study with technical undergraduates having the highest stress levels (mean = 49.613 and S.D = 5.06) followed by science undergraduates (mean = 48.783 and S.D = 5.243) and lastly social science undergraduates (mean = 48.589 and S.D = 4.92). This result was supported by Dahlin et al., (2005) who indicated significant difference of degree pressure in terms of field of study. The researchers found that medical students experienced a higher degree of pressure than the general student population in Karolinska Institute.

Table 2 shows the top five sources of stress as reported by Social Science, Science and Technical undergraduates surveyed in this study. Quite a similar pattern was noted with intrapersonal and academic sources of stress as major sources of stress. Regardless of field of study, the undergraduates experienced pressure or stress due to "new responsibilities", "increased class workload" and "change in social activities".

Table 2: Top five sources of stress according to field of study

Social Science	Science	Technical
New responsibilities (Intra)	Increased class workload (Acad)	Increased class workload (Acad)
Change in social activities (Inter)	New responsibilities (Intra)	New responsibilities (Intra)
Increased class workload (Acad)	Change in social activities (Inter)	Put on hold for extended period of time (Envt)
Anticipation of graduation (Acad)	Put on hold for extended period of time (Envt)	Change in social activities (Inter)
Change in eating habits (Intra)	Spoke in public (Intra)	Anticipation of graduation (Acad)

Note: Intra=Intrapersonal, Inter=Interpersonal, Acad=Academic, Envt=Environment

Ho2: ***There is no significance difference of stress level among first, second, third and fourth year Malaysian undergraduates.***

Using a one-way ANOVA, the analysis revealed that there was a significant difference of stress level with an F-ratio of 5.767 which was significant at the 0.05 level (p = 0.000). Thus, Ho2 was rejected. In conclusion, there was a significant difference in stress levels in terms of year of study with students in the second year having the highest stress level (mean = 49.41 and S.D = 4.659) followed by third year (mean = 49.307 and S.D = 4.659), fourth year (mean = 49.211 and S.D = 7.01) and lastly first year students (mean = 48.152 and S.D = 4.532). This finding was similar with research conducted by Dahlin et al., (2005) which found significant differences in degrees of pressure according to year of study. However, the researchers indicated that first year students at Karolinska Institute experienced the highest degree of pressure and this contradicts findings from this present study which found second year as having highest stress levels compared to students from the other years.

As for sources of stress according to year of study, a similar pattern was found in the interpersonal, academic and intrapersonal dimensions. However, stress due to "anticipation of graduation" was reported as high by third and fourth year students as they prepare to leave the university and enter the challenging and demanding job market.

Table 3: Top five sources of stress according to year of study

First year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourt Year
New responsibilities (Intra)	Increased class workload (Acad)	Increased class workload (Acad)	New responsibilities (Intra)
Increased class workload (Acad)	New responsibilities (Intra)	New responsibilities (Intra)	Put on hold for extended period of time (Envt)
Change in social activities (Inter)	Change in social activities (Inter)	Anticipation of graduation (Acad)	Anticipation of graduation (Acad)
Change in living environment (Envtl)	Put on hold for extended period of time (Envt)	Change in social activities (Inter)	Increased class workload (Acad)
Change in eating habits (Intra)	Change in sleeping habits (Intra)	Put on hold for extended period of time (Envt)	Change in eating habits (Intra)

Note: Intra=Intrapersonal, Inter=Interpersonal, Acad=Academic, Envt=Environment

7.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

Chickering's (1969) vectors of college student development have been marked as an important theory in understanding the tasks required to be accomplished by college or university students. Later, this psychosocial development model was modified based on the earlier model. He suggests that establishing identity is the key developmental issue that arises during the university years. He proposed seven vectors that include developing confidence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose and developing integrity. This psychosocial theory focuses on the personal and interpersonal aspects of university students' lives as they accomplish various developmental tasks, or resolve the inevitable crises that arise. However, at the same time, this developmental task may be hindered by problems that may contribute to stress among the undergraduates. Thus, sources of their stress need to be identified so that necessary measures can be undertaken by respective parties especially the student affairs department that oversees students developmental needs and processes.

According to Chickering (1969), the process of transition to college or university is marked by complex challenges in emotional, social, and academic adjustment. At this stage, students commonly question their relationships, directions in life and their developing self-worth. Some students succeed in finding creative ways to make the transition constructively and adapt to university life as fast as possible, whereas others may feel overwhelmed and unable to effectively meet the demands of their newly founded roles. This is clearly evident from the finding of this study where "new responsibilities" was the number one source of stress experienced by the undergraduates.

The demand to quickly adapt to university demands is complicated by the fact that most undergraduates are living away from home and living with minimal parental support for the first time in their lives. Thus, the separation and individuation from parents are crucial developmental tasks facing late adolescents and these could affect personal, social and academic achievement.

Mental health is of great concern to all. Understandably, certain forms of psychological disturbances may be common in university student population such as anxiety, depression, suicidal ideation and personality disorder behaviours. In fact Reports from the Higher Educational Offices (HEO) counselling services in the UK have indicated that an increasing number of students with severe mental health problems were being identified (Phippen, 1995).

There is a notion that an individual student operates differently both at the personal and environmental levels. It is therefore important that student development personnel must understand the dynamic factors which contribute to the young adult development process. Student development personnel need to differentiate between a developmental problem of late adolescence and young adulthood as compared to the more serious and possibly diagnosable disorders. It is then important to make clear the difference between problems primarily tied to normal developmental struggles such as autonomy, identity, and intimacy (Chickering, 1969) and the more severe or chronic forms of psychological disturbance. Since, the result of this study point out that sources of stress are different according to year of study, specialized intervention geared to address this issue can be tailored to meet their developmental needs. Issues such as adaptation to university life that demand understanding and acceptance of new responsibilities need to be managed with assistance from all university staff, especially academic and student affairs personnel.

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Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Japan

-A contrastive study between Greece and Japan-

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Abstract: It has been a long-held belief that Japanese speakers of English suffer from a low level of proficiency. Although this seems to have become a priority of the government policy, Japan still lags behind. Through a comparison with Greece and the use of the Greek State Certificate of Language Proficiency (KPG)[1] this paper presents the shortcomings of the Japanese education policy and proposes a look at the European initiatives on the basis of learning strategies.
Keywords: TEFL, KPG, CEFR, ELP, English Language Education, Japan, Greece

Introduction

It has been a long-held belief that Japanese speakers of English do not fare well in English language proficiency exams. Although their reading abilities seem to suffice for mere extraction of information, Japanese learners of English often have difficulty communicating in English properly. Results from international examinations such as TOEFL attest to this reality. In the past few years the government has tried to address the issue with a new reform focusing on the development of learners' communicative abilities. This paper draws upon a comparison between Japan and Greece, a member of the European Union, and the Council of Europe's policies with regard to the CEFR[2] and ELP[3], to discuss the weaknesses in the Japanese education policy. Moreover, a test-experiment at Kyoto University of the KPG, a foreign language proficiency exam designed in Greece with the European Council's policy in mind, verifies the communicative inadequacies and attempts some suggestions based on the direction of the Greek educational system towards autonomous learning and the European initiatives.
Objectives

The main objective of this paper is to determine the extent to which the latest reform has been able to meet the curricular goal of improving the communicative abilities of Japanese learners of English in Japan, and also to provide suggestions towards improving English language education in the country. Towards that end, the paper attempts a contrastive study of the Foreign Language education policies in Greece and Japan respectively, through an examination of the objectives and methodologies each system implements for teaching English. The fact that Greece is part of the European Union could also provide a broader comparison between the Japanese and the European education policies. Finally, an experiment of the KPG proficiency examination was conducted at Kyoto University in order to evaluate the English language education the students received in high school and test it against the more communicative oriented foreign language policy followed in Europe. The selection of Greece was owing to the fact that it is the researcher's country of origin, where he has had previous experience teaching English. Also, by international standards such as the TOEFL exam that is held in both countries, the respective results of Greek learners are higher than those of Japan.
Current situation in Japan

The Prime Minister of Japan in his Commission on Japan's Goals in the 21st century in 2000 made a point of the fact that Japan ranked 180th out of 189 countries that year in the TOEFL examination[4]. Several years later, in 2007[5], the results of the internet-based (iBT) version of the TOEFL exam, which includes a speaking component as well, were still low; the individual scores for the reading and listening parts were both 16 out of 30, for speaking the score was 15 out of 30 and for writing, 22 out of 30. The same year for Greece the scores were 22 for listening, 23 for reading, 20 for speaking and

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[1] Greek State Certificate of Language Proficiency introduced [Kratiko Pistopoiitiko Glossomatheias] The English exams project is carried out at the RESEARCH CENTRE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING & TESTING of the Faculty of English Studies, School of Philosophy, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens (www.uoa.gr.english/rcel), under the direction of Prof. B. Dendrinos.
http://www.cc.uoa.gr/english/rcel/texts/KPGdescription-2008.pdf
[2] Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
[3] European Language Portfolio
[4] CJGTC (2000a)
[5] Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL Internet-Based and Paper-based tests. (2008)

22 for writing, with an overall score of 88 against 65 of Japan. (fig. 1). The scores didn't vary significantly in 2008 either, with 86 for Greece and 66 for Japan.[6]
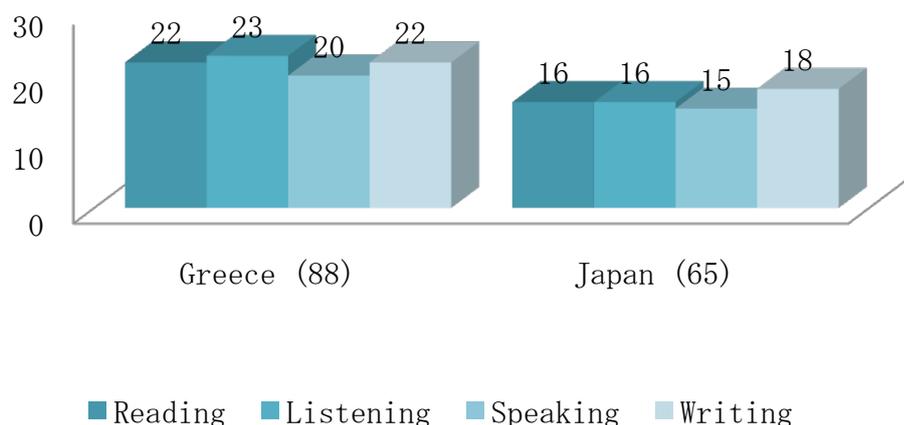
Fig. 1: TOEFL scores.

The failure of the Japanese to become successful learners of English has spawned a great amount of literature over the years trying to account for this inability. One significant factor often cited pertains to the linguistic differences between the two languages. These can be broken down into two major subcategories, namely genealogical and typological (Dantsuji, 2003). English is a language of Indo-European origin whereas Japanese is regarded as unrelated to any known language family (Higa, 1977). Other differences relate to the grammatical structures with English following an S-V-O word order, while Japanese follows an S-O-V structure. Finally, phonological differences related to the number of vowels as well as the type of consonants in each language, as well as differences in the respective syllabic and prosodic structures are also listed as significant impediments in the learning process.

Furthermore, Koike and Tanaka (1995) argue that Japan, being an island nation, has had very little direct contact with speakers of other languages over the years. Clark also brings forward social and cultural traits among Japanese such as shyness and embarrassment at making mistakes and, finally, Clément, Gardner, and Smythe, (1977) introduce motivational parameters such as the learners' linguistic self-confidence, which is regarded as a significant factor influencing second language acquisition (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980), since highly anxious students have been noted to be critical of themselves and their performance.
Greece

Greece is a member of the European Community and therefore is directly affected by the political, social as well as educational policies; consequently, both the European and Greek policies regarding foreign language education will be examined.
European Policy

The Council of Europe, founded in 1949, is an organization working towards European integration; one of its principal aims[7] is "to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realizing the ideals and principles which are their common heritage and facilitating their economic and social progress." Since 2003 the Council has encouraged all its citizens to be able to speak two languages in addition to their mother tongue in order to promote plurilingualism within the Union[8].
Plurilingualism

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[6] Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL Internet-Based and Paper-based tests. (2009)
[7] article 1(a) of the Statute of the Council of Europe (1949)
[8] European Commission, DG Education, Training and Youth.

Plurilingualism, a concept defined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4), refers to the ability of an individual to employ different languages in varying cultural contexts for effective communication. Multilingualism, on the other hand, refers to the co-existence of more than one language in a particular society. Plurilingualism is, therefore, an individual concept, whereas multilingualism is a societal concept[9]. One of the basic premises of plurilingualism is that many of the European languages are closely related to each other, either because they belong to the same 'family of languages' (e.g. Germanic languages) or because they have influenced one another through the course of time in some way. Consequently, most European languages happen to share several linguistic elements, such as grammatical structures or vocabulary items and, therefore, when students learn a new foreign language they build upon their previous experience on how to learn a foreign language in general.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

Increased mobility, better working relations and more effective communication within Europe have made language learning a top priority. That is why the Council of Europe put together the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR), as the main part of the project "Language Learning for European Citizenship" held between 1989 and 1996. The intent was to provide a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications gained in different contexts through the use of objective criteria in language proficiency description. The CEFR, therefore, constitutes a set of guidelines aimed at describing achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe. More specifically, it provides a comprehensive description of what language learners are supposed to be able to do at each stage of the learning process in all four skills in order to be able to use a language for communication purposes and interact effectively in specific linguistic and cultural contexts. It categorizes learners into three major divisions, which can be in turn subdivided into six levels:

A. <u>Basic User</u>
      A1 - Breakthrough
          A2 - Waystage

B. <u>Independent User</u>
          B1 - Threshold
          B2 - Vantage

C. <u>Proficient User</u>
      C1 - Effective Operational Proficiency
          C2 - Mastery

In November 2001 a European Union Council Resolution[10] recommended the use of this educational tool in setting up systems of validation of language competences. Since then, the adoption of CEFR has seen an increasing use in the reform of national curricula across Europe as well as international consortia for the comparison of language certificates.

European Language Portfolio (ELP)

Along with the CEFR the Council of Europe has been promoting the European Language Portfolio (ELP), which has attracted a lot of interest worldwide. The ELP was designed in 2001 to support the development of plurilingualism by enhancing motivation and support for lifelong learning (Goullier, 2007). It has steadily gained popularity in all European member states as well as worldwide interest. It is a personal document with three components. First, the language passport, which provides a summary of the owner's linguistic competences through formal language qualifications as well as significant experiences related to foreign language use. The second component is a detailed language biography that describes the owner's experiences in each language. Finally, there is a dossier, which contains a selection of work that its owner believes best exemplifies his/her foreign language competences. Both the ELP and CEFR have been established as educational tools for foreign language learning, especially for cultivating communicative competences.

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[9] European Commission, DG Education, Training and Youth.
[10] Council of Europe (2001)

Foreign language policy in Greece

In Greece the institutions in charge of education are the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs and the Pedagogic Institute (P.I.). Compulsory education is nine years, spanning ages 6 to 15, with 6 years of primary school and 3 years of junior high school, followed by 3 more years of senior high school. English is taught in all years starting from the third grade of primary school. In 2003 English was introduced in the third grade of primary education for three hours per week. In the first grade of junior and senior high school English is taught for three hours per week, while in the second and the third grades it is taught for two hours per week.

Since the 1950s Greece has been following contemporary approaches to Foreign Language teaching in public schools[11]; the communicative approach, task-based learning in the 1980s, while in 2001 school education started to shift towards student-centered learning with the development of the Cross-Curricular/Thematic Framework (C.C.T.F)[12] by the P.I. The underlying idea is that teaching should be directed towards helping the learner learn how to learn and eventually develop autonomy for lifelong learning. As for foreign language education, the main objectives are for students to develop the linguistic ability to communicate in different linguistic and cultural environments to act effectively in real situations of communication, predictable or not, using linguistic, paralinguistic or/and non-linguistic means.

The market is rather competitive in Greece with a large number of private English schools thriving across the country, so publishers revise their course books on a regular basis, while all books focus on the development of all four skills. Recently they also had to adapt their course materials to the Council of Europe's propositions and the CEFR in order to be able to be included in the Ministry's list and be considered an appropriate and adequate material for exam preparation. Owing to that all publishing houses, including smaller local ones, are represented in the list[13].

English language teachers in Greece are all university graduates holding a degree from a faculty of English Language and Literature, where language, psychology, pedagogy, methodology, literature and ICT are some of the compulsory subjects in the initial training of Primary and Secondary school teachers at Universities (Chryshochoos & Chourdaki, 2005). It should also be noted that all courses are conducted in English.

Japan

Compulsory education in Japan is also nine years, with 6 years of primary school, 3 years of junior high school, and 3 more years of senior high school as well. English as a subject in public high schools was offered for 5 hours per week until 1981 but the number of hours has been reduced to 3 since. The instruction of English in primary schools officially began in 2002; however, the curriculum does not specify a compulsory number of lessons per school year or grade (Nikolova, 2008). It is not common for Japanese to take up a second foreign language while in high school; they usually do so after entering university.

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[11] Dendrinos, I didaskalia tis ksenis glossas [E8].
[12] Government Gazette 303-304/13-3-2003
[13] http://www.ypepth.gr/docs/egrisi_katalogou_agglikis_2008.doc

Given that entrance into the prestigious national universities is based to a great extent on entrance examination scores, English education has been guided by this examination system. (Brown & Yamashita, 1998, Widdows & Voller, 1991). In 1994 the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT) introduced the new Course of Study Guidelines which, for the first time, set the development of students' communicative abilities in English as a primary goal of high school English education followed by the Action Plan in 2003 setting the new objectives for English language education. These new strategies coupled with the long received contributions of the JET[14] program were treated as hopeful steps for English instruction in Japan.

Action plan

The Action Plan (2003) was put forward in response to the increasing criticism targeting Japan's English education policy as not being able to bear fruits. The Action Plan was proposed after a series of changes had been made in the Course of Study - the national guidelines. It is worth noting that the productive and practical communicative skills are not only mentioned and elaborated on but the Ministry has determined the primary objectives of foreign language education in its entirety to be communicative in particular. The main objective is for all high school graduates to be able to ''communicate in English,'' and college graduates to be able to ''use English in their work'' (MEXT, 2003a, Section 1).

Japanese policy and discrepancies observed

Despite the shift towards a more communicative approach to language learning/teaching in public high schools, with the Action Plan in 2003 very little can actually attest to the change in foreign language education to date, mainly due to deeply rooted practices in the Japanese society. The main discrepancies observed affect the core areas of teacher training, the teaching methodology adhered to, the textbooks used in classrooms across the country, and the powerful influence of the university entrance examinations on the educational system.

Teacher training

There are various issues regarding the training process Japanese teachers of English undergo in order to obtain their teaching qualifications. Iida (2004) raises questions as to the value of peer teaching, a widely used method across Japan for teacher training, where one college student plays the role of a teacher and the other students play the roles of students, stating that real students vary in motivation and ability and therefore this practice cannot actually reflect an actual teaching environment.

In-service training

Asaoka (2003) reports that actual guidance is almost non-existent and most students participating in her study of in-service programs in secondary schools in Japan "were asked by their supervisors to teach in any way they liked ... [while] there was no particular meeting in advance" (p. 7). Also, Iida (2004) points out that the teachers supervising the teacher trainees have never studied TESOL, ESOL or SLA theory nor do they belong to any research institutes, concluding that "this is not unusual", which means no advice, or suggestions, can or will be supported by SLA theory or practice for young trainees.

Regarding the teachers' qualifications the MEXT has set the minimum requirement levels of language proficiency that secondary school English teachers ought to reach to be eligible to teach, namely STEP pre-first level, TOEFL 550, or TOEIC 730. Ishida (2002) surveyed 1,278 English teachers about taking English proficiency tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, or STEP; among those 1,278 teachers questioned only 673 had taken a language proficiency test and the results are quite revealing. Of those who took the TOEFL test 3% achieved a score of 550-579, 1% achieved 580-599, and 2% scored over 600. On the TOEIC test, 3% achieved a score of 730-809, 2% reached 810-899, and 1% achieved a score over 900. 51% of respondents attempting a STEP test passed STEP 2nd grade, 27% passed Pre-1st grade, and 10% passed 1st grade. What is evident from the above is that only half of these 673 English teachers obtained scores that met the minimum requirements set by the MEXT. (fig. 2).

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[14] The Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET) was founded in 1987 by the MEXT to promote internationalization by inviting young overseas graduates to assist in international exchange and foreign language education in local governments, boards of education and elementary, junior and senior high schools throughout Japan. http://www.jetprogramme.org/
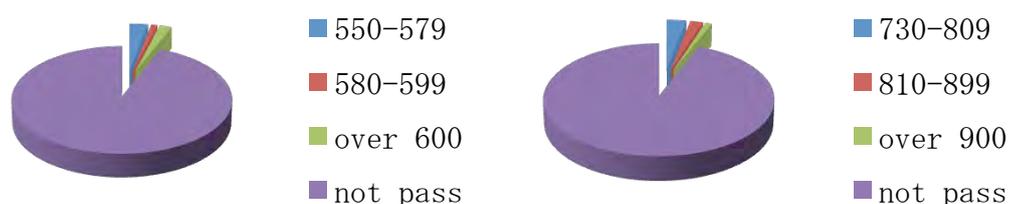
Fig. 2: left: TOEFL results, right: TOEIC results.

All in all, Japanese teachers of English seem to be clinging to teaching methods that do not promote communicative skills, contrary to what the objectives in the Ministry's course of study. Teacher training appears inadequate, trainees do not receive any SLA theory teaching and a large number of teachers do not meet the minimum requirements set by the MEXT.
Teaching methodology

Taguchi (2005) conducted a survey in one particular prefecture in Japan followed by class observations in order to determine the characteristics of Oral Communication classes in public high schools. The responses of 92 high school English teachers who were interviewed revealed that listening exercises and dialogue practices were the most typical classroom activities, whereas activities promoting creative expressions such as speech and role play, received rather weak responses overall. Finally, grammar and vocabulary instruction was reported as the third most common activity.

Also, in a case study conducted in one of the two English-medium universities[15] in Japan at the time, Taguchi and Naganuma (2006) interviewed Japanese students who had graduated from regular high schools in order to evaluate how they adapted to a new English-medium university environment, where the English language would be used for actual communicative purposes. Understanding the teachers' instructions in a university class was the major challenge for all these students who attributed that to the lack of exposure to authentic English in high school. The students also reported lack of speaking practice in high schools, which also affected their adjustment in the new English-speaking university environment. Eight out of thirteen students reported that one of the major difficulties they had to face was the exclusive use of English, given that they had had almost no experience in speaking English in high school. Almost all students reported difficulties related to the amount of reading assignments. They reported that all texts they were exposed to in high school were rather short and all they were asked to do was provide word-for-word translations as well as understand the grammatical structures within a sentence; emphasis was placed on accurate and precise translation of each sentence, rather than comprehension. Ten out of thirteen students also had difficulty producing paragraph-level discourse, as their writing activities were restricted to translations, they had never had the chance to produce their own thoughts in a coherent way in writing.

Ishibashi (2008) conducted a research on the formal and informal learning of English among Japanese university students and found that they didn't know how to study the language effectively on their own, and they expected that their teachers would give them opportunities and help in order to study the language. These results are indicative of the teacher-centered direction foreign language education has taken in Japan, which does not allow for students to improve their study on their own.

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[15] The English-medium University is a university in which all college-level courses in basic and advanced education areas, as well as language courses, are taught in English in order to improve academic proficiency in English (The Daily Yomiuri, 2004 cited in Taguchi, 2006).

Textbook selection process

All English language textbooks in Japan go through a screening process in order to be approved by the Ministry of Education, since only those are allowed in classrooms. Surprisingly enough, however, most of the books on the approved list fall short of the Ministry's commitment to developing students' communicative abilities.

Sakurai (2008) reviewed the Ministry approved "New Horizon", one of the most widely used textbooks in Japan (Hasegawa & Chujo, 2004). The book contains only supplementary chapters for skill development, which are left entirely up to the individual teacher to decide whether to use in the teaching process (Hasegawa & Chujo, 2004). McGroarty and Taguchi (2005) also found that most exercises, which appeared in a selection of five Oral Communication textbooks they examined were mechanical and structured, and did not provide cognitively complex language activities or engage the learners in any form of communicative activity.

Moreover, Rosenkjar (2007) made an analysis of one unit from the popular MEXT-approved Polestar textbook showing that the activities "are primarily form-focused, not communicative and not fully-oriented to developing students ability to read in English for communication" (Rosenkjar). Although several activities are described as "tasks," as the author notes, they fail to meet the definitions of "task" found in Lee (2000) or Willis (1996) since they hardly involve the students in "expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning" (Lee, 2000). He also reports that all activities related to developing reading skills simply target factual information explicitly stated in the text.
University Entrance Exams

In citing White (1987) Reesor (2002) points out that "for parents and students alike, getting good grades on the entrance examination is important above all else" (p.48). Lo Castro (1996) also states "passing examinations is the greatest source of motivation for English language study." (p. 47). Within this system English scores carry the highest weight among all subjects as they are considered to reflect the candidate's analytical and logical thinking abilities. (Yoko & Iino, 2004).

In citing Brown & Yamashita (1995), Reesor states that out of 21 Universities only 6 in 1993 and 4 in 1994 included even a listening component. In January 2006 the national Centre for University Entrance Examination administered the first exam (in its 26-year history) to include a 50-point listening component to the original 200-point pencil-and-paper section. Still, that held true in only 60 percent of all national institutions (Miyuki, 2008).

Within this context teachers also undergo great pressure regarding the results of the entrance examinations, since the students' performance reflects on their teaching. Lo Castro (1996) further underlines that "the entrance examination system can be said to have deleterious washback effect on methodologies and teacher education; classroom teachers are under pressure to teach 'exam English'" (p.47).

From the above it becomes evident that English education in Japan still has a long way to go. The teaching staff is not adequately prepared to meet the challenges and consequently the methodologies employed only adhere to old practices, which only serve the purpose of preparing students for the University entrance exams.
Greek Certificate of Language Proficiency (KPG) – An experiment

In order to assess the English language education students received in high school under the latest reform a test was conducted in a class at Kyoto University. The test selected was the KPG[16], an exam introduced by the Greek Ministry of Education in 2003 with the CEFR and the direction towards plurilingualism in education in mind. Apart from the candidate's linguistic competences, however, the

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[16] http://www.ypepth.gr/kpg

exam also measures their ability to act as mediators across languages[17] thus testing their communicative competence as well. The exam consists of four modules, namely Reading Comprehension & Language Awareness, Free Writing Production & Mediation Skills, Listening Comprehension and Free Speaking Production & Mediation Skills.

A mockup KPG[18] exam was administered to a class of 39 students at Kyoto University during the spring semester of 2008. The exam materials were downloaded from the Greek Ministry of Education website[19]. The level that was selected was the one that corresponds to the B1 level on the CEFR scale as it was considered more appropriate for the students' abilities, while two Greek texts included were substituted by translations in English[20]. References to Greece were also substituted by Japanese equivalents. Three components were administered: Reading Comprehension & Language Awareness, Free Writing Production & Mediation Skills, and Listening Comprehension.

The students' responses were evaluated using the answer key available for download from the Ministry website and in accordance with the published instructions. In both the listening and reading components multiple choice questions were used with five additional open-ended questions at the end of the listening part. The total score for the exam is 100 out of which students can receive 1-25 for Reading Comprehension and 1-25 for Listening Comprehension, while for the writing part candidates can receive a score of 1-30. The remaining 25 points correspond to the speaking component, which was not tested. The 60 percent borderline score was maintained. As far as the writing test is concerned what was assessed was the ability to convey meaningful sentences with adequate argumentation focusing on the communicative aspect of language rather than strict grammaticality. However, grammar and syntax as well as coherence were also taken into account to the extent that sentences and the overall text did not interfere with comprehension.

Results and Analysis

From the results of the mockup exam in the reading component Japanese students fared quite well with an average score of 18.9 out of 25 credits (fig. 4). The high passing rate reflects the orientation of the Japanese education to date, having traditionally focused on developing students' abilities to process written texts. In this part of the test only one student failed, while two more students out of the 39 achieved borderline scores. From their answers, however, it becomes clear that the students had problems producing derivatives of the words given or determining what part of speech was required each time,[21] while about two thirds of the students had difficulty determining functional value when asked to fill in missing conjunctions in a short story or when asked to draw text-level inferences after reading a text instead of merely retrieving factual information, which was what they had been used to doing thus far.
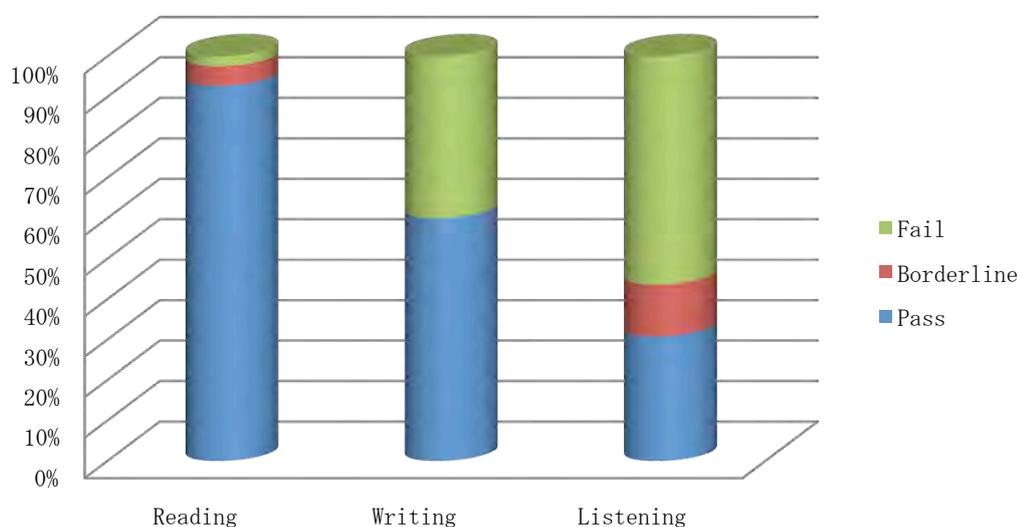
In the writing part 16 out of 40 students were unable to achieve borderline score. The average score was 19 out of 30. Moreover, 3 students were unable to make even the 30 percent minimum requirement, probably due to the fact that in high school the students were mostly involved in passive, mechanical drill exercises, such as translation and reading with very little exposure to more creative forms of language usage.

Finally, the listening component seemed to be the most difficult one for the students to cope with, as the average score was 14.2 out of 25. More importantly, more than half of the students, that is, 22 out of 39, were not able to achieve a score of 60 percent while 5 more merely achieved borderline scores. More specifically, in most cases it seemed that the students didn't actually understand the content of the listening items, but rather guessed from the mention of certain words, which resulted in specific items receiving the same wrong answers from the majority of the students. However, the part where most students seemed to have great difficulty with was the final five questions, where they had to listen to a very short dialogue and fill in the missing words from 5 sentences out of the dialogue. 30 out of 39 students wrote a wrong word, while 6 students left them blank, which could be attributed to the fact that little –if any- emphasis had been placed on developing listening skills throughout high school. The number of students that failed in the writing component was 40 percent, in the listening component 58.9 percent while in the reading part only 2.56 percent. Although the Ministry has clearly stated the objective of English language education in Japan as being one towards cultivating students' communicative abilities the actual perception from these results is quite contrary to that.
Conclusion

From the above it becomes clear that the latest reform by the ministry of education did not bear significant fruits, mainly because the old practices are still prevalent across the country. The University entrance exams still shape the direction of English education, teacher training remains inadequate and the prevalent methodology employed is still Grammar-Translation in its core. The KPG test at Kyoto University confirmed that the education policy followed to-date has not given students opportunities to develop learning strategies, which could help them pursue their own learning. Japanese students acknowledge their lack of communicative competence yet they admit that they do not know how to study on their own in an effective way, still expecting the teacher to provide all knowledge. Although the MEXT objectives do mention that life-long learning is an important aspect of the Japanese educational system, there is no mention of any ways in which it might be achieved.

From the comparison of the educational policies in Greece and Japan it is evident that Greek teachers of English have a higher level of linguistic competence since they go through specialized training, which includes methodology as well as language and literature courses, all conducted in English. That itself makes them more confident to experiment with and embrace new methodological approaches to teaching. Another point worth noting is the direction of Greek education towards autonomous learning, which gives students the opportunity to become more confident learners and take control of the learning process and not be entirely and solely dependent on the teacher. The Japanese educational policy could benefit greatly if they were to invest in these two factors. The theoretical framework of both the ELP and CEFR may also play an important role to support the future of English education in Japan. The function of cultivating learner autonomy and monitoring the learning processes by reflecting the proficiency levels could be helpful for cultivating communicative competences. A number of factors need to be considered however in the process of utilizing the concept of the European portfolio in the Japanese context and several adaptations and adjustments are required before applying the ELP in the Japanese educational environment, based on the analysis of the theories and cultural differences. However, if utilized properly and with further research the ELP can prove a useful tool in the English language education in Japan for both teachers and students alike.

Acknowledgment

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The Analysis of English textbooks in Finland and Japan

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Abstract:
The purpose of this study is to examine foreign language teaching in Finland in order to suggest the possibilities and limits for reform in Japanese foreign language instruction. The study examines how educational development in Finland has led to the adoption of the communicative language teaching method and a focus upon tasks rather than passive studying. General conclusion of this study is that English textbooks used in Finland provide a useful model for possible reforms in Japan.

1. Introduction

The present study examines foreign language teaching in Finland and Japan. Both Finnish and Japanese students have difficulties in learning English, as the vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammatical structures are very different from their own mother tongue. The aim of this paper is to promote English teaching methods and to highlight the need to carry through a reform in foreign language teaching in Japan. In order to find improvements and recommendations to be applied in teaching English in Japan, English textbooks are compared and analysed against the framework of a number of language learning theories.

Most language teaching methods are more or less tightly associated with a prevailing learning theory, and the switch from one method to another signals some kind of a change in the theoretical framework. The grammar-translation method is a purely linguistic method, while many other methods in the academic field are derived from different learning theories. One representative method is known as the Audio-lingual method. This method uses basic sentence structures and grammar to draw the students' attention, by teaching them systematically the pronunciation as well as drilling their oral skills. The Communicative Language Teaching has stated the construct of communicative competence; learners are able to accomplish the colloquial conversation and nonverbal communication. According to the interview with Professor Viljo Kohonen (see Appendix 1), English language learning has been changing for the past two decades. One huge development was the assessment proposed by the Common European Framework (CEF) in 2001. Finland therefore reformed its language curriculum based on the European model. However, the CEF was too broad a framework to follow that Finland then narrowed it down to suit its own academic system. Moreover, the European Language Portfolio (ELP) was also introduced in order to record how foreign language learning progresses and the intercultural experiences. This is also one substitute for foreign language learning in Finland.

1.1. The textbooks

Textbooks are a key component in language instruction and should be an effective part of language programs. For most teachers, textbooks provide the foundation for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, as well as the kinds of language practice the students engage in during class activities. For students, they serve as the most important source of learning in the school. They provide the basis for language practice carried out in the classroom.

This study examines in what way the prescribed English textbooks used in Finnish classroom provide the necessary language learning tools and how English textbooks have changed over three decades from implementing Audio-lingual (behaviourist) theories towards functional, communicative and interactive language use. Moreover, the most recent textbooks used in Finland and Japan are compared and analyzed against the theoretical framework.

2. Research questions

The research questions were formulated to give an account of English instruction at the elementary school level in Finland based on quantitative and qualitative in eighteen (18) Finnish textbooks of English. The quantitative analysis of the common or unique textbook features consists of features, such as the number of pages, sentences, lexical unites, and characters. The qualitative analysis consists of the treatment and development genre, theme, task, and language functions. In addition, the process of

textbook publication is examined. This data analysis is based on publications of the Ministry of Education in Finland and Japan.

The research questions are:
   a) How have the language methods been shifted from passive studying to communicative studying especially in textbooks in Finland over 30 years? Can this help promote Japanese foreign language learning in the future?
   b) How have the national core curricula of Finland promoted the development of English Language textbooks within advancing theoretical frameworks?

3.   Methods

Foreign language learning curriculum both Finland and Japan are comparatively analyzed. Eighteen (18) textbooks were selected from the oldest in the 1970s to the newest 2009 versions in Finland at the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade levels and the latest two (2) textbooks at the 7th grade level were selected from Japan. These textbooks were widely used during each period. However, the selection is dependent on the teachers in Finland. Therefore, the analysis was especially based on the English textbooks from 3rd grade to 5th grade to track down a change and development through a historical overview.

The same grades between Finland and Japan are not directly compared. In Japan still English learning starts from age 12 so the lower grade textbooks are not published yet. Moreover, the latest version of textbooks was compared between Finland and Japan because it is helpful to find the factor of development of how and what English textbooks in Japan should be improved to motivate students to speak. The main focus is on the statistics of how the communicative tasks have been emphasised. Therefore, before going to analyse and collect all data, a questionnaire was given to Professor Viljo Kohonen at the University of Tampere to understand the insights of language teaching and textbook in Finland (see Appendix 1).

The features of textbooks

The textbooks have been categorized into 10 sections (see below) in order to find out the important factors of change. Textbooks differ according to the writing styles of different authors. Therefore, a list of criteria has been set to compare their teaching aims respectively.

Table 1. The explanation of features analysis

Settings are defined as where the interaction commonly takes place.
Intercultural settings are defined to be the sociolinguistic skill of learning to open your perspective widely in order to address globalization as well as multiculturalism.
Linguistic features are defined as formal language or informal language such as colloquial language or spoken language.
Main Characters are defined as who mainly takes part in the textbook.
Characters are defined as who mostly interacted.
Main Location is defined to be where the events take place.
Method is defined to be which language methods are selected and utilized.
Visual instructions are defined as what kind of materials are used in the textbook.
The number of Main Characters is counted.
The Character's age setting is examined to show the reflection of learners.

3.1. The classification of content

The theme of classification was based on Heidi Vellenga (2004) concepts. The functions and contexts classification (see Table 2) was used and based on the concepts of Eileen W.Glisan and Victor Drescher (1993) that applied their analysis on a speech corpus. Moreover, there is a descriptive category from the European Framework (2003).

THEME: Twenty-four (24) categories were used to investigate which themes were addressed in the contents of the textbooks:

Accept Invitation, Accept Requests, Apologize, Ask Permission, Ask Questions, Complain, Compliment, Correct, Express Regret, Give Advice, Give Instructions, Give personal details, Invite, Make Excuses, Make Introductions, Make Suggestions, Offer, Order, Promise, Refuse Invitations, Refuse Requests, Request, Threaten, Wish

TASK: Six (6) categories were used to investigate which tasks were focused upon in textbooks:
 Grammar, Listening, Reading, Speaking, Vocabulary, Writing

GENRE: Eight (8) categories were used to investigate which genres were emphasized in the contents:
 Article, Details, Dialogue, Game, Letter, Poem, Song, Story

LAYOUT: Two (2) categories were used to investigate which layouts were chosen for each page:
 Double, Single

Table 2. The classification of function and context categories

FUNCTION	CONTEXT
Giving personal information	Self-identification
Asking for/giving directions	Transportation
Asking questions	Personal information
Describing family	Family Greetings
Describing in detail	Work and leisure
Describing routine/leisure-time activities	Activities/hobbies
Greeting Expressing courtesy	Courtesy expressions
Hypothesizing	Object Pronoun
Making comparisons	Current events
Making purchases	Shopping
Narrating/describing in present, past, future	Education Economics
Ordering a meal	Restaurant , Café
Stating/supporting opinions	Politics Customs Religion

3.2. The sample of spoken words in everyday conversation
The spoken words were counted in order to investigate the colloquial words that would be helpful to show the important factors of how natural communicative competence would occur in the language. This research is based on the discourse maker theory. Furthermore, as a method to infer a conversational function from discursive characteristics, sociolinguists have utilized discourse markers (Schiffrin, 1988). Discourse markers are defined as single words or lexicalized phrases that are supposed to have a function of organizing discourse structure. Abbreviation words are one way of expression, showing the spoken words written and these interjection words are a natural and frequent phenomenon in oral language. The sources originate from the English textbooks in Finland and Japan. A sample is shown below:

isn't, don't, Oh, Yeah, Well, Thanks, Hmm, Shhh, Oww, Brr, Gosh, Mummy(Mum), Daddy (Dad), ...(Pausing), Huh, Oh dear, Phew, Wow, Youuuu, Yippee, Hah-hah, Zap, Gee

3.3. Quantitative analysis and features of the data
In comparing the textbooks the following units were observed: Total page, New vocabulary, Total words, Average of sentence length on each page, Average of word length on each sentence, and the page layout. These investigations are undertaken to see how the Finnish textbooks have been developed over 30 years and to clarify the differences between Finland and Japan.

The Genre
The classification of genre was categorized into eight (8) parts. The eight categories were analysed, counted, and chosen for each page. To indicate the result the following calculation was used, "The number of counted pages divided by the number of total pages times 100."

The Theme
The classification of theme was categorized into twenty-four (24) parts. The twenty-four categories were analysed, counted, and chosen for each page. To indicate to the result the following calculation was used, "The number of counted pages divided by the number of total pages times 100."

The Task
The classification of task was categorized into six (6) parts. The six categories were analysed, counted, and chosen for each page. To indicate the result the following calculation was used, "The number of counted pages divided by the number of total pages times 100."

The Functions and Contents
The classification of functions and contents was categorized into thirty (30) parts. The thirty categories were analysed, counted, and chosen for each page to indicate to the result. The number of pages was shown.

4. Results

First, the curriculum and foreign language education in Finland and Japan were examined to find similarities and differences. Second, the number of lessons was illustrated and compared and then moved to the comparative study of foreign language where instruction, objectives and contents were described. Third, it is illustrated how textbooks were planned, written and finally published. Lastly, textbooks were analyzed throughout the 20th century in Finland to discover the development of procedure in order to reform foreign language learning in Japan. Moreover, the current English textbooks were compared between Finland and Japan to define what needs to be revised especially in Japanese textbooks.

4.1. The Similarities and Differences of curriculum implement and language teaching in Finland and Japan

The general principle of curriculum organisation is changing from the idea of providing a centrally directed common education for all children. The educational circumstances reflect on what the council decides especially in Japan, whereas in Finnish schools principals and teachers are more in charge of controlling the curriculum than the council. This is a main difference between Finland and Japan. The shift towards decentralization has involved very different processes in Finland and Japan. From a historical perspective, the language learning and teaching agenda is influenced by the political policy in both countries. Moreover, a strong driving force for language teaching and learning is the globalizing working environment: foreign languages, in particular English, are needed in collaborations with overseas partner companies in both Finland and Japan.

4.2. The number of lessons in Finland and Japan

In Finland, foreign language learning starts at the age of 9 whereas in Japan it starts when students are 12 or 13 years old. In Japan, the Ministry of Education is trying to change the foreign language curriculum. The Japanese ministry already announced that in 2011 that elementary schools would start teaching English for an hour per week for age 9 students. Also, in 2012 junior high schools will reserve one more hour to teach English per every week. At present, junior high school students only need to learn 900 words annually. However, that will increase to 1200 words in 2012.

4.3. The foreign language curriculum in Finland and Japan

In general comparison one can note that the aims are not very different. Both countries encourage their students to learn to understand the language well enough to handle with a foreign language and culture. In Finland the emphasis has also been made to the early stages of the education.

English instruction seems very different and is likely to reflect the learning gap of acquisition between Finland and Japan. In Japan, the setting and situation are rather vague. In contrast, in Finland all instructions seem to encourage students to speak in everyday contexts.

In Finland at the early stages, grammar is not very much emphasized. In contrast, in Japan detailed instructions are given to indicate what kind of grammatical issues should be covered.

4.4. Finnish and Japan's School Textbook Examination Procedure
In Finland, there is no control over the production of materials and they no longer need to pass government assessment of their acceptability in respect of the curriculum content, although they are expected to adhere to the basic principles of state curricula for languages. However, in Japan the School Education Law enacted in 1947 created the current system of textbook approval. In this system nongovernmental publishers create textbooks and submit them for official examination and approval by the Ministry of Education. The books must meet the requirements of the Curriculum Guideline, a set of curriculum standards for Japanese schools. The Ministry of Education has already announced that this will be simplified in 2013.

4.5.   Text analysis throughout the 20ᵗʰ century in Finland
The features of Finnish textbooks were analysed over 30 years for 3ʳᵈ, 4ᵗʰ, and 5ᵗʰ grade textbooks and then the same features in recent Japanese textbooks were shown to observe the differences. The analysis of genre, theme, task, functions and contexts were investigated to find out the similarities and differences between the two countries. The interesting aspects of the textbooks were picked up and analysed in order to show how communicative Finnish textbooks were.

The Features of textbooks in the 3ʳᵈ grade in Finland
The biggest feature in the 3ʳᵈ grade is that the textbook has been improved to be like a fairy tale book. This feature might be due to the fact that students would enjoy reading like novels or story books. However, the content of the recent textbook published by Tammi "Let's go" (2009), has far more details than the other 5 textbooks such as a picture dictionary, new vocabulary translations and cartoons. In 1979, there are new vocabulary translations on each page. Then the translation disappeared until the most recent one, which came out in 2009. From stimulating the inner understanding, and the repetitive action like checking the word from a dictionary is necessary for beginners' learners to get used to studying a new language and developing a habit in doing so. The character's setting has been changed to have a mixed nationality. Intercultural learning method is the trend, this feature is not shown in the very first books but it is gradually appearing. Typically, the location of the events and characters is England (sometimes, the U.S., Australia or South Africa) and Finland has never been chosen as a location setting. Even the name of character is not Finnish at all. Here "Let's go" differs: they do not mention where the location is but make it a more imaginative place. The Audio-lingual Method was mainly used until 1980, and all the speech utterance is much more unnatural than in recent textbooks. Most of the interaction is performed between friends or family. The drawings have been greatly upgraded. The new version is more colorful and full of details. Learners therefore can learn from the text with the support of pictures.

The Features of textbooks in the 4ᵗʰ grade in Finland
According to the analysis in 1972 and 1981, there was no intercultural communication and linguistic feature was quite formal compared to the other textbooks. The Audio-lingual method was used at that time. From 1971 to 1981, the same textbooks were revised with some parts of the layout being reorganized and the publisher started to use some photographs to improve the layout. Since 1988, the interaction of language setting became more informal. Meanwhile, the method had also changed, which is why the interaction had become more varied. This had made the communication setting flowing and natural. The learner's age determines whether the contents to be formal or informal. Oral practices usually take place in a classroom and therefore, it is better that the informal language be simple for young learners. In 2005, Finland was being used the first time as the main location by the publishing house Tammi. A recent feature, in accordance with the intercultural view of learning, has been to send one of the main characters to travel around the world to show more places than before.

The Features of textbooks in the 5ᵗʰ grade in Finland
From 1973 to 2004, the settings have gradually decreased. This has made the recent textbooks to become more realistic. The number of the main characters has dropped compared to the 3rd or 4th grade textbooks. Since 1973, science and historical themes were introduced to English textbooks. Thus, not only the interaction between friends or family but also factual contents were included. In general,

the contents have obviously become more complicated and perhaps more demanding for the learner. The Audio-lingual Method was applied commonly in 1973 and 1982.

The Features of textbooks in the 7th grade in Japan
English textbooks in Japan are characterized by lots of details on each page. The Audio-lingual Method is still commonly used in Japan. Japan is always the main location and the take-off place to explorations to other countries. Factual contents relate to a society such as dog-caretakers or New Year's traditions. In addition to this, most contents are related to the Japanese culture. Finnish textbooks rarely deal with the Finnish culture. It is a sound pedagogical principle that titles and headings can be used as prediction activities and summaries, thus preparing the learner to accommodate new knowledge. In contradiction to the Japanese textbook, the headings and the story instructions are written in Japanese. An example of this is shown in Appendix 5. Even though it might be demanding for beginner's learners to read only in English, this positive approach can affect the beginners not only in preparing them to speak in English but also to think in English which might be a more practical learning method than reading in two languages.

The Analysis of genre in the 3rd grade in Finland
There is a dramatic increase in the introduction of new vocabulary from 1972 to 2009 and also more dialogues are gradually introduced in textbooks from 1972. However, the latest textbook in 2009 has considerably fewer dialogues than before. The total number of pages is more or less the same over nearly 40 years. The average word length in each sentence is up to 2.1 to 3.0.

The Analysis of genre in the 4th grade in Finland
New words are introduced 4 times more in 2005 than in 1972. Therefore, the total number of pages increases from 87 to 164 pages over 30 years. The length of the sentences is more or less the same as before but there are more details in the text. The page layout has been changed over 30 years. The single layout seems to be the trend, and the topics are more interesting and detailed. This might have helped motivate the learners, as they do not need to deal with the same topic for a long time. In addition to communicative competence, the percentage of "Dialogue" content is gradually increasing from 1972 to 2005. In general, 4th grade the learners are being introduced to not only "Details" or "Dialogue" but also "Poem" or "Letter."

The Analysis of genre in the 5th grade in Finland
More new words are provided, even though the total page count is nearly 130 pages over 30 years. The word length is nearly 4 words in each sentence. This means learners at the age 12 years make longer sentences than 3rd grade learners. The double layout was growing from 1973 to 2004. The percentage of "Dialogue" context is more or less the same over 30 years. It is nearly 28 % for all the textbooks. Overall, the number of "Dialogue" and "Details" drop to nearly a half by comparison with 3rd and 4th grade and the word dictionary parts occupy more space.

The Analysis of genre in the 7th grade in Japan
It is indicated that the two books have very similar structure, which is related to the fact the textbooks are authorized and controlled by the Ministry of Education and Council in Japan. It is shown that there are 211 spoken words in NEW HORIZON (2008) and 118 spoken words in NEW CROWN (2008). The majority of spoken words are such as 'Well' and 'isn't' in Japan, whereas the textbooks in Finland have more variety of spoken words such as 'Phew', 'Gosh' and 'Hmm'. Because of these variations, the sentences could become livelier with different levels of expressions. Moreover, in Japan, the vocabulary needs to be reformed because even 3rd grade Finnish students learn 100 words more than 7th grade Japanese students do.

The Analysis of theme in the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade in Finland and 7th grade in Japan
Most of the themes are either "Give Instruction" or "Ask Question" from 3rd grade to 5th grade. It is necessary for beginners to be aware of participating actively in class because this is important for them when learning a new language. The investigation of theme in Finland shows that more themes are introduced at 5th grade compared to 3rd or 4th grades, meaning that 5th grade learner's learning tasks are gradually becoming more complex. Japanese textbooks have more variations in themes than Finnish ones. In Finnish textbooks, it seems that at the beginning only one or two themes should be presented but once learners are progressing in their English, more themes should be introduced.

The Analysis of task in the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade in Finland and 7th grade in Japan
Studying "Grammar", "Listening", "Reading", "Speaking", "Vocabulary", and "Writing" have been implemented in each context and only little difference was found over the past 30 years. The speaking tasks were given more attention than other tasks. In Finnish textbooks, there are workbooks for practising new words and grammar, whereas Japanese textbooks have "Listening", "Grammar", "Reading", "Speaking", and "Vocabulary" learning in one textbook.

The Analysis of functions and contexts in the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade in Finland and 7th grade in Japan
The majority of data consisted of either, "Describing the details" or "Describing routine and leisure-time activities." Most of the communication takes place among friends, family, and the topics often varied. That is one reason why textbooks in Finland have more complex functions and context rather than separate functions or contexts. Therefore, the beginner's level students are not expected to learn any specific function or context.

Insights from interesting aspects in the textbooks
The textbook commonly uses the correct sentence. In the sentence below, the utterance first expressed "I" but after moment of pausing corrected to express "we" instead of "I". This utterance occurred in everyday life. The sample sentence is:

1) I …we are very happy you are all here and that you found Uncle Maxwell's treasure.

Moreover, the sentence below in a dialogue shows that the subject is omitted. If the grammatical order is strictly presented, the subject should not be omitted. These sentences show how Finnish textbooks accommodate with a spoken structure.

1) No more food (Omitted subject + predicate: There is)
2) Not enough honey in his coffee or too much to eat and drink (Omitted subject + predicate There is)

So, colloquial language is used in the Finnish textbooks. In Japan, the correct sentences are more strictly used rather than the spoken ones. A sample is:

1) Don't worry baby, I'm strong.
2) I sure will.

From the visual analysis, looking at Appendix 2, the introduction of greeting approach is quite different in Finnish and Japanese textbooks. The conversation seems to turn out very natural in the Finnish textbook because the sentences lined up orderly so that the learners read line to line. In Japanese textbook, it is quite unclear who is speaking. Moreover, Appendix 3 shows how the authors approached the same topic but in a different way. In 1973 the context was related to football whereas in 1992, the context looked at what players were doing and it became more communicative than earlier. In addition, the interaction between a teacher and students (see Appendix 4) was shown. In Finland, the topics are often more private than in the Japanese textbooks.

5. Discussion
Starting from the curriculum level, there are differences in foreign language instructions between Finland and Japan to encourage learners to speak. In Finland instruction prompts publishers to develop and adopt their unique points in the textbooks. For example, if the focus of language skills is on reading, activities should be taken from real-life materials such as, magazines, newspaper articles, or journals, accompanied by colourful visuals and well-illustrated materials. Since this was not found from the previous textbooks in the 1970s and 1980s. Most textbooks in Finland adopt more colloquial language than formal language. Japanese elementary schools should be careful to instruct the language by age, setting to whom the learners first speak. Nevertheless, in Finland the context are gradually becoming more complicated and colloquial language is used less at the higher grade. The Audio-lingual method is no longer in use in Finland

and therefore the contents became more natural and close to the reality settings. But the Audio-lingual method might be easier for teachers to accommodate. Yet, from Professor Viljo Kohonen's interview it became evident that the grammar translation method was a part of lessons even though it is hard to see from past textbooks. Furthermore, from the phonetic point of view, it is also wiser for Japanese textbooks to avoid using Japanese names, like Finnish textbooks but use English names instead. This allows learners to not conflict their pronunciation wrongly.

There are some drawbacks in Japan. While Finnish is not a similar language to English, the written form still uses the Roman alphabet. However, Japanese characters are very different from English letters. The social environment is different that there are two official languages, Finnish and Swedish. Swedish has the same roots as English. There are as well many English TV programmes with subtitles. In Japan all of foreign TV programmes are usually dubbed. The Japanese educational system is not as problematic as such. It acquired a high standard of education with regard to the PISA result. However, from an English communication skill and acquisition point of view, there is a need to reconsider and reorganize the English language curriculum and textbooks since attempting to use the Audio-lingual method. Moreover, the idea of equal education is different and its influence can be seen in the textbooks. Japanese education is meant to be the same no matter who teaches and learns. The guideline provides and guides what to do and textbooks follow this rule. In Finnish educational system, it is meant that everyone has equally a right to teach and learn. The guideline is in their hands and they can decide how they want to do this.

6. Conclusion

The argument is that if the learner wants to speak English fluently, it is suggested that more practical role-play exercises be included in the textbooks to allow more interaction in class. Pedagogically it is necessary to include grammatical points and standard vocabulary but it is also important to set the relevant language settings to motivate learners to speak. If the Ministry of Education in Japan is to improve the students' communication skills, they should take the example of the Finnish textbooks that the Audio-lingual method is no longer applicable when writing dialogues and that the contents should be more related to everyday life.

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Appendix 1

1. What major changes have taken place in the general arrangements of language teaching during in the last 40 years?

   Moving from Grammar translation to Audio-Lingual and then moving from functional place of teaching and functional based of teaching. Since 1990, intercultural learning.

1.1. Since when are all students supposed to learn English (or another foreign language)?

   Foreign language learning started in 1960; everybody has to learn Swedish and a foreign language chosen among German, English, and French etc

1.1.1. What were the reasons for the changes and was there a debate on the official age to start language learning?

   In 1960, coming after that research recourses are available. Not knowing your mother tongue, you cannot learn the foreign language. Nationalistic prospective learning to understand your culture in better way. It was compromised.

1.1.1.1. How the pedagogical approaches of English teaching have changed during the last 40 years?

   Intercultural learning, it is also a global peace education, when you know something your neighbouring culture.

2. How have the English textbooks changed during the last four decades?

   Grammar translation, Audio-Lingual, communicative competence, intercultural learning

3. Who have been involved in making a new English textbook? (Elementary school teachers? subject teachers? university people?)

   Basically, teachers in the school, one university lecture might be included. Always one native speaker is included. WSOY, Otave are major publishers. In 1992 was the time of changing.

4. What have been the main reasons for the changes in English textbooks? (E.g. pedagogical approaches, commercial reasons, globalization?)

   Globalization, teaching development.

5. Are there any surveys or evaluation studies aimed at analyzing the impact of different English textbooks?

   You cannot isolate impact of textbook from student's and teacher's motivation. The research is not easy for this reason.

6. Who choose the textbooks and can teachers choose the books they want to use in their teaching?

   Restrict for teachers (2 major publishers in Finland WSOY and Otava)

7. Has the choosing of textbooks always been so flexible and if the flexibility has increased what have been the arguments for the change?

   Inspected by the national board of education in 1992, it is far more flexible that sense.

8. Do teachers get special training in using new textbooks?

   Promotional reason to have an exhibition but it is not the pedagogical reason.

9. Are there any new contents in the textbooks? Quizzes? Comics? Spoken language? Texts on economical/multicultural/ecological, etc issues?

   Contexts of textbooks are followed by the national board of education. This is also flexible. No one format.

10. How much does the Finnish government support the making of new textbooks in Finland?

    It depends on how many textbooks to sell.

11. Does Finland follow other countries' examples when making textbooks?

    International textbooks from any countries.

Appendix 2
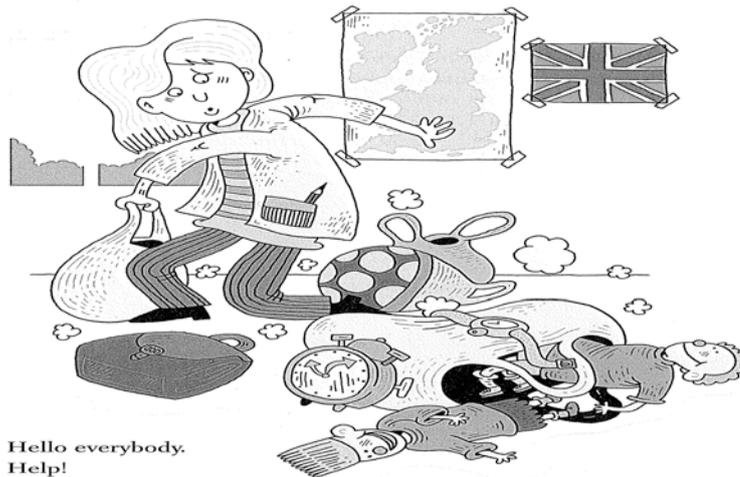
Woman: Hello everybody.
          Help!
Tom: Who are you?
Woman: I'm Miss Sue Case, your new English teacher.
Tom: Good morning, Miss.
Woman: Good morning. Is this class three?
Tom: Yes.
Woman: Oh, good. And what's your name?
Tom: I'm Tom.
Woman: Nice to meet you, Tom. And you are . . . ?

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Source: Holobek, Chris., et al., *What's On? 3 Read It*. Jyväskylä: Gummerus Kirjapaino Oy, 2005. 33.

Source: Krashima, Junichi., et al., *NEW HORIZON English Course 1*. Tokyo: Tokyo Syoseki Ltd, 2008. 18-19.

Appendix 3

ENGLISH FOOTBALL

In England football is a winter game.
There is not so much snow as in Finland,
and in the south they have little or no snow at all.
You can sometimes see English football matches
on TV in Finland, too.
They are usually league matches.
Thousands of people watch the matches.

Here are some English league football teams:
Manchester City　　Sheffield Wednesday
Newcastle United　　Plymouth Argyle
Find the cities on the map.

EDINBURGH
NEWCASTLE
LIVERPOOL　MANCHESTER
SHEFFIELD
BRISTOL
PLYMOUTH　LONDON
BRIGHTON

south	etelä	a game	peli
not at all	ei lainkaan	a league	liiga
thousands of	tuhansia	a team	joukkue
people	ihmisiä	a city	a big town
usually	tavallisesti	a map	kartta
sometimes	toisinaan		

13

Source: Lintonen, Tuula., et al., *Say it in English 3 Pupil's Book.* Porvoo: Werner Söderström
Osakeyhtiön Laakapaino, 1973.13.

6

— What's happening?
— It's 1–0.
— Who's winning?
— We are.

WE'RE GONNA WIN THE CUP
WE'RE GONNA WIN THE CUP
E-I-ADDIO
WE'RE GONNA WIN THE CUP

WE ARE THE CHAMPIONS
WE ARE THE CHAMPIONS

The Football Match

Jeff loves football.
He is the team captain.

Wendy: What's happening?
Dibo: It's 2–2. Jeff's playing well.
Maria: Look! A goal from Jeff!
Girls: Hooray!
Dibo: Now we are winning 3–2.
Wendy: Is that his first goal?
Dibo: No.
Maria: Is it his second?
Dibo: No. It's his third.
Wendy: Fantastic! A hat trick!
Maria: Well done, Jeff! Well done!

Source: Moore, William., et al., *Express 4 STORYBOOK*. Helsinki: Otava, 1992.26-27.

Appendix 4

8. Interesting answers

Miss Walker is Steve and Tracy's history teacher. She is giving back their test papers.

Miss Walker: Mark, this wasn't very good. Florence isn't in Spain and Leonardo da Vinci did not discover America!

Daniel: What did you get, Mark?

Mark: Twelve out of twenty. What about you?

Daniel: I got fourteen. She says she can't read my writing.

Miss Walker: Sandra, your test was poor. You have to try harder next time. And Janice, this isn't good enough.

Janice: Ten? Ten. Aagh.

Sandra: Don't worry, I only got eleven.

Miss Walker: Now I have two papers left. Tracy!

Tracy: I'm sorry, but I'm not very good at history.

Miss Walker: Oh, don't be silly. Your answers were excellent. You seem to know everything about Leonardo da Vinci's work. But I can't believe the story about the Mona Lisa's smile.

Tracy: Oh, it's true, it's true. I was there – I mean it was there, in a book.

Miss Walker: Well. And Steve. This was the best exam paper in the whole class. I didn't know that Leonardo invented the tank and the helicopter. It certainly wasn't in our history book.

Steve: But I saw the drawings in his notebooks – erm – in a TV programme.

Miss Walker: Ah. Well, congratulations both of you.

Tracy: Nineteen plus! Incredible!

Steve: Twenty out of twenty!

Miss Walker: Right, that's all for today. See you all tomorrow.

Janice: Tracy, wait! Tracy, can I borrow your history notes?

26 27

Source: Moore, William., et al., *Express 5 STORYBOOK*. Helsinki: Otava, 1993.26-27.

Three Festivals

Halloween
(October 31)

Halloween is the day before All Saints' Day. Long, long ago, in the land of the Celts, they called this time of year *Samhain*. It was the end of the year, and the beginning of winter. It was a time of ghosts and witches. People made bonfires to frighten the ghosts away.

Today, Halloween is a day for fun and games. Children wear masks and dress as ghosts and vampires, and they play "trick or treat". They go from house to house and collect sweets, fruit, or money. In America, people put candles inside large pumpkins – the pumpkins look like spooky witches!

"Trick or treat!" Children dress in scary costumes and ask people for sweets.

St. Valentine's Day
(February 14)

February 14th is the festival of St. Valentine. Valentine's Day is a day when we remember friends and people we love. A long time ago, people gave little gifts, like gloves and spoons. Now Valentine's Day is a day for friends, and a day to send cards to people you love.

Here's a Valentine's Day poem.

I think you're cute,
I think you're fine,
Please make me happy –
Be my VALENTINE!

Many Valentine's Day cards contain a red heart, a sign of love. But who is it from?
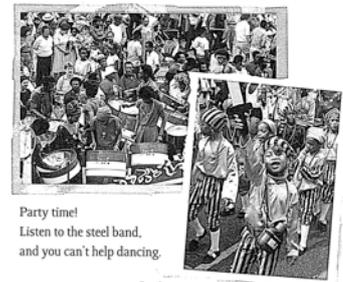
The Notting Hill Carnival
(near the end of August)

The word "carnival" means "party", and every year in the streets of the Notting Hill area of London, they really have a big party.

It all started in 1964, when immigrants from Trinidad had a street party. The carnival gets bigger every year. There are processions through the streets, with calypso music from steel-drum bands, colourful costumes, dancers, and lots and lots of noise.

Party time! Listen to the steel band, and you can't help dancing.

Look at those costumes. Children love the Carnival, too.

B++
Good work, Judith!
I liked the card.
Did you know there is
a very good steel band
in Blackpool, too?

Source: Kalaja, Mari., et al., *Surprise 3 STORYBOOK*. Keuruu: Otava Kirjapaino Oy, 2004.70-71.

Appendix 5

Source: Krashima, Junichi., et al., *NEW HORIZON English Course 1.* Tokyo: Tokyo Syoseki Ltd, 2008. 58-59.

発達の最近接領域の概念を応用したライティング指導
－情動的側面を中心として－

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Abstract

　ヴィゴツキーの「発達の最近接領域 (ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development)」の理論的枠組は、現時点で独力で問題解決できる知的水準と、他者の助けを受ければ解決できる知的水準の差の領域として捉えられており、足場かけ(scaffolding)の概念とともに、これまで主として、その認知的・社会的側面が注目されてきている。一方、ZPDの情動的(affective)側面は、ライティング指導等、言語教育への応用においても、あまり取り上げられていない。最近の研究は、ヴィゴツキーは、思考と学習者の意識における情動との関係にも着目しているとし、ZPDは人間の情動や欲求を反映した概念であることを提起している。また、学習プロセスの初期段階からの、情動的側面に配慮した教師と学習者、学習者間の協同的活動 (collaborative activity) における社会的相互行為（social interaction）が、ZPDの効果を高めるために必要であると指摘されている。このことは、情動的側面と認知的・社会的側面は相補性
(complementarity)の関係にあり、共にZPDの確立に寄与していることを示唆している。また、学習不安等の情動的
な問題も、認知的・社会的側面及びZPDとの関係において検討する必要があるといえる。
　EFL学習者が抱えるライティング不安(writing apprehension)を軽減するために、ライティング・プロセスの初期段階から、情動的側面を考慮したZPDの概念を、評価基準として共有化されたルーブリック、タスク、協同的活動、内省(reflection)に取り入れることが求められると考えられる。

本発表では、社会文化的アプローチとしてのヴィゴツキー理論の全体的枠組における情動的側面の役割を、ZPDとの関係において、改めて明らかにするとともに、ライティング不安を軽減し、自己効力感(self-efficacy)を高めるライティング指導と学習への応用を提起したい。

Intercultural competence and college level EFL/ESL reading and writing

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Abstract

Although many experts and teachers agree that intercultural competence is as important as communicative competence, more research is needed to determine how best to teach and assess it in ESL/EFL classes. The approach discussed in this paper, adopted to answer specific needs of students in the Pre-Medical Education Program at Weill Cornell Medical College in Qatar, proposes a pedagogical framework utilizing insights from discourse analysis and reader-response theory.

Nowadays it has been widely accepted in the field of ESL/EFL that intercultural competence is just as important for language learners as communicative competence; in fact, many would argue the two are inseparable. Experts in intercultural communication talk about the need to reach "the third place" (Kramsch 1993) or to assume a vantage point from which to examine critically both the target culture and one's own (Byram 1997, 2008). At the same time, it is true that not all students are ready for self-reflection or a critical analysis of their own culture; in extreme cases, emphasis on Western ways of teaching and thinking can be perceived as a tool of cultural indoctrination undermining religious and societal values. Overall, there are still many questions related to the issue of how to incorporate teaching intercultural competency into ESL/ELT curricula and how to measure student progress in acquiring it.

In academic writing classes students struggle with issues related to tone and voice even when writing in their native language. They often find it difficult to incorporate other points of view while maintaining their authorial voice or fail to keep the right balance between sounding too assertive and too tentative. These problems can be seen in many college level assignments ranging from a summary or a multi-source essay to a research paper. There can be no doubt that taking a stance and addressing the needs of the audience becomes even more challenging for ESL and EFL writers, some of whom may lack proficiency and need to deal with issues related to identity renegotiation. Stepping outside the culturally determined boundaries of the self can feel liberating but also frustrating and threatening.

The focus of the present discussion is the role of teaching intercultural competence (IC) in ESL/EFL classes to improve students' reading and writing skills. The approach that will be described here was adopted to address specific needs of Pre-Medical students at Weill Cornell Medical College in Qatar (WCMC-Q). In terms of acculturation, these students need to adjust to the so-called Western style of thinking and teaching, learn the explicit and implicit rules of the academia, and become familiar with the norms of the medical community. In other words, they need the knowledge, skills, and attitude that will enable them to function in the international community of WCMC-Q, complete their residency programs in the U.S., and develop their professional identity as future doctors. In Qatar, where English is used as a lingua franca and the official language of instruction in most high schools, many students still struggle with college level reading and writing assignments. Coming from a traditionally oral culture, they do not always see reading as an act of exploration that creates meaning; not surprisingly, they also tend to produce texts that are monologic rather than dialogic in nature. Literature has corroborated instructors' observations that Arabic students use fewer hedges and reader engaging strategies, which explains why they sometimes sound over-assertive and over-emotional (See Hinkel 2002 and Hyland 2005). What these students seem to need is increased awareness of the dialogic nature of all discourse and improved ability to engage other points of view. The proposed approach was based on the belief that focus on the writer-reader relationship in the text utilizing insights from discourse analysis and reader-response theory would help students develop both communicative and intercultural competence.

Recent years have seen growing interest in applying insights from discourse analysis in foreign language teaching. The concept of meta-linguistic competence has proved especially useful in teaching

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), but it is easy to see how it can be applicable in ESL/EFL instruction. To discuss the linguistic manifestations of the writer's rhetorical appeal to the audience, researchers have used terms such as attitude (Halliday 1994), epistemic modality (Hyland 1998), appraisal (Martin 2000), evaluation (Thompson and Hunston 2000), stance (Conrad and Biber 2000), and more recently, metadiscourse (Hyland and Tse 2004). Metadiscourse, defined as "a cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer/speaker to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (Hyland 37) can have important pedagogical implications for ESL/EFL instruction. Incorporating Hyland's interactional model of metadiscourse into a college level writing course helps to demonstrate that the writer-reader relationship is not only constructed differently in different genres and disciplines but also culturally determined. This awareness can positively impact students' reading and writing skills.

While explicit reference to linguistic features of the writer-reader dialogue plays a significant role in improving students' comprehension and production of texts, the pedagogical implications of Iser's reader-response theory are equally important in foreign language teaching. For some time now, many ESL/EFL instructors who use literature as a resource for generating communicative tasks have been doing it under the umbrella of the reader-response theory. If the result is an "anything goes" type of approach validating expression of subjective feelings rather than attention to the text, gains in intercultural competence are negligible. Yet no-one would deny that discussions of literary works can also serve as a great source of cultural knowledge and intercultural skills. It seems reasonable to expect that exploring differences between the implied reader and the reader outside the text would facilitate discussions of cultural differences without resorting to stereotyping and thus offer students practice in reaching the "third place."

The above mentioned assumptions shaped the design of a module taught in WCMC-Q English for Academic Purposes class. The module was introduced in the first three weeks of the semester with the expectation that what students learn would be transferred to their own practice and resurface in later essays.

In the initial phase of awareness raising the students were introduced to the concept of metadiscourse and Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse (Hyland 2005). A brief initial survey confirmed that the students viewed rules of academic writing as universal rather than culture dependent and were not aware that all texts, including scientific texts, use rhetorical strategies to appeal to the audience. Consequently, these two issues were the first ones to be addressed.

To begin with a brief overview, Hyland distinguishes between the interactive and interactional dimensions of metadiscourse. In his model, the interactive dimension has five sub-categories:

• Transitions (conjunctions and adverbial phrases signaling additive, causative and contrastive relations)
• Frame markers sequencing parts of the text or internally ordering an argument e.g. *first, at the same time, next*
• Endophoric markers (expressions which refer to other parts of the text) e.g. *see Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above*
• Evidentials (attribution to sources)
• Code glosses (rephrasing, explaining or elaborating) e.g. *this is called, in other words, for example, etc.*

The interactional dimension also comprises five subcategories:

• Hedges (indicators of degree of precision and certainty) e.g. *possible, might, perhaps*
• Boosters (words/expressions emphasizing certainty and thus closing dialogue) e.g. *in fact, definitely, it s clear that*)
• Attitude markers (signals of the writer's affective attitude) e.g. attitude verbs (*agree, prefer*); sentence adverbs (*unfortunately, hopefully*) and adjectives (*appropriate, logical, remarkable*)
• Self mention

• Engagement markers: words/expressions which focus on readers' attitude (e.g. pronouns *you* and inclusive *we)*, modals and words such which predict possible objections and guide interpretations (e.g. *by the way, you may notice*, *see, note, consider)*, and references to shared knowledge.

As Hyland points out, the first 5 subcategories in his interpersonal model of metadiscourse address reader's needs while the remaining 5 focus on reader's involvement (49).

The module discussed here emphasized the interactional dimensions of metadiscourse. Students were asked to identify and analyze the use of hedges, boosters, and attitude and engagement markers first in excerpts from their textbooks, and then in popularizations, conference abstracts, and scientific articles. Discussions revolved around differences between American and Arabic norms of academic discourse. Worksheets accompanying writing assignments promoted the use of hedges and engagement markers and discouraged frequent use of boosters, amplifying adverbs, second person pronoun, rhetorical questions, and modals *must* and *have to.*

While the first part of the module emphasized the writer's attempt to guide and engage the reader and aimed at giving students linguistic means to create a similar dialogue in their own texts, the second part focused on the implied reader. At this point the students were expected to have understood that reading is an act of active exploration in which meaning is created rather than simply located in the text. Now they were asked to consider the role of cultural knowledge and empathy in comprehension and interpretation.

A short review of terms began with drawing a distinction between the reader in the text and outside the text, the latter being a real person in the act of reading, or an abstraction, either the intended reader, the audience the writer could envisage when writing, or the generalized notion of the so called typical audience, encapsulating individual responses specific to a certain place and point in time.   The concept of the implied reader required more clarification. The reader in the text can figure in the text visibly (for example, addressed as "Dear reader" or "you") or can exist there as an idealized construct that "embodies all the predispositions necessary for a literary work to exercise its effect (Iser 34). In other words, to borrow Weinreich's term, the implied reader exists in the text as a "a contour or a shadow", " a set of competencies" needed to understand its meaning (7). These competencies include not only linguistic but also cultural knowledge; what is more, they pertain to the affective domain of intercultural communication, the ability to empathize and assume the perspective of the other. As Weinreich observes, if the gap between the implied reader and the text-external reader, the "consumer" of the text, is too big, the process of constructing meaning will not take place (8). At the same time, one could claim that it precisely the differences between the implied reader and individual readers of the text that are worth exploring in an ESL/EFL classroom. Filling out the contour and looking at themselves vis-à-vis the implied reader, students are encouraged to examine their own culture and gain insight into the "constructedness of their own self-understanding" (Thompson 1987: 218). In brief, they practice reaching "the third place."

In the pilot project in question, the students were given two short texts for analysis. The first one was a personal opinion essay from Newsweek, the genre easiest for learners to relate to. The author of the essay, Christopher Awalt, chooses to structure it as a dialogue with an adversarial reader inscribed in the text. The reader is envisaged as an individual opposed to the writer's argument, the claim that the homeless themselves are to be blamed for their plight. Except for the introduction and conclusion, each paragraph answers a question or objection raised by the reader; in most cases the question is explicitly stated at the beginning of the paragraph. Class activities involved having the students diagram the text by dividing it into stages of thought and writing down the question each section answered. Some questions in the essay are implied rather than stated explicitly and consequently they needed to be written out, but in most cases they could be quoted verbatim from the text.

It was easy for the students to notice how the questions of the inserted reader build the structure of the argument. They were also quick to point out that the "you", the inscribed reader, was in fact a straw man whose presence allowed the author of the text to advance his claim. Commenting on the degree of control of the authorial voice, they observed that it was not the author's intention to open up much space for a real dialogue with either the inscribed reader or the one external to the text. In other words, they discovered how a skillful use of engagement markers allows for manipulating the audience.

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The next step involved determining the implied reader's competencies. In the essay in question, the topic of the homeless problem in the USA presupposed some personal experience with the homeless as well as a certain amount of information about the political scene, American institutions and public attitudes. Identifying what they would see as "information gaps" helped the students reflect on their own knowledge and led to enquiries into the issue of culture specific versus universal values and degrees of empathy.

The module ended with a very short excerpt from Sandra Cisnero's *The House on Mango Street.* "No Speak English" is about an intercultural encounter that results in a failure. Mamacita, a Mexican woman brought to the US by her husband after two years of his relentless pursuit of the American dream, refuses to learn the language or communicate with anyone in the neighborhood. She spends her days listening to Spanish radio stations and dreaming of going back home. The only words she says in English are "No speak English, " her standard reply to anyone trying to talk to her. In the concluding lines of the story these are also the words she utters when her baby boy breaks her heart by starting to sing Pepsi commercials.

"No Speak English" requires competencies related to affect and naturally lends itself to assignments asking students to rewrite it from different perspectives since the main character is presented from multiple points of view: of the first-person narrator, the main character's husband, and other members of the community. Depending on the perspective, she is a victim or a selfish, irritating and irrational individual. The point of view of the implied reader is supposed to encompass all these perspectives and validate the opinion of the first-person narrator, who has a lot of empathy for Mamacita. Yet more often than not, that is not what happens. The students I taught had very strong opinions about the situation as well as the characters, and many of them disregarded or clearly disagreed with the speaker in the text. It was thus quite illuminating for them to be shown to what extent their point of view was grounded in their personal experience and societal expectations in their culture. It was this moment of self-reflection and acknowledgement of real differences among real readers that made the process of engaging the text an intercultural encounter and illustrated Iser's central concept - the reader being transformed in the process of recreating the fictional reality.

In the goal oriented, proficiency driven classroom environment, it is important to ask what the students took away from the three weeks of considering textual and subtextual messages. The most important and tangible gain was a shift in awareness. Terms such as audience, stance or voice, frequently heard by students but rarely considered as anything more than abstractions, suddenly became real and meaningful. One could see that the students began to realize that their own text should include reader engaging strategies in addition to satisfying reader's needs for coherence and unity. There was a noticeable increase in the use of hedges and decrease in the number of modals such as "must" and "have to." The argumentative essay written immediately afterwards showed sign of engaging other perspectives or at least signaled such an attempt. Even more importantly, the students became more reflective and aware of their own practice as culturally determined. Last but not least, they also discovered that temporarily assuming the perspective of the other can be an enjoyable and enriching experience.

The approach discussed here does not in any way pretend to present a radical departure from a curriculum of many college level reading/writing courses; it merely proposes a shift in emphasis. Some gains that it affords are easier to assess, others are less tangible, though equally valuable. To quote Norton, "Since discourse analysis hones critical thinking skills, it offers language learners useful, practical, and, in indirect ways, perhaps marketable skills" (2). The same is true about responding to a work of literature. Although to some teaching norms of academic discourse may sound more relevant than teaching empathy and cultural sensitivity, they are not only equally important but also closely related. In today's global community both are indispensable.

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The Relation between Domain Specific Knowledge and Linguistic Proficiency in EFL Academic Reading--Implications on the Teaching of EFL Academic Reading in Higher Education

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abstractspace = Literature from the relevant field as well as the results from a pilot study conducted amongst Taiwanese college freshmen indicated the specific relation between EFL learners' basic linguistic knowledge of English and the magnitude of domain specific knowledge that can be 'executed' during the process of reading academic texts. To be more specific, there seem to be two linguistic thresholds--low and high--between which EFL students' domain specific knowledge plays a significant role during the process of reading the academic text. Before crossing the low linguistic threshold, students' domain specific knowledge was almost useless in helping them comprehend academic texts of their own subject fields. And after crossing the high linguistic threshold, the influence from domain specific knowledge became less prominent and students, no matter whether reading an academic text of their own subject fields, were somehow able to achieve comprehension without being significantly undermined by the lack of the relevant domain specific knowledge. Such a finding indicates the fact that for college students to be able to read academic texts in English successfully such as reading English textbooks, at least crossing the low threshold is essential, if broadening and building up one's knowledge of a given subject field by means of reading academic texts is an essential part of one's higher education. Also, if the goals of higher education are not merely to offer professional training of knowledge that one majors in but also to provide an environment in which one is able to explore other academic interests beyond his/her subject fields, crossing the high linguistic threshold becomes similarly paramount. Following theses considerations, the role of English language teachers as well as the objectives of academic reading courses in higher education become an area that requires refocus. Based on the results from the pilot study, therefore, this paper will discuss the issues and implications made above by drawing the situation of higher English language education in Taiwan as an example and see how all these can be furthered to generate more speculation on the role and position of English language training in higher education in non-English-speaking countries. In addition, with understanding college textbooks as the baseline, this pilot study has also tried to locate and define two such linguistic thresholds, based on which practical suggestions on carrying out an EFL academic reading course in higher education will be provided.

Intercultural Dimensions of Task-based Learning for
Authentic Communication: Rationale

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Abstract: An important challenge for language educators in Asia is the difficulty of getting students to actually produce the language they are learning for purposes of authentic communication. This papers advocates an approach that is rigorous, long-term, cross-cultural, and, most definitely, qualitative in nature. A new intercultural framework for teaching methodologies and student learning for constructing instructional environments conducive to developing intercultural competencies is the focus of a task-based learning approach through collaboration.

Keywords: TEFL, intercultural, approach, metacognition, task-based learning

A central challenge for foreign language educators is getting students to actually produce, in particular to speak, the target language – that is, to be able and willing to use English, as it still remains the foreign language predominantly studied in Japan, they have learned for purposes of authentic communication, self-expression, and personal enjoyment. Achieving this goal becomes even more difficult when the students are from a country where the culture norms for speaking behaviors are quite different – even radically so – from the native-speaker teacher's home country. This paper addresses the most essential aspects of this important educational goal, which is both vexing and challenging to overcome for many language educators who come from English-speaking or European nations to teach in Asia.

By expanding teacher and learner recognition of the nature of intercultural barriers to classroom learning of a foreign language, and by gaining a deeper understanding of the problem's pertinent issues, a new collaborative framework for teaching and learning methodologies using this cross-cultural knowledge and employing intercultural competency for teachers and students alike can become a reality. Engaging educators in constructing instructional environments in Japan and across Asia with the fruits of this realization will result in school and university programs that are more conducive to the development of the cross-cultural competencies needed by all stakeholders in the educational process. By focusing on task-based EFL learning through intercultural collaboration as a vehicle for achieving this goal, the author hopes to 'forge a new plow' that can cross divided, and sometimes scorched, territories and cultivate a more responsive educational system for language education, leading Japanese and other Asian students to become more competent intercultural communicators, and gaining greater confidence as future leaders in a world that is vastly changed from the days of the Cold War race of a few superpowers.

The Pacific-Asian Region, where Japan has, heretofore, taken one of the lead roles, has quickly come into its own as a dominant force in the world's global economy and international political arena. Therefore, Asian countries must increasingly learn more effectively and competently how to deal with balancing the adoption of languages, cultures, educational values and processes from abroad, particularly from the Western nations, with the preservation of their own values, cultures and languages.

This monumental realization can only be scratched at the surface, so this investigation focuses broadly on the following educational tenets and actual instructional practices for establishing an intercultural approach to task-based learning:

1. Selling the intercultural collaborative task-based approach to reluctant speakers is the essential initial step.

2. Guidelines for electing, organizing, and managing authentic tasks and meaningful performances for large classroom groups will be introduced.

3. Preparing students for success in the performances involves effectively 'training' students unaccustomed to a intercultural task-based approach to gain the strategies, skills and confidence needed, both meta-cognitively and through actual instructional tasks.

A second follow-up paper in preparation will address the subsequent steps in this process:

4. Setting standards, selecting new methods for evaluation, and then incorporating self, peer and teacher assessment into the performance tasks are important parts of the process.

5. A brief demonstration of appropriate type of performance tasks and guidelines for maximizing student achievement and teacher efficacy will be discussed. These include model conversations, role-plays, simulations, poster talks, storytelling, action research presentations, pair discussions,

group debate, making video programs, speeches, dramatizations, and Internet-based collaborations.

6. Technology and classroom infrastructure, which enhance the instructional environment in achieving a task-based collaborative approach, will be briefly showcased.

The target audience is comprised of educational policy-makers, system administrators, institutional leaders, and practicing foreign language teachers, whose students in secondary schools and university are not yet accustomed to being asked to become actively engaged in the process of learning by 'doing.'. It may also be valuable for anyone who wants to learn more intercultural knowledge and meta-skills take shape in, and also be shaped by, the educational process.

Barriers to Communication in the Monolingual EFL Classroom

Learning a truly "foreign" language confronts students in a *monolinguistic* society is often a formidable challenge in transcending communication norms they are used to. Japan, perhaps more so than many other Asian countries, has many of the qualities that could be termed '*monolinguistic*.' The culture of the typical classroom at secondary and tertiary levels in Japan does not readily facilitate the acquisition of communicative competence in the target language. Moreover, certain forms of discourse, which may be paramount to communication efficacy in English, have less and often no avenues for development in the native language. In particular, Japanese culture, as evidenced by its ambiguous linguistic exponents and complex social conventions for avoiding conflict, does not value the same type of argumentative discourse that is clearly integral to communication among speakers of Western languages (Brooks, 2000).

The term *monolinguistic*, as used in this context, is meant to convey the idea of language usage and language policy practices that go beyond simple monolingualism. Japan is a society that absorbs enormous amounts of foreign vocabulary, as well as foreign products and ideas, although extremely few foreign people are admitted as immigrants. These adopted words (concepts) borrowed from other languages are ultimately 'japanized,' i.e. the Japanese equivalent of anglicizing the words or concepts. One effect of this '*japanization*' of borrowed language, which might strike the outside observer as somewhat natural on the face of it, is to appear to de-value cultural diversity and deny the respect for 'otherness' that may be derived from true and competent second language acquisition. It has often been theorized that Japan's 400 years of prolonged – not quite complete – isolation from the rest of the world during the Edo Period had a profound effect still evident today. A type of general inferiority complex about the Japanese people's own self-perception about their ability to learn a foreign language seems to be one of these effects.

Details of the latter are discussed elsewhere (Brooks, 2000; McVeigh 2002). However, there are several factors to account for the characteristics of this monolinguistic communication environment:

1) students expect to only "attend" a teacher-directed content lecture
2) a low level of teacher-student and student-student interaction is the norm
3) classroom learning is viewed as the passive acceptance of knowledge where students depend on the teacher as the main dispenser of information
4) learning performance is considered to be part of the final examination only, instead of a summation of the responses and interaction during a series of lessons, which demonstrate cognition and acquisition of new language patterns, cross-cultural behaviors, or communicative strategies
5) talking is less the norm than listening in the Japanese classroom
6) the concept of individual identity and exchange of information about one's self are very different from the culture of the target language, which is internationalized English,
7) allegiance to one's peers means not saying or doing anything to distinguish one's self or to appear self-serving
8) harmony and congruence with the opinions and will of the group take imminent precedence over individual opinion or wishes, therefore variance in opinion and argument are submerged.

Though anthropologists and cognitive linguistics researchers may have collected data to support these assertions, this list of characteristics is derived from the author's own experience as teacher and learner in Japanese educational institutions. Leaving the sociolinguistic and discursive analysis of Japanese language to other researchers, this paper focuses on how undergraduate, graduate and faculty researchers at universities and a research hospital near Tokyo are provided with a language learning environment for contextual and metacognitive training in aiding their acquisition of second language communication strategies and intercultural communicative competence.

Rationale for intercultural communicative competency approach

   In this age of increasingly greater interdependence between nations through the globalization of the economic, information, and media infrastructures, and the cross-border political ramifications of almost every decision made or the international policies introduced by a single nation, modern language teaching is being conceived increasingly as a "complex, combination of valuable knowledge and skills" which must be recognized as not simply foreign language mastery which, in effect, is almost an impossibility for most of our students, but rather as intercultural communicative competence or ICC (Corbett, 2003, p.31). Michael Byram has attempted to codify what he refers to as '*savoirs*', the five essential constituents of knowledge and skills necessary to mediate between cultures (Byram, 1997). These five *saviors* incorporate a deeper intercultural curriculum on the framework of communicative language curricula, transforming its goals. The learner of a foreign language must develop, beyond the ability to imitate native speaker utterances, an accumulation of useable facts about the target culture and, most importantly, a sense of how people from the target culture are expected to behave. To make the goals more readily attainable, the ICC curriculum should train foreign language students:

   1) to gain an ethnographic perspective in learning to 'discover' essential cultural knowledge, values held and behaviors practices in the target culture,
   2) possess a critical stance that prompts comparisons and reflections rather than automatic imitation or adoption,
   3) attain and demonstrate the skills of de-centering beyond their own (or the target culture), valuing each for its own merits, and tolerate – if not come to appreciate – the differences between them. (Byram, et al, 2001)

In such a way might students of a foreign language be able to reach Kramsch's 'third place,' that vantage point, resulting from a well-planned and thoroughly executed intercultural communicative approach, from which language learners can understand and mediate between their home culture and the target culture they seek to become acculturated into (Kramsch, 1993 p. 235).

   As an important a realization as it is, it should be taken in balance as a pragmatic right arm of the dual-fisted goals:

   Promoting a global perspective and building intercultural communicative competency among foreign language students is not only feasible in our increasingly globalized world, but is also a central responsibility for all educators. Understanding and acting upon the knowledge of how culture, specifically beliefs, values, world view, use of language and nonverbal behavior, impacts one's communicative behavior is a crucial element (Samovar and Porter, 2001) which can be taught explicitly and experienced directly in a course where the teacher's culture is different from that of the students. (Brooks, 2006)

   Learning a truly 'foreign' language, one that is as culturally opposite in as many ways as Japanese and American cultures are, confronts students -- those from a monolinguistic society and with little direct contact with people outside their own culture, comprising the majority of students at institutions of higher education in Japan, -- with a formidable challenge in transcending communication norms. The cultures of the typical classroom in secondary and tertiary levels in Japan do not readily facilitate even the modest acquisition of low-level communicative competence in the target culture language – let alone any real measure of intercultural competency.

   The sad fact is that there is plenty of evidence to suggest that perhaps the opposite result is being achieved. Owing to the all-to-often conflict and unresolved misunderstanding that often permeates thousands of compulsory English language classrooms throughout the nation because of this intercultural gap, Japanese students may actually be dissuaded from pursuing real communicative competence (McVeigh, 2002, p.99), and may also be exposed to situations where intolerance for cultural diversity or downright rejection of the foreign native speaker's culture may take place. Certainly, this is not the case universally. But too often, while bespeaking a love of foreign culture and a desire to be able to speak a second language in order to make friends with people of another culture, student's actual behaviors and attitudes demonstrated that the converse is sometimes the result.

   This failure can be blamed in part to the disconnect between the foreign teacher's minority values about student motivation, grasp of their dedication to the quality of learning, and standards for excellence in individual performance – particularly in spoken language, and the values and expectations of the students in the majority culture, who may come to feel that the instructor does not understand their commitment or fully make use of their potential because he or she appears unable to transcend his American or British origins, or culture-based, and thus, biased educational training.

Factors on both sides of the teacher-student equation are likely involved this intercultural communication gap. The classroom environment becomes a type of 'no man's land', where the native-speaker instructor has to talk down to the 'local' students, who tend to freeze up or act passive-aggressively if their teacher cannot 'respond' with the same support and in the expected manner as their previous secondary school teachers have done.

It is a nonetheless a complex situation, only exacerbated by the university and Ministry of Education (MEXT) insistence, particularly in years passed, that all first-year students much complete a required set of English courses, often taught by a native English speaker, simply because English is the default language used for the majority of university admissions examinations (McVeigh, 2002).

Educational instruction and the learning that takes place in schools, including learning a foreign language, has been found to be influenced by a variety of factors, including attitude, motivation (of both the students and the teacher), age, personality, gender, learning styles, national origin, aptitude, cognitive skills, background knowledge and experiences, proficiency in the first language, perceived value, skills emphasis, and actual skill level in the second language, and the task requirements. It is also very likely that other cognitive factors, such as learning strategies and metacognition, play an important role (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

As equally important but not always more apparent are the social and psychological factors such as socio-economic group, communicative norms of behavior, communicative styles, and the general social environment, including issues of power and autonomy, which also greatly influence the way people learn to communicate in a second language. Finally, it seems absolutely certain that culture – especially the degree to which the target culture is different from the native one – pays a significant role in determining and shaping all of the above factors (Kramsch, 1998). Therefore, when the foreign language classroom is comprised of a group of monolingual students from a single, dominant culture whose teacher comes from the target language's culture, the possibility for cross-cultural conflict of values, differences in styles of education, classroom behavior, and learning modes and behaviors, including the divergence in communication behavioral norms between the two cultures, will be greatly increased.

When an American teacher, for instance, since North Americans are heavily represented among immigrant and visiting instructors in Japan, takes on the responsibility for organizing language instruction for a large, homogenous group of Japanese students, often occurring during their first few days at the university, the teacher brings into the classroom a set of cultural values that may be quite different, even oppositional, to those of the Japanese (or other native Asian culture) students. These American values can be characterized by sixteen core beliefs (Kohls, 1993; Cortazzi, 1990). The compiled list below, which includes this author's additions from having lived as a participant-observer in Japanese society for thirty years, also delineates parenthetically the parallel, and sometimes contrasting, value of the students' native culture (Japanese, in this case). Obviously, these 'values' can be over generalized and should not be construed to be stereotypes. There is no doubt that traditional cultural values are on the wane, which is some cases, causes increased opportunities for conflict because values among generations and sub-groups with the society are substantially different. We must surely also recognize and remain cognizant of the fact that – even when the logic of it may evade description – cultural norms, beliefs, practices and language of any culture group, most assuredly in post-economic 'bubble' Japan, are not at all static, but are undergoing dynamic renegotiation and reformation by the various groups' memberships. "Therefore, the core beliefs – and the language that articulates them – will necessarily change over time" (Corbett, p.20).

Comparison of 16 Core Values American and corresponding Japanese value (in parentheses)
1) People have control. (Fate in inevitable.)
2) Change is healthy. (Tradition and preservation of status quo are to respected foremost.)
3) Time flies, i.e. people are constrained by time and should stick to time schedules. (Life is long; things change slowly.)
4) All people are created equal. (Hierarchy, rank, status are important.)
5) Individual needs are of highest importance. (Group needs come before the individual's.)
6) Initiative/Self-help (Birth determines status, which can't be changed.)
7) Future-orientation (People must live for today or for their ancestors.)
8) Action-orientation, i.e. Our identity comes from what we do. (Being-orientation: Who we are is the most important thing in life; we don't define our identities by our actions, work, or accomplishments.)
9) Informality in dress, forms of address, social rituals and communicative styles.((Formality and outward form and appearance matters most.)

10) Directness and openness (Indirectness, ambiguity; avoid personal disclosure)
11) Honesty – We need to be honest no matter much it hurts. (Considering another's feelings and loss of face (status / stature / reputation) is the most important in deciding what to say about the 'truth', which is only relative anyway.)
12) Materialism (Spiritualism)
13) Friendliness: making people feel liked (Serious-minded respect is the most admirable quality in a person.)
14) Interactive Participation (Reflective Listening)
15) Personal Achievement (Self-serving immodesty is not good; not saying or doing anything to distinguish one's self above peers is how we should behave.)
16) Discussion and debate produce new ideas and critical thinkers. (Avoid confrontation to protect social harmony; accept group consensus.)

Contextual and Metacognitive Cross-cultural Training is a Viable Solution

In order to combat this cross-cultural gap between the learners and the teacher, an approach which focuses on learning real language in a meaningful context, as well as helping the students to understand and make appropriate adjustments in their language learning experience through contextual and metacognitive cross-cultural training is advocated. It will be efficacious here to look at the ideas of context and metacognition in the broadest possible views. At first glance, the principle of context is not very controversial or new to language teachers; however in actual classroom practice, it is still not universally adopted. Alice O. Hadley (1993) purports that the majority of language educators would agree that students must know eventually how to use language forms they have learned in authentic communication situations. Most would accept that this goal is more likely to be achieved when the forms of language are presented and practiced in communicative contexts, where the main focus in on meaning and content (p.125). Authentic language occurs in context since any given utterance is embedded in ongoing discourse as well as in some particular circumstance or situation. As pointed out by Widdowson (1978), "Normal linguistic behavior does not consist of the production of separate sentences but in the use of sentences for the creation of discourse" (p.22).

A second perspective on the concept of the context of language teaching is the realization that most language students undertake the study of a foreign language for "reasons which arise directly or indirectly out the perceived needs of the community to which they belong" (Tudor, 1996, p. 128). Tudor went on to explain that language study takes places in an educational framework that is shaped by the socioeconomic conditions of the existing culture and which reflects its attitudes, beliefs and traditions. For the great majority of secondary and university students in Japan, English has been a required subject since junior high school. For most, the real purpose for studying English has very little to do with authentic communication, but everything to do with increasing potential for passing the rigorous high school and university entrance examinations. That admission is key to their future economic status – at least, it had been until the advent of the new economic realities of today. As a result, the experience of learning English has been one that is rather grueling, often leaving students with a strong sense of inadequacy as foreign language learners. The examination-oriented curriculum in pre-university English education has focused their study on memorizing long lists of difficult vocabulary, mastery of complex rules of grammar and usage, and emphasis on word-by-word translation of English to Japanese. Little time was left for any authentic, particularly in communicating orally.

With such an educational context as a background of shared experience, it is not surprising that most students are so poorly prepared to undertake the learning of English as a vehicle for communication and cross-cultural understanding. The second aspect of the cross-cultural training to overcoming barriers to learning communication in the EFL monolingual classroom is metacognition. Metacognition is a conscious process and generally involves at least two related concepts: first, a knowledge about learning, and second, an ability to employ cognitive strategies intelligently. O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p.8) purport that language students without metacognitive approaches are basically learners without direction or the skills to plan their learning, to evaluate their progress, or to set new directions toward communicative competency because they do not monitor their learning. However, to be perceived in its largest sense, metacognition must also encompass not only the cognitive aspects, but also the affective aspects of learning. It should include the conscious knowledge of the feelings and attitudes that the learning situation evokes. It must, consequently, comprise a knowledge of the self (Williams and Burden,

1997, p.155). Therein, lies a difficulty since the Japanese notion of and identification of *self* tends to defy explanation.

To go one step further, beyond the awareness of one's personality, feelings, motivation, attitudes, learning style and cognitive strategies, the conscious awareness of the social environment and cultural context at any particular moment for the learner must be included within the concept of metacognitive awareness. Williams and Burden (1997, p.188) stress the presence of the appropriate environmental conditions for learning a foreign or second language to take place cannot be underestimated. Teaching a learner how to understand the demands and nuances of different social and cultural contexts is tantamount to helping that learner to act intelligently (Sternberg, 1984). At the same time, by providing language learners with the kind of learning environment which enables them to learn how to learn, to behave in linguistically productive ways in the foreign language classroom culture, and to develop as culturally effective learners in the target language, we foster a metacognitive process of inculturization that can have a profound influence upon the development of second language acquisition and the way in which it is used.

> One of the primary functions of a language is to describe our environment so that we
> can form an image of ourselves in relation to it. The better we can come to understand
> the cultural context which gives rise to the language we are trying to learn, the more
> likely we are to come to understand the essential differences between the way in which
> that language is used and our own. (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.188)

The classroom forms an essential habitat in the learner's ecosystem. It encompasses the domains of the learning environment: physical, social, instructional and psychological. The foreign language classroom is a culture that is affected by perceptions and realities of classroom structure, group processes, classroom climate and teacher-mediated activities. When a group of monolingual students forms a classroom for learning to communicate in a foreign language, especially when the teacher is from the target culture, there is the unusual situation in which the classroom culture is foreign to both the students and the teacher. It is an unknown culture to which both can and should learn to adapt in order to derive the benefits of learning a foreign language. Not simply the natural absorption of a new culture, normally referred to as acculturation, but rather the contextual and metacognitive cross-cultural training advocated here is an explicit, mutually-actualized, teacher-mediated process for intuitively *enculturating* the students and the teacher into this new classroom culture. Consequently, this process has been conceptualized with new terminology and is therefore called metacognitive inculturization (Brooks, 1999).

What is Metacognitive Inculturization?

The second part of this research, now in preparation, provides a detailed explanation of how metacognitive inculturization is carried out through contextual and metacognitive cross-cultural training program, including specific instructional guidelines for implementing the task-based learning approach. In order to provide a simple initial overview, an attempt to briefly define metacognitve inculturization will be made in summary. First of all, it is an instructional process that actively seeks to first introduce a new context for language learning and to then immerse learners in a new classroom culture in order to overcome the problem of cultural and metacognitive barriers to learning to communicate in a foreign language encountered in many monolingual classrooms. Metacognitive inculturization is a practical approach to cross-cultural training that assists language learners in consciously and unconsciously adapting their own culture to enhance the communicative environment of the communicative language classroom. Initially, students must be gently acculturated into the new classroom environment; however, there is the inevitable culture shock, which can be used effectively to nurture both their understanding of the process and their willingness to embark on a new journey of cross-cultural discovery and language acquisition. Later, they are equipped with a specific repertoire of individual, pair, small group, and whole class behaviors for formalizing new patterns of learning, cognitive strategies, and, most importantly, interaction between themselves and with the teacher.

Conclusion

The primary intent of this paper has been to establish the rationale for, the value of, and the methodology behind metacognitive inculturization, a new term conceptualized by the author. It is an explicit, mutually-actualized, teacher-mediated, practical instructional approach to cross-cultural training that assists language learners in both consciously adopting the new culture of the communicative classroom and unconsciously adapting their own culture to overcome barriers to communication in the monolingual EFL classroom. It is the attempt to amalgamate the various approaches to foreign language education into a intercultural communicative competency framework essential for language learning in

the 21st century. It began by describing the barriers to communication that haunt many English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) classrooms in Japan and probably elsewhere in Asia. It then presented a rationale for devising a contextual and metacognitive approach to cross-cultural training that employs a multitude of teaching methodologies and instructional strategies, centering on a task-based intercultural competency approach as a viable solution for overcoming these cross-cultural gaps between foreign native-speaker teachers and the students in the local country, Japan, as well as between the EFL learners in Asia and their communication partners in the respective target language cultures. Finally, it defined the meaning of metacognitive inculturization and explained very briefly how it can be accomplished. Because of the limitations of delineating that full process, the significant details were excluded about the five stages of implementation: 1) contextual reframing, 2) incorporating old and establishing new patterns of social interaction, 3) building trust and areas of comfort and challenge, 4) teaching both communicative instructional tasks and the communication and learning strategies that enhance their mastery, and 5) evaluating reflectively the learning of both the communicative and the metacognitive content.

In future research publications and educational conferences, the author hopes to accomplish a more complete explanation of how the intercultural communicative competency approach can be better realized, and also hopes to actualize and support this work and that of other researchers, teacher-practitioners in Asian educational institutions. It is the aim to further develop this framework to achieve a more clearly useful body of understanding for an Asian intercultural task-based approach through the collaboration with educators from both Japan and other Asian nations. The cooperation of these teachers, along with EFL students themselves, and the learners of other foreign languages or those who study content areas through the medium of a second language, will also be actively pursued.

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Cultivating Catholic School Ethos based on Ignatian Spirituality
Daphne HO
Eadaoin HUI

Introduction

The Catholic Church has a long history of running schools as a mission to the world in forming our young generation to be all-rounded people. The Catholic Church in Hong Kong has been administering more than 400 schools over the past 150 years. The sponsoring bodies of these schools have spent considerable resources in developing a richer catholic ethos in their schools so as to make them to be distinct from any other schools.

The Christian Life Community (CLC), a Catholic school sponsoring body which bases its education philosophy on Ignatian spirituality, has been launching teacher formation programmes in the schools they are running in Hong Kong so as to strengthen teachers' understanding of the essence of Ignatian Education. Besides, in one of its schools, the newly appointed principal has also tried to implement changes in the school policies and the daily operation so that the values of the spirituality could be more known and embedded in the mind and heart of the members in the school.

This paper attempts to look into the school as a case to examine how the school ethos based on the Ingatian spirituality has been cultivated, the process involved and the perceptions of teachers, parents and other stake holders on the vision and mission of Ignatian Education as the school's education philosophy. The study is not meant to measure the quality or effectiveness of the educational innovations that have been implemented in the school, but rather, to investigate the processes of change and the perceptions of the different stake holders in the school.

Understanding Catholic School Ethos

The Catholic Church has a long history of providing education for children and young people in every corner of the world. She regards education as one of her missions to the world and it is extremely important in the life of every man and woman. She considers her schools "as a privileged means of promoting the formation of the whole man, since the school is a centre in which a specific concept of the world, of man, and of history is developed and conveyed." (The Catholic School, 1977, nn.8) Clearly, people do have expectation on Catholic Schools and look for unique qualities and characteristics that are not to be found in other schools. However, over the years, it is not difficult to hear criticisms on Catholic education. In the context of United States, a strong comment was made by McBrien(1977). He said, "Catholic education is not Catholic enough". He accused that a lot of Catholic schools have adopted the most unsatisfactory features of secular education while neglecting many of the good traditions or practice. Similar criticism was also made on Australian Catholic schools. As quoted in Flynn & Mok (2002), Neal commented:

> I myself should rejoice more if Catholic schools were seen to be in many vital matters
>
> strikingly unlike other schools instead of being, as they generally are, conspicuously
>
> the same…I wish they would have the courage to stand alone…in unfolding to the
>
> world a strikingly unique style of education. (pp.12)

Everyone involves in the education ministry of the Catholic Church should regularly reflect on the criteria that should be fulfilled in order to name a school a "Catholic" school. Otherwise, it would be like the salt that has lost its savour. In short, Catholic schools should process some distinctive features that make them different from others. McBrien (1977) summarized a few elements which formulate a theory of Catholic schools.

1. The Faith Dimension of Catholic School—the special mission of the school is to become a sign of faith that reflects the power of Christian virtue.
2. Catholic Schools as Genuine Educational Institutions—the school should be a place that encourages the pursuit of excellence in all areas of development including the moral, intellectual, physical, social, aesthetic and spiritual aspects.

3. The Goals of Catholic Schools—the ultimate goal of Catholic schools should help students make reference to the Gospel and Jesus Christ in their lives.
4. Christian Community and Catholic Schools—the Catholic school should be a place where staff and students could be able to pray and participate in sacraments together as a community.
5. The Culture of Catholic Schools—the Catholic school should be a place where members could apply the teaching of Jesus into daily lives. The fundamental corner stones of Jesus' teaching, love, respect and service would be proclaimed. Special attention would be given to the promotion of justice and peace and also taking care of the marginalized in the society.
6. The "Catholic" Character of the Schools—the schools should have a close relationship with the Catholic Church.
7. Religious Education in Catholic Schools—the school should provide systematic programmes in which students are able to learn about the integration of faith and life.

The above elements have set a clear direction for the leaders of Catholic schools. Their task is to integrate them into the administration and running of the school so that the good tradition can be upheld or even enhanced.

Over the years, many religious have engaged in the education ministry, serving in the school as principals, teachers or pastoral worker. However, due to the decline in the number of religious in recent years, the leadership role   has gradually passed on to lay people. This phenomenon happens everywhere, including Hong Kong. There has been an increasing concern to strengthen Catholic ethos in these schools.

In facing the new millennium, the Catholic Diocese of Hong Kong held a synod to reflect on the role of the Catholic Church in different aspects of life and discuss the ways forward. In the area of Education and Culture, it was reckoned that the Catholic schools were facing far more challenges than before in helping young people develop an integrated life with faith and love. They realized one of the reasons behind was about the dropping numbers of Catholic students and pastoral workers in schools. In order to maintain the quality of formation given to young people, the yearning for strengthening the Catholic school ethos was made. As a result, a special team for promoting Catholic school ethos was set up under the supervision of the Catholic Education Office of the Diocese after the synod. From this, the determination on building stronger Catholic school ethos could be seen.

Ethos is a fashionable term and yet the real meaning of it is elusive. Donnelly (2000) believes that the definition of ethos has two perspectives. One represents the view point of a positivist and the other of an anti-positivist. From the point of view of a positivist, ethos is the objective phenomenon that presents social reality and thus "a formal expression of the authorities' aims and objectives for an organization." It is also seen as "the expressed wishes" of the management within an organization and that the members within are requested to act and behave accordingly (Torrington & Weightman, 1989).

An anti-positivist sees ethos as something that is more informal and is a product of social interaction. Allder (1993) tends to define ethos from this perspective:

> *(Ethos) is a unique pervasive atmosphere or mood of the organization which is brought about by activities or behaviour primarily in the realms of social interaction and to a lesser extent in matters to do with the environment, of members of the school and recognized initially on an experiential rather than a cognitive level. (pp.69)*

Should ethos be defined in this way, the views of members within the organization and how these members interact must be considered in the process of examination or investigation of it. However, the term ethos, climate and culture are often used interchangeably. Although the two concepts both associate with the behaviour of the members within a school or an organization, Donnelly (2000) stresses that ethos has a more specific meaning subsumed in the broader concept of culture. School ethos refers to "formal and informal expressions of school members and these expressions tend to reflect the prevailing culture norms, assumptions and beliefs." Torrington and Weightman (1989) also suggest the slight difference between the two concepts.

> *Organizational culture is the characteristic spirit and belief of an organization, demonstrated for example in the norms and values which are generally held about how people should treat each other…The ethos of a school, is a more self conscious expression of specific types of objective in relation to the behaviour and values. This can be in various forms. This can be in various forms such as a formal statement by the head teacher… (pp.18)*

The ethos of the school can be expressed in different ways. In many schools, the school goal and the vision of education tell everyone clearly what their philosophy of education is. However, should someone want to understand the deeper value and belief of the members within, only investigating the document is definitely not enough. What should be useful are carrying out in-depth interviews and long term observation. Donnelly (2000) suggested the following methods to help people examine the ethos of schools.

Table 1: Three Dimensions of Ethos (Source: Donnelly, 2000)

Description of Ethos	Dimension of Ethos	Manifested in…	Method of reseaerch
Superficial	Aspirational Ethos	Documents/statements from school authorities such as Churchs	Document reviews; semi-structured interviews with school authorities
	Ethos of outward attachment	School organizational structures; physical environment of the school; behaviour of individuals	Document reviews & semi-structured interviews with school members
Deep	Ethos of inward attachment	Individuals' deep seated thoughts, feelings and perceptions	In-depth interviews & informal conversations with school members and long-term observation of organizational interaction

In the context of Catholic schools, the ethos and climate of the school are of much importance. They are regarded as crucial factors that make it distinctive from any other school. Flynn (1985) drew such a conclusion from a longitudinal study in Catholic schools in Australia.

> *One of the most distinctive features of an effective Catholic school is its outstanding social climate which gives it a special ethos or spirit. This climate has a religious as well as educational character and is generated in an intensely relational environment in which persons are respected and ultimate questions such as life, love, death, faith and God are confronted. (pp.342)*

Despite the fact that Catholic schools have a particular ethos that grants them a unique identity, the ethos of each Catholic school might be varied since the schools are administrated by different religious orders or diocese. Every religious order has its own spirituality and tradition. These traditions are reflected on the culture and pedagogy and that can be reinforced through policy making and teacher training.

Ignatian Spirituality

For more than 450 years, the spirituality of Ignatius of Loyola, has drawn women and men into a closer relationship with God and a renewed energy in their service of others. (The Characteristics of Jesuit Education, 1986)

Ignatian spirituality has at its center the life, the teachings, the death and resurrection of Jesus, acknowledged as the Christ, and invites people to come to know, love, and follow Jesus more dearly, as Ignatius did. Ignatian taught people to seek God in all things and embrace the attitude of "magis", means more, in life. (The Characteristics of Jesuit Education, 1986)

The Society of Jesus (Jesuits) was founded by St. Ignatius of Loyola in 1540. Since then, the Jesuits were engaged in the ministry of education. The first Jesuit school was established by Ignatius at Sicily in 1548. He recognized education as an apostolic and pastoral ministry. The Society of Jesus is a reflecting community. After running schools for more than four centuries, the Jesuits gathered together in 1980 to discuss different issues concerning their education ministry. After the meeting, an authoritative document, *The Characteristics of Jesuit Education*, was published. This is the fruit of four years of meeting, uncountable reflections and consultations. The document is a normative one and becomes the blueprint of the many Jesuit schools worldwide. It makes clear to the people who are involved in this meaningful ministry the characteristics of Jesuit education. It stresses on the importance of respecting every individual person and the love and acceptance for one another, especially to the poor and marginalized in the society. It also seeks to form "men and women for others" and the continuous pursuit of excellence.

The Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm

Unlike methodology, pedagogy is the art and science of teaching. It is the way in which teachers become the companion of students in the journey of grow and development. It includes a vision of the ideal young people to be formed. It suggests some explicit ways for teachers to incarnate the Ignatian values in the process of teaching and learning. (Ignatian Pedagogy: A Practical Approach, 1995)

The Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm (IPP), one of the characteristics of Jesuit Education, highlights the ways that encourage students' openness to grow and learn. The five steps include the context, experience, reflection, action and evaluation. These steps are best understood in the light of the *Spiritual Exercise* of St. Ignatius. Metts (1995) indicated that the Spiritual Exercises "stresses the continual interplay of experience, reflection, and action as the means for evaluating one's life and how one loves and will live it in a personal relationship with God." (pp.7). The experience of spiritual exercise is a personal encounter with the Spirit of Truth.

This mode of proceeding can become an effective ongoing process for learning throughout the lifetime.

Figure 2:   Ongoing Process of the Ignatian Paradigm
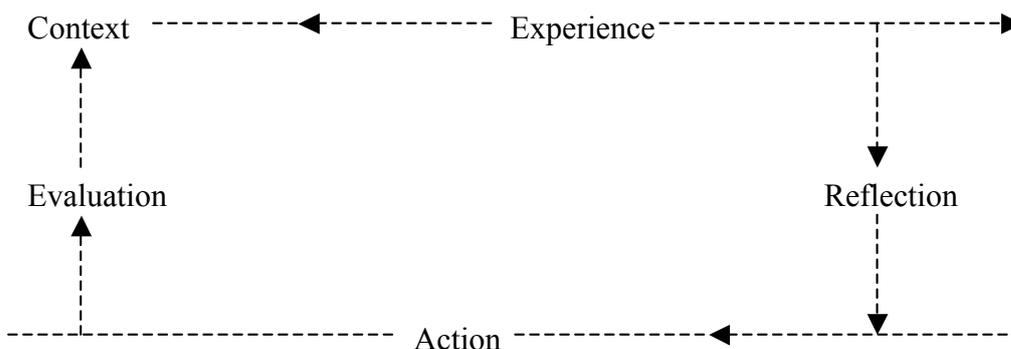
The document,*The Characteristics of Jesuit Education* has stated very clearly that the inspiration of the Jesuit heritage on education is not an exclusion of those who are not members of the Society of Jesus.

> *...Though the school is normally called "Jesuit", the vision is more properly called "Ignatian" and has never been limited to Jesuits...*
> *(The Characteristics of Jesuit Education, 1984, nn10)*

Thus, lay communities, which share the same spirituality like the Jesuits, have started running schools based on the Ignatian spirituality. These schools can be found in Hong Kong and South America.

Educational Innovation

Facing the fast changing world in the new century, people keep on looking for new ways to enhance better performance and create breakthroughs in organizations and in the society. Same in the education field, there have been reforms of all kinds over the past 10 to 15 years. Educators hold different views on education reform. Some claim that there have been too many changes at a time and they come too quickly. Others might see that it is the only way out for better education. Educational change is not an easy task. It involves different stake holders in the school settings. The dynamic is definitely a complex one.

The urge for change is clear. However, getting change happen is not easy. No matter how good visions we have, its implementation always defects us and the efforts are disappointing and ineffective. What are the problems out there?

There are many reasons that hinder the success of educational change. Hargreaves el at. (1996) have summarized a number of them based on the literature on change. (Fullan, 1991 & 1993; Berman and McLaughlin, 1977; McLaughlin, 1990; Rudduck, 1991; Huberman and Miles, 1984; Sarason, 1982 & 1990; Stoll and Fink, 1996). Some of the common ones are unclear objectives and process of change, wrong pace, the lack of resource and suitable coordination and structure to support and so forth. Concluding the many studies and researches in the past twenty years, Fullan and his teammates pointed out a crucial reason for the failure of implementing change. :

> *A missing ingredient in most failed cases is appreciation and use of what we call change knowledge Understanding and insight about the proves of change and they key drivers that make for successful change in practice. The presence of change knowledge does not guarantee success, but its absence ensures failure.*
> (Fullan, Cuttress & Kilcher, 2005 *pp.54)*

The change knowledge that Fullan (2004) suggested consists of eight principles. The first one is engaging people's moral purpose. It is about engaging educators or together with other stake holders to a commitment to increase the performance or productivity of their hard work. The second principle is capacity-building which involves bringing in new knowledge, skills, competences, resources and shared identity and motivation to people so that they can move the system forward. The next one is the understanding of the change process. This process is about creating the condition for continuous improving so as to persist and overcome obstacles during the reform. The fourth one is about developing cultures for learning. Since successful change involves learning during the process of implementation. It is important to establish a culture that members are willing to learn from each other and equip together. It is not only inevitable to develop the culture for leaning, but also the culture of evaluation. The fifth principle reminds us that greater achievement can be made if the schools increase their collective capacity to engage in ongoing assessment for learning. The sixth principle stresses on the leadership for change. The idea does not merely focus on the leaders themselves, but the ability of the leaders to foster success in others is of much concern since this is a key factor for sustainability. The seventh driver is on fostering coherence-making. It is about achieving new patterns of coherence that help people to pay more attention on how things interconnect. The last principle is cultivating tri-level development. This is about transformation of system in three levels. It is believed that the betterment of individuals would lead to the enhancement of organization and systems.

People in the education field might think that these theories are easier said than done and it is widely believed that educational change is really a difficult thing to deal with. Nonetheless, it is still worth trying because if we do not do so, we are meant to fail, especially in this fast changing world today.

The study

The present study aims at getting a deeper understanding of how the school has implemented the process of change in cultivating a stronger Catholic school ethos, and the views of different stakeholders on the vision and mission of the school. A qualitative approach to the research was used and a case study of a school was adopted in this study. The study started in 2007. Interviews, observation and document analysis are the tools to gather information for the investigation.

The Case school

The case school was founded in 1927 by a religious order. The sponsorship of the school has been transferred to another order in 1983 and finally, an International Catholic lay community associated with the Society of Jesus, became the sponsoring body of this school in 1998. In 2005, the former principal retired after thirty years of service. A new principal who is the alumna of this school took up the leading role since then.

This school was chosen for this study because of the following reasons:

- The vision and mission of the school is based on the Ignatian spirituality.

- The sponsoring body of the school aims at strengthening the school ethos based on the mentioned spirituality

- The principal was newly assigned to the school. She initiated the process of integrating the Ignatian values and pedagogy in the case school.

Preliminary findings

Integrating Ignatian values and pedagogy

The motto of the school is "The Lord is my Light". Respect for the dignity and value of each person is inherent in the philosophy of the successive Catholic sponsors of the school. The present School Sponsoring Body included the vision and mission of education based on the spirituality of St. Ignatius of Loyola as the School vision and mission. It aims at forming students to be people with Wisdom, Care, Love and Compassion and become "men and women for others". Students are also encouraged to work for magis—stirve for excellence in whatever they do.

These vision and mission statements appear in the school plan, students' handbook and the web page of the school. Moreover, they would be addressed in staff meetings and assemblies for refreshing members in the school from time to time. In order to reinforce the attention to some of the key features of the school, the initial name of the school and sponsoring body have been transformed into slogans and it is proved to be a success in doing so. Examples are as follows:

> *To achieve our Vision and Mission, our teams of teachers and supporting staff are*
>
> *M-iracle workers who work with*
> *P-assion and*
> *S-erve with smile.*
>
> *With teachers as their role models, students will learn to be*
> *C-aring*
> *L-oving and*
> *C-ompassionate.*
>
> <div align="right">*(Annual School Plan and Report, MPS)*</div>

The slogans of Caring, Love and Compassion were printed on banners hung in an eye-catching area in the school campus. This serves as a very good reminder for everybody in the school community. In the interviews to students, almost all students mentioned Care, Love, Compassion, the three qualities as the most significant characteristics of the students in that school. The student interviewees reflected that these qualities have been reinforced in lessons and daily contact by the teachers and that these concepts could be embedded quite deeply in their minds.

The sponsoring body encourages context, experience, reflection, evaluation, action and the search of excellence (Magis) as the ways of life. The thoughts of reflection and magis are placed very firmly in the hearts and minds of the teachers and students in the school. This has been done intentionally by the school principal. She mentioned it in an interview, "Every year, I focus on one idea only. For example, I used "reflection" last year. I put the word in my mouth all the time. I mention it in assemblies, in staff meetings, at the time I chat with the students and so on. I just make use of every opportunity to introduce this idea and I think my staff and students are able to grasp the idea and meaning quite well by now." This is true. In fact, the ideas are not only put into words, but also in daily practice in the school. Two examples could show the successful implementation of the idea. In a few class observations that were made, students were asked to reflect upon what they had learnt or the relationship of what they had learnt and their lives at the end of the lesson. Students were used to the practice. Some of them would share their reflections with their classmates and the reflections they made were not trivial ones. The other example is shown in the ways the teachers deal with misbehaviours. Basically speaking, the school does not have an explicit punishment system. When a student is found misbehaved, she would be asked to do a self-reflection and complete a reflection form. On the reform form, students need to write down what they did and their reflection from it. Moreover, they have to think about what they need to do then and how she can make use of her strengths to serve the others in the school community from then on. Students do welcome this practice and comment that it is a good way to help them learn what they have done wrongly and how they can improve themselves so as to love and serve others in a better way.

With the everyday use jargons and appropriate application of policies, students are able to immerse in an environment that are conducive to development of qualities aligned with the visions and mission of the school. Their hard work on the promotion of school ethos was certified by the External School Review Team from the Quality Assurance Division of the Education and Manpower Bureau in 2007. (External School Review Report, 2007)

The Process of Change
The case school has a history of more than 80 years. With the dedicated effort of the previous two sponsoring religious orders, the school has a strong tradition on religious love and care. At the time when the new sponsoring body took up the administration role of the school, it was of their hope that the good tradition on Catholic education could be upheld and the elements of the Ignatian Spirituality could be gradually instilled into the school. In the year 2005, the former principal retired and a new principal was appointed to take up the leading post. That became a golden opportunity to make their hope into reality.

The newly appointed principal has contributed a salient role in fostering the values and education pedagogy outlined in the school's mission and vision. In the past four years, different strategies have been employed and they can be summarized in the following:

1. Engaging staff to the change and building capacity
    To begin the change process, much time has been spent on helping the teachers and staff to understand the essence of the vision and mission of the school based on Ignatian Spirituality. This has been done in several levels. First, senior teachers were invited to participate in a four-year formation programme on Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm which was conducted by an expert form the Loyola Institute of Australia. Participants could have opportunity to deepen their understanding on the Spirituality and exchange views on how to implement the concepts in their work with teachers from similar background. Second, a consultant on promoting Catholic school ethos was employed as a part time staff in school. She was responsible for providing development programmes for teachers. Since she had profound experience in working in schools with an Ignatian spirituality background in Australia, her support and knowledge given to teachers in the case school has helped them experience and recognize the beauty of the Ignatian spirituality. With

the deeper understanding of the mission and ways of pursuing such goal, members of the school have a clear picture on how to work together in new ways in creating a new culture.

2. Developing the culture of learning
As it is mentioned above, opportunities have been created for teachers to learn together. Apart from providing development programmes to teachers, the concept of "learning garden" was launched to the whole school. It pinpoints on different roles that members are playing in the learning community. Besides, the idea of supporting each other and learning from each other is widely spread.

3. Developing cultures of evaluation and reflection
The school started drawing up its school self evaluation (SSE) framework and process in 2003. The school culture on self evaluation gradually heightened and with the support of external training and school's internal sharing, their involvement on SSE was extended to the contribution of the Annual School Plan in 2005/06, School Development Plan in 2006/09 and School Self-assessment Report under the leadership of the new school principal. In striving for excellence and working for magis, the principal tried to include the element of reflection in the evaluation process in 2008. Although response from teachers is not all in the positive side, many teachers regarded this as a way for self understanding and improvement.

4. Empowerment of middle management
In order to make change sustainable, leadership must not be focused on one person only. Mintzberg (2004) has made a point on this:

> *Successful managing is not about one's own success but about fostering success in other.*   *(pp.16)*

The new principal was surely aware of this and she started formatting middle management team so that more can share the role of leading in school. She then restructured the functional teams in the school and the heads of the team would be arranged for special development programmes. In the interviews, some team heads revealed that they were empowered to make decisions on their own in the areas they were responsible for. Though some might express that they were not used to do that and were sometimes lack of confidence to do so, they welcomed this change since they felt more ownership in the work they do.

It is obvious that the new principal has tried to implement some changes in the school with an aim to cultivate a stronger school ethos based on the Ignatian Spirituality. In the past four years, she seems to have gained positive outcomes from that. The concepts of Love, Care, Compassion, Magis and Reflection were successfully implemented into the hearts and mind of the members of the school. She made the change work by arousing teachers' attention to the vision and mission of the school and inviting them to work hand in hand towards the goal. She has started to create a culture of learning and evaluation for the past few years so that members in the school would keep on striving for excellence and working for magis in every area of their work. Moreover, the teachers in the middle management level were empowered and it does helps to make the change more sustainable.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to explore how the school ethos based on the Ignatian spirituality has been cultivated, the process involved and the perceptions of teachers, parents and other stake holders on the vision and mission of Ignatian Education as the school's education philosophy. An in-depth case study of a school has been carried out.

The preliminary findings showed that the new principal has implemented necessary strategies to enhance the Catholic Ethos based on Ignatian Spirituality in school. The processes included engaging teachers to the commitment of change, creating cultures for learning and evaluation and the empowerment of teachers. Drawing on the four years of effort, they begin to see positive outcomes. Members in the school community have regarded the idea of Care, Love, Compassion, Magis and

Reflection as their characteristics and ways of life. Most teachers are pleased with the change process and are willing to work together for a better school and a better tomorrow.

It is for sure that going through the process of change is not easy. It brings much pressure, uncertainty and very possibly, more workload to teachers. However, in the new era, people are striving for pursuing betterment in all areas of life. By understanding the change knowledge and careful planning and implementation of the change process, people can make change a more fruitful and satisfying experience.

Regarding the education ministry of the Catholic Church, it is understood that the general environment for Catholic education is not as favourable as decades before. Should the leader(s) in schools are armed with faith and love, and equipped with new knowledge, the good traditions of Catholic schools and the Catholic school ethos are able to be maintained or even enhanced.

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Research on personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders in Taiwan

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Toward to super aging society, the related issues on elders in Taiwan deserved to be explored and realized. Many well-developed countries have paid lots of attention on personal meaning of elders, especially in Japan. In Taiwan, the related themes on minds of elders are still neglected. Prager（1996）claimed that individuals would create their own self and personal meaning by the life circle, and further advocated those who owned higher personal meaning would get higher directedness, and try their best to achieve their life goals. Because of the enlightenment of related literature, the research on the situation and relationship of personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders in Taiwan was developed. To achieve the purposes of research, questionnaire survey was adopted. According the amount of elders in Taiwan, stratified proportional cluster sampling was used. 1090 copies were sent to the elders who were joining in the learning activities in their communities. 712 copies returned, and 710 were valid. 61.5% were female, but there were no difference between gender and personal meaning. Furthermore, gender had no effect on psychological well-being of participants. Health status and educational level were related with personal meaning and psychological well-being of the participants. Moreover, according to the analysis, we found that the personal meaning of elders in Taiwan was high, and the sources of personal meaning were mostly coming from social contribution and self-continuity. A strong association is found between personal meaning and psychological well-being.

Key words: personal meaning, psychological well-being

● **Background**

Toward super aging society, the related researches on elders were deserved developing and exploring in Taiwan. The emphasis on elder's life meaning of developed countries provided us the good example. In fact, exploring personal meaning of elders is the key point to realizing successful aging of them. Wong（2007）defined successful aging by different thoughts, and mentioned that the hidden part of successful aging was personal meaning, because keeping the positive meaning and life goal by the individuals themselves was beneficial to extend their lifespan, and promote life quality. Reker and Wong（1988）claimed that the related research on the source of elders' personal meaning can profit for the individuals themselves and the society. For the society, positive and vigorous personal meaning and successful aging can reduce the wastage of medical treatment sources. With the coming of aging society, more parts and organizations attached importance on elders' needs, including the developing of welfare systems, the influence of political economic, and the related themes on successful aging. Thus, various properties invested in providing and satisfying different needs of elders. Then the related researches on elders were growing and popular. If life is continuing, everyone will be aged and have to face the probable problems, because aging is an unavoidable fact for all of us.

This study aimed at exploring the relation between personal meaning and subjective well-being of elder learners. The setting and importance of this research contained two parts, just as follows: 1. establishing psychological well-being of elders is the goal of aging society, so how to help elders search out the sources of psychological well-being, build up their own values, personal meaning and life goals is the significant goal of aging society. Only when the individuals are affected by happiness,

it becomes meaningful to prolong life. 2. Personal meaning is the key elements of successful aging. It means lack of personal meaning and life goals, the individuals will suffer more burdens and pressures following the worsen health and body function. So facing the inevitable fact- aging, what we need are the aids of medical technology, accompanying of friends and relatives, and the most important is positive personal meaning and attitude.

Although high technology, well-developed medical progress, and disease-preventing strategies make people live better and longer, more elders suffered spiritual illness and got confused about their life goals and life meaning. Thus, the related elder policies in Japan and the related researches inspired us to pay more emphasis on this topic. Completely speaking, the purposes of the research contained to explore personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders in Taiwan first, and to analyze the related demographic factors with personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders, and try to provide some suggestions for elders and elder teaching organizations.

In order to achieve the purposes of this research, the definition, contents and the related factors of personal meaning and psychological well-being were explored and introduced first.

- **Definition of personal meaning**

The related research of personal meaning was less and less in Taiwan, but the concepts of 'personal meaning' and 'meaning of life' were always mingled together in western countries. Although there are really overlapped between the two concepts, personal meaning originated from transpersonal psychology, which emphasized that the individuals should bestow meaning, goals and values on their own life. Prager 1996 mentioned that the related researches on life-span, resources of personal meaning appeared these few years, and most of them interpreted the individual's thoughts by inductive reasoning or interpretation. In fact, human being was really complex, unpredictable and hard to be assorted. Personal meaning is really hard defined just like morality and values, but all related with personal belief, action, and relationship. The above-mentioned themes were the core elements of meaning of life. That's why it's really difficult to define personal meaning.

Prager 1996 believed that personal meaning was constructed by the individual himself through the life circle, and the person who owned high personal meaning must be with high directedness, and be good at achieving his life goals. Reker and Wong 1988 further explained that the individual possessed his own target, and did the best to attach it, if he got higher personal meaning. Kaufman (1987 114) asserted that we can explore the concept, personal meaning, from two layers, microcosmic and macroscopic. Microcosmic viewpoint means personal meaning comes from the recognition of human's own life and the explanation of other's meaning. Macroscopic viewpoint means personal meaning comes from the process of integration of history, culture and value. Moreover, Kaufman claimed if we can help elders find the sources of personal meaning, and realize how the individual combines them, it will be beneficial to go deeper in understanding the complicated parts of aging, and the truth of human's life course. And this was one of the mean purposes of this research.

Wong 1989 defined 'personal meaning' as a recognition system constructed by the individual, which meant the individual constructed his own personal meaning by his subjective value, life value and satisfaction, moreover, the basic elements of personal meaning concluded recognition, motivation and affection, three parts.

- Recognition: Human's belief, religion, and the interpretation for the world. Bestowing meaning by realizing life experience, and explaining the events, activities and the whole life.
- Motivation: The thrust to search for subjective values, needs, desires, and personal goals, and to make them come true.
- Affection: The satisfaction and achievement coming from the affirmation and realization to their own life-value.

To sum up, 'personal meaning' means the interpretation and recognition of himself, others, and the whole world under the social context by the individual himself, but not limited in recognition. What should be stressed on was the construction of personal meaning by the individual himself, and the process to set the goal, and to make dreams come true. Prager (1996) viewed 'personal meaning' by the outlook of existentialists, and took life as a whole which won't create meaning by life itself, but the individual himself create and construct his own meaning.

Just as the mentioned above, human's personal meaning, which is formed by the individual's explanation of life, value and the world, will be affected by the social context, the environment, customers and habits. Personal meaning doesn't exist primarily, but formed by the explanation and recognition of life events and life values, and by the process of achieving the targets. In fact, the process of constructing personal meaning will stir the individual to attain the goals enthusiastically and get self-affirmation and self-realization. R. F. Baumeister considered that personal meaning is stabile and constancy (Prager, 1998). Therefore, the individual can construct their own personal

meaning by integrating his life affairs in later life, and get the satisfaction and self-surpass. For the elders with personal meaning, life is a series of exquisite and abundant journey. Actually, if we can construct our personal meaning as soon as possible, we can find our life pleasure and free within our life.

- **Contents of personal meaning**

Personal meaning was affected by the topics created by the individual himself, and influenced by the explanation and valuation to his own life experience, and then formed self-concepts by the integration process (Prager, 1996). Prager (1998 explored the most important sources and the least important sources of aged 18-91 Israeli, and found that the relationship, valued thoughts and meeting personal needs were the most important sources of personal meaning. Wong 1989 claimed that many sources of personal meaning were threat by many reasons, such as jobs, social status, activities, and so on. The sources of personal meaning disappeared because of the threats, but some questions, such as 'why do I live?' aroused with the time passing by. That's because the health and life satisfaction of the individual was dependent on whether the existing needs were accomplished or not.

Scholars had different perspectives on the classification of personal meaning. Because the countries, races, and ages were different, then there were some odds on the sources of personal meaning, although the main sources may be similar. Reker explored the contents of personal meaning among different aged adults in Canada in 1988, and found that the most important contents of personal meaning included relationship, personal needs, personal growth, leisure activities, and permanent value, personal success, and altruism (Prager, 1996). Moreover, Prager's research confirmed three concepts: 1. Although culture may be different between Canada and Australia, he got the same results on personal meaning contents; 2. Only five of sixteen personal meaning contents differed because of age; 3. The most significant personal meaning contents were relationship, personal growth, basic life needs, joining leisure activities, and maintaining the value and concepts.

R F. Baumeister claimed that the exploring of personal meaning should start from the special part, and then extend to the universal, common and integrated levels. V. E. Frankl considered that there were three sources of personal meaning, coming from creativity, from experience, and from the attitude of the individual himself (Reker & Wong, 1988). Actually, the sources of personal meaning were various because of the differences among people. Hence, M. Rokeach classified personal meaning as four levels (Reker & Wong, 1988): 1. involving in searching for happiness and comfort; 2. investing more time and energy on developing personal talent and ability, just as personal growth, creativity, and self-realization; 3. surpassing personal interests and investing more energy to serving others, society and political affairs; 4. getting beyond self, and achieving the final goal.

Conclusively, scholars advocated that the contents and sources of personal meaning were consistent, including personal growth, relationship, altruism, hedonism, religion, spirituality, accomplishment, left behind, wisdom, respected and loved, persistent value and concepts, safety, creativity, continuity of life and generations. According to the results of the researches, some personal meaning, just like accomplishment, job, social status, joining activities, and self-control, will descend with age. Moreover, Penick 2004 pointed that the sources of personal meaning may be changed in later life, but the whole strength and significance of meaning won't be changed and vanished.

- **The related demographic factors with personal meaning**

According to the related researches and references, we found there are some demographic factors, such as gender, age, health status, economic situation, and marital status, related with personal meaning. The related findings were synthesized as followed:

- **Gender**

According to the researches (Bar-Tur & Prager, 1996; Holahan, 1988; Prager, 1996), female performed better and got higher score on safety, participation, and relationship. As the whole performance of personal meaning, gender difference was existed on personal meaning, especially the difference became more obvious among the elder women. There were still some researches having no comment on the relation between gender and personal meaning. As to the strength of personal meaning, there were medium variances between gender and the strength.

- **Age**

As to the relation between age and personal meaning, there were different results. According to the research of P. Ebersole and S. Depaola, we found that there were no difference between age and personal meaning of married women (Prager, 1998). Moreover, S. K. Baum R. B. Stewart confirmed that there were no difference among age, the sources and the strength of personal meaning in 1990. But according to the research of L. Bengston in 1975, it pointed out that different generations had various value and sources of personal meaning. For example, grandchildren emphasized on individualism value, such as practical skills, exciting life, searching for free life and

accomplishment; and grandparents stressed highly on concentration of authority's value, such as participating in religion, be loyal and patriotic, and keep friendship (Reker & Wong, 1988). Furthermore, based on Ryff and Singer's research (1998) indicated that elders' and middle-agers' intention to achieve the goal was lower than the young. In fact, many researches showed that those elders aged more than 75, whose sources of personal meaning were different from the others. As a whole, the strength and significance of personal meaning didn't decrease or vanish with age, but the advanced ager (especially those age above 85) who faced the decline of body function, and may be sent to nursing home, might have different sources and strength of personal meaning (Penick & Fallshore, 2005).

- **Health status**

   The sources of personal meaning may be changed with the development of life-course, but no matter what the content of meaning is, there was consistent positive relation between the strength of personal meaning and mental health (Prager, 1998). Yalom (1980) proved that the sources of personal meaning changed within life-course, and there was positive relation between the strength of personal meaning and health status. Johnson and Barer 1993 claimed that the elderly will reconstruct self-promotion actively for mastering their new life well. In fact, our own health status will affect our life-control ability, daily problem solving ability, and adaption, especially for the elderly. To sum up, health status will have big emphasis on the strength of personal meaning for elders.

- **Religion**

   According to the trend of life-course, religion played a big part on elders' life, but we also found that meaning of life descended with age (Prager, 1998 . On the development of life-course, the integration, searching for meaning, and self-accomplishment were the main task for elder people. So, religious belief, religion activities, and spiritual growth really played an important part on the elders' life. Testified by abroad counselling researches, consultants should realize if elders would like to surpass themselves or participate in spiritual growth, and then help them searching for the harmony and peace. By the development and growth of mind, it really can help elders face the changing sources of personal meaning, and provide them support and encouragement.

   To explore the sources of personal meaning of elders, this research tried to realize the situation of elders' personal meaning and the relationship between personal meaning and demographic factors, including gender, age, health status, religious belief, educational level, and marital status. Moreover, according to Bar-Tur and Prager's research, the strength and depth of personal meaning had large differences between community elder-elders and those living in the nursing home; moreover, the sources of personal meaning were really different between the elders Reker & Wong, 1988 . Hence, this research aimed at exploring the whole tendency of elders' personal meaning, and further discovering the relationship between personal meaning and demographic factors.

- **Elder's psychological well-being**

   The concept, psychological well-being, contained affection and recognition two structures, and the concrete contents concluded positive and negative emotion, happiness, life-satisfaction, life-goal, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-autonomy (Levin & Chatters, 1998). M. A. Okun viewed psychological well-being as subjective well-being, a meta-structure, which concluded the evaluation of life experience. The other concept, objective well-being, meant functional ability, including health status, and social status.

   Levin and Chatters 1998 pointed out that psychological well-being was always the index of elder's life quality. The recent ten years, gerontologists invested in the related researches on psychology well-being of elders, and the findings concluded that the factors, health status, social status, age, race, martial status, retirement, social-psychology situation, the relationship with the society, social support, life events, losing relatives, self-esteem, and adaption ability, were related ones with elders' psychology well-being. But the findings were really different because of the various participants, the various countries, and so on. Not all the factors mentioned above were really related with elders' psychology well-being. According the findings, we found that age, health status, and social-economic status were mentioned in the researches most, but social support, personality, world viewpoint, values, spiritual growth, and religion participation had no obvious relationship with elders' psychology well-being.

   Rowe and Kane 1995 explored the related factors with successful aging, and found that healthy life-style, social resources, religion, personal meaning, optimism, responsibility, and adaption were related with successful aging of elders. Moreover, they found that personal meaning was in the name of happiness, well-being, free of mentally deranged and depression, and the best index of successful aging.

Prager's research　1998　supported Reker' s findings in 1988, and they affirmed that the sources of elder's personal meaning were directed from philosophy, none the less, for the young and the middle age, their sources of personal meaning were most directed from self-identification, intimate relationship, productive and creative ability. To sum up, the mission of later life were tend to integrate the whole life and rebuild the sources of life meaning. Moreover, another important finding was that elders considered the high level sources of personal meaning was the most important for them, and they claimed to encourage the middle-aged to transcend their concern from selves to the future, to the younger generation, and to the society (Berquist et al., 1993). According to the researches, we found that the source of personal meaning, experiencing self-growth, was less significant with aging, because elders generally believed self-growth was no more important for them, and what became more worthy personal meaning was to strengthen their early-life growth and accomplishment, but not to achieve a new goal. In addition, elders wouldn't want to pay too much attention on their own achievements any more. Then according to Israel's investigation, the participation of religion was not the important source of personal meaning, but this finding was totally different from the same research in Canada. The difference may be caused by the social culture.

- **Method**

The data reported here are taken from a research project which mainly examined the relationship between elders' personal meaning and psychological well-being, and the situation of personal meaning of elders in Taiwan.

- **Subjects**

Mother sample: Respondents who were more than 65 years old living in Taiwan were joining various learning organizations or trying to participate in the community activities.

Table 1: Subjects and Sampling

Area	City/County	Elders more than 65		Sampling．005%
	2006	2,287,029		**1153**
North	Taipei city	306,433	13.40	153
	Taipei county	275,696	12.05	138
	Keelong City	40,282	1.76	20
	Hsinchu city	35,991	1.57	18
	Taoyuan County	149,898	6.55	75
	Hsinchu County	53,727	2.35	27
	Miaoli County	71,597	3.13	36
subtotal		**933624**	**40.81**	**467**
Middle	Taichung county	128,265	5.61	64
	Taichung city	79,221	3.46	40
	Changhua County	148,293	6.48	74
	Nantou County	67,989	2.97	34
subtotal		**423768**	**18.52**	**212**
South	Yunlin County	102,849	4.50	52
	Chia-I county	81,840	3.58	41
	Chia-I City	27,912	1.22	14
	Tainan City	67,646	2.96	34
	Tainan County	137,043	5.99	68
	Kaohsiung County	120,226	5.26	60
	Kaohsiung City	135,466	5.92	68
	Pingtung County	105,031	4.59	53
Subtotal		**778013**	**34.02**	**390**
East	Ilan County	56,635	2.48	29
	Taitung County	29,468	1.29	15
	Hualien County	40,991	1.79	21
subtotal		**127094**	**5.56**	**65**
Island	Penghu County	13,792	0.60	7
	Kinman County	9,767	0.43	5
	Lienchiang County	971	0.04	1

subtotal		35268	1.54	13

Data: part of it retrieved from http://www.moi.gov.tw/stat/index.asp

According to Table 1, target population was 2,287,029, stratified random sampling was used. 1090 copies were sent to the community organization and then the respondents. Finally 712 replied, but two of them were not filled up well. So the rate of returning copies was high, 65.32%.The sample comprised 710 individuals, except 19 missing value, 266 men, and 425 women. It showed the fact that female participants are always more than male in Taiwan, but we still found male participants are adding comparing with the past researches.

● **Measures**

Survey research was adopted in this study. The survey instrument 'personal meaning and Psychological well-being Scale' was compiled according to the related questionnaires and the findings of literature. After the first draft of the scale was finished, it was sent to six experts for advices. There were some penetrating suggestions for the three parts, basic data, personal meaning questionnaire, and psychological well-being questionnaire. After modified and adjusted on some items, 102 samples from the population were contacted for conducting a pilot study. After that, this instrument was modified, according to the result of factor analysis, the questionnaire of personal meaning and psychological well-being got good respectable alpha value, and the internal consistency reliability was .89 and .90 separately.

● **Findings and Discussion**

Most of the respondents, 457 members, occupied 64.73 , who were under 70 years old, and there were also 28.32% respondents between 70 and 80 years old. Moreover, aged more than 80 occupied 6.9 . It showed that more and more elders would like to participate in community learning activities. As to educational level, there were 30.73% graduated from elementary school, and 38.18 of the respondents were graduated from high school. Furthermore, there were 16.57% graduated from college. It meant that the difference of educational level among the elders were really huge. As to marital status, we found that most of respondents who joined learning activities in their communities were married, up to 73.08%, but there were still plenty of divorced or widowed elders (accounting to 20.82%) joining in learning activities.

Table 2: The demographic data of the respondents

Variables	Item	Number	Percent
Gender	Male	266	38.5%
	female	425	61.5%
Age	Under 59 years old	200	28.32
	60~64	173	24.5
	65~69	84	11.89
	70~74	113	16
	75~79	87	12.32
	More than 80	49	6.94
Educational level	Learn by selves	82	11.61
	Elementary school	217	30.73
	Junior high school	108	15.29
	Senior high school	161	22.89
	Junior college and college	117	16.57
	Master or doctoral degree	10	1.41
Marital status	unmarried	27	3.82
	Married/remarried	516	73.08
	divorced	38	5.39
	Widow	109	15.43
	Living together with someone	9	1.27
Health status	Very good	7	0.99
	Good	36	5.09
	So-so	287	40.65
	Bad	228	32.28
	Very bad	141	19.97
Residence	Living alone	82	11.61
	Living with the spouse	262	37.11
	Two generations living together	185	26.2
	Taking turns living with kids	17	2.4
	Three generations living together	151	21.38

	Community nursing center	4	0.56
	Others	1	0.14
Economic situation	Very enough	21	2.97
	Enough	153	21.67
	Not very enough	479	67.84
	Really not enough	45	6.37
	Others	2	0.28
Religion participation	Yes	471	66.57
	No	96	13.59
	No answer	143	20.25
belief	Buddhism	307	42.06
	Civil faith	226	32.01
	Christianity	24	3.39
	Catholicism	27	3.82
	Others	13	1.84

On the dimension of health status, there were only seven aware of very healthy, and almost half of the respondents felt so-so, and not too bad. Moreover, over half of them felt not very well. As to their residence, most of them lived with their family, up to 87%, including living with their own spouse, Two generations living together, three generations living together, or taking turns living with kids. Compared with western countries, it's a special phenomenon, because of the thought and tradition of filial piety, and most of parents loving to live with their sons and grandchildren. As to religion participation, there were 66.3% of respondents possessing their own religion belief, and most of them believed in Buddhism or civil faith. But just 17.5% of them participated in the religious activities very often. As to economic situation, only 3% of the respondents expressed they had very enough money for living, and 21.5% of them considered they got enough. Anyway, there were still lots of respondents, up to 73.8%, felt they didn't get enough money or economic situation for living.

According to statistical analysis, the average of personal meaning of the participants was 3.6127, and standard deviation was .8485; moreover, we found that the average of self-extension and social benefit were higher, 3.8511(.9494) and 3.8046(.9727). The average of self-satisfaction was lower, 3.2864(.9263). To sum up, the awareness of personal meaning of elder participants was generally higher than the score of psychological well-being. Moreover, for our elders in Taiwan, concerning their next generation, passing down, and maintaining social benefits were their main focus. On the contrary, they paid less emphasis on self-satisfaction.

T-test and one way ANOVA were used to test the difference between demographic characteristics and personal meaning and psychological well-being of the respondents. Gender had no difference with personal meaning and psychological well-being by T-test. Moreover, there were no difference was found between gender, martial status, residence, and the score of personal meaning and psychological well-being. Educational level was found (t=.014*). Those who got higher degrees had higher scores of personal meaning than those who graduated from elementary school by Post Hoc analysis. Health status was found highly correlated with personal meaning (F=9.117***) and psychological well-being (F=14.158***). We found that those who felt very healthy and healthy got higher scores of personal meaning than those with poor health and very poor health. Moreover, it was more obvious that those who had good health got higher scores of psychological well-being than those with poor health. It convinced that health status played a very important part on personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders, so health status had high effect on personal meaning and psychological well-being. As to residence, we found that residence situation was only related with personal meaning of elders (F=3.558**), and those who lived with their spouse, or lived with other two generations, got higher scores than those who lived alone, lived with their kids and lived with kids by turns.

The average of psychological well-being was 3.4004 (.73322). As to the relationship of personal meaning and psychological well-being, we found that well-being scores were moderately correlated with personal meaning. It indicated that those with higher personal meaning got higher psychological well-being the same. Specially, we found that religion participation of elders had no difference with their personal meaning, and psychological well-being. That just responded to the related research in Israel.

- **Conclusion**
  Based on the above findings, concluding remarks are made as follows:
- First of all, most of the participants aged among60 to 80, and female were more than half. Actually, according to this research, there were more male elder participants than before. The

main cause probably formed by more and more elder leaning opportunities (ex. Elder college, community learning activities and active aging leaning trend) and actively arranged by elders themselves promoted by their hobbies and needs.

- Health status had the most obvious effects on personal meaning and psychological well-being of elder respondents among all demographic factors. Most of the respondents felt they still kept good or common health. Those who felt very healthy and healthy got higher scores of personal meaning than those with poor health and very poor health. Moreover, educational level had some variation on personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders. Higher education made elder respondents have higher personal meaning and subjective well-being. But gender, age and marital situation had no effect on personal meaning and psychological well-being of elders. We also found our elders preferred living with their spouse or living with their children and grandchildren. We supposed tradition culture affected people keep the desires to live with children and enjoy the family happiness that will let them feel their continuing life, and still be beneficial to others, and promote their personal meaning at the same time.

- Religion had no effect on personal meaning and psychological well-being for the elder respondents, and this result was just the same with Prager (1998). Although we assumed that religion participation was significant on the later life developmental stage, but Prager's research (1998) proved that elders didn't agree the relationship between religion participation and personal meaning with aging. In fact, the dependence on religion of elders may transfer to learning activities and other aspects because of the changing era, but it still needed to be examined.

- The positive relationship between personal meaning and psychological well-being of elder learners. Namely, the higher personal meaning was, and the higher psychological well-being was. Moreover, self-continuing and social benefit were the main sources of elders' personal meaning. Wholly speaking, self-satisfaction, self-reflection, social benefit and self-continuing were all the sources of personal meaning of elders. So, for elder educators, it's really important to encourage elders to search for their personal meaning and arrange learning activities for helping them build up their life meaning. It will lay more stress on the value of elder leaning.

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Intelligence in a Sea of Data: Teaching and Learning in the Google Generation

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The science classroom is intentionally a place where learning occurs … where students are intended to come to know certain things about the nature of the world we live in. But what exactly does that mean? Merriam-Webster tells us that the word *science* comes, via various detours through linguistic byways, from the Latin present participle of *scire*: to know. While the etymology of a word does not determine contemporary connotation or denotation, it is the case that science is a (and probably *the*) dominant Western means of knowing, understanding, and therefore learning about the world today. But when just about anything anyone wants to know is a simple search away, what, specifically, constitutes education in the age of Google? And, is it enough to know *about*, without knowing *how*, or *why*?

A veteran science teacher that I interviewed broached this topic when I interviewed him recently. During our discussion of educational technology, I asked him if there are any ways that technology hinders learning. His answer is both insightful and revealing, for multiple reasons:

> At times it may end up giving people a real quick fix to a problem and they may not be actually forced to think it through. Since Google, students need an answer quickly, so they don't know how to use a glossary or index. They want something right away, and to look back to a previous paragraph is too much effort.[22]

He's actually saying two things here. First, that students in some cases are seeking quick answers that others have created – received wisdom, so to speak - so they don't have to undergo the intolerable mental stress of building interlocking edifices of conjectures that lead to principles. And second, he's saying that not only have students in some cases lost their desire to undertake the heavy intellectual lifting that is part of the traditional learning process … they've also even lost the ability to personally seek for answers. After all, why read or even scan an old-fashioned dead tree tome when a multicolored electronic butler will do it for you?

That's a serious challenge to an education system. Regardless of whether teachers are using digital or analog tools, if students don't want to figure out the answer and also won't strain themselves to find it personally, teaching anything beyond search and retrieval skills starts to sound like a significantly difficult uphill battle.

This veteran teacher's statement sounds eerily similar to comments reported by technology writer and author Nicholas Carr, who wrote the widely-discussed article Is Google Making Us Stupid[23] in mid-2008. In it, Carr cites pathologist and educator Bruce Friedman, who recently confessed that he has now "almost totally lost the ability to read and absorb a longish article on the web or in print.[24]" Carr himself has the same issue … he feels he is losing the ability to focus, to concentrate … "now my concentration often starts to drift after two or three pages." Is our ability to learn being negatively affected by our media technologies?

It's not just popular authors, either. Deep learning, the kind of learning that uncovers associations, connects theoretical frameworks, and gets behind the what to the why, may be at risk. Educational researchers have noted the tendency of science instruction to be more learning about than learning … more getting the answer than deriving it (Bencze and Bowen, 2009). Bencze and Bowen have shown that this may be partly due to the fact that knowledge *that* is easier to teach than knowledge *how* (2009). And this study focused on the science teachers … never mind the students.

What's happening here? Is it just the older generation complaining that things aren't the way they used to be, and the hard work they did in their day has been lost in the new era of the slacker student? Or, is there a fundamental shift occurring in the kinds of intelligence that our education – note I did not say *school* – privileges?

Marshal McLuhan, of course, taught us that technology, or media, don't just allow communication and conversation … they play favorites. Media are not neutral; they are more suited to certain communications, certain expressions of intelligence, certain types of learning, than others. In the famous phrase, "the medium is the message" (McLuhan, 1959). As David Olsen writes, ongoing

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[22] Interview with veteran teacher conducted January 27, 2009, by John Koetsier.
[23] Retrieved February 4, 2009 from http://www.theatlantic.com/doc/200807/google
[24] Retrieved February 9 2009 from http://labsoftnews.typepad.com/lab_soft_news/2008/02/how-google-is-c.html

shifts in primary media over the past centuries have fueled "conceptual shifts" which have created "altered conceptions of mind and reality" (1988).

The logical question is: what do different primary media technologies privilege? Looking back and seeing the great shifts over centuries and even millennia from oral to literate to digital media, what are these altered conceptions? Clearly hyperlinked and searchable digital media technologies de-emphasize memory and privilege search and synthesis. Their easy accessibility may also reduce the primacy of formal education and boost the importance of informal learning. Some think so, and argue that this is a positive transformative change. Fischer and Konomi talk about technology and media helping us to "transcend boundaries in thinking, working, learning" by harnessing "distributed intelligence" (2007). In "Learning in the Age of Networked Intelligence," Tuomi postulates that blogs are more important than formal certificates, and immersive social games will become the textbook (2007). Others speculate whether libraries remain relevant in an era when video and audio production is in the ascendancy and people are less and less likely to read (Jeske, 2008). Wouldn't we be better off simply focusing on new technologies, new media, and providing information in ever-more convenient and digestable packaging?

Those who don't favor such progressive rhetoric, of course, can take comfort in the fact that for all of the societal change we've undergone in the last 50 years, and all the technology that has invaded the home and the enterprise in the last 20, few things seem to have disrupted the 18th century factory model of education, at least in most North American and European schools (Albirini, 2007). As Kritt and Winegar put it, it seems that "plus ca change, plus c'est la meme chose" (2007). Even with huge sums being spent on wiring schools, bringing in laptops, adding LCD projectors to classrooms, and installing smartboards … there have not really been significant gains in educational achievement, some argue, or even real change in the way education takes place. John Bailey, the Director of Educational Technology for the U.S. Department of Education, put it this way: "[T]here still is very little scientifically based research to gauge the effectiveness of technology" (Murray, 2002). Is that true, or are the more pollyana-ish – and more recent - predictions correct?

This is a critical question with varying answers. But what is clear – in my opinion - is that teaching and learning in a networked 21st century is a different proposition than teaching and learning in a paper 18th century … just as that was different than teaching and learning in an oral 5th century BC. Whether the nature of intelligence, or what it means to be an educated individual, has changed - that's a different question.

I have a lot of sympathy for these points of view, since I have been using and creating technology for many years. At a young age I was fascinated by technology - in elementary school we had a Mac or two adorning the back wall of each classroom. They came with a simple programming language named, appropriately enough, Basic, and we played with it, learning how to display lines on the screen, print out nasty things about the teacher, and generally have fun while learning. But that was pre-internet, pre-Google, and even pre-CD-ROM encyclopedia. "Networking" meant saving a document on a disk and walking it down the hall to another computer. Answers were available on this computer only if you chose to spend the effort necessary to find them yourself.

In my interview with a veteran science teacher, he referred to the need for students to also have the ability to work it out for themselves. "We're all tempted to take the path of least resistance," he said, but we need to be able to use all kinds of resources, including print, and be able to work from first principles to more complex knowledge. He saw the need for so-called "21st century" skills, including synthesis of many different resources to create something new, or at least a new perspective, but worried that "many don't do this."

In the already-mentioned article "Is Google Making Us Stupid," Carr travels back in time a few thousand years to Plato's Phaedrus. Socrates is lamenting the then-young science of writing, which he felt would be detrimental to the exercise of memory. Even worse, people could read the wisdom of others as codified in a written manuscript, parrot it to others, and then "be thought very knowledgeable when they are for the most part quite ignorant." Quel dommage! Very obviously, as another ancient writer wearily noted, there is nothing new under the sun: we have been complaining about how easy the younger generation has it for millennia.

But the point is worth considering. Whether in Science or English class, what good is it to educate, to teach, and to train, if students will simply search for someone else's answer? Is this the sort of intelligence that is privileged by technology … whether the means of transmission is an animal-skin manuscript or a networked relational database?

A caution here would be to distinguish between what technology *enables* and what it *privileges*. Certainly, digital technology enables re-use of existing knowledge. But is that all? The

Partnership for 21st Century Skills is fairly sure they know what skills technology enables, privileges, and, indeed, *demands* from today's learners.

The Partnership, of course, is an American coalition of businesspeople, politicians, and educators who together have formed a framework laying out the skills they see students needing in the future. Critical skills they identify include synthesis skills: skills to find information, manipulate it, assess it, and create new information based on it. The Partnership is very open about their purpose: building "effective citizens, workers and leaders.[25]" And the reason for their existence is no secret either: current educational models and practice are not meeting the need. As their mission states:

> There is a profound gap between the knowledge and skills most students learn in school and the knowledge and skills they need in typical 21st century communities and workplaces (Partnership, 2009).

While there's some reason to be skeptical of coalitions such as the Partnership, and to carefully consider not only their composition but also motivation, there is no reason to throw out the baby with the bathwater. Many researchers and practitioners agree, some going so far as to say that the old "3Rs" are not as relevant today as the new "3Rs:" rigor, relevance, and real world skills (McCoog, 2008). Alexander travels a similar path and discusses "emerging multiliteracies" in a connected, web2.0 world (2009).

The reality is, in my opinion, that the historically recent flood of data that inundates learners today is both qualitatively and quantitatively different from the media and technologies that we've had in the past. There is a validity to the need for new skills and abilities that will equip students for coping with an overload of information … and building strategies for sorting, evaluating, and using information.

The veteran teacher I interviewed recognized that as well. Technology has a plenty of worthwhile educational value in addition to its dangers. He particularly cited computerized lab simulations, which enable students to run in virtual reality what they could never do in reality – such as change the mass of planets and see how their orbits are affected. Particularly, he appreciated the fact that simulations can be run and re-run with different starting presets. These are fun, quick, and visual, he said, and that not only appeals to a certain type of student, it also makes "real" (in spite of the virtuality) what can be complex, abstract ideas. This, he said, accelerates learning. I agree. Shift is necessary in the way we teach, to some extent in what we teach, and also in how we assess knowledge.

And yet, caution is in order. Nicholas Carr quotes Tufts University developmental psychologist and author Maryanne Wolf, "We are not only what we read. We are how we read" (Car, 2008). Her point, I think, is broader than reading. It's a similar point – perhaps even the same, restated – as McLuhan's medium is the message. Using the digital oracle qua oracle *will* make us stupid – potentially causing us to resemble Orwell's remnants of the leisure class in The Time Traveller, the Eloi, who have relied so much on others to work and think for them that they have lost the ability themselves, and degenerated into a colorful, simplistic, almost non-sapient species.

We need to realize that instant search and retrieval is not intelligence; it is fuel for intelligence. That fuel can be utilized and harnessed with 21st century skills … but not at the cost of some very basic 20th century skills. For example, acquiring higher-level math skills without knowing, instantly and almost subconsciously, the basic math facts, is very difficult (Lee, Stansbery, Kubina, Wannarka, 2005). The challenge is that mental energy and limited short-term memory slots are expended on the basic math facts and are unavailable for the higher-order operations: it's simply too CPU-intensive. There are corollaries, I think, in many disciplines, especially the sciences. Data can't be efficiently used to construct higher order knowledge when none of it is readily, instantly available in the learner's own brain.

So here's the sythesis: we need 21st Century Skills … without losing some of the 20th century smarts. Without the "21st Century" skills, we will not be able to cope with the never-ending datastream. Without the 20th century smarts, we will not be able to do more than parrot, and sometimes rearrange, ideas that others thought before us.

This will help us learn in science, math, and all subject classes … and it will enable whatever it is that we call "intelligence." Even in the age of Google.

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Questioning Omnipotence in the Information Society: From the Case Study of Social Education

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Abstract

Formerly, an intellectual storage who is "well-informed like an encyclopedia" was one of the models for intellectuals especially in humane-social scientific studies. However, now that accessibility for information has highly promoted. As a result, from the non-specialist's side, storage model of an intellectual is supposed to be nothing. Actually we see people who ends up learning with saying "Oh, we can google it! That is enough". But being theoretically omnipotent is never identified with one's actual situation. This paper perceives this 'omnipotence' in information society as problem and would like to investigate theory of reflexivity and cases of social education.

1. Omnipotence in information society

OVER-RATIONALIZATION AND CHANGING INTELLECTUAL MODEL
   Generally speaking, in the process of an education, rationalizing and innovating its course curriculum is an essential factor. We endeavor to realize highly efficient, calculable curriculum. However, on the other hand, as the sociologist George Ritzer insisted on his literature *The McDonaldization of Society* (1993), these kinds of requirement sometime may be puffed up and become too extreme. Nobody hope education process to be extended to over-rationalization like in manuals of fast-food restaurant.
   Similar over-rationalization is seen as a result of social change. Recently, we often confront a term "informatization" or "information Society" in various field. If this definition of "informatization" corresponds to utilizing ICT and to enhance accessibility to information, the ranges of the effects extend to all fields in the society without exception: e.g. private life, management, social welfare, and above all education.
   Formerly, an intellectual storage who is "well-informed like an encyclopedia" was one of the models for intellectuals especially in humane-social scientific studies. However, as mentioned above, now that accessibility for information of all people has highly promoted. As a result, from the non-professional's side, we can obstinately insist that the storage model of an intellectual is supposed to be nothing. Actually we see a student who ends up learning with saying "Oh, we can google it! That is enough".

OMNIPOTENCE IN LEARNING
   Undoubtedly more or less this tendency supported by information accessibility affects our recognition around memorizing. But being theoretically omnipotent is never identified with one's actual situation[i]. If we regard electrical storage as one's external brain, most of endeavor to memorizing become devalued except in primal education period. This paper perceives this 'omnipotence' in information society as problem. This extreme thought [omnipotence] might be harmful in education especially when it is seen as fields of knowledge production.
   Exactly same omnipotence is seen when companies adopt ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning) software on their management, which sometimes results in disappointment. We trust ICT so much that we forget the gap between theoretical (or rational) calculation and actual situation of our action. On the actual spot, various information systems are used by nothing but a human.
   However what is in background to be omnipotent? In half going along with technological determinism, omnipotence is based on rationality. Therefore below this paper investigates (1) sociological theories of reflexivity [in section 2], and (2) cases of social education in a school and other educational activity [in section 3] according to the context of "information society" below.

2.Two versions of reflexivity supporting rationality in information society

REFLEXIVITY-A
   In information society, we have to take reflexivity into account in the context of theoretical (or rational) calculation.

According to Giddens, the concept of reflexivity is classified into two versions　Giddens 1976,1992,1999　. First one is "reflexive monitoring of action" [reflexivity-A]. This reflexivity is so to speak a mechanism inside individual and this is　thought in agent frame level.
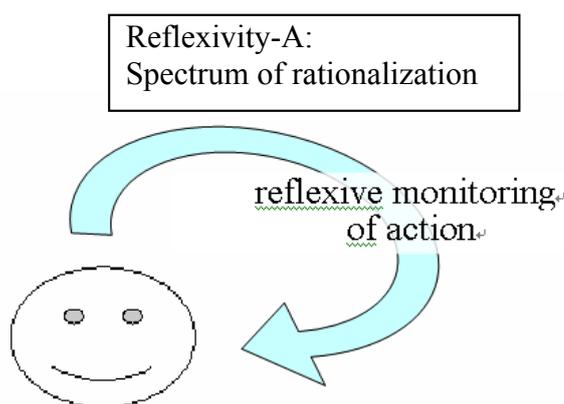
The most basic one is associated with action. To be an agent means understanding oneself as an agent, and others have to accept these actions and understandings. Giddens 1999: 203.

Reflexivity in this meaning indicates "individualistic, deliberate and intentional" "reflection" Lash 1993=1998, 364.Giddens calls this operation of reflexivity a "reflexive monitoring of action" according to ethnomethodology　Giddens 1976:156　1990a:36-8 Upward 1997

REFLEXIVITY-B

On the ground of above reflexivity-A, reflexivity in second version [reflexivity-B] come to an issue. This is so to say phenomena in general information environment and called institutional/social reflexivity.

The other meanings of reflexivity is social reflexivity, which is about living in a society where large amounts of information come to us, which we have to make sense of　Giddens 1999: 203

These reflexivity come from the fact that our recognition for society is always united with reflection and are applied to knowledge or meaning Obrien 1999, 25. As Scott Lash observes "Reflexivity is alike a reflex action"　Lash 1993=1998, 364, "This concept of reflexivity which is quoted for describing social life continually enter into and transform knowledge or meaning"[ii] Giddens 1992:28-9　. For instance from the dialogue of Giddens and George Solos, let's look at inherent instability which market has. Giddens says,

"They (borrowers, savers and speculators) are defined by how people understand the information they have and how they slot it back into the system. Everyone is trying to outguess everyone else, knowing that situation to be the case. These reactions constitute what financial markets actually are"　Giddens 1999: 203 .

In a market where players intend to forecast and bypass each other, everyone knows enough "others, like himself, are making expectation by using holding information". If only you can make rational selection among another irrational player, there must be absolute stability [although this is impossible assumption]. However, in actual market, being rational not always result in stability (expected conclusion). On the contrary, the more rational you analyze [or pay cost for expectation], the more anxious you become[iii]. Here emerges nothing but a dilemma "corrupts of rationality by introduction of rationality itself." This is outstanding feature of reflexive modernity [reflexivity-B].

"[our world become open and contingent] because of not in spite of, the knowledge that we have accumulated about ourselves and about the material environment"　Giddens 1994 58

As we saw example of market, there are denial of rationality by rationality itself. Here the premise "the more we get knowledge about social and natural world, the we gain control for the world" no longer hold good[iv] Giddens 1994: 57. The fact is at all contrary. Possibilities of expectation often decrease.

> "As a result, principle of thorough skepticism reflects on that principle itself. Skepticism as a principle for action has possibility making confusion in daily life."   Giddens 1994: 346

Since "Methodological skepticism" which offers a ground for rationality fo professional knowledge reflexively enter against itself, possibility to expectation is gradually demolished. This is what we saw in dilemma of rationality. For example, let's suppose there new medical treatment using human genome was discovered. Even that medical treatment was on the ground of top level world medical science, we will wonder after rational consideration "Hey.. Is this 100% safe for human body?", "What about accident…", "Are there any risk ?" and so on. These kinds of instability occur all because we are being rational [as far as that risk is measurable]. This means rational and reflexive modernity started to reflect itself. "What if modernity start to reflect by itself, with having noticed extreme behavior and devastating conquest [mental, physical and social]?" Lash 1994: 210 Many principles itself which supported modernity will be doubted.

3. Related Cases and Conclusion

According to theory of reflexivity-B, nothing but "Methodological skepticism" offers a ground for rationality or theoretical calculation in this information society. Reflexively even enter against itself and sometimes destroy base of rationality itself. On these grounds of omnipotence in information society or technological determinism, let us take some cases in the fields of social education, and then summarize the paper. On the contrary to having omnipotency, cases we focus are located in remote place and poor information accessibility [TV, Internet, Mobile phone etc.].

Reflexivity-B:
Spectrum of rationalization
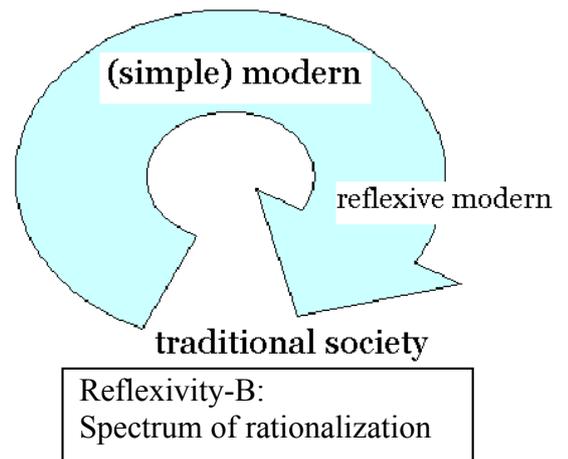
CASES OF YOUTH HOSTELS

We would like to focus cases of several Youth Hostels. With using little material available and based on participative observation, N.Abe (2009) gave description for the state of these hostels [and chronicles of old-time youth hostel in Japan]. With isolated environment, in these hostels, a sticky, human service together with the people called "Helper" is famous. They sing, play the guitar, dance, and make special atmosphere. The owner of youth hostel is called "Parent" (many youth hostels abolished this now). And "helper" is the person in charge of care.

Even though original evolution accomplished at each hostel is seen, the prototype of this kind of hospitality goes back to the youth hostel in bell époque [including the public hostels and the private hostels or National Children's Center in Japan]. Many youth hostels once used to wear a kind of partly "public" atmosphere. It could be identified with the nuance "social education" because (a) it had a strict rule and (b) a family modeled service in each facility[v]. As for (b), there was apparently a pseudofamily based on the "Parent = helper" system[vi]. As for (a), from strict punctuality to duty of cleaning works, hosteller is bounded by many rules during stay.

TURNAROUND OF VALUE

From the viewpoint of rational circulation, these hostels do not appear to be attractive. Rather, as a matter of fact, in spite of above negative condition far from omnipotence, they have been keeping their business providing special performance. There paradoxical turnaround of value has occurred.

Human factor is the key here. Due to geographic inconvenience shopping in the convenience store is impossible, not to mention poor accessibility to ICT is available. However in parting from consumptive lifestyle in the city and sea of information, people re-discover creative time for discussion, games or nature observation. These points are attracting travelers[vii].

SUMMARY OF THIS PAPER

In the age of information society featured with reflexive modernity (refrexivity-B), a way not necessarily based on rationality result in reasonable situation. To have omnipotence in the information society [and have 100% faith in technology] was only suitable in the age of simple modernity. We have to recognize the great distance between theoretical potentials of ICT and human as a user of ICT. As shown in cases of youth hostels human factor is essential especially in this age of reflexive modernity.

[i] It is often said that there are gap between just having information ["INFORMATION"] and having knowledge which has its purpose ["KNOWLEDGE"].

[ii] "This concept of reflexivity which is used to outline the social life continually penetrates in and changes knowledge or meanings".

[iii] Same situation is drawn in the theory "Double Hermeneutics" (Giddens 1976)

[iv] According to Giddens, even M. Weber who is famous for his pessimistic attitude went along this image.

[v] If we go back the history of youth hostel, this is understood well. The youth hostel (German name: Jugendherberge) originally was founded as a worldwide system of the movement and accommodations that started by purport of offering a safe, cheap accommodation to the travel of the youth.

[vi] As soon as arriving travelers are welcomed with calling "Welcome home !" because the guests of youth hostel are also contained in the pseudofamily. "Parent" treat the hostellers (=travelers) as if the family had come back even if he come the youth hostel at first time. After all meal on table are arranged by hostellers themselves, dish are taken all together on rigidly fixed time with a greetings "Let's eat" and "Thank you for delicious supper"[exception are hardly permitted]. Every hosteller take burden as dishwasher and a plate wipe.

[vii] Also, "Being bounded by a lot of rules" originally must have negative condition for tourists. However paradoxically, in the cases Abe (2009) focused, this handicap functions reversely to make an intimate and communal interchange. Garbage picking are good examples. In the course of cleaning work, travelers rediscover cleaning as more worthwhile and satisfying work in interpersonal relationship of the community. To have responsible works and to be relied from others could give a chance for self-reform at times, too.

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Examining the effects of idiom teaching with Podcast for the elementary students

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Abstract

This study aimed to compare the effects of traditional idiom teaching and idiom teaching with Podcast, explore the effect of idiom teaching with different modes of Podcast, and investigate the levels of children¡¦s acceptability to Podcast. This study adopted the quasi-experimental method with subjects from the sixth-grade classes of an elementary school in northern Taiwan. A total of 103 students were participated, who were divided into three groups, the Control Group (35 students), the Experiment Group A (35 students), and the Experiment Group B (33 students). The Control Group was implemented with the traditional teaching method, and the Experiment Groups A and B both were implemented with Podcast teaching. Experiment Group A learned the lessons through PCs, and Experiment Group B learned the lessons through a combination of PC+MP4 players. A period of 12 weeks of treatment was implemented. The results were found after the experiments: (1) The children

 from both experiment groups performed better than the children from the control group; (2) No significant difference was found between the two experiment groups implemented with two different modes of Podcast teaching; (3) 89.77% of the children reflected the high level of acceptability to Podcast teaching for Chinese idioms; (4) The children had positive attitudes towards Podcast teaching. They felt good about Podcast teaching becasue it is convenient and helpful; it can access videos and let them know more idioms; it improve language ability; it is useful and interesting; it makes deeper impression (easier to remember), and thy can use Podcast to search those they have not learned before; (5) Students liked the way of learning through MP4 players, but they thought MP4 was for music and videos; using it for learning was the last option.

   This study is significant because it provides guidelines and suggestions to teachers and instructional designers for integrating Podcast into idiom and language teaching.

keywords = idiom teaching , teaching and learning with Podcast,ICT in education, m-learning

Education for Global Solutions: Fostering Globally Minded Students via Technology
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Abstract
How do English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers integrate intercultural awareness in their classrooms? How can intercultural communication be stimulated and developed in a single cultural environment? How can EFL teachers raise their students' interests in global matters and become empathetic with the world?

As the distance between countries gets closer due to technological advancement, socio-economical collaboration, and the rise of intercultural awareness, problems which seem immediate around us also affect other cultures and the global environment. The same technology that in part contributes to these global challenges can also provide opportunities to meet the challenges. Educators today are faced with new professional responsibilities to acquire knowledge from fair and global perspectives and to foster their students with the same mentality. A new professional identity should be realized among language teachers (Sercu, 2006) because foreign language studies have the potential to broaden the theory of language acquisition to a deeper understanding of and interest in other cultures.

Intercultural communication competence requires training and guidance in positive and logical directions. This calls for a new pedagogical recognition among teachers and the passion to research and study in order to design innovative curricula for our students. EFL teachers can build students' language skills by incorporating new kinds of activities in intercultural learning. Computer-assisted activities such as Web searches, face-to-face communication, and information exchanges are all great tools to aid in the process of intercultural understanding. However, teachers must be competent in using technology before undertaking intercultural projects in their classes. Most importantly, teachers must adopt the pedagogical understanding of guiding students through various cultural learning projects (Gersh, 2004).

Inquiry-based instruction with technology-enhanced global learning can be incorporated into EFL courses to raise students' intercultural interests. Topics selected by teachers should have the purpose of helping students make connections to their previous and current knowledge and arousing questions and interests for research. Technology-assisted global learning has enormous potential for EFL teachers to utilize in their curriculum.

Terms the writer uses for some example instructions are "guided research," "individual research," and "collaborative learning." In guided research, students browse the Web for sources related to the topic raised in class. In this case, the teacher is the center of the class, guiding the students by giving words and directions for Web exploration. This strategy is suitable for students who have access to a computer during class time. Individual research can be assigned as homework. Students explore the topic raised in class and search Web sites for further learning on this subject. Teacher-guided class discussion can teach students problem solving and critical thinking skills. Guided research and individual research are important in a single-culture environment, for the Internet is the fastest way to get to know different cultures. Finally, collaborative learning during which students can communicate face to face on the Web will raise their interest in learning more about the foreign cultures behind the people they meet online.

Introduction
The intertwining relationships between countries in the world make intercultural awareness a necessary knowledge. The progress of collaboration, interdependency, and involvement among nations in the world will continue. Four trends of growth and change in the world stated by Stward are (1) economy, (2) science and technology, (3) health, nature, and security issues and (4) change in world demographics (Steward, 2006). A local, regional, or national issue of a country could ultimately have an effect on a larger scale, such as the global change of climate. Global learning and intercultural awareness should be part of our education to prepare our future generations for a more developed and complex global reality. The Internet can be the window to the learning of cultures and global issues.

There are two reasons for cross-cultural and global learning via EFL courses with technology integration. First, English is the number one language presented online (37.2%), followed by Chinese (23.5%) and Spanish (32%) (Internet World Statistics, 2009). English is also the most studied foreign language in Europe (Sharma, 2008) and East Asia. (Adams &Hirsch,2007). The feasibility to use the Internet for acquiring new knowledge and cultural exchange in English among both English and non-English speaking countries remains greater than using

other foreign languages. This paper will discuss the teachers' role and students' motivation and will review the intercultural and global learning activities carried out in four EFL classes in a Japanese University.

English as a Foreign Language: Teachers' Role, Students' Motivation

Rapid globalization has given teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) new responsibilities for their own learning of intercultural competence and fostering their students with the same mentality. The changing world and the growing relationship between countries have brought global issues to our doorstep and classrooms (VanReken & Rushmore, 2009). The speed of such socio-economic progress requires these teachers to expand their sources of teaching from textbooks to a more pragmatic method, such as the assistance of technology (Kraemer, 2006). The Internet is one source which brought the world closer by linking people of different languages and cultures through communication exchange and by reading the vast information available on international matters. With the expanding English learning all over the world, it is likely that the portion of English websites written by non-native English-speaking countries will increase and that it will become the main communicative language globally. English as a foreign language curriculum, once viewed as learning language skills, is now being realized as a connection to foreign cultures, which leads to intercultural awareness. This connection can be effectively linked by the wide and constantly updated sources of the World Wide Web and actual communication with people of different cultures. Intercultural awareness is the first step towards developing intercultural competence and the skill we need in this emerging globalizing world. EFL teachers are in transition from a language coach to a mentor who opens the door to intercultural awareness.

Japanese university students continue to study English after six years of compulsory English classes beginning in their junior high school or seventh grade. English is divided into basically four disciplines: grammar, reading, writing, and exam preparation. These detailed categories are designed to ensure the accuracy and proficiency of English; however, students do not have a clear idea of what English can be used for beyond fulfilling the compulsory requirement and passing the university entrance exam. According to the writer's survey of her university students' opinion of English usage, among 126 students, over 90 percent of the students wrote that English was primarily used for "travel" and "at the work place" (see Appendix A). There was no answer linking to socio-economic, cultural, or global issues. This lack of awareness leads to their lack of motivation in studying English. Motivation has been a topic of and continuous effort for educators in the English language field in Japan. It is natural for students to lose their interest in English after six years of compulsory studies and to continue to study it in university without knowing the possibility of its expansion. A purpose which can arouse student interest to use English in the future is needed to keep this knowledge alive. Using English as a tool to learn about the world can motivate learning and set a purpose for lifelong learning. With the current technology and its accessibility, the goal of learning intercultural matters can be realized via technology integrated in university English classes.

Defining globalization

At the beginning of fall semester, 2008, the author conducted a questionnaire among 126 Japanese university students on their definition and perception of the word "globalization." This questionnaire has two parts: a qualitative section in which students could write their answers freely and a multiple choice section that includes true/false questions as well (see Appendices A and B). In the qualitative portion, the author asked students to write any words that come to their mind when they heard the word "globalization." The top three most-written answers were "economy" (30%), "culture" (28%), and "foreign language" (46%). There were other answers as well, such as "sports," "music," "Internet," etc. (Appendix A). The other set of research questions, which included two multiple choice questions and five true/false questions, was then presented to the students (Appendix B). The answers selected from the multiple choice questions indicated that most students do not understand that globalization is more than just the interaction among people all over the world. The number of students who selected "international company relations," "government," "politics," "culture," and "environment" was relatively small (Appendix B). When asked if "surfing the Internet" can act as a way to learn about global matters and if foreign language learning is a process toward globalization, most students answered true (Appendix B). The writer found the true/false responses optimistic as an initial step toward possibly bringing intercultural learning into her classroom.

Discussion

Two discussion exercises followed the questionnaire. A class discussion was conducted after the small group discussion on the topic of globalization and how to learn more about the subject. Comments on the lack of exposure to intercultural input were expressed by most students in class. The result of the discussion indicated that students are aware of the importance of being interculturally competent and that technology can lead to vast cultural learning about the world. However, this exercise shows that teacher facilitation of linking students to an understanding of global issues is essential.

Practice of intercultural research and activities
Internet research activities on foreign cultures were assigned to foster Japanese university student independency and active leaning. The purpose was for students to search the information, analyze it, and become aware of the differences and similarities of other cultures. All tasks were carried out in English. In order to avoid stereotyping and giving preconceptions, the activities are student centered without lecture on the subjects prior to research. However, the teacher used guided research by listing useful related vocabulary and phrases pertaining to the research topic. One example of the activities was for the students to learn about the employment and social system of foreign countries. Instead of the traditional style of using a text and lecture, students were assigned independent research to search employment information of an overseas company through the Internet. Students were told that it was a hypothetical scenario to search for their future employment overseas and that there was no limit to the countries as long as the employment information was provided in English. Class discussions on their findings were the key to learning about different cultures. Students' research results led to the topics of labor rights, pension systems, company benefits, holidays, and many more. The class discussions aroused the comparison of the Japanese and foreign culture in the areas of working conditions, standard of living, and lifestyle. New knowledge made a more profound impression when the information was actively searched and discussed by the students. The teacher served as a guide, leading students to become the leader of their own learning.

The EFL teacher's challenges
EFL teachers have new challenges as the world changes rapidly. Added to the responsibilities of language skill delivery, another responsibility is to incorporate cultural learning in instruction in order to bring awareness of cultures other than the English-speaking countries into classrooms. It has become evident to this author that the larger the portion of intercultural learning and activities done in class, the more the changes in student attitudes and their preconception of the world; as a result of learning about new cultures, students become friendlier and more tolerant of differences. By learning the differences and similarities among cultures, students can re-examine their own cultures, draw new conclusions of their perspective, and empathise with other countries, not only the English-speaking ones (Larzen, 2005). This new challenge also requires self-evaluations of a teacher's personal and professional concepts and teaching practice (Lies, 2005). In order for teachers to promote intercultural competence, they need to be surveyed as to their degree of intercultural understanding and the methods of promoting it (Sercu, 2006). Teachers cross-culturally should take more active roles in conducting collaborative learning to raise intercultural awareness and English skills among their students.

Active researcher
Learning is an ongoing process for both teachers and the students. As world affairs continue to change and technology advances daily, the tasks for teachers to research new pedagogical methods, updated course materials, and technological exploration are inevitable. There is a need for more pragmatic methods of teaching foreign languages and their cultures (Kraemer, 2006). The vast and constantly updated information on the World Wide Web can assist EFL teachers in bringing intercultural awareness to their students. At the same time, teachers should conduct research on their students to examine the effectiveness of the curriculum for improvement or alternation. Such research can be conducted through questionnaires, discussion activities, observation, reflection, and analysis of the class. Educational research should be a continuous effort in order to strive for positive influences on our next generation.

Summary
The purpose and philosophy behind foreign language learning should be reconsidered in light of its socio-cultural responsibilities. Globalization is growing so rapidly that educators are challenged to design curricula that raise intercultural awareness and competence. Foreign language studies are evolving from merely acquiring language skills toward a depth that leads to tolerance, acceptance, and recognition of the world around us. The speed of intercultural development requires innovative teaching pedagogy in the foreign language curriculum. Information on the World Wide Web and via other technology can be incorporated into the curriculum to raise intercultural awareness and competence. Continuous effort in active research of the effectiveness of this philosophy on teaching and learning can lead to positive results both in student language skills and their perception of the world.

Appendix A
Globalization: Qualitative Questionnaire

1. When you see or hear the word "globalization," what 5 words or things come to mind?

Results

Economy	Culture	Foreign Language	Other
30%	28%	46%	0%

Note: These percentages overlap. The actual percentage of students who wrote all three words is only 17%.

2. When you see or hear the word "global," what 10 countries come to mind?

Results

Rank from the most answered countries:

1	U.S.		9	Germany
2	Great Britain		10	Italy
3	Australia		Others	Mexico, Brazil, Singapore
4	Canada			
5	Japan			
6	China			
7	Korea			
8	Russia			

3. What 3 issues concern us globally?

Results

Economy	Global warming	War	No Answer
30%	12%	7%	0%

Note: These percentages overlap.

4. What does it mean to be a global citizen?

Results

Over 90 percent of the students expressed that they did not know how to answer this question for two reasons: They have never considered or been taught the concept of being a global citizen, and thus they don't understand the question.

5. How do you think English plays a part in globalization?

Results

Forty-two percent of the students answered "communication." Other answers included "trade," "economy," and "travel."

Appendix B

Globalization Survey

1. Globalization is the interaction among
       a.   people all over the world
       b.   companies all over the world (international company relations)
       c.   governments all over the world
       d.   only the leading economic countries
       e.   not sure

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

a. 67%	c. 2%
b. 2%	d. 2%
e. 27%	

2. Globalization has an effect on
       a.   the environment
       b.   cultures
       c.   political systems
       d.   economic development
       e.   not sure

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

a. 11%	c. 12%
b. 8%	d. 4%
e. 65%	

3. Being eco-friendly is not part of globalization. T F

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

T (67%)	F (33%)

4. Internet surfing can be a way to learn about global matters. T F

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

T (89%)	F (11%)

5. Travelling, telephone communication, and the Internet is part of what makes up globalization. T F

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

T (92%)	F (8%)

6. Learning a foreign language is a process toward globalization. T F

Results

Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

T (68%)	F (32%)

7. Learning many foreign cultures is a good way to know the world. T F

Results
Percentage of answers selected among 126 students

T (88%)	F (12%)

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Ethics Education in Business Schools: An Australian Perspective

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Abstract

The Global Financial Crisis and corporate collapses due to unethical and corrupt behaviour has prompted calls for business ethics to be taught to tomorrow's business leaders. This paper provides a detailed overview of the ethics education debate in terms of the empirical, conceptual and pedagogical research. The main arguments and impediments against ethics education are also identified. A survey of ethics courses in Australian business schools provides context to the discussion.

Introduction

The Global Financial Crisis has triggered renewed debate and interest in the necessity and effectiveness of teaching ethics and corporate responsibility in business schools. In particular, the collapse of major financial institutions such as Lehman Brothers and Bear Stearns and the large government bailouts to corporate institutions such as Chrysler and General Motors raised questions about the degree that executive culpability and unethical and corrupt behaviour contributed to corporate mismanagement. The epicentre of the GFC has been the US and unsurprisingly the debate over the role business schools has been most intense in that country.

The debate over the responsibility of business schools is not new. Corporate excesses of the late 1990s and early 2000s prompted debate and reflection. A 1999 survey of Harvard Business School (HBS) alumni revealed that they thought that "morals, ethics, and values" were by far the most important subject that business schools should teach (HBS, 2009).

Some advancements were noted in the following years, particularly in the wake of the Enron and Worldcom scandals of 2002. The corporate collapses of 2002 prompted HBS to introduce a compulsory course, 'Leadership and Corporate Accountability' in the 2005-06 academic year. Some leading American business schools responded by developing their ethical oaths for students. In 2006, the Board of Trustees of the Thunderbird Global School of Management voted to formally assimilate an oath into the application process, the curriculum and at graduation, when students will be asked to sign it voluntarily. Hundreds of students have voluntarily signed a version of the oath in the past few years. The oath guarantees that Thunderbird candidates are aware that enrolling at the School means agreeing to share the community's core values (see oaths in Figure 1). In the same year, Columbia Business School introduced an honour code, devised jointly by the School students, the faculty and the administration. In 2009, MBA students at HBS developed and introduced their own oath to "create value responsibly and ethically" for graduation ceremonies. (See Table 1 below.) The students produced the oath partly in response to the challenge laid down by Harvard professors Rakesh Khurana and Nitin Nohria in a Harvard Business Review article in October 2008 – *It's Time to Make Management a True Profession* – that championed the crafting of a pledge that articulates the ideals and social purposes of management, akin to the Hippocratic oath taken by doctors. The original aim was to gather at least 100 signatories from among the 900-strong graduating class of 2009 yet the idea has struck such a chord with MBA students around the world that people from 115 countries representing 49 languages have also signed up (Businessweek June 11, 2009). According to the website www.mbaoath.com, 50 per cent of the class signed as of September 2009.

Business schools appear to have made some progress in teaching of ethics and corporate social responsibility (CSR) over the past decade. A 2007 study of ethics, sustainability, and CSR programs from the U.K's *Financial Times* top 50 business schools found an increase in the number of stand-alone ethics courses offered to 25 per cent of respondents, up from 5 per cent in a 1988 study. Over one-third of the business schools now mandate inclusion of all three subjects in their curriculum, while 84 per cent require mandatory courses in at least one of the topics (Christensen et al, 2007).

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Figure 1: Business School Oaths

Columbia Business School (2006)
"As a lifelong member of the Columbia Business School community, I adhere to the principles of truth, integrity, and respect. I will not lie, cheat, steal, or tolerate those who do."

Thunderbird Global School of Management (2006)

"As a Thunderbird and a global citizen, I promise: I will strive to act with honesty and integrity; I will respect the rights and dignity of all people; I will strive to create sustainable prosperity worldwide; I will oppose all forms of corruption and exploitation; and I will take responsibility for my actions. As I hold true to these principles, it is my hope that I may enjoy an honorable reputation and peace of conscience. This pledge I make freely and upon my honor."

Harvard Business School (2009)

'I promise:

- I will act with utmost integrity and pursue my work in an ethical manner.
- I will safeguard the interests of my shareholders, co-workers, customers and the society in which we operate.
- I will manage my enterprise in good faith, guarding against decisions and behavior that advance my own narrow ambitions but harm the enterprise and the societies it serves.
- I will understand and uphold, both in letter and in spirit, the laws and contracts governing my own conduct and that of my enterprise.
- I will take responsibility for my actions, and will represent the performance and risks of my enterprise accurately and honestly.
- I will develop both myself and other managers under my supervision so that the profession continues to grow and contribute to the well-being of society.
- I will strive to create sustainable economic, social, and environmental prosperity worldwide.
- I will be accountable to my peers and they will be accountable to me for living by this oath.'

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Despite these efforts and apparent increases in the teaching of business ethics, the criticism of business schools lack of ethics teaching remains strong. Penn State management Professor Denis Gioia observed in 2002 that "the teaching of ethics, corporate social responsibility, and other business-and-society courses has been marginalized – assumed to be some sort of trifling requirement that students should get out of the way quickly, so they can get on with the other 'more important' things" (Gioia, 2002, p.143). More recently, Harvard MBA graduate Philip Delves Broughton authored a searing indictment of MBAs in general and Harvard Business School in particular in an opinion piece in the London Times of March 1, 2009. According to Broughton, when the School celebrated its 100th birthday in October 2008, Dean Jay Light, in commentating on the impact of the GFC on the American financial system, said that '[w]e will leave the talk of fixing the blame to others. That is not very interesting. But we must be involved in fact in fixing the problem" (quoted by Broughton, March 1, 2009). Broughton suggested that "the very people who blew apart the world's financial plumbing (are) now demanding to fix the leak" (op.cit.). He pointed out that Larry Page and Sergey Brin (Google), Bill Gates (Microsoft), Michael Dell (Dell Computers), Richard Branson (Virgin brands) have no MBAs between them. Australia's most famous entrepreneur and one of its richest businessmen, Frank Lowy, who had little formal schooling co-founded the Westfield Group, now the world's largest listed retail property group with interests in 119 shopping centres in the US.

In June 2009 Joel Podolny, former dean of Yale School of Management and professor at Harvard Business School, and now vice president and dean of Apple Inc.'s Apple University, wrote that he was "angry about the inattention to ethics and values-based leadership in business schools" (Podolny, 2009). Podolny was angry at a number of things: that "the degree of contrition…at business schools…seems small compared with the magnitude of the offense"; about "disciplinary silos in which business schools teach management"; that "many academics aren't curious about what really goes on in companies". Podolny admits that people "just don't simply trust in business schools; they actively distrust them (Podolny, 2009, p.66).

Background to ethics education in business schools

Business ethics as an academic discipline is relatively young. De George (1987) contends that business ethics had become an academic field by 1985. By then, there were several journals on the topic, a number of bibliographies, and, most significantly, over 500 courses involving 40,000 students receiving academic credit for studying the field (George 1987, p.203). The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) is the major and oldest accrediting body for business schools in the world, dating back to 1919. Its policies and dictates have a large impact on the way schools undertake curriculum planning and craft their pedagogical approaches. Over the years, AACSB's approach to the teaching of business ethics has shifted. The year 1974 was the first time it enunciated the requirement for ethics to be taught in the form of specific courses or learning activities in the core curriculum. These requirements were eased in 1991 when AACSB shifted to a mission-based accreditation approach. However, in the wake of the corporate scandals of the early 2000s, it

proposed new standards, urging business schools to give the teaching of ethics a higher priority (cited by Sims & Felton, 2006, p.297). This proved a false dawn for advocates of ethics education, with the new requirements focusing on embedding ethics education across the curriculum rather than on the development of individual moral reasoning skills in stand-alone courses. Swanson (2004) labelled the AACSB response as "dangerous myopia" and concluded that "AACSB's accountability for ethics education was weak to non-existent" (Swanson 2004, p.43). Two leading scholars of ethics education warned that the shift to 'embedding' ethical discussions across the curriculum without any foundation coursework may turn out to be "little more than Pavlov-like conditioning of students to fear legal penalties" (Sims and Felton 2006 p.298). One of the consequences was that the US-based Society for Business Ethics encouraged its members to write to AACSB in support of more stringent requirements.

One of the interesting developments of ethics education in higher education institutions has been the establishment of think tanks and research centres devoted to the field. Table 1 lists some of the main US centres. Centres such as these have been strong advocates of greater commitment to ethics education by universities in general and business schools in particular.

Table 1: Selected US Business School-Affiliated Ethics Think Tanks & Research Centres

Centre	Year Est	Institution	Mission
Center for Business Ethics www.bentley.edu/cbe	1976	Bentley University	To foster the creation of organizational cultures that align effective business performance with ethical business conduct.
Center for Corporate Citizenship www.bcccc.net	1985	Boston College	To establish corporate citizenship as a business essential.
Center for Ethical Business Cultures www.cebcglobal.org	1988	University of Minnesota	To foster the fairness and integrity of business relationships in the emerging global marketplace.
The Carol and Lawrence Zicklin Center for Business Ethics Research www.zicklincenter.org	1997	Wharton School	To sponsor and disseminate leading edge research on critical topics in business ethics.
Business Roundtable Institute for Corporate Affairs www.darden.virginia.edu/corporate-ethics	2004	University of Virginia	To renew and enhance the link between ethical behavior and business practice.
Institute for Corporate Responsibility www.business.gwu.edu/icr	2006	The George Washington University	To be the world's leading intellectual center for scholarship in the field of corporate responsibility and to be recognized as such.

The Debate over Teaching of Business Ethics

Proponents of the teaching of business ethics face a number of obstacles. These will be discussed here, with reference made to relevant empirical research and discussion papers.

Firstly, departments within business schools still teach in their disciplinary silos, according to the functions of management. Ethics is often ignored because it does not fit neatly into conventional academic disciplines. The incidence of cross-disciplinary approaches within the one department is rare. This so-called balkanization of business schools shows no indication changing (Podolny 2009). While there is a trend, particularly in North America, for cross-disciplinary teaching teams that attempt to reflect the organizational complexity of the modern firm, the success and the level of commitment has been mixed. Few business schools have an ethicist on the faculty (Oddo 1997; Bampton and Maclaglan 2004).

Secondly, academics tend to shy away from normative aspects of business and ethics appears qualitative, subjective and lacking a sound empirical base. While the argument is undeniable, strategies for 'training the trainers' have been proposed and tested. Baetz and Sharp (2004) argue resistance to teaching business ethics and CSR would be lessened if more teaching support were provided for training non-ethicists in teaching ethics. Brinkman and Sims (2001) urge the development of faculty-wide support systems for teaching business ethics rather than devolving responsibility to a small number of faculty.

A related criticism that ethics is difficult to teach and assess does not withstand scrutiny. One major contributor in this area has been KPMG with its T*he Ethical Compass – A Toolkit for Integrity in Business*, a multi-part toolkit of classroom learning materials developed in cooperation with KPMG's Ethics and Compliance Group and Dr Barbara Porco of Fordham University. The bulk of the teaching materials, scenarios and case-studies can be applied to accounting and non-accounting business students alike.

Thirdly, many academics believe that ethical behaviour cannot and should not be taught to university students; to be effective, the teaching of values and moral judgement can only be the preserve of the home or primary school. By the time young people reach university their values and moral compasses are generally determined (Hindo 2002). Moreover, Donaldson argues that that education about ethics can produce "unanticipated negative consequences that render ethics education ineffectual or counter-productive" (Donaldson, 2008, p. 301). Determining the ideal stage of an individual's cognitive development to teach ethics and moral reasoning is complex and beyond the scope of this paper.

What is clear is that the call for more ethics teaching is increasing. A Businessweek survey of its readers in 2003 found that 64 per cent thought that ethics should be a required, stand-alone course for MBA students, while 27 per cent think it should not be taught separately, but rather should be woven into existing coursework for disciplines such as accounting, finance, and marketing. Just 2.25 per cent of those who replied said MBAs should not receive ethics training. The key goal of any such course must be increasing the likelihood that these students will make ethical choices in the future (Williams and Dewett 2005; Bampton and Maclaglan 2005).

Fourthly, a major challenge facing educators of business ethics is convincing students, especially undergraduates, that ethical behaviour is important. There are two dimensions at work here. The first is the nature of the challenge. It may be possible that the 'typical' business school student is more predisposed toward unethical behaviour compared to his or her non-business counterparts. Lane, Schaupp & Parsons (1988) identified a 'winning is everything' mentality among undergraduate and postgraduate business students and concluded that the 'ethical' behaviour they displayed at university was determined largely by the desire to 'pander to professors'. McCabe, Dukerich & Dutton (1991) surveyed the values and ethical decision making of students entering an MBA program and those entering a law degree and found that the former made significantly more unethical choices than their law counterparts. The second dimension is how students can be encouraged to take ethics education seriously. In this regard, Lampe (1997) offers a number of pedagogical approaches that may increase the benefits of ethical understanding by business undergraduates.

Fifthly, even when ethics is taught, a number of content and pedagogical issues emerge. How should it be taught, either in scenarios, real case-studies, current newspaper stories or models of reasoning and ethical decision making? Should ethics be integrated into the curriculum or taught as stand-alone courses? And if the latter, should the course be mandatory or an elective? What is the goal of teaching ethics – to influence behaviour or to change thinking? What examples of unethical behaviour should be discussed – public policy and large corporations, which are the typical examples discussed by students or small and medium-size businesses that constitute the great majority of businesses and the working population? In terms of the debate around integrating ethics education into the curriculum versus stand-alone courses, a number of scholars have advocated the integration of ethics education (Dunfee and Robertson 1988; Gandz and Hayes 1988; Bishop 1992, Trevino and McCabe 1994; Kerr and Smith 1995; Molyneaux 2004; and Hawawini 2005).

Sixthly, serious doubts have been raised about the efficaciousness of the teaching of business ethics on a subsequent behaviour. For advocates of ethics education, this may be the most difficult argument to rebuff. A number of empirical studies over the last almost thirty years have shown no significant difference in ethical decision making between two groups of students, one of whom was exposed to ethics teaching and the other that was not (Martin 1981; Stead and Miller 1988; Pappas and Diskin 2001; Ritter 2006). Indeed, Lowry (2003) found that third year students, who had been exposed to ethics teaching had lower levels of moral awareness than second year students who were yet to receive ethics education.

A few years ago, HBS professor Scott Snook chose fifty students to participate in a detailed survey of their development until graduation in 2006. He reported that about a third of students tended to define right and wrong in terms of what everyone else was doing. "They can't really step back and take a critical view," he said. "They're totally defined by others and by the outcomes of what they're doing" (Broughton, 2009). A similarly unflattering insight was provided in a 2006 study of 5,331 students at 32 graduate schools in the United States and Canada that found that 56 percent of graduate business students -- most of whom are pursuing MBAs –had cheated, compared with 47 percent of graduate students in non-business programs.

A survey of empirical research into the teaching of ethics reveals four categories, as detailed in Table 2: Investigation into business student attitudes toward ethical issues; experiments on impact of ethics education; ethics education pedagogies and approaches; and views and surveys on ethics education. Other academic publications related to business ethics education fall under five categories and are detailed in Table 3: Integrating ethics across the curriculum; techniques for teaching ethics; pedagogy of ethics education; strategies for ethics education; and the importance of ethics education.

Table 2: Categories of Empirical research on Teaching of Business Ethics

Author(s)	Date	Research focus	Results
Experiments on impact of ethics education			
Martin	1981	Business seniors (treatment group) and engineering seniors (control group) were surveyed to test differences in ethical decision making	No significant differences in ethical decision making between the two student cohorts
Stead & Miller	1988	Surveyed students on impact of ethics courses on what social issues they viewed as important	No impact found.
Pappas & Diskin	2001	Comparison of students in different degrees who had taken and not taken ethics courses	No significant differences in ethical decision making between those who had studying ethics and those who had not.
Izzo et al	2006	Testing the effectiveness of interactive ethics teaching approach	Significant differences between treatment and control group in defining key ethical issues and moral judgement
Ritter	2006	Studied impact of ethics training on moral awareness and reasoning using treatment and control groups of business students	No significant differences in ethical decision making between the two student cohorts except for gender where women were more likely to make sound moral judgements after training.
Investigation into business student attitudes toward ethical issues			
Lane, Schaupp & Parsons	1988	Examines the impact of ethics education on undergraduate and postgraduate business students	Students believe in 'winning is everything' mentality and their behaviour at university is determined largely by desire to pander to professors.
McCabe, Dukerich & Dutton	1991	Surveyed values and ethical decision making of students entering an MBA program and a law degree	Entering MBA students made significantly more unethical choices than entering law students.
Stewart, Felicetti & Kuehn	1996	Business majors were tested about their attitudes toward teaching of business ethics	Respondents regarded ethics teaching as important and that they preferred integration into different courses rather than a stand-alone course.
Conaway & Fernandez	2000	Compared business leaders' and business faculty/students' responses to set of ethical scenarios	Significant differences on several scenarios, such as wrongdoing in the workplace and covering up flaws in merchandise or operations.
Lowry	2003	Survey of student levels of moral awareness	Found that final year students had lower levels of moral awareness than second year students.
Ethics education pedagogies and approaches			
Burton, Johnston & Wilson	1991	Tested impact on three different groups to varying ethics teaching methods	Teaching method has differential effect on students' perceptions and attitudes to ethical questions
Cowton & Dunfee	1995	Survey to gauge extent of internationalised business ethics courses in UK & US	Found less than 10 per cent of courses focused on global issues; also identified need for non-US cases.
Hosmer	1999	Survey of teachers' view of their promotion prospects as ethics teachers and researchers	Ethics specialisation counts for little in promotion 'stakes' and that little support is given by management
Macfarlane & Ottewill	2004	Examination of 'ethics' mentions in courses & programs in UK business schools	Small number made explicit mention of 'ethics' and concludes business ethics enjoys marginal position in most business degrees
Views and surveys on ethics education			
Cordeiro	2003	Interviews corporate executives on opinions of ethical standards in business and teaching of ethics	Strong belief that ethics are slipping and that the public believes ethics is slipping

Cowton & Cummins	2003	Survey of ethics teaching at undergrad and postgraduate courses in the UK	Signs that more ethics education is now offered, whether stand-alone courses or embedded in curriculum
Christensen et al	2007	Examined coverage of ethics, CSR and sustainability in leading US business schools.	One third of top 50 FT-ranked schools mandate inclusion of all three topics in curriculum; 84 per cent required mandatory courses in at least one topic.

Table 3: Academic publications on the Teaching of Business Ethics

Author(s)	Date	Main Issue(s)
Integrating ethics across the curriculum		
Dunfee & Robertson	1988	Explains model for integrating ethics into Wharton curriculum
Gandz & Hayes	1988	Business ethics should be integrated part of core curricula
Bishop	1992	Method for integrating business ethics into an undergraduate curriculum
Trevino & McCabe	1994	Advocates an approach of teaching ethics by embedding across courses
Kerr & Smith	1995	Techniques for embedding ethics in accounting courses
Molyneaux	2004	Argues for integrating ethics throughout the accounting curriculum
Hawawini	2005	Argues ethics/corporate social responsibility need to be embedded in core curriculum
Techniques for teaching ethics		
Reeves	1990	Applies Bloom's taxonomy to the teaching of business ethics
Lampe	1997	Strategies and considerations in teaching business ethics to undergraduate students
Schaupp & Lane	1992	Teaching method of ethics courses using real-life occurrences
Desjardins/Diedrich	2003	Explains method for teaching ethical dimensions of product marketing
Maclagan	2003	Discusses the effectiveness of case studies in teaching business ethics
Pedagogy of ethics education		
Oddo	1997	Discusses who should teach and how ethics should be taught
Herndon	1996	Argues for applications of models of ethical decision making
Painter-Morland et al	2003	Discusses benefits of a synchronous online ethics course across three continents
McDonald	2004	Considers the question of who teaches ethics and how it is taught to undergraduate students
Shoenfeldt et al	1991	Reporting AACSB survey of business school deans about teaching of ethics
Cragg	1997	Discusses the role of ethics in business and in business education
Rossouw	2002	Discusses 3 competency goals of ethics education: cognitive, behavioural & managerial.
Felton &Sims	2005	Discusses the goals of teaching business ethics and when it should be taught
Sims & Felton	2006	Posits the four principles of teaching business ethics regardless of level
Strategies for ethics education		
Brinkmann & Sims	2001	Need to build faculty-wide support for teaching business ethics
Sims	2002	Presents a framework for effective teaching of business ethics
Crane	2004	Empirical study indicates need for business ethics teaching
Crane & Matten	2004	Recommends broadening the scope of current ethics teaching
Baetz & Sharp	2004	Lack of teaching support for teaching ethics by non-ethics specialists
The importance of ethics education		
Swanson	2004	Discusses why business schools have been neglectful of ethics teaching
Bampton & Maclagan	2005	Arguments against sceptics about teaching ethics to accounting students
Williams & Dewett	2005	Dispels argument against teaching ethics; discuss 3 major goals of business ethics teaching
Giacalone & Thompson	2006	The 'worldview' of management needs changing before effective teaching of business ethics and corporate social responsibility is possible

Ethics Education in Australian Business Schools

The GFC had, arguably, the least impact on Australia (at the time of writing) of any OECD country in terms of corporate collapses in the financial sector and the exposure of corrupt business practices. As such, the calls for greater of teaching ethics to business students have been virtually non-existent. Instead, this study identifies the number of courses taught in leading Australian business schools at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

The presence of ethical considerations in the graduate attributes articulated by Australian universities is also investigated to assess the level of institutional commitment to the importance of ethics teaching.

The methodology involved identifying the courses dedicated to ethics that are offered by two groups: the five Australian business schools accredited by AACSB and the business schools of the G08 Universities not accredited by AACSB. (G08 is the elite group of so-called research-intensive universities in Australia.) It was noted whether the subjects were compulsory or offered as electives. A 'core' course could refer to a mandatory course in the core curriculum or in an undergraduate major or postgraduate specialisation. Courses that included ethics in the title but incorporated other content were not counted. The summary of results is shown in Table 4.

A number of observations can be made. First, the non-accredited schools offer, on average, more ethics courses than accredited schools. In fact this disparity is very large, because one of the accredited schools, the University of Technology Sydney (UTS), offers eight of the fourteen courses listed. Secondly, there are more core ethics courses at the undergraduate level. At face value, this suggests a belief in the efficacy and necessity of ethics education for young business students. It also reflects the early approaches to ethics teaching where such learning began at the first degree rather than in post-experience degrees such as the MBA (de George 1987). (For a survey of the presence of ethics, CSR and sustainability courses in MBA programs offered by leading US business schools, see the 2007 paper by Christensen at al.)

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Table 4: Ethics-specific Courses in Leading Australian Business Schools

	Undergraduate level		Postgraduate level		Total
	Core	Elective	Core	Elective	
AACSB-accredited business schools (n = 5)	4	4	0	6	14
Non-accredited G08 business schools (n = 6)	4	7	3	9	23
TOTAL	8	11	3	15	

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As a crude indicator of the level of commitment to ethics education, the number of mentions of ethics-related principles mentioned in graduate attributes articulated by Australia's universities was determined. (Graduate attributes is the term typically used in Australia to refer to desired learning outcomes/goals for graduates.) Of the thirty-nine universities in Australia, nine universities mentioned ethics in the profile of desired graduates. Of the thirteen universities with business schools listed in Table 2 above, only three specify ethics in their graduate attributes. They range from the brief and vague to the detailed and clear. UNSW "will provide an environment that fosters in our students…a respect for ethical practice and social responsibility" (UNSW 2003), while the University of New England states that "Graduates will be encouraged to ethical action and social responsibility. They will i) Acknowledge the social and ethical implications of their actions; ii) Appreciate the impact of social change; iii) Recognize social justice issues relevant to their discipline and professional area; iv) Demonstrate responsibility to the community; and v) Appreciate the importance of sustainable development (UNSW internal document, undated).

Conclusion

The teaching of ethics remains a vexed subject. On one side there is a constant call for dedicated courses from various organizations, educators and the community at large. On the other there are a number of issues around pedagogy, content, effectiveness, and timing of ethics education that remain, if not unresolved, still very much open to debate. In the US, critics of business schools, both inside and outside the system, have been vocal in demanding that schools accept more responsibility for the values, attitudes and even the behavior some graduates display in the marketplace. The GFC is but one crisis over the last two decades that has sparked debate over the responsibility business education plays in unethical corporate behavior. Even though the collapses of Enron and Worldcom in 2002 were landmarks in US corporate history, little progress has been achieved, or at least recognized, by business school critics. Moreover, the empirical evidence cited in this paper suggests that ethics education has little positive impact on moral reasoning skills of business students, perhaps because, as the empirical evidence again suggests, business students appear to commence their studies with fewer such skills compared to their counterparts in non-business degree programs.

Pedagogical research has predominantly concentrated on the integration of ethics education across the curriculum rather than on the planning and delivery mode of specific ethics courses. This may be in response to the flexibility that AACSB allows. More research into stand-alone course design would be useful. In Australia, business schools offer only a small number of ethics-related courses, despite the large number of universities that espouse 'understanding of ethical standards' as a learning goal for their students. The five Australian AACSB-accredited schools, with one exception, offer very few courses, and less on average than their non-accredited counterparts. On this evidence at least, improvement in the delivery of ethics education will be incremental, unless AACSB mandates the inclusion of ethics-specific courses in business degree programs. Such a dramatic change in policy would, of course, ignite passionate debate from among the AACSB membership. In the meantime, further research is recommended in the Australian context. What are the factors that explain the relative small number of courses in ethics education? And why do some non-accredited schools display a far greater commitment to ethics than their accredited counterparts?

Education in ethics and corporate social responsibility may be too important to be left to business schools. In 2007, the United Nations launched the Principles for Responsible Management Education (PRME) initiative to inspire and champion responsible management education, research and thought leadership globally. An international task force of sixty deans, university presidents and official representatives of leading business schools and academic institutions developed a set of six principles that will lay, it is hoped, the foundation for a global platform for responsible management education. As of September 2009, 255 business schools were signatories to the initiative.

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DEVELOPING BUSINESS PROCESSES BASED ON EQUIS AND COBIT

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ABSTRACT

Globalization influences major trends including those in education. It requires education institution to compete worldwide. Therefore higher education institutions in Indonesia must prepare for the global competition. There should be a strategic movement to reach international reputation as the ultimate goal. One important step to the goal is to develop business processes that aligned with international standard. This paper explored business processes development for higher education based on EQUIS and COBIT.

Key Words: Business process, information technology, higher education, EQUIS, COBIT.

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, universities in Indonesia face many difficulties to compete with schools from foreign countries. In the *Times Higher Education Supplement* (THES) and *Quacquarelli Symonds* (QS) 2008, that contains 400 world universities ranking, there were only 3 schools from Indonesia. These 3 schools only got rank at 200th and below. National University of Indonesia was at 287th, Institute Technology of Bandung was at 315th, and Gadjah Mada University was at 316th. In the first rank was Harvard University from United States of America (http://www.topuniversities.com: 2008).

Whatever the rank system, universities -in this paper they will be set at school level- especially in developing countries must prepare well to compete globally. That is why the way they operate school must follow good practices that have been done by top schools. Those good practices should inspire the whole business process which is currently conducted.

On the other perspective, university reputation is not only influenced by academic activities, but also influenced by many support activities such as logistic, finance, information technology (IT), human resource, etc. Lack of support from these functions will give negative impact directly to the university reputation. Functions such as IT, finance, human resource, logistic, and marketing are the supporting functions that have significant role to assure academic activity as primary activity in university can operate smoothly and keep growing. This paper will focus on IT function related business processes besides main process in academic program.

Recently, role of IT in education institution become more important to support academic activities. The reason why IT becomes important is the business tendency that needs faster operations and decision making, so the need of computers, automation, and integration is more intensive.

There are some factors that influence the performance of IT function as shown in Fig. 1. These factors are identified based on interview, observation, and literature study.
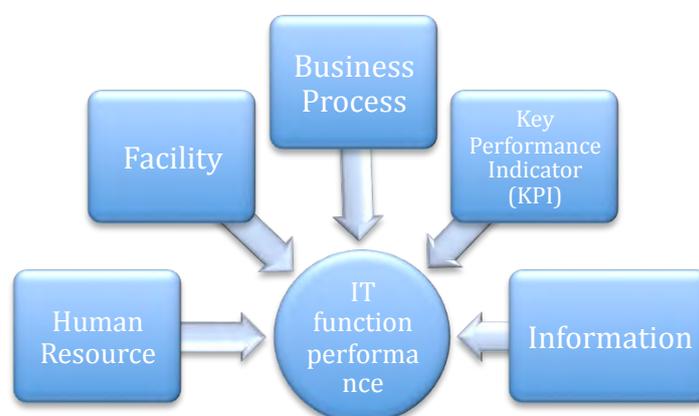
Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of IT Performance

According to Sparx System UML Tutorial: The Business Process Model, a business process is a collection of activities designed to produce a specific output for a particular customer or market. It has a goal, specific input and output, information, and uses resources. (www.sparxsystems.com.au: 2008). Based on this definition, it can be concluded that other factors such as human resources, facility, KPI, and information are basically embedded in the term of business process. If business process that becomes DNA of the whole operations has not been

well defined, the implementation of processes in human resource management, technology and information management, and evaluation of its KPI will not be efficient and effective. Hence, having well developed business processes is definitely required.

H. James Harrington, in his book, *Business Process Improvement*, describe "*Business process improvement will make the process from organization become effective (Give desirable output), efficient (Minimize resource), and adaptable (can adapt with changing needs of business and consumer).*" (1991:15). These benefits from having continuously improved business process are needed by many universities in Indonesia in order to compete worldwide. From practical aspect, well developed business process will ensure university to achieve their objective e.g. preparing students that match with the needs of industry. It also will help university to optimize resources that end with lower cost. To some extent, cost reduction will give more room for better school funding. Finally, well developed business process has incorporated mechanism to adapt with change of business.

Based on these issues, the challenge is how to develop or improve existing business processes at school level and at the same time they also comply with international standard or recognized internationally.

II. IBEST Framework

Basically good business process contains cross functional team or unit. Good business process do not only describe process flow, but also shows relationship among doers or functions who done the processes. Hence, good business process simply means a system that is integrated. For that reason, this paper proposes a business process design which is called IBEST (Integrated Business process for higher Education SysTem).

IBEST consists of two stage processes. First, it starts with the design of main business process, that represents academic related activities. It is believed that academic process is the core business at any education system. Second, design of supporting function such as human resource, finance, logistics, information technology etc. Practically there is no clear boundary between the stages. Processes are continually decomposed into sub-processes that required fulfilling the goal. After certain level of decomposition, processes that related to supporting unit will be identified. This paper only presents IT function related business processes.

III. Developing Main Business Process

To develop main business process, it is important to consider international standard framework. Hence, IBEST will comply with standard and criteria that required for international accreditation. As one of international accreditation, EQUIS (European Quality Improvement System) is used as the reference in developing main business process. According to EFMD (European Foundation for Management Development) as the institution that accredits EQUIS, "*EQUIS is the leading international system of quality assessment, improvement, and accreditation of higher education institutions in management and business administration.*" (http://www.efmd.org: 2008). Besides its international perspective, EQUIS is used as a reference for IBEST is due to the following reasons (i) EQUIS is developed to improve for higher education especially business schools (ii) EQUIS provides standard and criteria with details requirements related how business schools should manage all activities, and (iii) SBM-ITB has been decided to follow EQUIS as a guideline for improvement.

Figure 2 describes the methodology that was used in development of main business process. EQUIS standards and criteria will be the starting point to identify business processes required, input and output of the processes. Then all identified input, process, and output are classified in term of period when they will be executed. Finally, working area (function) for each process is determined as the base for establishing organizational structure.
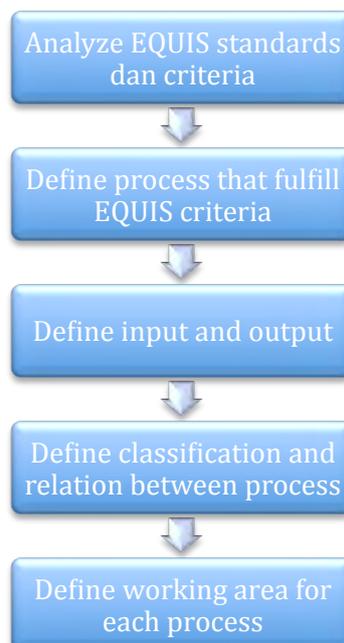
Figure 2. Methodology of Main Business Process Development

a. Analyze EQUIS Standards and Criteria

EQUIS has standards and criteria in its assessment. Standard is a requirement that was needed by school to get EQUIS accreditation. Criteria are list of question that was used to assess, measure, and describe the standard. Based on EQUIS Standards and Criteria provided by EFMD, EQUIS has 10 areas of assessments in which each area can have one or more standards (2008: 2). EQUIS area of assessment can be described as follow:

1. Context, Governance, and Strategy
2. Programs
3. Students
4. Faculty
5. Research and Development
6. Executive Education
7. Contribution to the Community
8. Resources and Administration
9. Internationalization
10. Corporate Connections

Details criteria for each area are listed as clear as possible in order to ease business process identification in next step.

b. Define Process, Input, and Output that Fulfill EQUIS Criteria

For each item listed as assessment criteria, required processes are defined. Then input and output for the process are identified as well. Table 1 Shows example identified process, input, and output for one EQUIS criteria.

Table 1. Example of Process, Input, and Output

EQUIS Code	Criteria	Input	Process	Output
3.b.1	Describe the processes used to prepare students in advance of their entry into their course of study.	Admission test document, list of induction programs	Student Preparation Program	Prepared Students

In the Table 1, there is one criteria that already has a defined process. EQUIS code is used for administrative purpose and to make sure all EQUIS criteria have associated processes. EQUIS code 3.b.1 shows a criteria that come from 3rd area of assessment (Students), meanwhile next digit from the code shows criteria b.1 of Students area of assessment. That criteria requires a process that can assure the students' preparation in advance of their

entry into their course of study. The process is called "Student Preparation Program". This process uses admission test document and list of induction program as input, and then prepared students would be the output of this process.

Identified business processes in IBEST for this moment are only at global level, so that theses general business processes can be used by any schools that want to establish international standard business processes. IBEST is developed to define what is required to do, not how to do a process. The sub-processes to answer how to do a process in more details are unique from one school to others since it would be the differentiating process as a school strategy. Therefore, process decomposition is done only at certain level. Ministry of Forest and Range, British Columbia Government, in Process Modeling Guidelines, describe that "*The further the decomposition, the more difficult it is to prove uniqueness of lower level processes. Good quality, non redundant process diagrams are not very "deep". In process modeling, too much quantity means too little quality.*" (2009).

c. Define Classification and Working Area for Each Process

The next step is defining the classification and relationship among the processes. Each process is classified in cycle term that represents execution time and type of activity. This cycle was named as IBEST cycle. Fig. 3 shows IBEST cycle.

IBEST cycle classifies the business processes into 4 periods and type of activity. Four periods that are used:
1. 10 years (or at least more than 5 years), in general the vision and mission of an organization is spaced in 10 years.
2. 5 years, this is the period when curriculum is changed.
3. 1 year, in general the admission of new students is done once a year.
4. 1 semester (4-6 months), the time for students learning subjects.

In addition to the period, IBEST cycle consists of 4 type of activity:
1. Planning: Stage which strategy, system, and analysis was developed to fulfill the needs of stakeholder in the long term.
2. Preparation: Stage which procurement of resource (money, human resource, facility, students) is done to realize strategy and implement systems which have been developed.
3. Implementation: Stage which the market and community needs is fulfilled. In this context, process of teaching and learning are conducted.
4. Evaluation: Stage which resume and evaluation for certain period are done.
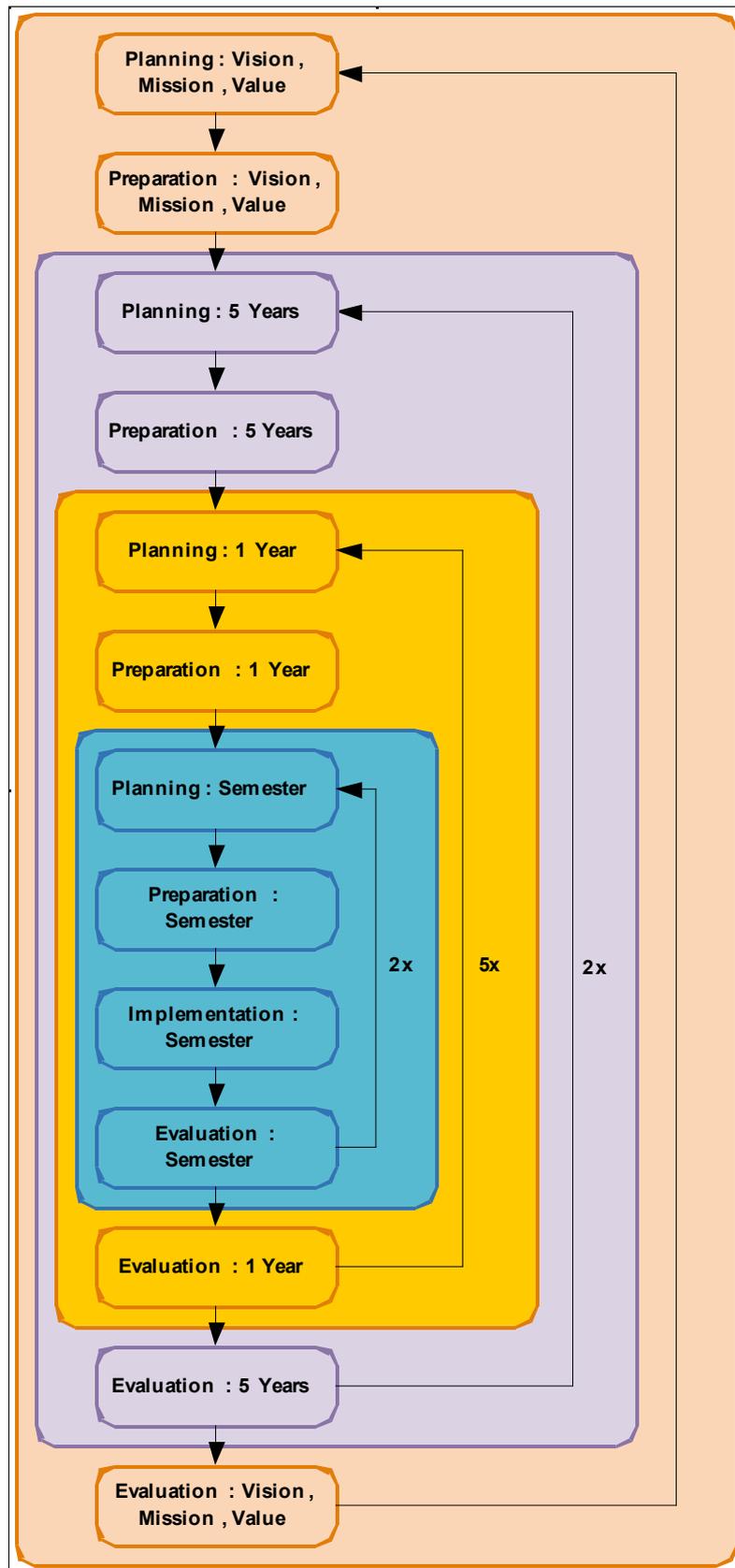
Figure 3. IBEST Cycle

Fig. 4 illustrates example of sub-processes that are classified using IBEST cycle. It also presents function that related to the sub-processes by which supporting function is defined. Based on our analysis, it can be defined several working area or function that has role in doing the whole business processes. Identified supporting functions in this study:

1. Finance
2. Facility
3. Information Technology
4. Human Resource
5. Marketing
6. Internal Auditor

	No EQUIS	Input	Task Name	Output	Predecessors	Area Kerja Rev
25	N/A		⊟ Analyze target of market and market's profile		10	
26	N/A	Condition of national education	Do market research	Market research		Academic, Marketing

Picture 4. Example Classification, Relation, and Working Area for Main Business Process

		international education industry				
27	6.c.2.3.2	Market research, Document of target of market and market's profile evaluation	Identify market's needs to define student criteria for selection process	Document of market's needs	26	Academic, Marketing
28	6.c.2.1; 6.c.2.2; 6.c.2.3	Market research, Document of target of market and market's profile evaluation	Define main consumer composition	Document of consumer composition	27	Academic, Marketing
29	2.a.3.4; 3.a.1	Market research, Document of target of market and market's profile evaluation, Document of consumer composition	Define target of market and market's profile from intake student	Document of target of market, Document of intake student's profile	28	Academic, Marketing
30	3.a.2	Vision, mission, value, workforce market situation, Document of market's needs, Document of target of market and market's profile evaluation	Describe graduated student profile	Document of graduated student's profile	28	Academic, Marketing

Figure 4. Example of classified business processes and related functions

IV. Developing IT-related Business Processes

The development of IT-related business processes follows steps as shown by Fig. 5.
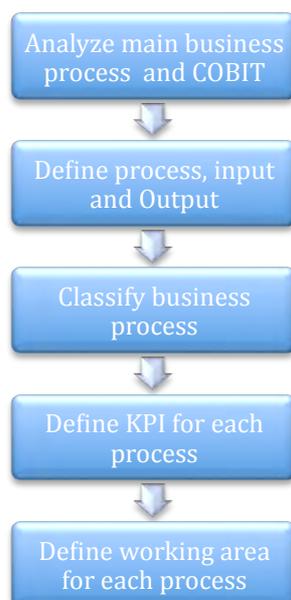
Figure 5. Methodology of IT-related Business Process Development

a. Analyze Main Business Process and COBIT

To develop IT-related business processes it starts with analyzing main business process that connected to IT function as done in the previous step. Since IT-related processes are common and have

continually revised standard, developing the process is better to follow standard instead of developing from scratch. In this paper, standard COBIT is used as guidance. *"COBIT or Control Objectives for Information and related Technology is a set of best practices (framework) with a set of generally accepted measures, indicators, processes and best practices."* (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cobit). There are some reasons to use COBIT as guidance:

1. COBIT is an international IT framework.
2. COBIT is recommended by Sarbanes-Oxley Act 2002 to use as internal control and reporting.
3. COBIT is designed to meet organization's goal as a whole, not to meet function's goal.
4. COBIT has orientation on process and information.
5. COBIT gives guidance to the organization about what to do, not how to do. (Hill, 2006). This philosophy is the same with the goals from IBEST, which only describe what is really needed to do by schools.
6. COBIT has wider point of view in its framework that can be used by any organizations. (Hill, 2006). This philosophy is the same with the goals from IBEST, which will give guidance globally, not only for certain schools.
7. COBIT is an integrator for the other IT standards, like ITIL, ISO 17799, ISO 9000. (Hill, 2006).

b. Define Process, Input, and Output

Based on COBIT framework and previously defined business process, sub-processes for IT function are decided. Input and output for each business process are also determined in this stage.

c. Classify Business Process

Since all identified processes are not structured in higher education context, it is necessary to group them according to IBEST cycle that classifies the process based on period and type of activity. Fig. 6 shows example of the classification. Decomposition of IT process into sub-processes and presented in flow diagram is shown by Fig. 7.

d. Define KPI

A set of input, process and output is not complete without Key Performance Indicator (KPI). Management cannot decide whether a process or an output is qualified or not. Therefore, KPI must be set for each sub-process in IT function. Table 2 shows the example of KPI for several item in "preparing software and system".

	Input	Task Name	Output	Predecessors
50		⊟ **Preparation: Semester**		**44**
51	**Document of technology analysis, Document of needed equipment**	⊟ **Prepare software and system**	**System, Software, Software's maintenance schedule, Software's knowledge, Document of software procurement**	
52	Document of technology analysis, Document of needed equipment	Prepare initial design that fulfill the needs	Initial design	
53	Initial design	Analyze software procurement process	Document of software procurement	52
54	**Initial design**	⊟ **Prepare the software with security aspect**	**Software prototype**	**53**
55	Initial design	Prepare software with clear authority	Software prototype	
56	Initial design	Do prevention, detection, and improvement to malware problem (virus, worm)	Software prototype	

Figure 6. Example of business process classification
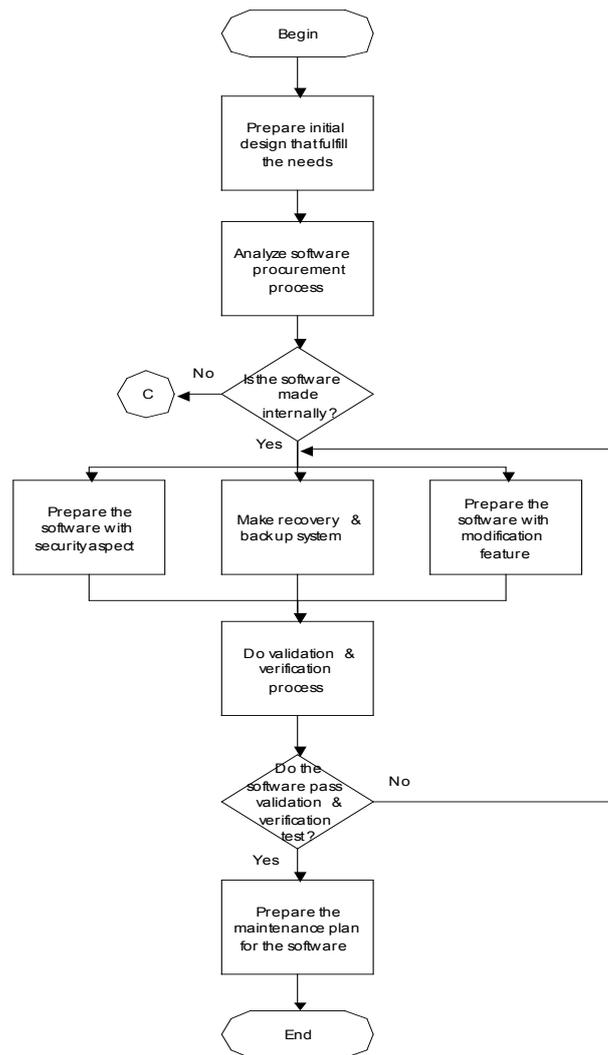
Figure 7. Example of Flow Diagram of "Prepare Software & System" Business Process Decomposition

e. Define Working Area

From IT-related business processes it can be defined working area as follow:

1. IT Function Planning
2. Software Development
3. Hardware Development
4. Software Management
5. Hardware Management
6. Service and Support
7. Equipment Audit
8. IT Function Audit

Table 2. Example of KPI

Function	KPI
Preparation: Semester	
Software and system	Duration of time needed to prepare software & system
	% Development finish on time and not over budget
	% Equipment give the desired result
Hardware	Duration of time needed to prepare software & system
	% Development finish on time and not over budget
	% Equipment give the desired result

Manual	% Accuracy of manual with real practices
	% Activity that is included in manual
IT function human resource training	% Training result appropriate with target result
Procurement of equipment	# Problem in procurement and after sales service
Acceptance of equipment	% Equipment specification appropriate with order specification
User training	% Improvement of work after training
Service and support	% Problem that is solved on time
	User satisfaction with the service and support
Problem solving	Duration of time that is needed to solve the problem
	% Problem that is solved on time
Configuration	Duration of time that is needed to do a configuration
	# Configuration that inappropriate with standard and needs of consumer
Physical environment management	# Equipment's failed because physical environment
	Satisfaction of worker

V. CONCLUSION

This paper presents IBEST approach to develop international standard business processes in business school. EQUIS is the reference used to develop general business processes. The developed business processes are still general to provide room for innovation to business schools to build their own uniqueness. Since IBEST was started with academic program as the main business process, its decomposition into more detail sub-processes will ensure all processes are interconnected. As an example of process decomposition for supporting function, IT-related business processes is presented as well.

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The Political Economy Relating to the Allocation of Thailand's Budget from 1961 to 2006

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Background and Importance of the Problem

On 24 June 1932. Thailand was changed to democracy. While the government has improved the new management system in order to concordance with the new dominance by announcing the budget act year 1959. That is the mechanism for conducting the national budget. It goes according to the concept idea of Professor Frank P. Sherwood from Southern California U.S.A. that composes of (1) Budget Preperation (2) Budget Adoption and (3) Budget Execution (Frank P. Sherwood, 1964, P.18) with the expectation to allot the budget to solve the problem and response to the need of the people.

From that time the government party and the other parts of government officials have had the duty to prepare the income and expenditure budget by conducting the draft in the annual budget act according to the plan and the project that is important and essential for solving the problem in order to response to the need of the people. The parliament is the political and representative of the people, was elected from the people directly to administrate the country. They give the agreement or approve the budget by having the philosophy that "the budget is the people's money. To spend the money we need to have the approval from the people so we can use the money to expense" (Kraiyuth, 1985, pp.121-122). And the government party with the associate of permanent government official are the group to bring the budget to spend for administrate the nation and serve the public that returns to the people.(Announcement the Constitution for the Kingdom of Thailand in the Issue of 1997)

This time of study use the concept idea and theory of Political Economy according to the concept idea of Marxist and Neo-Marxist in analyzing the interaction of the power between the group of people and various classes of people in the procedure of conducting the budget in 3 steps. It is to make the understanding and to go deep into the root cause of the problem in order to study many dimensions in integration therefore we could see the wide picture in holistic and could explain the phenomenon that appears in the overall system apparently.

Results of the this study used those related to development of Thailand's budget system to improve Performanance. It will make the national budget no clog in one certain group, provide the public service and solve the problem to response to the need of the people. Apart from this, it will be use as the information for the study of the student, people and the interested person.

Objective of the Study

1.To study the procedure of allotting Thailand national budget in 3 steps: (1) Budget Preperation (2) Budget Adoption and (3) Budget Execution

2.To study the interaction of the power between the leading group of people that gain advantage and the community group of people who get disadvantage in the budget making

3.To reflect the picture of monopoly of the power and the advantage in allotting Thailand national budget in order to lead to the way to solve and have the effective budget management onwards.

Scope of the Study

        1.Time scope: study the procedure of allotting Thailand budget in the time period of 1961 - 2006

        2.Content scope: analyze the impact of allotting the budget that comes from the interaction of power that belongs to the group of soldier, the group of government official, the group of political, the group of academician, the group of vocational people, the group of press and the people group altogether 15 people.

Method of Study

        This time of research is the study in analyzing of historical approach by "descriptive" according to the reality in the procedure of allotting the budget in order to make the understand with the behavior and the relationship of the leading group of people who gains advantage and the community group of people who get disadvantage. It uses qualitative research, compiles information from the document, uses in-depth interview and uses observation participation. As the matter of fact the researcher is the subcommittee of national congress therefore we get the information from "the real situation" for study and analysis.

Power-oriented Interaction in Thai Society

        To conduct Thailand budget according to the democracy regime creates the power interaction between the group of political, the group of government official, the group of soldier and the group of businessman that use the government mechanism and the government power to strive for the advantage, build up the unfairness and prejudice in the society. Therefore the allotting the budget isn't go concordance with the problem and the real need of the people. It makes the leak of the budget in the large amount.

        In the normal situation that has no revolution there has the influential group in the procedure of the budget making that is the politician and the government political party. They allot the budget according to the party policy more than usual by associating with the government official in Bureau of the Budget. For the academician, vocational people, press and people group who are the majority group of people in the society but have less negotiation power in the procedure of the budget making, they have the advantage from the budget in the very little amount. On the other hand, in the time of revolution the soldier has the power and the influence in the budget making to the army in the high amount for buying the weapon or maintaining the army. Normally the politician has no role in allotting the budget. The representative society according to the democracy regime in Thailand isn't effective that makes the budget spending have no effective.It can't glorify the country as much as it should be as in the picture 1.

```
        Input  ──────────────▶  Process  ──────────────▶  Output

     1. Budget Preperation   │  2. Budget Adoption    │  3. Budget Execution

●──────────────────────────●───────────────────────●──────────────────────●

   Influence of Government and
   Political  Bureaucracy Area


   ◀───────────────────────────────────────────────▶┈┈┈┈▶


                        Influence of  The Parliament        Influence of  Bureaucracy and
                                                             Businessmen and Society

        ◀┈┈┈┈┈───────────────────────────────────────▶

                                              ◀┈┈┈┈┈────────────────────────────▶
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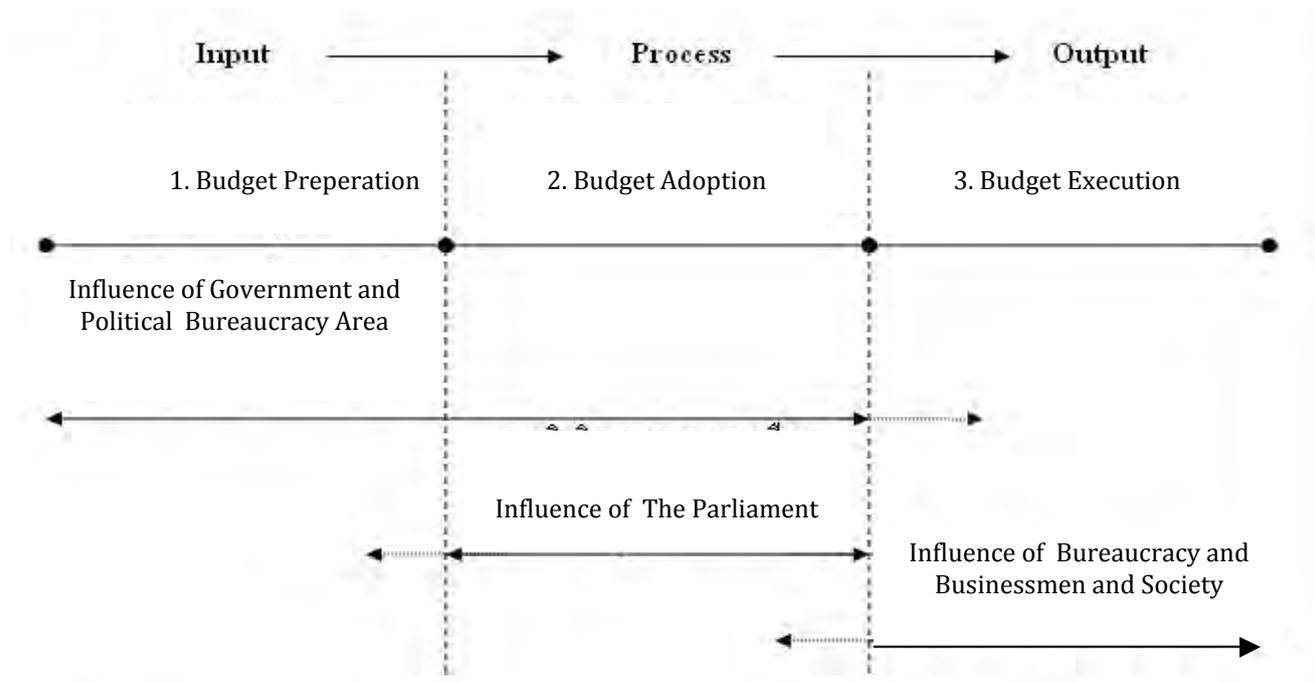
Picture1 Model to show the power-oriented interaction in allotting the budget

Allocation of Thailand Budget in Political market

        The concept of Political Economy is the foundation concept that Karl Marx gives the
importance to the study of analyzing the behavior and the relationship of various classes of people by
studying the power of super structure e.g. state, state mechanism, politic system, economic system,
religion, culture, norm and various laws together with economic base or mode of production e.g.
productive forces and production relation. (Karl Marx, 1979) Mode of production is the economic root
and the determination in last instant. According to this concept it gives the importance to the life of the
normal people as the important determination as in the picture 2.

Super Structure

โครงสร้างส่วนบน

Political Economy on Allocation of Thailand Budget

Economic Base
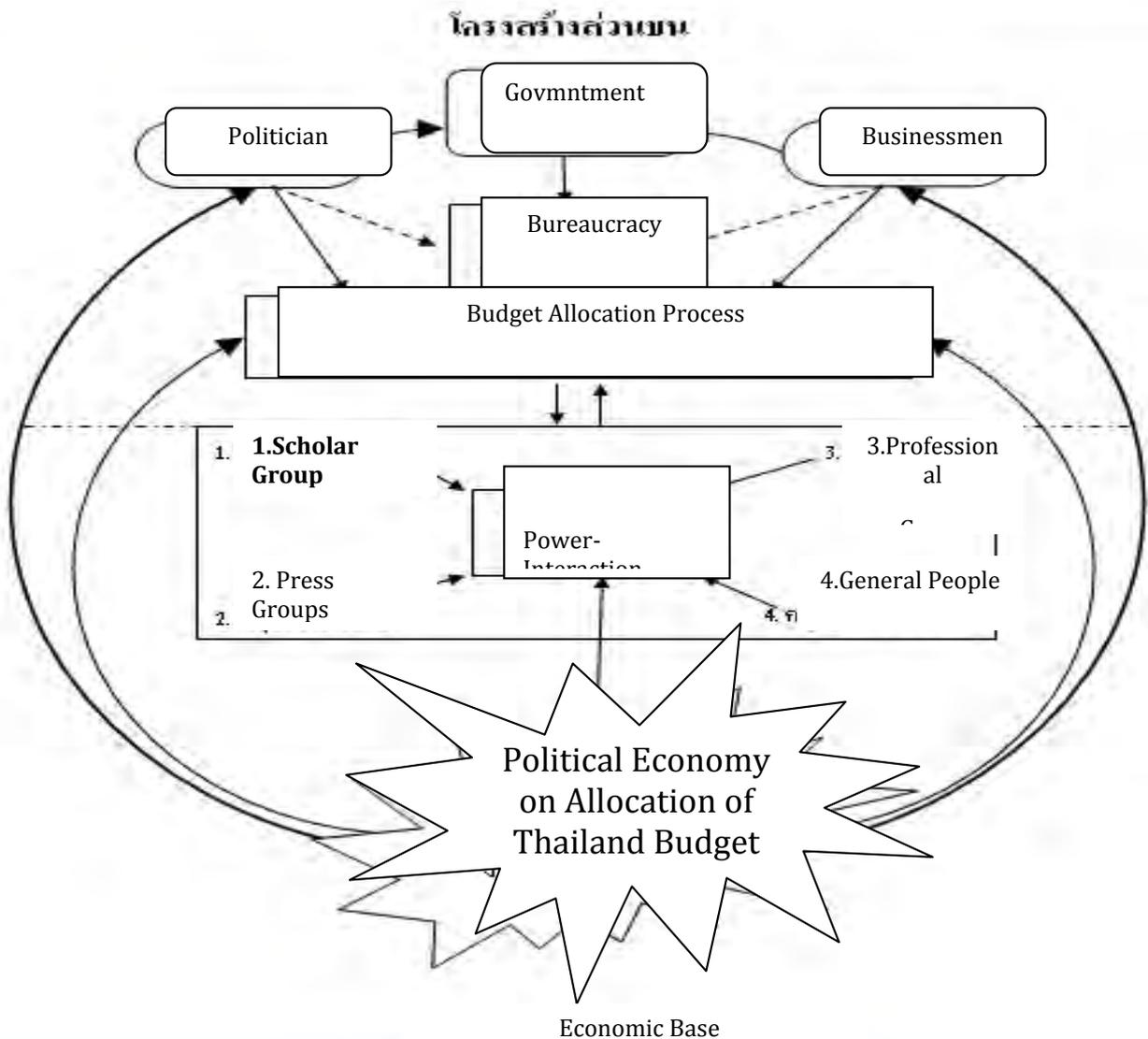
From the picture 2 the procedure in conducing Thailand national budget mostly occurs from the power interaction between political people and political party with the world bank, the government and the people, the government official, the soldier with the businessman and lastly the people. They interact in exchanging the product and the service in the political market. The people use the vote to buy the product and the public service from the government. Therefore the politician becomes the political businessman cooperating with the world bank in order to produce the product and provide the public service for the purpose of the vote as they can become the government once again. They mainly search for the maximum profit from the political business therefore they allot the budget to advantage them and their group. In the time of revolution, the soldier has the influence in conducting the national budget. The budget mostly is allotted to buy the weapon and maintain the army. The various advantageous groups who are in the procedure of conducting the budget use government mechanism and government power to grasp the advantage, monopolize the power in the time of allotting the budget, build up the unfairness and injustice in the society that lead to the corruption. It destroys the economy and the security of the nation strongly. (Jame E.Anderson, 1970)

Power-oriented Interactions in Budget Preparation

From the past to the present to prepare the budget creates the power-oriented interaction between the politician group, the military, government official group, Bank of Thailand, Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, Bureau of the Budget, Ministry of Finance, government official from various offices, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank. They become to have role to set the direction and the amount of the money for usage in different aspects e.g. economy, education and national security etc. However the people, the majority group in the nation, don't take part with the influential group especially in the time of allotting the budget. It is because Thai politic mainly falls in the bad cycle that is frequently has revolution all the time. It makes Thai nation has the defective democracy along the time that effects budget allotment to have no effectiveness.

Government in the period of marshal Salid Thanarat prepared the budget to the influence of soldier in indicating the level of budget. The budget was allotted to protect the country for the advantage of the influential group of soldier in order to administrate the nation.

Government in the period of Senee Pramote came to the political power as to democracy regime that won the election. They formed the coalition. However they strived the budget in the preparation procedure and in the time of allotting the budget.

Government in General Kriengsak Chamanun had the revolution and become the prime minister. The soldier returned to have the political power again therefore soldier budget become in high proportion that its amount was near the education budget.

Government in the period of General Chartchai Chunhawon was counted as the businessman that become the prime minister therefore the budget was allotted for supporting the economy. It made the economy become up rise. The country was prosperous. Government could collect the tax for allocating the expenditure budget more.

Government in the period of Police Lieutenant GeneralThaksin Chinnawat prepared the budget in more complex way. It was the power interaction and the role of the advantageous group in the country and the group outside the country. The power belonged to politician group therefore the budget emphasized on the economy more. The role and the influence of soldier group were decreasing while the roles of the people in allotting the budget were increasing obviously. Whenever the project didn't have the advantage to the people and the nation, the people had right to object the government in the time of allotting the budget.

Announcement the Constitution for the Kingdom of Thailand in the Issue of 1997

On 17-20 May 1992. there had the *Prisapathamin* incident that made the people refuse the soldier government that preside over the people. The people didn't want the political power to fall in one particular group. They had awareness and call for the democracy more. This constitution made the power interaction of the various advantageous groups of people change largely from the past that can be indicated as followed: (The Constitution for the Kingdom of Thailand, 1997)

1.The role of the people is more than the past. The people participate in the procedure of allotting the budget. Any project that the people acknowledge doesn't create any advantage, that project could be objected from the people.

2.The role of the politician is decreasing. In some section of the constitution has the covenant to the role for the politician that they couldn't bring the budget to use for their own benefit and their belonging groups e.g. in the section 180.

E-Strategic Performance Based Budgeting System

Since the country had to face with the economic crisis in year 2540 B.E., it made the economic system stuck. The government couldn't find the income from tax collection to spend for the expenditure budget therefore the government had reform the new government service in 5 aspects as followed: (Office of The Civil Service Commission, 1997)

1.Plans to modify the role, the mission and the method of government administration

2.Plans to modify the budget system to the budget system that focuses on the work result and the result

3.Plans to modify the personnel management system

4.Plans to modify the law

5.Plans to modify the culture and value

When the announcement of the budget system focused on performance based budgeting strategy. Allow interaction between power-oriented interest groups to differ. The role of the government official decreases, they can't diversion payment the budget to use in the plan and the project that didn't indicate in the strategy. On the other hand, the role of the business-oriented political to play a role in increases especially the business group that was elected to be the government. They can set the strategic target in the direction that supports the business for the businessman.

Power-oriented Interaction in Budget Adoption

In consideration the agreement or the approval for the budget that belongs to the parliament in order to set as the draft of annual expenditure budget act together with the detail of the national budget expenditure, it requires to have the consideration from 2 parliaments. After the house of representatives have approved, the senate requires to give the approval to the draft of annual expenditure budget act within 20 days counting from the date of receiving the draft. In case of exceeding the set time, it counts that the senate approves the draft of annual expenditure budget act. This is to decrease the role of senate in the issue of budget. Since the senate couldn't edit or cut off the expenditure budget that the senate comments it inappropriate therefore the role of senate is very little in the issue of consideration the national annual budget.

Power-oriented Interaction in Budget Execution

Bureau of the Budget (The group of government official) has the important role because in every part of Thailand the government official requires the approval on annual expenditure budget from Bureau of the Budget. Therefore Bureau of the Budget has the direct role in inspection and consideration each expenditure to be approved or unapproved. Bureau of the Budget can cut off the expenditure budget that the government official asked for according to the law enacts. Apart from this, Bureau of the Budget also has the power as to the budget law to approve and change the expenditure budget that was approved from the parliament. The group of businessman has the role in the time of asking for each expenditure or each time of budget administration in the form of power interaction with the minister (group of politician) by proposing the project, construction material or heavy equipment that the businessman gains the benefit. Therefore the role of businessman group is in the low level that needs to depend on the group of politic or the group of government official in the time of allotting the budget in order to have the benefit for their own advantage.

Conclusion the Power-oriented Interaction and Suggestions

The various influential groups e.g. the military, the group of government official, the group of politician, the group of businessman, the group of academician and the group of people together with IMF and World Bank had the role in conducting annual expenditure budget in the procedure of preparing the budget, in the process of budget approval and in the process of administrating the budget.

Any particular group that had the enormous power in administrating the country in that certain time also had the important role in allotting the expenditure budget in that year.E. g. the group allotted the budget to their own group in the high proportion more than the influential groups that have little role or no role in administrating the country. (Kraiyuth, 1990)

Since the military played the important role in administrating the country, the budget was allotted to the soldier group or in order to protect the country. The proportion of the budget was near or sometimes higher than other expenditure parts that are more important than the soldier part.

In the group of civil society and politician, there has the allotment of the annual expenditure budget to the group of people (education part) more and more than the national security part. While in the group of government official (Bureau of the Budget) has role in allotting the budget from other remaining budgets e.g. soldier part, education part and economic part. However the community of people has the important role in administrating the country, it is because the constitution of Thai Kingdom in year 2540 B.E. indicates the right of the people to participate and comment in the policy of administration the country clearer and in more role. To allot any budget requires having the agreement and listen to the comment of the people before executing any action. Therefore power interaction of the various advantageous groups in allotting the budget has changed.

In the economic crisis in the year 1997. the government had to borrow the money from IMF and World Bank. Therefore IMF and World Bank become to have role in allotting the expenditure budget, they attempt to conduct the overbalanced budget in order to have the remaining budget to return to IMF and World Bank.

Business-oriented political group began to play a role in fiscal the period of the budget year 2001 - 2006. They allot the budget focusing on the economy by attempting to settle down the various projects and change from the state enterprises to the public company in order to support their business and their group.

Suggestions

Since the various advantageous group has benefit and influence in management and allocation in the annual expense budget of the country. Make appropriations in each side. Therefore cause leakage of expenditures in each fiscal year a number. You are required to resist the leakage of expenditures in each year less. Based on the power play or people to interact with groups. To close the budget allocation in step 3 You both key steps include e.g.(1) budget preparation process (2) Budget approval process. (3) budget management process.

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Productive Education:

Management Components of Agricultural Machinery for Expenses Reduction of Rice Production

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to examine management components of agricultural machinery for expenses reductiion of rice production in Pichit province. Data were collected through various means, that is, in-depth interviewing members and administrators of rice farmers' group and administrators of farmer institutes, whose job performance were outstanding, as well as organizing a community stage for those involving with the administration of rice farmers' group. Data were analyzed and processed through descriptive statistics and Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient.

The findings revealed that the management components of agricultural machinery for expenses reductiion of rice production in Pichit province consisted of three sections, that is, (1) the characteristics of agricultural machinery management should include outsourcing, co-investing, network building, and participatory maintenance, (2) in order to establishing rice farmers' group structure, a network of subgroups should be provided by setting an agricultural machinery co-ordinate service center as a planning station, and (3) fund and welfare should be provided in advance for agricultural machinery maintenance. The formula to calculate the returns is that net returns are equal to the returns, designated by the rice farmers' group based on its regulations, minuses the overall differences of effective value of agricultural machinery and equipment before and after using. If these three elements were well-managed, it would reduce the expenses of agricultural machinery in rice production from 46.00 percent to 29.90 percent of the overall expenses of rice production.

Key work: Production Expenses Reduction, Agricultural Machinery, Management Components,

Rice Production

INTRODUCTION

The current condition of the agricultural machinery management of the rice farmer groups in Pichit province was not successful according to the government's plan to promote working group to examine factors affecting rice production by the use of agricultural machinery. The groups gathered were reduced from 31 to 27 groups. There were 18 groups passing standard criteria while 10 groups failed because they did not run any businesses or services, have annual net profit, divide annual net profit, and have very few members in each group. There was only one out of five groups that was successful in managing agricultural machinery (Pichit provincial cooperative office, 2008). This resulted in abandonment of agricultural machinery and not ready to use, lack of financial liquidity among the rice farmer groups because they lacked financial disciplines, increased reserve fund, adjustment in work structure, appropriate adjustment in production factors, unstable and inconsistent support from the government (Cooperative auditing department, 2006). They also had low working satisfaction, the size of the machinery was not suitable according to their needs, skills of the administrators and staffs in administration and job performance were inadequate, and they also lacked of the development of farmer efficacy, attention from staff of related offices, and project administration planning in advance (Prasopsin Mantim et al, 2006). Problems mentioned above led to a research question: "What are the management components of agricultural machinery for expenses reductiion of rice production?" This study aimed to (1) examine the expenses of agricultural machinery for rice production and the needs for agricultural machinery, and (2) investigate factors related to agricultural machinery, and (3) determine to management components of agricultural machinery in rice production leading to the reduction of energy resources, and minerals use in rice production.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This quantitative and qualitative study employed integrated research approaches conducted from April 2006 to December 2007. Data were collected through various means: structured interviewing 376 rice farmer group members regarding expenses and needs of agricultural machinery in rice production, in-depth interviewing 27 administrators of rice farmers' group in Pichit province and 33 administrators of agricultural institutes both inside and outside Pichit province, whose practices were outstanding in terms of farmer group management, regarding managing current agricultural machinery and factors related to agricultural machinery management. All data then were synthesized in order to draft management components of agricultural machinery for expenses reductiion of rice production. The possibility of the project was tested by organizing a public stage for 46 people involving the administration of rice farmer groups both inside and outside Pichit province. The appropriateness was tested by structured interviewing 43 people involving the administration of rice farmer groups within Pichit province. Descriptive statistics and Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient were used to analyze the data.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

1. Regarding the expenses of agricultural machinery for production of rice, which farmers in Pichit province mostly grow (Suphan Buri 1 rice seeds), the average expenses of agricultural machinery was 1,307.97 per rai (46.00 percent as of total expenses of rice production). The majority of rice farmers in Pichit province (82.98 %) needed agricultural machinery as public property for rice production. The most wanted agricultural machinery before harvest was a medium-sized tractor (14.93 %) whereas combine was the most wanted agricultural machinery after harvest (12.76 %).

2. Main factors related to agricultural machinery management were encourages management, which was positively related and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$), and three other factors—farmer group management ($r = 0.824$), farmer group fund management (0.754), and agricultural machinery management factors ($r = 0.745$) respectively. In addition, these three factors were also positively related and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) to each other. The current condition of agricultural management in Pichit province and agricultural institutes with outstanding practices had agricultural machinery management in a number of ways—co-investing, outsourcing, network building, and

participatory maintenance. Information required in management were hiring expenses, working period, number of areas, distance, amount of fund, number of members, machinery parts and materials, objectives, readiness, and capacity of the farmer groups.

       3. Agricultural machinery management that can reduce rice production expenses in Pichit province should process through representatives of rice farmer groups appointed by three sectors—the government and academics, entrepreneurs, and rice farmers—in order to negotiate in purchasing, hiring, and using benefits from agricultural machinery that farmers need under a theme of "Agricultural Machinery Co-ordinate Services Center," which consisted of three components as follows:

         1) Managing agricultural machinery can be initiated by organizing informal group focusing on outsourcing since at the beginning, fund may not be enough, but the group should later be developed into a formal one in order to buy agricultural machinery through fundraising, and keep it for public use to maintain marketing mechanism of the entrepreneurs or other means that can be managed if group members, fund, areas, and others are ready.

         2) Controlling revolving fund and sharing benefits of the group should consider agricultural machinery management expenses in advance based on net returns that all types of members—agricultural machinery management board of committee, all levels of service officers, agricultural machinery owners, and purchasing/hiring representatives—receive equally. Furthermore, they should receive benefits on daily, monthly, and annually basis depending of their type of membership. This is equivalent to gross profit (100 %), as designated by the farmers' group based on its regulations, minuses Overall Equipment Effectiveness value (%) before using and after using.

         3) For effective and efficient agricultural machinery management structure, the farmer group structure should be established as a network for subgroups depending on types of agricultural machinery. Staff at coordinate service should consist of two departments—strategy and main operation departments. Strategy department administers all tasks of the group—setting goals, policies, and strategies of the organization, specifying characteristics of administrators and staff, approving, monitoring, financial auditing, accounting, setting wages and salaries, communication system and tools and machinery purchasing system, and establishing regulations of services. Main operations department were responses to the objectives of the group. This department consists of two sections—secretary, and machinery maintenance and development. Secretary is in charge of finance, accounting, wages, salaries, and dividends, as well as coordinating with offices inside and outside network so as to effectively and efficiently link the information to other offices. Machinery maintenance and development conducts research and development, as well as maintaining, and providing agricultural machinery services. This department may have officers positioned or outsourced on the network. It may also ask for assistance from public or private sectors. If these three elements were well-managed, it would lower expenses of agricultural machinery from 46.00 percent to 29.90 percent of the overall rice production investment.

DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

       In order to control expenses of agricultural machinery management at the lowest level, it is necessary to plan rice production, which is the most important element for decision making of activities and meeting the needs of working plan, policy setting, and selecting strategies for practices that effectively meet with the needs. As a result, in order to develop group and farmers' efficacy in agricultural machinery management, it is needed to provide knowledge of analyzing expenses in order to select an accurate plan for managing agricultural machinery according to the concept of increasing profit of products and services, which has been changed from traditional way of setting price based on profit and expenses of products or services to the reduction of expenses in production in order to make more profit instead by analyzing expenses of products or services in all respects and subtracts purchased prices (Thammathataree Y., 2007: 23-24) through the following formula.

$$\text{From:} \quad \text{Price} \quad = \text{expenses} + \text{profit}$$

$$\text{To:} \quad \text{Profit} \quad = \text{price} - \text{expenses}$$

The analysis of agricultural machinery management expense is a means to reveal break-even point for agricultural machinery management activity and to know whether what and how it should be monitored by finding relationships between expenses, quantity, and profit for investment decision making. This view is relevant to Chalermkarnjana K. (2004: 149-180), Komalathat D., et al (2004: 1-47) and Deere J. (1992) which pointed out that in terms of managing expenses for production or service in trade and free trade settings, which have technological advancement in production and multimedia, the manager must have knowledge and understanding the concept of analyzing expenses and profit which they will receive from organizing activities for the approval and investment on that particular project as it will be suitable and above the break-even point.

The concept of analyzing agricultural machinery expenses in order to reveal the break-even point is related to the findings of Jirarachawarow J. (2001) who examined appropriate patterns of water resources management for agricultural purposes. He found that the appropriate use of water could be performed by farmer group working who were water users. It, however, should be on the basis of purchased price of water, as well as having some profit for the investment of water users. In addition, the study results of Phromsaka Na Sakolnakorn T. (2008), who studied patterns in rural industrial production transfer management in northeastern part of Thailand, showed that factors were directly influenced by three independent variables—(1) production expenses, (2) management convenience and production effectiveness, and (3) efficacy of supplier. The factors of production expenses yielded the highest result while efficacy of supplier factors was the least. The independent variables that indirectly affected transfer management patterns were (1) policy and legal factors, which indirectly influenced important production transfer management through management convenience and production effectiveness, and (2) the environment of production transfer area, which indirectly influenced through efficacy of supplier.

This can be concluded that the analysis of agricultural machinery expenses is an important process in management plan since it can reveal expenses in agricultural management, break-even point, and appropriately set administration plans for agricultural machinery in terms of efficacy and ability of the groups and members. Moreover, it is a guideline for preventing a lack of financial liquidity in providing agricultural machinery at all times, and creating satisfaction among members.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Educate Children At Risk: Factors Affecting The Cohort Survival Rate

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Abstract:

Cohort Survival Rate is the measure of the percentage of pupils enrolled in the first grade who finishes Grade IV. Factors such as rural poverty, health issues such as nutrition and vitamin A supplementation, lack of school buildings, inaccessibility of schools are driving pupils away from schooling. This study was conducted in 10 disparity barangays in Zamboanga del Sur, covered under the 6[th] Country Program for Children by the UNICEF. Alternative livelihood helps resolve the concern.

INTRODUCTION:

The Philippine 1987 Constitution declared in Section 17 that "the State shall give priority to education, science and technology, arts, culture, and sports to foster patriotism and nationalism, accelerate social progress, and promote total human liberation and development" (Bernas, 2003). The emphasis placed on education in this context far exceeds the present-day interventions in relation to improved academic outcomes among pupils, but also encompasses the active participation of all elementary pupils and making them ready for higher educational opportunities by ensuring that they graduate in the primary or elementary level.

In the Philippine setting, almost all provinces and cities, including municipalities have elementary schools in operation however, there are much more to be constructed in barangays situated from far away localities. Zamboanga del Sur is not an exception. There are much to be desired in terms of classroom construction as well as the identification of barangays that needs teachers and classrooms to supplement the educational needs of the general populace. This may also be one of the factors that affects Cohort Survival Rate in the Province. Because of these realities, the study has been undertaken to understand the factors affecting cohort survival. This study was conducted in 12 areas namely, Barangay Bogo Kapalaran in the Municipality of Molave, Barangay Boloron, in the Municipality of Midsalip, Barangays Sta. Lucia and San Pedro in the City of Pagadian, Barangay Libertad in the Municipality of Dumingag, Poblacion in the Municipality of Pitogo, barangay Lumbog in the Municipality of Margosatubig, Barangay Benuatan in the Municipality of Dinas, in Barangay Lunib in the Municipality of V. Sagun, Barangay Salambuyan in the Municipality of Lapuyan, Barangay Diplo in the Municipality of Kumalarang and at the Poblacion in the Municipality of Lakewood.

REVIEW OF LITERATURES:

The National Statistics Coordination Board (NSCB) defined cohort survival as, "a measure of the efficiency and effectiveness of the delivery of education services in the country, and is defined as the percentage of enrollees at the beginning grade or year in a given school year who reached the final grade or year of the elementary or secondary level" (Virola, 2007). Based on this definition, the "cohort survival rate was at 69.84 percent in the elementary level. This means that about 70 students out of a hundred who entered grade one reached grade six. For the secondary level,cohort survival rate was at 65.83 percent" (Basic Education at a Glance, 2005).

The United Nations Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific defines this as "The percentage of a cohort of pupils enrolled in grade 1 of the primary level of education in a given school year who are expected to reach a specific grade (Survival rate to Grade 5)" (UNSIAP, 2005).

Based on these definitions, the cohort survival rate of the Province of Zamboanga del Sur from 2002-2007 as provided for by the Department of Education, as presented in this graph, revealed that since 2002, the combined Cohort Survival Rate of male and female elementary pupils are decreasing

however, it gains momentum from 2005, when the Province of Zamboanga del Sur and together with the Department of Education, has engaged in massive advocacy campaign in targeted disparity barangays to improve the Cohort Survival Rate among public elementary pupils within the Province of Zamboanga del Sur. In 2002, the combined rate is 60.65%, however in the succeeding 2003 and 2004, this has fallen to 54.34% and 54.29% respectively. Affected in this downtrend of the CSR is the male pupil's participation and completion rate as contrasted with their female counterparts. In the same years as cited above, female finishing and completing basic elementary education far exceeds the percentage of male finishing and completing the same educational level/grade. Disturbingly still, although the trend since 2005 is increasing, the male pupils have not equaled or surpassed the percentage of female pupils completing elementary, thus explains the sizable number of female students in secondary and college as well as pre-university in the in Zamboanga del Sur and in the Philippines. This data echoes the 2004 Human Development Report in which it states that the ratio of female as a percentage of male in the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrollment is pegged at 104.9% (Human Development Report , 2009). Combined enrollment rate means "the ratio of the sum of elementary and secondary enrolment in the corresponding age group that should be enrolled at those levels to the sum of corresponding school age population" (Technical Notes on the Human Development Index, 2009).

These are caused by factors that are otherwise associated with the patterns of investments among the national government agencies as well as the local government units. The Local Government Code of 1991 has envisioned that services of government are to be decentralized and education has not been part of the devolution of these functions in accordance to the Local Government Code hence local government units across the region and in the different municipal local governments continually depend on their Internal Revenue Allotment (IRA) for education and other social services, and is constrained in establishing schools and constructing school buildings. It has been admitted by the local government units as well as the Regional Development Council of Zamboanga Peninsula that the LGU's dependence on the IRA "still constitutes around 55.7% of the Total Financial Resources (TFR) of the LGUs in the region" (Yebes, 2004).

The Zamboanga Peninsula Development Plan indicated that "LGU's expenditures in the region indicate that only Php 1, 652.57 is spent per person. However, of this amount 46.88% is spent for General Services rather than on Economic Services at 22.30% and Social Services at 21.43%, respectively." This pertains to the LGU's spending patterns relative to education which usually impacts the quality of educational services rendered.

Another is on the issue of rural poverty that also affects education. Even the Asian Development Bank mentioned in its policy on education that poverty "is both a cause and an effect of insufficient access to or completion of quality education. Children of poor families are less likely to enroll in and complete schooling because of the associated costs of attending school, even when it is provided free. The cost of uniforms, supplies, and transportation may well be beyond the means of a poor family, especially when the family has several children of school age. This means that choices have to be made, and the choice is often to drop out of school or, worse yet, to deny schooling to girls while enrolling the boys, thereby contributing directly to maintaining the inferior status of women. And as poor children who are enrolled grow older, the opportunity cost (their lost labor and the foregone income it may entail) becomes greater, thus increasing the likelihood of abandoning school" (Asian Development Bank, 2009).

Poverty in areas where schools are very

6 year Comparative CSR in Zamboanga del Sur

	Total M/f	Male	Female	
●	55.75	50.42	61.91	2007
■	53.66	48.37	59.78	2006
■	52.81	47.1	59.38	2005
▲	54.29	47.07	62.94	2004
■	54.34	49.25	60.13	2003
◆	60.65	54.85	67.36	2002

100% 80% 60% 40% 20% 0%
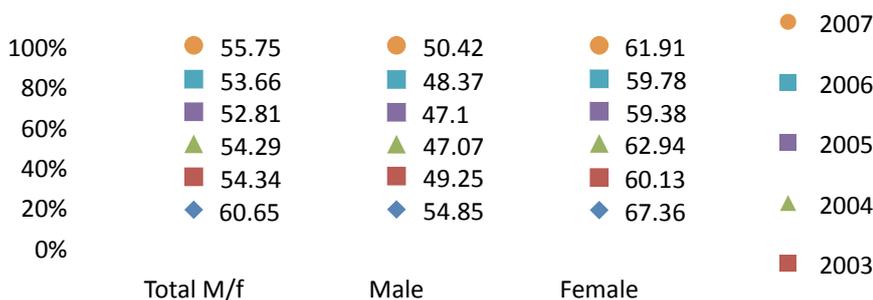
inaccessible drives lesser participation and thus affects survival through the elementary. As if to provide the impetus for a more driven approach to ensure that pupils in the elementary finished until secondary level, the Philippines passed Republic Act 6655 which expressly elucidated that in the Philippines, secondary schooling is free in public schools. Further, the Philippine government also provided temporary employment opportunities for youths and students to earn an income while on summer and/or Christmas vacation from school as enshrined in Republic Act 7323. Both laws have been widely observed however, there is still a dearth on data of actual implementation, one being that public high schools are also not present and is inaccessible in the barangay level while summer job opportunities under the Department of Labor and Employment can not at all, accommodate all those wishing to avail of the temporary employment. At the barangay level, these two landmark laws are not widely implemented, due to the geographic location of centers of actual opportunity. Usually, those barangays that have higher poverty indices, are located in distant areas, too far away from these opportunities thus, schoolchildren will still have to resort to the traditional way of earning an income. They will help their parents tend to the farm or herd the flocks to augment the family's income.

Another consideration why pupils in the elementary drop out of school is their health. Due to the inclement weather in the Philippines, pupils are forced to be absent from class whenever they got fever and other ailments. Compounding the problem is the lack of barangay health centers that carries a full range of medications that easily addresses these illnesses, most often, the child is usually, home-rested. Home rest is where the parents tend to their sick child with usually, no medical attention and prescription, but rather relied heavily on home-grown medications and homeopathy. The level of nutrition has something to do with active participation in schools too. Nutritional nourishment also ward off sickness thus enabling school children to focus more on school activities than pre-occupied with staying at home due to sickness. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization, "Protein-energy malnutrition (PEM) and micronutrient deficiencies remain the leading nutritional problems in the Philippines. The general declining trend in the prevalence of underweight, wasting and stunting among Filipino children noted in the past 10 years was countered with the increase in the prevalence rate in 1998. About 4 million (31.8%) of the preschool population were found to be underweight-for-age, 3 million (19.8%) adolescents and 5 million (13.2%) adults, including older persons were found to be underweight and chronically energy deficient, respectively" (FAO Nutrition Country Profile, 2001). Also, malaria is endemic in 65 of the 78 provinces, putting at risk a population of 11 Million, in mostly remote rural areas (Landey, 2004). Further, the report mentioned that twenty-five (25) of these provinces account for 90 per cent of all malaria cases.

The state of malnutrition in elementary school in Zamboanga del Sur from 2005 to 2007 revealed that the percentage of malnourished school children is 19.86, 14.60 and 18.18 respectively. The data is taken from the Provincial Nutrition Council of the province. In terms of nourishment through Vitamin A interventions, 2005 data revealed that in Buloron, Municipality of Midsalip it has a total of 220 children aged 1-5 years old. For Bogo Kapalaran, in the Municipality of Molave, it has 232 children. In Libertad, Municipality of Dumingag, it has 195 children. In Poblacion, Pitogo, it revealed that it has only provided Vitamin A supplements to at least 50 children from a population of 500 children. In Lunib, Municipality of Vincenzo Sagun, it has 210 children. In Lumbog, Municipality of Margosatubig, it has provided Vitamin A supplementation on 270 children. In Salambuyan, Municipality of Lapuyan, they have 45 children. In Diplo, Municipality of Kumalarang, it has provided Vitamin A to 326 children. In Poblacion, Municipality of Lakewood, it has provided Vitamin A to 590 children. And in Benuatan, Municipality of Dinas, it has provided the same to at least 80 children. There were no records for San Pedro and Sta. Lucia, both from Pagadian City under this category.

As of the 2000 census, Zamboanga del Sur had a population of 836,147, making it the 16th most populous province. The population density was 3,480/km², the 20th most densely populated province. However, a 2007 census revealed that the province has a total of 914,278. It has a total land area of 796,321 hectares. It was made a province on September 17, 1952 by virtue of Republic Act 711, making it the 52 province of the Republic of the Philippines, with 681 barangays in 26 municipalities with 1 independent city which is Pagadian City.

The province of Zamboanga del Sur is primarily agricultural. Its rich oil and terrain which consists mostly of considerably low, rolling hills are ideal for the production of a large variety of crops. Fishing and grazing are important industries of Zamboanga del Sur, with fishing offering relatively unlimited opportunities due to the presence of major fishing grounds (Luceno, 2001).

METHODOLOGY:

The study employs a survey method of gathering the data from the identified disparity barangays. These are identified by the Province of Zamboanga del Sur through the Provincial Planning and Development Office covered under the Sixth Country Program for Children, an intervention package for the children of Zamboanga del Sur delivered jointly by the UNICEF and the Province of Zamboanga del Sur. Of these areas, five (5) are located in the First Congressional District and seven (7) are located in the Second Congressional District.

It uses survey questionnaires in the survey. In gathering all the data, a research team was organized principally from the Provincial Government of Zamboanga del Sur. This study is a descriptive-qualitative survey thus uses simple percentages and frequencies. It uses random sampling technique.

KEY RESULTS:

From the areas identified as disparity barangays, the study has surveyed a total of 2,638 sampling size comprising 30% of the total population (household population) size of 8,794. The respondents are taken to represent per household and could either be the husband or the wife. Only one respondent is taken from one household.

Of these respondents, 76% are female and only 24% are male. This provided a total picture of the domesticity of female members of the household when the survey was conducted in the areas identified as disparity areas. The researcher has found mostly women tending to the household as men (husbands) are working, mostly on daytime. Of these, 90% of the respondents said they are already married. In terms of educational attainment, only 5% of these respondents said that they have finished college education compared to 24% of whom who said that they have "some elementary education", but was not able to graduate. In terms of employments, 54% were unemployed while 39% are self-employed, either as a store owner, peddler or farmer. In terms of age, most of the respondents were between the age bracket of 37-40 years old who earns less than Php 2,000 income per month (52%), roughly about US 41.57 per month in the most recent currency conversion, or US$ 1.34 per day. 38% of these respondents from San Pedro, in Pagadian City said they have the most number of school-aged children which totaled to 1,011 school children, followed by Sta, Lucia, still in Pagadian City with at least 926 school children. The areas covered with less number of school-age children in the household is in Salambuyan, Lapuyan with at least, 131 school-age children.

There are a total of 4,895 school-age children in the identified disparity barangays. By distribution, at six (6) years old category, of these school-age children, 321 are presently enrolled in Grade I. Among the 7 years old category, 419 of these are in Grade I and 146 are in Grade II, while 12 are not in school. At the 8 years old category, 218 children are enrolled in Grade I, 282 are in Grade II, 145 are in Grade III, 9 are in Grade IV while 5 are not in school. At the 9 years old category, 94 are in Grade I, 136 are in Grade II, 250 are in Grade III, 129 are in Grade IV, 8 are in Grade V and 10 are not in school. At the 10 years old category, 48 are enrolled in Grade I, 70 are in Grade II, 128 are in Grade III, 214 are in Grade IV, 118 are in Grade V, 8 are in Grade VI while 10 are not in school. At the 11 years old category, 17 are enrolled in Grade I, 45 are in Grade II, 57 are in Grade III, 111 are in Grade IV, 199 are in Grade V, 124 are in Grade VI while 8 are not in school and 3 are in First year high school. At the 12 year old category, 16 are enrolled in Grade I, 30 are in Grade II, 59 are in Grade III, 76 are in Grade IV, 122 are in Grade V, 208 are in Grade VI while 21 are not in school and 52 are in High School. In the 13 year old category, 10 are enrolled in Grade I, 13 are enrolled in Grade II, 30 are in Grade III, 31 are in Grade IV, 69 are in Grade V, 114 are in Grade VI while 22 are not in school, and at this age, 132 are in High school. At the 14 years old category, 2 are in Grade I, 6 are in Grade II, 15 are in Grade III, 21 are in Grade IV, 42 are in Grade V, 59 are in Grade VI while 19 are not in school and 119 are in High School. At the 15 years old category, 1 child is enrolled in Grade I, 1 in Grade II, 6 are in Grade III, 17 are in Grade IV, 19 are in Grade V, 34 are in Grade VI while 24 are not in school and 149 are in High School.

Among Grade I pupils being covered in the survey, the barangay that has the highest registered pupils is San Pedro, in the City of Pagadian with a total of 72 pupils followed by Barangay Poblacion in the Municipality if Pitogo. The least is Libertad, Dumingag which has only 8 pupils enrolled in Grade I.

Among the pupils in Grade VI, the highest areas with 11 years old presently enrolled is Sta. Lucia in Pagadian City with 27, briefly followed by San Pedro, still in Pagadian City with 26 pupils and Poblacion, Pitogo with 23 pupils. The least among the disparity barangays Salambuyan, Lapuyan with only 1 pupil enrolled at this age category. When asked whether their children goes to school, with no particular reference as which grade levels and in reference to children age between 6-12 years old, the respondents replied yes (98%) compared to those who said no (2%). Among those who said NO, the primary concern was *No money to spend on school* (63%), followed briefly by *No School uniform, No notebooks, papers and pencils, no schoolbag*, all at 32%. Another 30% said *Hard up times* is the reason why their children are not in school.

Although a huge percentage of those covered in the survey have children in school, the focus of the study is now pointed towards those who replied NO to the previous question if their child goes to school.

Among those who said that their child has stopped going to school, the concentration of those pupils who last attended school at a specific grade level is from Grade III, IV and V, the highest being in Grade V with 162 dropouts followed by Grade IV with 160 dropouts.

The main reason for those who decided not to go school is *poverty* (50%) followed by *high cost of education* (14%), although in the Philippines and even in these areas, primary education is free and relatively cheap. Poverty and high cost of education are two of the factors, considerably affecting school attendance and participation among pupils in school. These concerns are being addressed by one of the factors also that affect school attendance and participation and that is *earning a living* 11% and doing *farm work* 7%. These confluences are making it hard for pupils to stay in school after they had hurdle the academic rudiments of Grade I and II, respectively. Understandably, classroom requirements among Grades III, IV and V are also relatively more frequent as compared to the lower levels, thus compounded by poverty in the countryside, pupils easily gave up schooling to look for a living or undertake farm work to help the parents.

Among those who are in school, an overwhelming (98%) mass of respondents answered that their children do enjoy going and attending classes in the school, at whatever level they are presently in. Further, they responded that their children goes to school between 6:31-7:00AM (68%) followed by those whose children go to school between 6:01-6:30AM (27%) while only 0.1% who said that their children goes to school between 5:01-5:31AM and only 2% said that their children goes to school beyond 7AM. Considerably, the respondents do not accompany their children in going to school (92%) compared to only 8% of them said that they accompany their children in going to school. Usually, their children bring packed meals 'baon' (74%) to school to avoid being late because they had to go home for lunch. Also, 74% of these schoolchildren bring school bags to school for their books, notebooks, and for carriage of the packed lunches.

When asked if their children have incurred absences in school, 64% said yes and 36% said no. The causes of the absences of their children are as follows, *sickness* (55%), *rainy season* (days) at 22% and *no school materials* (11%).

One of the questions of the survey is whether their barangay has a barangay public elementary school, the respondents said they have (98%). The disparity barangays as identified is relatively near the Poblacion or in the Poblacion itself, therefore, presence of a public school is observed. The poblacion is a place where considerable concentration of economic activity is present, i.e. stores, public markets, churches, barangay offices and even municipal offices. Laudably, in Zamboanga del Sur, almost all municipalities have public schools strategically located and established in nearby barangays adjacent to a Poblacion, there is still an unmet barangay due to non-establishment of public elementary school, which unfortunately, were not covered under this study. For the 2% that they are located in a locale that do not have a barangay public elementary school, the furthest school is *less than a kilometer away* to as far as *1-3 kilometers away*. Usually, these schools are accessible by *paved/concrete roads* (51%) and *graveled road* (46%). In the entire province, most of the barangays are accessible although in some areas, there is a need for more infrastructures linking one area to the other. Further, majority of the school children *walk to school* (94%) as compared to those who do not because there are modes of transportation like motorcycle and public transportation system. In this context, the child usually walks since public elementary schools are closely located in densely populated areas and/or centers of economic activity, and these school children *wear slippers* in going to school (95%).

Although the Department of Education do not requires school uniform among public elementary schools in the country, this survey revealed that 96% of the respondents said that the schools that their children attended requires a school uniform. Further, the survey revealed that 78% of the respondents complied with the school uniform requirement and had their children wear uniform in going to school and 22% of the respondents commented that their children do not wear school uniform in going to school, although they have no idea that the Department of Education does not require school uniform among public elementary schools, among others as evidenced in Department Orders issued by the Department of Education.

In terms of the question of whether their children have enough books, it revealed that 64% of the respondents answered that their children have enough school books, although in this particular question, there was no indication if the books are owned or not, or whether the books are being brought to their respective homes or being used in the classroom. Upon evaluation, the responses revealed that it was rather based on the perceptions of these parents that their children have enough books inside the classroom, although the qualification as to how many is enough is absent.

91% of the respondents revealed that their children have time to study in their homes using the books prescribed in the class. However, when asked if their homes have provision of *electricity*, 39% of them said that they do not have electricity at home as compared to 61% who said they have. Of the 39% of the respondents who do not have electricity at home, their main source of light at night are the following, *lamparilla* (table lamp) 99% and *candle* (1%). For those who have electricity at home, when asked whether they have TV sets at home, the survey revealed that they have a TV set at home 62% as compared to those who have not. When asked how long does their child watch TV on weekdays, it revealed that their child watch TV for 1-2 hours daily (56%) and less than an hour daily (44%).

When asked whether their child makes homework or assignments at home, the survey revealed that 97% of them said YES compared to only 3% who said NO. In effectively participating in many school activities, we have asked if their children have enough papers to write on, 83% of the respondents said YES and 91% of the respondents said that their children also have pencils to be used in school.

According to the respondents, their children, while attending schools are required and has in their possession at least, 8 or more different notebooks (36%), followed by those who said that their children has between 6-7 different notebooks (24%) and between 4-5 different notebooks (20%).

Relatively, as to the question on the number of teachers the elementary school where their children went to school, the respondents said that it has 8 or more teachers (68%) as compared to those who said that there are only between 4-5 teachers in the elementary school where their child goes to (9%). When the respondents were asked whether they knew the school teacher of their children, they answered overwhelmingly with a yes (78%) as compared to those who do not know the school teacher of their children. Further, majority (96%) of the respondents said that the teacher of their children comes to school early. And when asked whether the *teachers conduct classes on a daily basis*, their responses are overwhelmingly yes (97%), only 3% of these respondents said that the teachers only have classes at least *four times a week*.

Considerably, these schools as located in the disparity barangays are not multi-grade schools instead, a complete barangay public elementary school as revealed by those who said that the school where their children attended are *not multi-grade schools* (95%). These schools, according to the respondents *have enough seats inside the classroom* (97%) and majority (97%) of the respondents revealed that their children have seats inside the classroom where they are presently enrolled.

CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS:

Cohort Survival Rate is affected by factors such as poverty, health, distance of schools, motivation as well as incentives of going to school. As evidenced in this study, the cause of low CHR in the province is rather poverty and the inability of the national government to construct more school buildings in strategic areas within the province. Construction of school buildings are still within the ambit of the national government rather than devolved to Local Government Units. In this case, as mandated by the Local Government Code, the proceeds of the Special Education Fund (SEF) usually go to the hiring of locally-paid teachers to augment much needed human resource. These teachers are placed on the payroll as locally-paid teachers until a permanent teaching position is made available. Also, rural poverty plays a critical role. Rural poverty is driving pupils away from schools since they have no sufficient meals to take before going to school and for mid-day lunch. The pangs of hunger always hinder their dream of finishing schooling in the elementary level. At first, they may have a head-start when they enroll in Grades I and II however, due to poverty, they do not often enroll in Grades III and IV. Also, improved nutrition among schoolchildren has to be intensified to ensure that they attend and finished schooling.

For an increased CHR in the province, an intensive intervention that targets rural poverty alleviation should be considered. Intensified alternative mode of living like planting of cassava, high value crops, fruit trees should be encouraged to allow farmers to earn more income to finance their daily needs, which includes meals for their children prior to going to school and the mid-day lunch. Cassava planting is a viable option to make livelihood in the barangay level work for every farmer since the cassava produce can be harvested after 10 months and it do not necessarily require huge open tracks of land for plantation purposes. This is also small-scale but the potential for earning additional income is higher.

Also, extensive and intensified intervention of the UNICEF and the Province will ensure improved CHR among pupils, thus ensuring more pupils enrolling in secondary and eventually, in the higher education sector.

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**Trial Placement Provision in Early College Entry as a Novel Approach to Radical Acceleration:
An Introspection by a Radical Accelerand**

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Abstract

At the age of 11, the author, then a science high school freshman, underwent an experimental type of early college placement program with radical acceleration at the University of the Philippines-Diliman (UPD). The program, titled the "Early College Placement Program (ECPP)" of UPD, features a trial placement period of one year, during which the capability of the student for college academic work and the student's emotional and social growth are observed and assessed. After each enrolment term during the trial period, the student has the option to push through with the program or to go back to high school. If the student decides to push through with the program after the last term of the trial period, the student's performance will be assessed for possible admission into the university as a regular college student. Subjects taken during the trial period may be credited towards the student's chosen degree program.

Because of this fallback option, the student must also take the college equivalent of high school subjects during the trial period. This is to make sure that the student will not fall behind other high school students in terms of academics even if the student decides to go back to high school. The design of the curriculum during the trial period is also of great interest, as one needs to balance the need to take high school equivalents, prerequisites in college courses, and assigning a reasonable academic load.

From the author's experience, the existence of the fallback option, previously unavailable in other programs, had a significant effect on her academic performance and social adjustment. The availability of the option to go back to high school, even though it was not taken, contributed to less social pressure on the author, which enabled her to focus more on her studies. Aside from the fallback option, the program also features a no-media-exposure policy, which also lessened social pressure on the author.

The author graduated at the age of 16, with a degree of Bachelor of Science in Physics from the University of the Philippines-Diliman, summa cum laude. She is now 18 years old, and is teaching physics at the same university while taking her PhD in the same field.

Keywords: radical acceleration, early college entry, trial placement, gifted education

The Use of Questioning Techniques to Enhance Malaysian Student's Responses in the Language Classroom

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Abstract

When education has a purpose and teaching goes beyond the delivery of content, it is important for language teachers to equip learners with the potential to ask and respond to questions. This paper looks at the use of questioning techniques by Malaysian language teachers and how it helps learners perform in the language. The study looks at a) whether teachers' questioning techniques vary according to students' level, b) questioning techniques help learners speak beyond textbook literalness, and c) teachers view questioning strategies as essential to helping learners learn the language. The study looked at four classroom interactions in relation to questions and answers over a period of three weeks. This was followed up with interviews and teachers written responses. The findings revealed that the teachers used a variety of questioning techniques such as redirecting, rephrasing, probing and prompting and this did enable students to respond actively in class. However, there was a preference for rephrasing questions and this affected the learning process. While most teachers agree that by posing more referential and probing questions, they could elicit useful information from their advanced students; such information were dismissed as distracting, disruptive and redundant since the examinations were central to teaching. Many teachers despite insisting that questioning techniques was a move towards the learner centered classroom tend to use questions for reinstating the teacher centered classroom. Teachers who used more democratic forms of questioning strategies managed to instill interest and help their students communicate meaningfully. The findings have serious applications and implications for progress of the learner centered classroom in Asia.

Keywords: questioning techniques, display questions, referential questions, prompting questions, probing questions

Introduction

Language learners make linguistic progress when given opportunities to speak and express themselves in different situations (Nam & Lewis, 2000). Questions and responses during classroom interaction help fule and drive student's thinking skills. Questions that require higher cognitive skills and open ended questions (where there are a number of possible answers) help students communicate, comprehend and grow. Regardless of whether the questions are simple or complex, meaningful, questions matter and should be seen as opportunities for teachers to address gaps in the learners' knowledge. This paper is concerned with the need to inculcate critical and creative thinking skills through questioning techniques and aims to investigate whether the questions posed in the second language classroom can help learners learn the language and use them appropriately.

Background

When discussing questioning techniques, Bloom's (1956) classification of levels of intellectual behaviour in learning is a good place to begin with. The taxonomy contains three overlapping domains: the cognitive, psychomotor and affective. Within the cognitive domain are six levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation and each domain and level is considered crucial for developing critical and creative thinking abilities. It is believed that by managing questions and responses accordingly, teachers can help steer learners into the various areas and provide opportunities for learners to make decisions for their own learning process. To ensure that teachers remain aware of these needs, teacher training courses focus on this area of knowledge and it is assumed that teachers are knowledgeable about the various levels of questioning techniques, their importance and how it enables learners to think and apply learnt knowledge.

Within questioning techniques, questions intended for the knowledge and comprehension levels are termed as low-level cognitive questions while questions requiring students to respond at the knowledge, comprehension and application levels are considered high level questions. High level questions require students to apply, analyse, synthesize and evaluate and students are required to process information using abstract or higher level thinking skills. Closed questions generally, have a limited number of acceptable answers while open questions allow multiple interpretations and responses which often are anticipated by the instructor. Cotton (2001) insists that students' engagement in higher level thinking aids when remembering factual knowledge and enables them to be more analytical in their thinking. A number of questions allow for multiple answers. **Display** questions can be answered within a single phrase such as, "What is the past tense of eat?" They are low level question that evaluates students' preparation and comprehension. **Referential** questions refer to questions to which teachers do not have a single correct answer to such as "What will you do when you are twenty years old?" Referential questions require students to engage in higher level thinking processes and encourage students to think more deeply and critically, engage in problem solving skills, and stimulate students to seek information on their own. **Redirecting** allows teachers to ask a few students to respond to the same question such as "Young people are good with computers. What do you think about that?" These types of questions serve as an effective way of getting more students to speak out in class. Such questions also enable students to build on one another's ideas. **Prompting** questions refer to questions where the teachers probes the student to narrow the focus of the answer. Such questions are important because they help students analyze their initial error (Moore, 2003). **Probing** questions are important because they encourage students to complete and clarify responses (Wilen et. Al, 2004). They require students to speak beyond the single word response (Kellough & Kellough, 2003). Finally, **Rephrasing** questions refer to questions which are reworded to suit the learner comprehension level such as "how about similes? … do you see any similes in this story?" Rephrasing is necessary because successful verbal communication cannot be achieved without the student's ability to understand what is being said.

The Study

The research looked at students responses to academic questions posed in class. It is assumed that a case study is able to provide a more naturalistic investigation about the teachers' questioning styles which would be less possible if an experimental design were hosen. The researcher did not interfere with the proceedings of the lesson throughout the study.

Population

The 196 participants came from 4 Form Two classes [14 – 15 years of age] from an urban school in East Malaysia. The students came from three major backgrounds (Chinese, Malay and Bumiputeras [Indigenous]) and spoke different first languages and dialects (Hokkien, Mandarin, Malay and indigenous languages). The selected classes consisted of students with different levels of language proficiency, namely the advanced level (2F), the intermediate level (2H and 2 I) and the lower level (2A). The placement of students for each class was determined by the school and based on their achievement in their final examination for the previous year. Students who did well in their overall performance were also good in their English. Each class consisted of thirty five to forty five students. The more proficient students had scored an A for their English paper and were capable of using the English confidently and made minor errors in their speech and writing. Students who had scored a B and C for their English papers were placed in the intermediate classes and were said to be

able to communicate in the language satisfactorily. Sometimes, they were said to struggle with words in their speech and writings but were generally considered to be able to convey their meanings with an almost close meaning. As for the lower level students, these students had failed or were considered weak in the language. The students were seen as struggling students in the language. The selection of the subjects was based on convenience sampling and they were not sitting for any major national examinations and not under any undue pressure to perform for a particular subject. The two teachers involved in the study were between 30 to 32 years of age. Both teachers had a degree in the teaching of English as a Second Language and had taught the subject for at least five years They were teaching one proficient or intermediate group and one weak group. Both teachers were addressing the same topic, text and content from the syllabus. Data collection involved observation notes and a tape recorder.

Process

A total of sixteen observations sessions were carried out. Each class was observed four times and the data was collected over a period of four weeks. The researcher did not analyze the data for the first week as the student's responses could be affected by the researcher's presence. The researcher did not interact with the teacher nor the respondent throughout the sessions so as to ensure neither the students nor the instructors were influenced by anything that was mentioned by the researcher. The teachers provided their responses to the activities in class only after the study.

Data Analysis

Three questions were formulated for the purpose of this study which are as follows:

1. What is the frequency of questions used in class?
2. What are the types of questions used by language teachers in each class?
3. What kind of questioning techniques help build student's communicative skills?

For the purpose of data analysis, only academic questions (questions related to the subject matter being taught) were analyzed. The various questions were categorized according to two categories. The first category contained types of questions (display and referential questions) whereas the second table contained a list of questioning techniques (prompting, probing, rephrasing, redirecting questions). By referring to the observation notes, the researcher placed a tick against each question following closely to the columns that indicated the type of questions and analyzed them following the actual interactions in class.

Findings

Both teachers used similar questioning skills for each lesson. The questions were predictable after the second lesson. As such only four transcripts were chosen for the analysis.

Types of questions used by teachers in class

Both teachers asked a total of 181 questions for the 4 sessions. Of these, only 141 (77.9%) were academic questions. From the academic questions, a total of seventy two (51.1%) academic questions were directed to students in 2F. This was followed by 2I with twenty eight (19.9%), 2H with twenty six (19.4%) and 2A with fifteen (10.6%) academic questions. The average number of questions asked per lesson was pitched at thirty five questions which is equivalent to an average of about one question per minute in a forty minute lesson. The finding is closely related to Cotton (2001) who discovered that thirty five to fifty per cent of the teacher's instructional time was occupied by question and answer recitations.

From the analysis, it was possible to state that both teachers used display and referential questions in all the lessons. The majority of questions asked in the intermediate and weaker classes were towards display questions (79 questions – 56%) and the remaining questions (62 questions – 44%) were referential questions. In 2I, 15 questions (53.6%) were display questions whereas the remaining 13 questions (46.4%) were referential questions. In 2H, 17 (65.4%) of the questions asked were display questions with the remaining 9 questions (34.6%) being referential questions. In 2A, 14 of the questions (93.3%) were display questions while 1 (6.7%) was a referential question. The findings of this study concurs with Shomoossi (2004) who found that the asking of display questions exceeded the number of referential questions. Refer Figure 1.
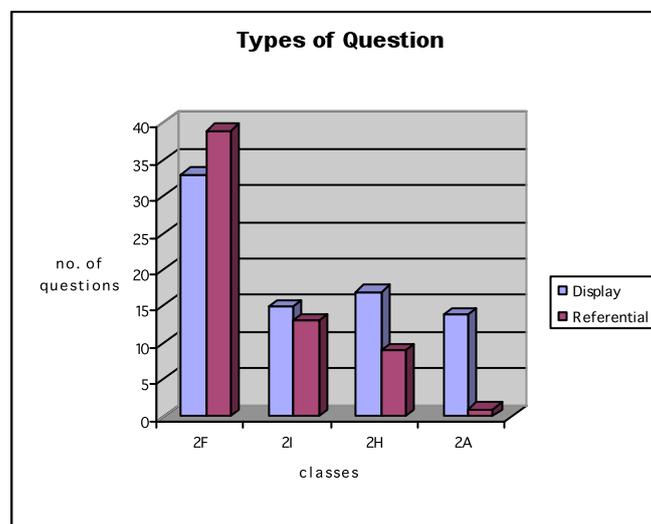
Fig. 1: Types of questioning techniques used by teachers in class

As for 2H, 33 questions (45.8%) of the total questions asked were display questions whereas the remaining 39 questions (54.2%) were referential questions.

During the period of observation, the teachers used numerous questioning techniques to encourage students to respond in class actively. However, rephrasing questions were the only questioning technique employed throughout the sessions. Redirecting was used to generate a wider variety of responses and this helped to shift the focus from teacher student interactions to student-student interaction. The researcher identified a total of seven redirecting questions. There were three questions posed to students in 2A (42.9%), two questions to 2F (28.6%) and two questions 2I (28.6%) but this was not observed in 2H. This is in line with Habsah (2006) who found that teachers seldom asked redirecting questions in classrooms. A possible reason for the minimal use of redirecting question being that when most questions are generally of a factual level, then students merely recite facts without much reflection. A total of twenty eight probing questions were used and the students in 2F were asked a total of eighteen questions while this technique was never applied in 2A. In getting students to respond to probing questions, the teachers often provided hints and clues to help students over difficult areas. There were a total of twenty three prompting questions and these were used in most classes except 2I. There was a tendency for teachers to provide hints by telling students where the answers could be found in terms of page, paragraph providing very little challenge for the better students. Sometimes, the teachers would continue to elaborate to an extent until it was impossible not to realize the answer. Rephrasing was well exploited by teachers in all classes. There were a total of thirty eight rephrasing questions in which thirty eight were asked in 2F (39.5%), ten questions in 2I (26.3%), eight questions in 2H (21.1%) and five questions in 2A (13.2%).

Nature of questions used by teachers in various classes

In the advanced class (2F), the teacher used more probing questions (18 question- 64.3%) compared to the other three classes as indicated in figure 2. Probing questions were used extensively because the students had the capability to answer the given questions with further elaborations based on their own interpretations. Hence the use of probing questions enabled the students to speak beyond a single word utterance. This was followed by rephrasing questions (15 question -39.5%), prompting questions (10 question -43.5%) and redirecting questions (2 questions -28.6%). Redirecting questions were given less emphasis even though the students took the initiative to participate in class actively. As for the intermediate classes (2H and 2I) both teachers used more rephrasing questions. Such questions helped students understand the topics effectively and this was followed by the use of probing questions (2 questions – 28.6%). Redirecting questions were not given much emphasis because the students volunteered and the teacher did not have to call on individuals. As for the weaker classes (2A), prompting was used widely to help students deal with an incorrect or incomplete answer so that they can acquire information systematically.
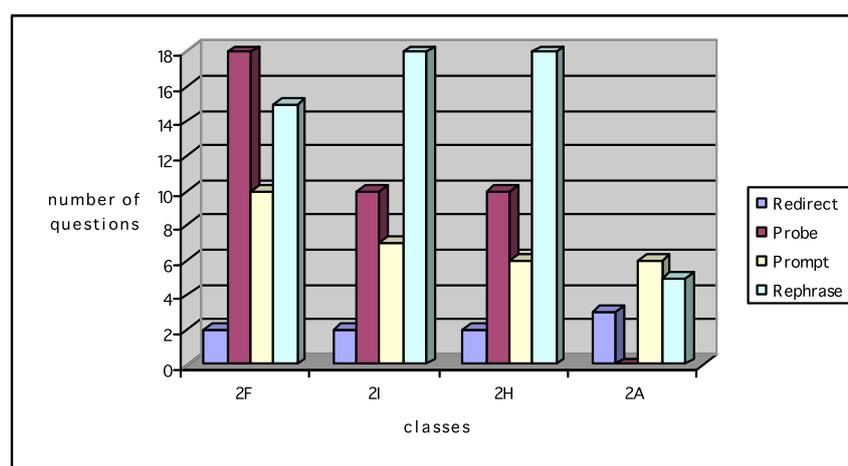
Figure 2: Types of Questions According to Proficiency

Questioning techniques that help build student's responses

Most students were able to answer the display question with minimal effort. In 2F, the teacher obtained accurate responses (100%) for all thirty three questions posed. As for 2A, the teacher collected thirteen responses (92.9%) out of the fourteen display questions asked and 2H answer fifteen (88.2%) out of the seventeen display questions. In 2I, the teacher obtained thirteen (86.7%) out of the fifteen display questions asked. However, it has to be noted that it was not possible to help student build on their language experience through such questions. The transcript below is an indicator of the limitation of display questions.

Excerpt 1 (Advanced Class)

(1) T : When did Dr. Mahathir become the Prime Minsiter? Chen Wei?
(2) S1: Yes?
(3) T : Answer me. Give me the answer.

(4) S1: 1959.
(5) T: 1956, that's wrong.
(6) S1: Okay.
(7) T : Where are you Philip? Louder, stand up, louder, stand up and answer.
(8) S2: 1981.
(9) T : 1981. Okay class, we answer together. What is the answer? (a students passes a book
          to another). Now, stop that. Do I allow you to copy? …okay, question 2, listen

          carefully….

In the excerpt above, the teachers was teaching about one of the nation's leaders. However, the teacher was merely reading out from a list of questions found in the text. There was no challenge in the questions because both questions and answers were made available in the text. Some students had already marked the answers in their text and that explained one of the students passing over his book to his friend to be copied. So, with display questions there were actually very little need to think in the lesson and resulted in the students becoming bored and restless.

As for the referential questions, almost all questions were answered. However, the referential questions   failed to generate new questions or challenge students to think beyond their existing experiences though there were opportunities to do so, because the teacher felt the need to continuously control the conversation as indicated below:

Excerpt 2 (Intermediate Class)

(10) T :   Nicholas, which country do you like to go if you are a sailor?

(11) S3:   Japan, Japan…

(12) T :   Japan? Why do you choose Japan? Why?

(13) S3:   Very nice, the coffee very nice…

(14) T :   That is not detailed enough. You can say a country like Malaysia is

             also very nice…

(15) S4:   Japan's very clean

(16) S5:   Teacher, Japan's food very fresh…

(17) T :   Yes, the food is very different.

(18) S6:   I won't go there for food.

(19) T :   Yah… the food is different. It is good. Both Korean and Japanese

             food are different. …. The food is not sour, it's not salty. It is all

             very healthy.

(20) S3:   That is good?

(21) T :   They take fresh vegetables, fresh fish, fresh meats. Everything fresh,

             Of course that is healthy and they live long.

The teachers were quick to interrupt whenever there was a brief silence. There little time for students to think and students were not able to pick up on a point raised during the process.   Many of the questions were mere fillers and   most   students were not expected to think much accept for the occasional "Yes" and "No" in chorus as in the excerpt below:

Excerpt 3 (Weaker Class)

(10) T: Next, we have "what can I learn?" This refers to everything… the moral
(11)   value or any lesson. So… can you fill in this part before you, before you
(12)   *finished reading this book? Can you? Let's say you read the book or the
(13)   storybook halfway. Is there any lesson from the … from your reading?
(14) S's: (in chorus) No.

In the above excerpt, the teacher required the students to fill in their reflections after having read a book as part of a reading program. The questions merely served to reaffirm a known fact. Most classroom discourses served to invite students to reinstate a previously known answer and there was no consideration for learner's opinions. Most of the questions failed to build any level any level of interaction except give venues for students to agree and accept teachers' comments.

With redirecting questions, it was possible for the teacher to get students to provide alternate responses and this was a fresh change in the intermediate class as indicated in excerpt 4.

Excerpt (4).

(15) T: Alright… in your life as well, we have a purpose. What is the purpose you come
(16)   to… why do you come to school? (nodding towards student C).
(17) S7:   for finding friends
(18) T: What about you (nodding towards another student)
(19) S8: Because our parents' force us …
(20) T: … and you? (knocks on Student's table)
(21) S9: To gain knowledge

In the above excerpt, the teacher makes an attempt to connect the various students learning experiences. By redirecting the same question to a number of students, the teacher gets a number of students to share their learning experiences. This also encourages the passive learners to speak up. This kind of questions are useful for large classes where there is generally few opportunities to engage in face to face interaction.   Another useful strategy   that helped students speak up were probing questions. This was evident even among the more proficient learners as indicated in excerpt (4).

Excerpt (5)

(22) T   :   What is the purpose you come to … why do you come to school?

                 (nodding towards student F)

(22) S10 :   … because parents force us
(23) T   :   Your parents force you" Why do you parents force you to come to school?
(24) S11:   Don't want us to be at home
(25) T   :   They don't want you to be at home? Why they don't want you to be at home?
(26) S12:   Because they are so noisy

(27) T :   There are a lot of places to send you. Why don't they send you to the market?
(28)   Why don't they send you to the jungle?
(29) S13:   Because here got principal.
(30) S14:   …here got rules

Here the interaction started off with a parallel topic in a more proficient class, but the teacher's happened to be more attentive to the student's response. This served as incentive for students to provide more original replies. To avoid superficial answers, the teacher probed the students and challenged them with additional questions. This helped the teacher address issues that might not have been included in the lesson otherwise. Similarly, rephrasing questions as indicated in excerpt (6) were also found to help students speak out but once again this was not used regularly and often ended abruptly.

Excerpt (6)

(31) T: How… make Malaysia well known internationally?
(32) S15:   (Points out the answer to the teacher)
(33) T: Not only that. There is more. Look further.
(34) S16:   He is vocal with his thoughts and opinions on world issues.
(35) T: Some more? A firm stand on…
(36) S15:   On important issues like…
(37) T: Yes, globalisation and terrorism. So number four is done. Give another five
                adjectives to describe him. Turn to page 34, question 5 here. List five adjectives

                to describe him. Are you ready? Are you ready? Jun Tzi, give me one. Refer to

                he textbook.

(38) S16:   Vocal.
(39) T: Any others? From your mind? You? For example, he is vocal, confident, diligent
                and intelligent. Then he is very innovative and creative. Now, you take out your

                exercise book, write this down. Copy down the questions and circle the

                appropriate answers. There are another 4 questions there. Now what does the

                phrase "flying colours mean?" You!

(40) S17:   What?
(41) T: Don't ask me. Stand! You stand as well.
(42) S16:   Hah? Why?
(43)T: I ask you to stand! (Class laughs). I tell you, when I am teaching, I don't want

                people talking in front of me. You think you have the freedom to talk in my

                class!

    Getting learners to talk beyond the words in the printed text was probably the least important aim of the lesson. The teacher was more concerned with getting the students to identify the accurate answer and write them down in the note book.

Discussion.

        Much of the language classes in the study looked familiar, with the teacher beginning with an explanation or teaching. There will be number of questioning activities and this provides opportunity

for a number of students to participate. The teacher call on a few students before summarizing the learning point.   This is not very different from the study of Benjamin (1997) on the Japanese classroom routines. Students contributions are recognized but few students get the opportunity to speak beyond a phrase or sentence. Students who volunteer are given recognition but it is generally the teachers who evaluates the response. This is probably unlike the Japanese classroom context, where students are given the role of judging their peers response (p.44).

Malaysian teachers play both the role of teacher and manager in the classroom. Where large classes are involved and students required to sit in class for several hours, teachers often find themselves playing dual roles as teachers and managers. This results in teachers posing a number of non academic questions that merely reinforces the teacher centred classroom contexts. From the above findings, it is also obvious that the teachers in the study spent a great deal of time asking questions. Unfortunately many of these questions were pitched at the lower level of Bloomfield's taxonomy and happened to be display questions. While questioning techniques (prompting, probing, rephrasing and redirecting questions) yield powerful benefits in terms of encouraging students to participate in classroom activities, teachers do not seem to deliberate over the types of questions that help learners think beyond what is already known. Teaching in Malaysia seems to be more concerned with getting students to provide accurate answers rather than address fluency. While there appeared to be some form of interaction for the more proficient class, it was obvious that helping learners to think creatively did not matter. Interaction seemed to getting students to agree with what they teacher saw as the answer. While it is necessary for learners to acquire some level of fluency before they can be made to speak in chunks, teachers over eagerness to complete students sentences whenever there was silence did not help. Second and foreign language learners generally need time to think and speak out and the teachers in the study seem to be depriving learners of that opportunity. This could be because teachers do not seem to value the learners' contribution to the learning process and there was little attempts to build on the students knowledge. Most questions served as fillers and responses were kept to either the word or phrasal level. While some questions may be better than no questions, teachers must make an effort to promote some level of thinking rather than merely expect learners to agree with the teachers' views. When opportunities to reconstruct meaning remain limited, fixed and obvious, learning can no be seen as engaging and the mind will begin to wonder. This explained many of the blank responses from students who were not following the lessons. Similarly, students do not run into difficulties when a question is directed towards them since the answers can be found in the books. Students are expected to copy the same information making learning a laborious task. By getting students to write down the same answers, the teachers seem to be creating a false impression that students have learned. Unfortunately, the opposite is said to occur especially when learners become over-dependent on the textbook and eventually find themselves being unable to speak beyond the literalness of the language of the textbook.

The learners were also not given an opportunity to ask questions themselves. It could be possible that the students were not used to asking questions since most of the explanations were already available in the text. Teaching and learning seemed to focus on theoretical knowledge rather than applications skills. There was also a predisposition for teachers to let students off easily when students failed to answer difficult questions. Rather than reformulate a challenging question, the teacher automatically provided the answer and moved on the next question with an excuse that they needed to get on with the syllabus. There were instances when the teacher began the lesson with a general question which the students responded to actively. The teacher followed up with a probing question in order to supply additional information but when there was no response from the students, the teacher immediately moved to a new simpler question to avoid the silence in class. There were instances when questions were asked and dismissed without any answers. This created an impression that it was alright not to know the answer, since the teacher would ultimately provide the answer which they will write in their books.

Rephrasing questions was a predominant technique in all lessons. It is possible that copious rewording of questions not only improved student's comprehension, but also maximized students' opportunities to provide correct answers. Even the weaker students volunteered to answer the questions but when questions failed to serve as a challenge, they choose to sit silently in the back or referred to some other print material. There were proficient students who took the initiative to answer regardless of whether the response was right or wrong but these   students were generally more

comfortable with the language. The weaker students continued to bury themselves in the book as if expecting some form of osmosis to take place from the book to the learner.

Implications

Questioning strategies help engage students actively in classrooms. However, the way teachers pose questions and elicit responses do not augur well for the learner centered classroom. These kinds of classroom discourse seem to proceed in a fixed order where the teacher performs a common ritual in a fixed order, where the teacher initates with a question, a student responds and the teacher evaluates (Filmore & Snow, 2000). Asking a question in the response slot can risk teacher censure (Zuengler & Cole, 2000). It is uncertain if the teachers taught about the implications of their questions that they posed in class. It is also necessary that teachers realize that it matters how a question is posed. When teachers have explicit knowledge of language forms and functions, they must realize that they have the tools for helping learners to think and discover in the language. While open and close questions matter, teachers need to be aware of the principles of questions and how challenging questions allow students to become actively engage in the learning process. Non academic questions posed should therefore not come across as intending to put learner down or instill teacher authority in class. Teachers must have access to basic information about how language works and also be prepared to equip themselves with sufficient knowledge in the field in order to serve as a bridge between language content knowledge. The teacher in the study did not seem to know an alternative answer, when the answer was not available in the textbook. It is possible that this teacher in not alone. It is important that language teachers read themselves and be interested in happenings in other fields as well. Teachers cannot continue remain contented with their initial university education as information in terms of teaching and learning is transforming at a rapid pace. Teachers must realize that the knowledge in the books within the books can be restrictive or limited (no matter how well it is designed) and may not be able to prepare students for the real world.

Finally, Malaysia and Japan shares some similarities that can be generalized to many parts of Asia. Most Asian countries share common core values that differ from practices that exist in the United States. Asian countries seem to place greater stress on discipline, character building and emphasizes on a structured culture that demands respect for authority, elders and allegiance to its leaders. In Japan the expectations and characteristics of education is under one nation rule by the Ministry of Education and Malaysia is no different. We are both closely bound in our cultural views, and great emphasis is placed on getting learners to do well in examinations so that they can get into the best schools. Interestingly, Malaysia and Japan are both see seeing education reforms that this conference is good evidence of what is taking place in the region.

Education reforms are in action in Japan, Malaysia and many parts of Asia and the spread of English in the international market is placing greater demands on the way foreign language teaching is addressed in Asia. In East Asia e.g. China, Japan and Korea, the motivation may be economic – where the expansion of international trade requires the population to become more proficient in English as the language of international business, commerce and finance (Kachru & Smith, 2009). South East Asia views maintaining English as important for diffusing rivalry and language conflicts (Ferguson, 1996; Shah, 1968). Within this context, it has been said that "Malaysia in its need to acquire greater technological skills in the shortest time possible" and education for employment rather than knowledge and enlightenment is causing Malaysian learners to become passive recipients rather than active seekers of information (Khoo, 2008). This situation might be reflective of a number of developing nations who are keen to improve their English level of their young population. However, these very same systems fail to realize that information once acquired has to be systematically processed and preserved for ready retrieval through systematic means that facilitate storage and retrieval . Therefore, questions in class should help learners access information, not regurgitate information because "information, once acquired requires creative application" (p.61). Fortunately, with increasing awareness many parents are becoming increasingly concerned with their children's happiness and development in broader activities such as general knowledge and the arts and presently, it is the Asians themselves who are most concerned that the current school system stifles the creativity of young adolescents and contributes to tragic incidents of adolescents bullying and suicide. Currently, with access to greater information and greater awareness, learner expectations have changed as well and it is no longer practical to expect learners to be passive recipients of knowledge. There is a need for greater democratic practices in terms of teaching and learning. Finally, while Asian school systems may have

come under great criticisms for some of the negative outcomes of their education styles, the system has also been greatly praised for many it positive characteristics such as school uniforms, diligence, intelligence and time on tasks. That being said, it is essential to decipher the characteristics of the system that must remain, and the ones that must be revised.   Undoubtedly, a number of well intentioned changes seem to have taken place and although reforms are taking place, it is important that they are made at a faster pace and the changes made more noticeable. Many Asian nations are under criticism that the changes in their education system are occurring too slowly   and there is doubt that in making the right changes, it is "too little, too late."

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Walk side by side with your students learning style preferences

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of the learning styles and teaching styles preferences and the degree of the congruence and incongruence between them and its impact on learners' achievements among the English Major Students (EMSs) in foreign languages faculty in Azad University in Iran. The results revealed that connecting learning styles and teaching styles in an EFL classes in Azad University plays an important role in student's achievements.

 Keywords: Learning styles, Teaching styles, Match and mismatch, achievement

Today, one of the focuses of research in teaching and learning is of exploring the learners' strategies when they are involved in the learning task. There is also now more emphasis on how students handle learning problems, how they explore the strategies which help them to become successful learners and the effects of the teaching styles on students performance. (Dansereau, 1985; Weinstein & Underwood, 1985).

The premise behind this drive is the belief that, to be effective, ESL/EFL teachers to have knowledge about the learners' learning needs, individual differences in learning, the required teaching methods, learners' preferences as well as the necessary teaching materials required to meet the learners' needs in the educational setting. More specifically, recently, emphasis has also been paid to teaching and learning style. A gap in the literature pertaining to this particular group of learners exists, particularly when it comes to EFL learners in Iran.

Most of the research in this area is cross-sectional and dealt with the learning styles of students in higher education and how the dependent variables such as gender, age, university major, and personality influenced the learning styles (Severiens, 1997; Brew, 2002; Nielsen, 2005). The information on students learning styles can be useful when the learning styles implementation in adult education is related with teachers considering the learners styles versatility at different level and different subjects (Nielsen, 2005). This aspect of the adult learners normally is argued under the matching and mismatching of the teacher styles and their learners learning styles (Hyman & Rosoff, 1984; Beck, 2001; Zhenhui, 2001), and it is advised to be connected to the relationship between the learners learning styles and teachers teaching styles(Zhenhui, 2001).

The findings of past studies done by (Felder,1988;Goodwin,1995; McDonald,1996) explained that a learner's achievement in any class is managed by a few factors, such as native ability, and congruence level of the learner's learning styles and the teacher's teaching styles. Some studies have also found that congruence (matching) between the learning styles and teaching styles have a positive impact on achievement and satisfaction (Ester, 1994; Felder,1988; Goodwin,1995;Mcdonald, 1996). Matching and mismatching between learning styles and teaching styles exist in any academic setting. The mismatch happens when the students' preferred methods of processing information are not aligned with the teachers' preferred styles of teaching. According to Felder (1988) a possible reason for the poor performance is that students may become bored and demotivated.

De Vries (2005) advocated that college students from different cultures have different influences on their learning. Providing instructors with the necessary information about culture and its effects on student learning style preferences will enable professors to incorporate more preferred learning style methods into their teaching. Though a combination of methods should be used (Felder,1996) the incorporation of preferred styles in order to improve retention as well as achievement is important. Felder and Spurlin (2005) stated, "When mismatches exist between learning styles of most students in a class and the teaching style of the professor, the students may become bored and inattentive, do poorly on tests, get discouraged about the courses, the curriculum, and themselves, and in some cases change to other curricula or drop out of school" (para. 2). The objective of this study is to investigate learning preferences among the university students in Iran and its matching level with their teacher's teaching styles and its impact on student achievement. Based on its findings, this study hypothesizes that the appropriate teaching styles that are aligned with students' learning preferences will influence their achievement. Previous studies on teaching styles have been reviewed in order to explain the link which may exist between two variables (learning preferences VS teaching styles). This study reveals the specific learning preferences, which are fundamental for teaching styles in Iranian university setting.

Universities in Iran are also places in which English is taught. Universities in Iran also teach English in a range of independent fields of study, such as English language and literature, teaching English as a second /foreign language and English translation. The students in these fields are referred to as English major students (EMSs). A majority of EMSs in Iran has chosen its major with a certain degree of capability in language use, but there are some students who have a low proficiency in English. Every EMS goes through two years of training that covers general English, which is about the four main skills reading,listening,writing,speaking. In the next two years, the students focus on their specialized course of study. Some of the learners have problem in grasping the contents and concepts of the course given in English language, and this seems to be one of the problems that EFL students face in the target language. This can be explained by their inability or weaknesses in general English, which may have a

significant impact on their academic success. Passing some courses successfully is not the determining factor in assessing the students' overall performance in the language. After passing their core courses and graduating, Iranian EFL graduates still are not proficient and qualified in language use and its components as expected (Farhady et al., 1994). The teaching of English concepts is growing so fast in Iran that there is the need to understand at learners' and teachers' preferences have become central in English education in general and English teacher training in particular. In same line with this, Nunan (1988) stated that, "no curriculum can claim to be truly learner-centered unless the learner's subjective needs and perceptions relating to the processes of learning are taken into account." (p.177)

This research tried to answer the following questions:

1- What are the learning style preferences of EMSs learners and teaching styles preferences of the EMSs lecturers in university classroom setting in Iran?

2- Does the match or mismatch of teaching and learning styles impact on the achievement of EMSs learners in a university classroom setting in Iran?

Methodology

The research method that is used for this study is the quantitative approach using the survey method. Subjects were 310 EFL learners from one of the universities in Iran and four lecturers. The instruments were used in this study were :

1- Felder and Soloman(2006) Learning styles Index
2- Observation and Interview

Results and conclusions

Students learning styles preferences and Comparison in Achievement Scores between Matched Teaching-Learning Styles with Mismatched Teaching-Learning Styles across all four dimensions in Felder and Soloman (2006)

There are four dimensions in Felder and Soloman (2006) which are 1- Active/Reflective (LSP1),2-Sensing /Intuition(LSP2),3- Visual /Verbal (LSP3),4-Global /Sequential(LSP4). The dominant learning styles among the student in faculty of forieng languages are reported as below:

In LSP1 the Active dimension, in LSP2 the sensing dimension, where as in LSP3 visual dimension is preferred and finally in LSP4 the students preferences were Global dimension.

In order to overlook the impact of the match and mismatch on students achievement, analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA to determine if a relationship exists between matched teaching-learning styles with achievement across all the four learning style pairs. For that, the learners were categorized into five groups. The recoded variable was called Match. For learners, whose learning styles matched their teachers' teaching styles across all four LSPs, Match = 4, indicating that their learning styles had a perfect match with their teacher's teaching styles across all the four LSPs. Similarly, if a learner matched his or her teachers' learning style in three of the four LSPs, the learner was categorized into Match group 3, indicating that the learner matched his or her teacher's teaching style in three of the four LSPs. If there was complete mismatch between learners's learning style and his or her teacher's teaching style across all four LSPs, the learner was categorized into Match group 0.

Based on the categorization above, there were five groups under the variable Match. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine if there were significant differences between the groups in the achievement scores. The means and standard deviations of the achievement scores for the five groups are as shown in Table 1. Table 2 shows the results of the one-way ANOVA. Table 3 shows the results of the Tukey HSD post-hoc multiple comparisons.

Table 1: Means and standard deviations of achievement scores for the Match Groups

Dependent Variable	Match Group				
	0	1	2	3	4
Achievement Scores					
Mean	13.47	14.00	14.78	16.79	17.57
S.D.	2.69	3.06	3.35	2.16	1.97
N	18	27	61	136	68

Table 2: One-way analysis of variance on achievement scores for the Match Groups

Dependent Variable	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Achievement Scores	Between gps	562.04	4	140.51	22.22	0.00*
	Within gps	1928.41	305	6.32		
	Total	2490.45	309			

*significant at $p < 0.05$

Table 3: Tukey post-hoc comparisons on achievement scores for the Match Groups

Dependent Variable	(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (MD) (I-J)	p
Achievement Scores	Match Group 0	Match Group 1	-0.53	0.96
		Match Group 2	-1.31	0.30
		Match Group 3	-3.32	0.00*
		Match Group 4	-4.10	0.00*
	Match Group 1	Match Group 2	-0.78	0.66
		Match Group 3	-2.79	0.00*
		Match Group 4	-3.57	0.00*
	Match Group 2	Match Group 3	-2.01	0.00*
		Match Group 4	-2.79	0.00*
	Match Group 3	Match Group 4	-0.78	0.23

*significant at p < 0.05

As can be seen from Table 1, the mean achievement scores for Match Groups 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 are 13.47, 14.00, 14.78, 16.79 and 17.57 respectively. The results of the one-way analysis of variance, as can be seen from Table 2, showed a significant difference in the means, $F(4,305)=22.22$, MSE=6.32, p=0.00. Post-hoc multiple comparisons using the Tukey HSD tests showed significant differences between Match Group 0 with Match Groups 3 and 4, MD (Mean Difference)=-3.32, p=0.00 and MD= -4.10, p=0.00 respectively. Significant differences were also recorded for Match Groups 1 and 2 with both Match Groups 3 and 4. However, no significant differences in achievement were found amongst Match Groups 1, 2 and 3 or between Match Groups 3 and 4. The results indicate that Match Groups 3 and 4 outperformed the other Match Groups in achievement scores but their performance did not differ from each other. In short, the results imply that generally if teaching styles are matched to learning styles, achievement of students will be significantly better up to a point. The results in this section are consistent with that in the section above where it was found that when teaching and learning styles are matched for individual LSPs, performance would be much better than if they were not. The results of this study revealed that connecting learning styles and teaching styles in an EFL classes in Azad University plays an important role in student's achievements. Furthermore, it also showed that there is a match in some extent between the teachers and students styles in EFL classes, second when there is a match between the two group's so the achievement level positively is affected and finally, connecting learning styles and

teaching styles in an EFL environment is important in making accommodations and modifications within the course room of EMSs learners.

Implication

Instructors must first recognize that they have the authority to broaden their teaching styles in ways that meet versatility of their students' learning style preferences and that by doing so they play an important role in improving the quality of education in Iran. EFL/ESL methodologies have long been viewed as the ancestor to teaching methodologies used in other fields. EFL instructional practice can inform educators teaching in fields other than EFL about the effective ways to teach in EFL or any other field.Given that students are studying in a context in which EFL is the medium of instruction, all classes at Azad University (different faculties) from social sciences to natural sciences could benefit from using, at least to some degree, EFL methodologies such as altering teaching styles to reach a wider variety of learning styles by attending to the preferences of students. Findings from this study should serve as a glimpse into the process of how instructors can begin to improve the quality of education they provide in the practical sense. As the participants of this study demonstrated, the concept of learning style preferences in their EFL context is relatively new. The fact that students learn in different ways and the possibility that instructors can adapt their instructional modes has come both as a surprise and a relief to many educators at Iran. Results of the case studies revealed that instructors commonly fear about the idea of accommodating students' learning style preferences that might be impractical in their context given the large class sizes; lack of resources, etc. However, the results of this study revealed that students indicated students positive reaction towards their versatility needs to be met through the lecturers conducting different teaching styles.

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Teaching Practices of Foreign English Instructors in China and the Students Response

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Key words: Academic Practices, Administrative Practices, English as Second Language Teaching, Teacher's Motivations, Learning styles

General Introduction

China's participation in an increasingly globalized world requires a high degree of English proficiency amongst citizens, which have attracted a large number of westerners. Some want to enlarge their overseas markets by coming to China to look for business partners and others are just eager to experience the realistic Chinese life. As a college student who is majoring English right now, the author of this article discovered that a large number of native-speaking English teachers (NSETs) come to teach in China.

It is believed that native speakers could provide students with a more authentic learning environment and as well students can benefit from more accurate pronunciation, intonation and tones. Furthermore, they may get more cultural influence due to the teacher's background. What is more, these foreign teachers brought some brand-new teaching styles which are quite different from those of Chinese teacher's[i]. Through both the survey study and interviews with the foreign teachers and students in Xingjian College, Guangxi University[ii], the author found that Students were confused by some foreign teachers' teaching methods and realized they learnt almost nothing in the foreign teachers' classes at the end of the semester.

However, the majority of them activate the Chinese students' interests for learning English by their novel, vivid, humorous and democratic classroom environment, and really make a great contribution to Chinese English teaching. Moreover, because NSETs are coming from different countries with different cultural backgrounds, personalities and experiences, the college administration is also facing problems in administering such a mixed team.

Before preparing to write this article, the author read many journals and books related to English teaching. Almost all of them spoke highly of the foreign teachers' instruction. In the article "The Differences of Teaching in Class between Foreign and Chinese Teachers"[iii], one of the authors Ms Yu, after observing some foreign teachers' instruction, saying from a Chinese English teacher's standpoint that foreign teachers are more responsible and cultivated than Chinese teachers, and their teaching methods are more practical. Through this article, the authors try to call the Chinese teacher-team to learn from the foreign teachers and get rid of the Chinese teachers' deficiencies to make the teaching work better in the future in China.

In another article "China EFL: Foreign teacher needed"[iv], the author referred that "China is a developing country and that its students need well-trained and reliable people to teach them English as the nation moves forward. It is lamentable that most foreigners coming to China are only looking out for a quick travel opportunity". With a combined 12 years teaching experience in China, the authors are very unsatisfied about the foreign teacher recruiting process in China and wish China could think deeply about how to regulate the recruiting system and what kinds of foreign teachers they really need.

However, this article is written from a standpoint of a Chinese student and maybe it's the first critical academic assessment of foreign teachers in China ever. Therefore, in this article, the author is going to analyze these problems and give some suggestions as a result of the analysis of interviews and survey study.

The benefits of this research are useful for potential teachers in China and other non-western countries that plan to teach outside their home-country and Chinese administrators as well to take

corresponding measures to prevent and solve these problems in order to hire the most suitable foreign teachers and enhance the English teaching worldwide.

Introduction of the Case study. Teacher's attitudes, teaching practices and motivations

The author interviewed 11 foreign teachers and asked some questions that are related to the main ideas of this article (See Appendix A: A list of the questions I asked the teachers). Specifically, the following questions are to be addressed.

1. When I asked Teacher A "what made you decide to come to China and be an English teacher" he said the following:

Well, it's the first job I got after I graduated. I graduated in 2006. I stayed for 4 years in the same city, with the same people and the same environment for my study. At one point, I got really tired, bored and I want to change for a fresh start. And then I thought maybe I should go to the other side of the world. You know, Asia is a mysterious place in almost all the westerners' minds. It's not only far geographically but far in the imagination. So this kind of thing attracted me to China.

This response reflects a "low-achiever's attitude". His motivation for teaching in China is just based on a random factor - "for a change" factor. There is no doubt that it is a stereotypical, superficial and not serious motivation. I am wondering now that he can teach English in China, why not a Chinese student teaching Chinese in Britain, Canada or any other countries around the world, with minimal teaching load, being paid five times more than the local people. Maybe British or Canadian students will take such a teacher seriously, will respect and listen to him/her. He/she might also want to have a new start and Chinese is the mother tongue as well, besides they could also have a college degree easily. Unfortunately, it is proved that they can't. Probably they could if they had at least a master degree with having passed many tests some day[v].

2. Teacher A also referred another reason of coming to China:

When I was young, I was playing some Chinese video games, Sanguo[vi] and mahjong. And one summer when I was in university, I started to read about Taoist, you know laozi, zhuangzi, I really got into it, but still I was not making plans to go to China. A few months before I graduated, I was found out that my uncle happened to teach in China! I stayed in touch with him and asked him to get me a job there. If he were teaching in India, probably I would come to India. But he was in China. It is a bit of luck!

It appears from these words that he has some serious cultural interest, but in terms of teaching, that is still a shallow reason. Moreover, it is "Guan xi"[vii] way rather than interest that makes him teach in China. What is the difference whether he got a job in China with the help of his uncle while a Chinese guy who was employed by his father's company and eventually proved to be an ineffective employee? This happens in China very often[viii]. The foreign teacher just takes it for granted that teaching English as a native speaker in China is a cake walk. This is a typical "low-achiever attitude and extreme cultural blindness".

Compared to the response of the foreign teacher above, Teacher B's answer is different. That is:

Well, this is a very interesting question. First, I went back to school at an older age and completely changed my major. When I was a young man, my first degree is Speech Communication, but then I never actually worked in that filed. When I was almost 50, I decided to go back to school and get a new degree. Because I knew I could continue working physically. I need to do something more mental. By the way, when I was 18 years old, I spent 2 years in Japan, which let me to a very high degree of interest in Asian cultures. I discovered then that so much Japanese culture actually came from China, especially during the Tang Dynasty. So I am always interested in Chinese culture. So when I went back to school, I had two goals that I had to go and increase my understanding of Asian culture, history and policies and I am also interested in teaching English as a second or foreign language. So my second major was a combined major. It is called Asian Studies and Second Language Acquisition.

Compared with the first one, this teacher's motivation is totally the opposite. He looks like and actually is a high-achiever with a serious attitude. From a standpoint of a Chinese student it can be figured out easily how much courage and steady faith one should have and how valuable this goal is to him if he went to school again at the age of 50. In reality, in America continuing education is common now, but the Chinese students still feel that it's a serious example and an admirable role model because in China a career change is very rare at an old age. This means he is very serious about this major and he will treat teaching as his career for the rest of his life. In a way, it also means a fresh start, but this is from a much higher level, because on the one hand, he has been falling in love with Asian culture since he was 18 years old and went to school again at 50 to study it as a major. On the other hand, the speech communication, which is his first major, is similar to the teaching degree. It is still useful to his dream career------teaching. To sum up, this is a typical "delayed self-actualization". It is still a much better motivation than just a superficial cultural interest.

These two cases provide the range within which all the foreign teachers that were interviewed can be easily placed in terms of motivations, second agendas and teaching practices. However, there is still another foreign teacher's reply that should be mentioned. Teacher C had already been dismissed at the end of the year 2008.

Actually I came to China the first time in 2003 to learn more about the Chinese culture and to meet a girl that I eventually married. I was very nervous about teaching English in a college. I am not a teacher by profession, I was a computer programmer and consultant for many years but I did have a lot of experience teaching computers in businesses. I also felt confident that my English ability was good enough to teach English as a second language and I love a new challenge, so in 2003 I came to teach in China. In 2007 I kept thinking about how much I loved my students in China and how much I loved this country, so I decided to change my career and become an English teacher and to leave my country and my previous career.

This teacher taught this writer for a whole year. What he did in class is quite different from what he said here. He talks in a serious way but acts in a totally opposite way. He often showed us girls' pictures in class and said "these are all my Chinese girlfriends and so on". Apart from girls, the writer can't see any serious motivation from him, not at all. This case should have been resolved at the level of recruitment. Trouble makers don't need to be hired in the first place.

Survey of Students' responses

In order to make a clear understanding of students' opinions to the foreign teachers and their identification to themselves, the writer did this survey. There are 4 big questions in the questionnaire and each one has 6 to 9 choices. 37 students in different classes joined in this survey and chose the answers with their personal ideas, besides the author also interviewed about 10 students randomly. All the results are following:

Table A. Foreign teachers' teaching methods and features

Methods and Features	Relaxed class atmosphere	Prolific contents	Cultivate the capability	Combine the culture	Humorous	Teacher-centered	Students-centered
popularity	94.59%	37.84%	35.14%	45.95%	81.08%	21.62%	64.86%

From Table A, it is clear to see that in the foreign teachers' class: firstly, they often set some practical, informative and highly culturally-inclusive scenes in order to draw students' attention. For example, the scene would be about how to make the interviewer feel that you are just the person they are looking for when having an interview and how to behave well in the public. Secondly, through some funny slang words and lively body language, they create a humorous and relaxed classroom atmosphere, where students could get rid of their nervousness and shy minds involuntarily. In such

classes, students answer questions enthusiastically, especially the Grade one students, although their English is not fluent yet.

Table B. Problems of foreign teachers' teaching

Problems of foreign teachers	Too many personal ideas, not formal	Many aspects but weak in stress	With too easy content	Speak too fast	Use textbook seldom
Percentage	78.38%	37.84%	43.24%	27.2%	40.54%

The Table B shows that in most students' opinions, what they have learnt in the foreign teachers' classes are lacking in unification and most are from the teachers' personal ideas that are not related to the books that the students have to buy and value. This makes those Chinese students who get used to studying with books step by step confused and at a loss. In China, it is defined clearly in the syllabus that teachers should teach and make exams in accordance with the textbooks.

Table C. Problems of students themselves

Problems of students	Narrow vocabulary	Grammar mistakes	Little cultural background knowledge	Shy and nervous	Not familiar with teacher' accent, behavior requirements
Percentage of Boys	86.49%	24.32%	75.68%	24.32%	43.24%
Percentage of Girls	83.78%	35.14%	56.76%	40.54%	48.65%

The Table C shows that students' vocabulary is not as big as it should be which makes them feel unconfident when practicing oral English. What is more, because of having little cultural background knowledge, they are always thinking of western literatures or theories with a Chinese mind and making mistakes eventually which are no surprise.

Form D. Students' expectation of foreign teachers

Expectation to teachers	Standard accent	Responsible	Humorous	Knowledgeable and competent	Tolerant
Percentage	81.08%	89.12%	78.38%	62.16%	70.27%

The Table D tells us that most students' expectations of foreign teachers are high. They wish to have responsible, humorous, knowledgeable, tolerant foreign teachers.

Suggestions for foreign teacher's regarding their teaching techniques.

NO 1. Make some extra rules and regulations related to teaching itself.

Colleges should set up clear requirements with regard to teaching details in the appendixes or additions to the contract (the contract is the same all across China)[ix]. For example, the colleges' requirements regulate the matters that can be called ethical such as every foreign teacher should not be

late for class or not leave. There is practically nothing or very little regulation concerning the teaching practices themselves, such as foreign teachers are not supposed to show movies in class for longer than 15 minutes or they have to use the book provided by the college at least 70% of the class time. This sort of regulations and requirements should be expended well into the teaching practices to show that the college is serious about those providing examples of good teaching methods, particularly bad teaching practices in order to avoid common mistakes. This will make the management of foreign teachers easier and also it will make quite clear for them to know what should or shouldn't do and the result would be a reduction in unnecessary troubles. The college should provide some handbooks that are related to teaching guidance. In the book 'The foreign teachers' hand book, A guide to living and working in Guangxi University', there is a chapter called Handing Teaching Accidents which only talks about the teaching accidents. In reality the guidance should go much deeper than this existing level. Nobody knows what teaching accidents are: there is no definition of it and there is no example of deducting of 500RMB and 6 points for first infraction, 6 points deducted for second infraction and so on (From the book). Which means it is not enforced and nobody cares.

They should tell the foreign teachers more details about how to teach in a Chinese classroom environment and what kind of materials to use or not to use and examples of lesson plans, syllabi, marking criteria just like the IELTS or TOEFL program provide. If the IELTS has very clear requirements how to teach and grade, why shouldn't Chinese colleges have them?

NO 2. Set up clear curriculum and exam requirements.

In order to keep classes running well and exams equal and meaningful, colleges should tell foreign teachers which parts in the textbooks must be mentioned in class and which might be taught by using their personal methods. This would prevent some foreign teachers from teaching totally by using their own ways and leaving the textbook far away. As to examinations, since one course may be taught by more than one teacher in different classes, it is highly necessary for them to reach a moderate work to the standard of the scoring.

NO 3. Office hours

Opening more office hours could provide more opportunities for students to communicate with foreign teachers. At first, students can practice their oral English. Secondly, students could probably get the knowledge of western cultural background when chatting. What is more, they could ask questions that they couldn't understand in class. At last, through the communication, students would feel closer to teachers mentally and which would be beneficial to create humorous atmosphere in the classroom. Further more, it is a good opportunity for foreign teachers to learn about Chinese culture, customs, national conditions and especially the Chinese education system through the communication with students. Perhaps after that, they may come up with a better teaching method which is more suitable for Chinese students.

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Appendix A—Interviewed questions asked foreign teachers:

1. Did you teach before you came to China?

2. And what made you decide to come to China?

3. Do you think there are some differences between Chinese students and the students in your motherland in terms of their ways of learning?

4. If it indeed has this difference, so what is the strength of Chinese students in learning English and what is their weakness? Could you give me some examples? Thanks.

5. Will you change your teaching methods when meeting these differences, your Chinese students' weakness and how?

6. By which way that you refer teaching the students? Teaching in accordance with the textbooks or by your personal ideas and experience?

7. I am pretty sure that there are some lazy students in your classes. How could you deal with these students? Will you abandon them

8. There is a phenomenon I've noticed recently: Nowadays, Chinese students have more opportunities to go to college and which is good. However, some students who are actually not qualified enough to get a further education with many reasons are actually studying in the colleges because they gave a lot of money to the colleges. Such as, some got very low scores in high school and they always make trouble in class. It seems to me that education has become a business in China. What do you think? Is it good or bad?

Appendix B:

Teacher A is a 25 year old Canadian male teacher who came to China as an English teacher just after he graduated from a university in Canada with a bachelor degree. He has been in China for almost 3 years.

Teacher B is an around 60 year old American male teacher who was a teacher of migrant students in the USA for 4 or 5 years. He has been teaching English in many cities in China for 5 years.

Teacher C is a 58 year old American male teacher who was a computer engineer in Australia for many years and has been teaching in China for 2 years.

Collaborative Peer Teaching in the College ESL/EFL classroom

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ABSTRACT

The idea of learner getting involved in their learning, instead of passively receiving information from a teacher, has been considered the essence of education. Incorporating peer teaching in the college ESL/EFL classroom can create an environment where students take more responsibility for their learning. This paper aims to discuss how peer teaching is used to teach a variety of language items. The effectiveness of the peer teaching is evaluated using student feedback questionnaires.

INTRODUCTION

Mastering English in college is vital as a means to coping in university courses that are taught in English. Learners in college pre-university English courses in Malaysia usually meet the minimum entry requirement in terms of English language proficiency; however, the learners are of different levels of proficiency. The learners are also struggling with the transition from school to college and meeting the objectives of the ESL courses that they have to pass in order to meet the university language requirement.

Learners from the Malaysian school system are taught English since primary school and are primarily exposed to the communicative approach of teaching. Hence, they are able to effectively communicate in real life situations. However, they lack the language skills required to handle academic tasks that involve specific rhetoric. Academic writing, the main focus of evaluation, is something that students find most challenging and this is due to their lack of mastery of selected language items. Hence, before focusing on the more academic tasks at hand, it is only right that the students' previous knowledge be reinforced.

The traditional method focusing on drills as well as teacher-centered methods is a disservice to learners who are preparing to move on to university. It has been well studied and documented that student centered methodology is far superior to that of teacher centered methodology. This paradigm shift is not a new development.

Peer teaching, a collaborative learning approach represents a significant shift from the teacher-centered milieu in college classrooms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Collaborative learning is based on the assumption that learning is an active, constructive process. To learn students have to participate actively to gain new information, ideas and skills. Students are no longer receivers of knowledge, they are creators of knowledge. This explains the shift from the teacher-centered method to the student-centered method. Empirical studies have found that student centered methods to be superior to teacher dominated methods because they focus on application of concepts, problem solving, attitude, motivation, group membership and leadership skills. McKeachie et.al (1986) point out that one of the most effective methods of teaching is students teaching other students.

In the context of language teaching and learning, Nunan (1998, p.3) points out that learner-centered methodology focuses on providing learners with "effective learning strategies". The pedagogical approach of collaborative peer teaching can create an active learning environment where students become the producers of their learning rather than passive consumers. They become active learners

who learn by teaching. Thus, the learner-centered approach is regarded as an appropriate methodology for language learning (Tudor, 1997).

Collaborative peer teaching falls within the social constructionist framework which has established that knowledge occurs through social interactions. While working with their peers, students can learn and teach together (Asinder, 1991). Peer teaching, a learner-centered approach, is founded on the concept that the learner is central in the learning process. Learners are actively involved in their learning instead of acting as passive recipients of knowledge as they learn primarily because of what they bring to their classroom experience in terms of their perceived needs, motivations, interests and creative skills. In collaborative peer teaching, learners play an active decision-making role, often deciding what materials are produced and what activities can be used in the lessons (Campbell & Kryszewska, 1992).

According to Johnson, et al (1995), learning is a personal and social process, in which learners cooperate to construct shared understanding and knowledge. Collaborative learning is also promoted as individualistic and competitive learning conditions are perceived as discouraging active construction of knowledge (Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

Peer teaching is also commonly regarded as a form of self-regulated learning which primarily gives the learner an opportunity to play a major role in acquiring knowledge. It basically refers to students teaching other students as planned and directed by the teacher. In peer teaching, students learn through doing tasks organized by the teacher, by collaborating on various types of tasks and activities (Whitman, 1998).

Cohen, Sampson, & Boud (2001) claim that peer teaching, is a teaching method that is most effective. As a learner-centered method, it is regarded as far superior to teacher centered method especially in developing higher order thinking skills and problem solving skills (Biggs, 1999). MacKeachie, et al. (1986) stresses that in higher education, the development of critical thinking should be the focus of learning, not the learning of facts and theories. To develop critical thinking, they propose that the learning process include student discussion, problem solving using various methods as well as verbalization of methods and strategies. Basically, preparing to teach someone is seen as way to produce a more highly cognitive structure. Someone preparing to teach will recognize the materials for clearer presentation and while actively teaching may recognize and clarify material on the spot (Whitman, 1998).

Apart from promoting active learning and critical thinking, collaborative peer teaching is also believed to make learners take charge of their learning, which is considered an important aspect in the development of life-long learning (Miley, 2004). According to Benson (2003, p.305), "we cannot teach learners to become more autonomous" but we can create an environment with suitable conditions in which they can develop the autonomy they have.

Additionally, Rubin & Hebert (1998) state that peer teaching motivates learner and develops their leadership skills.

Motivation is an important aspect of any form of learning. Learners who are self-motivated are capable of being self-regulated learners. In fact, Meece (1994) says that self motivation, an essential aspect of self-regulated learning. Research indicates that self-motivation is a prerequisite for peer teaching, which is self-regulated learning. The level of self-motivation can be increased by giving students feedback that ability is an acquired skill rather than a fixed or inherent skill. Self-motivation can also be increased by giving a student self-confidence which leads to situation specific efficacy (Meece, 1994). Studies also show that in peer teaching, learners become self-confident, respected each other developed as critical thinkers taking responsibility for their own and others' learning (Spratt & Leung, 2000). Hence, peer teaching is seen as having cognitive and affective benefits.

Peer teaching leads to self-regulated learner. It is believed that self-regulated learners are unlike other learners as they make a stronger use of conscious selection and control over critical thinking and learning strategies, and they continually self-assess their progress and the effectiveness of their learning strategies (Zimmerman, 1989). Additionally, self-regulated learners are capable of constantly reflecting on the most effective way to achieve mastery of a learning goal. With regard to this, learners are more likely to self-regulate their learning when the choice of learning approaches includes rehearsing,

elaborating, modeling and organizing (Meece, 1994). Thus, a learning environment that incorporates these learning approaches will create an environment that is more conducive to students becoming self-regulated learners.

Integrating peer teaching in the college classroom is also founded on the basis that learners are diverse. Learners bring multiple perspectives to the classroom – diverse backgrounds, learning styles and experiences. When students work together on their learning in class, they are sharing different perspectives and employing different learning styles. Language learners are probably the most diverse learners and collaborative peer teaching is seen as an approach that can motivate them to become self-regulated learners. (Asinder,1991).

METHODOLOGY

The subjects in this study are 68 students who are enrolled in the Monash University Foundation year, a pre-university course that prepares students for university study. 62 of the subjects are Malaysian students and 6 of them are international students from Korea, Botswana, Somalia, and Sri Lanka. A diagnostic test was administered to identify areas in which students need reinforcement. The test consists of 40 questions covering language items such as tenses, conditionals, modifiers, pronouns, and basic sentence patterns. The diagnostic test revealed that students needed reinforcement of language items such as conditionals, the present perfect and past perfect tenses, use of correlative conjunctions, noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses.

Once the language items to be reinforced were identified, students we told to form groups and pick a topic they would like to teach others. The students were allowed to consult the teacher on the areas in which they needed clarification and were allocated 25 minutes to teach a selected language item. Students were given time to discuss and come up with activities that can help reinforce the language items. They were encouraged to use different types of teaching aids to present the lesson successfully. To illustrate what they were required to do, the teacher taught some of the language items so that students knew what was expected of them. They were given sufficient time to prepare and teach the language item that they had chosen. Students were encouraged to use various teaching aids available in the classroom and use different activities to illustrate the language items they have chosen to teach. Some activities that illustrated by the teacher include role playing, simulation, dramatization etc.

The peer teaching lessons were integrated into daily lessons in the second and their week of the semester so that students can successfully review the language items that they are unfamiliar before they are introduced to academic writing.

In order to study the students' perception of collaborative peer teaching and its impact on their learning, a questionnaire was designed and employed. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part is a structured, Liker-scale questionnaire comprising 10 statements that measure the important aspects of the students' experience in peer teaching. Items are measured on a five-point scale, indicating the degree of agreement or disagreement, ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). The second part of the questionnaire consists of 3 open ended questions for students to share their views on the peer teaching experience and its impact on their learning.

RESULTS

The value of Cronbach's Alpha based on the 10 items in the questionnaire is .89, indicating that the 10-item measure is a stable index of the students' perception of the value of peer teaching. Table 2 presents the items along with the mean scores and the percentage for responses given

Table 1. Learners' Perception of Peer Teaching

No.	Question	Strongly	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly	Mean

		Agree (%)				Disagree	
1.0	Peer teaching is a learning method I find interesting	45.6	45.6	5.8	1.5	1.5	1.65
2.0	Peer teaching helps me to understand language items	35.3	45.5	14.7	1.5	3.0	1.82
3.0	Peer teaching helps me to remember language items taught	39.8	36.8	17.6	5.8	0.0	1.90
4.0	Peer teaching helps me learn From my friends	36.8	44.1	19.1	0.0	0.0	1.87
5.0	Peer learning makes me feel confident	38.2	50.0	11.8	0.0	0.0	1.74
6.0	Peer learning makes me feel I am in control of my learning	36.8	38.2	20.6	2.9	1.5	1.90
7.0	Peer teaching motivates me	42.6	41.3	13.2	2.9	0.0	1.71
8.0	I like to decide how language items should be taught	35.3	42.6	17.6	4.5	0.0	1.91
9.0	I like to be more involved in peer teaching	35.6	54.5	7.4	2.5	0.0	1.91
10.0	Peer teaching is a learning activity that I take seriously	32.4	44.1	17.6	4.4	1.5	2.04

The survey indicates that 91% of the learners feel that peer teaching is an interesting activity indicating that students highly value peer teaching as a fun method of revising language items. About 7% were uncertain if it is interesting and about 2% did not find peer teaching an interesting activity. In terms of understanding, 84% feel that the peer teaching method of revising has helped to understand the language items that they had to teach, but 1.5% did not feel that it has helped them in understanding the items that they were revising.

When it comes to retaining knowledge, 77% of the learners feel that peer teaching has helped them remember the language items they have taught, but 17.6% of the learners are uncertain of the effectiveness of peer teaching in helping them to retain the skills related to the language items they have taught and 5.8% feel peer teaching did not help them remember what they had learnt in order to teach their classmates.

About 81% of the learners feel that peer teaching has made it possible for them to learn from their friends, but 19% of them do not know if they have learnt anything from their friend through collaborating and preparing lessons.

In terms of confidence, 88% of the learners feel that peer teaching makes them feel more confident of what they know. However, almost 12% of the learners are uncertain if peer teaching has any effect on their level of confidence.

75% of the learners feel that peer teaching gave them some form of control over their learning, but 21% remain uncertain on whether peer teaching helped them be in control of their learning. 4.5% of the learners feel that peer teaching did not make them feel they were in control of their learning.

In terms of motivation, about 84% of the learners feel that peer teaching is a highly motivating activity, but 13% are uncertain if they were motivated by peer teaching and almost 3% do not feel that peer teaching had any effect on their level of motivation. About 77% of the learners agreed that peer teaching is a methodology that gives them the opportunity to make decisions on how lessons can be presented.

On whether they would like more opportunities to peer teach, 90% said they would like to be involved in more peer teaching compared to 7.5% who are uncertain if they would like to peer teach again and 2.5% who do not want anymore opportunities to be involved in peer teaching.

76.5% of the learners reported that they took the peer teaching activity seriously compared to almost 18% who are uncertain of their attitude towards peer teaching and almost 6% who did not take it seriously as a learning activity.

Summary of Responses to Open –ended questions

Question 1. What are your feelings about peer teaching?

Some comments made by the subjects include

- It is a rather challenging activity
- It motivates me to do more study on the language items so that my friends do not think that I do not know what I am teaching
- I like to share what I know; it makes me feel that I am smart and knowledgeable
- It is interesting because we see different people teaching everyday.
- I like discussing when we are planning the lessons because it makes me less nervous and my friends can give me more ideas.
- It feel it's a lot of work, but I also learn a lot. It is fun because we work in groups and what I do not know my group members can teach me so that when it is our turn to teach, we can do well
- Peer teaching is like playing teacher and I like it sometimes.
- I can cooperative with my group members while preparing the creative materials for the lesson that we had to teach.
- Students also have knowledge that can be used in the class so if the teachers can give them the opportunity to use that knowledge, students do not feel bored learning in the class.

Question 2. How does teaching others benefit you?

Learners shared how peer teaching benefit them:

- I feel more confident about what I know and in talking to my classmates. It is like doing an oral presentation.
- It is good for me because before I can teach someone I must know all about the topic so I must be well prepared and I must know my tenses and how to use them. If I am not peer teaching, maybe I will not need to know as much.
- I remember the language items that I have taught. This is because I spent time going through the structure when I am preparing the lessons with my group members and when I teach, I remember more.
- I think what questions others will ask, so my group members and I had to come up with different types of examples. It makes me feel like an expert knowing all my stuff and knowing what questions might be asked and having all the answers.

- I learn more because I just do not learn one item, but I see the links. When I had to teach the conjunctions (and, but. so, for . yet, or), I also learn how when using the conjunctions, we also have to learn parallel structure and how to punctuate sentences. Although my group chose to teach conjunctions, we all learnt how it was connected to other items. So I think I learn a lot even before the teacher had taught parallel structure
- I get to be more active in class instead of the teacher coming to class everyday and teaching us.

Question 3. What do you dislike about peer teaching?

Learners shared what they perceive as the drawbacks of peer teaching:

- I do not like it when my classmates ask unnecessary questions just to test my knowledge.
- I think it difficult because we do not have that much time to prepare.
- It makes me nervous because I might not know all the answers and I do not want my classmates to think I do not know what I am talking about.
- I feel pressured to do well although the teacher says we are not evaluated and it is just an activity to revise what we have already learnt. I still feel pressured to do better than the other groups.
- Teaching grammar is difficult. Maybe we can be assigned to teach other topics.
- It involves a lot of planning and group work and sometimes some group members do not cooperate with others

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to examine learner's perception of peer teaching and its impact on their learning. The study surveyed learners' reactions based on the peer teaching approach to language learning focusing on the revision of selected language items.

Several findings were obtained from this study. In examining learners' perception of peer teaching as a method to revise language items, it is clear that 88% of the learners' feel that it increases their confidence. This is an important finding which reinforces the advantage of peer teaching as a method to make students more confident in the ability. Confidence to direct their own learning is an important aspect of life-long learning skills (Miley, 2004).

The findings of the survey also show that most students perceive peer teaching as an interesting method of learning language skills. This is clearly indicated in their responses as 91% agree that peer teaching is interesting. When students are interested in actively participating in their learning, this will serve to increase their motivation. Peer teaching certainly allows for various experiences and aptitudes of learners besides allowing learners who have prior knowledge to demonstrate it, maintaining their interest in the language classroom. When students are given the opportunity to work with their friends to prepare the lesson and execute the lesson in any manner appropriate it adds to making peer teaching an interesting method. And having a different group of learners teaching a language item for each lesson adds to the diversity of the lesson which could also explain why most of the learners find this method interesting.

84% of the learners reported that peer teaching motivates them. This indicates that working in groups with others learners has a positive effect on their learning experience. Collaborating with others gives a learner the ability to share and learn as well feel they know the subject matter. Knowing what they have to teach can be motivating as they can confidently deliver what they already know. Learners can also be motivated as learner-produced materials add interest and spontaneity to classroom learning.

This motivation can further increase their self-confidence and make them more capable and willing to actively participate in their own learning, which leads to them feeling in control of their own learning. 75% of the learners have indicated that peer teaching makes them feel they are in control of their learning and this is something that fosters learner autonomy in the classroom (Allwright, 1988).

The survey results also indicate that students liked working with their friends and feel they have learnt from each other. Most (90%) have responded that they like more opportunity to peer teach. This is a

positive indication that learners can be oriented to play an active role on their learning if they are given the opportunity to do so.

Open-ended responses supported the other survey data, where most of the learners feel that peer teaching is interesting as this is a shift from teacher dominated lessons. It gives them an important role to play in the everyday running of the lessons and the opportunity to participate actively as opposed to being passive learners who sit and try to absorb lessons that are taught. It also seems that students take responsibility for their learning as they do not want to appear as not being capable of teaching the topics that they had chosen to teach. Although students knew that they are not going to evaluated as part of the course, they made a good effort in being well prepared as they did not want to look bad in front of their classmates neither did they want to be corrected by the teacher when they were teaching the topic they had worked on. Hence, they were motivated by external factors as well as intrinsic factors.

The learners also reported that having to teach a language item meant that they had to be answer any question based on that item. This motivated them to be well prepared and to anticipate possible questions from their classmates. They report that if they did not have to teach the language item, they might not have come to class prepared. In preparing to teach the language item that they had selected, they also discovered other related skills, which they highlighted in their lesson. Hence, another value of collaborating teaching is that learners discover new knowledge on their own or with the help of their friends. They can be self-regulated learners because they are able to take charge of their own learning.

Some learners (2.5%) feel that they did not want to be involved in more peer teaching as they found it challenging and they were intimidated by their friends' questions. They feel some students are evaluating their capability and felt threatened. Some had problems with group dynamics and uncooperative group members. They also feel that more time should be given for them to plan and teach the lesson. These responses are expected since some of the students are not as proficient as others and have less confidence. As mentioned earlier, they learners are of different proficiency levels although they have all met the minimum entry requirement. With better group distribution and facilitation, these are some problems that can be minimized. Despite these problems, 90% want to be given the opportunity to teach with their friends and that is a good indication that learners enjoy diversity in the language classroom.

There are limitations to this study as the students achievement is not tested after the peer teaching activity. Only student perception of the method is recorded. It would be interesting to see if there is a correlation between peer teaching and learners' achievement or progress in the language items taught. This is a possible area for further research. Another limitation is the peer teaching activity was only carried out at the beginning of the semester so the real benefit to the learners might not be clearly known.

CONCLUSION

Collaborative peer teaching in the language classroom can be used to reinforce students' prior knowledge. It is less threatening and demanding of the learners as it is founded on the assumption that the learners have some knowledge of what they are going to teach. The rationale of using this approach is to make all students learn in a motivating environment.

The clear advantage of peer teaching is learners become confident in the ability to direct their own learning, which is a prerequisite to life long learning skills. Students receive self feedback and acquire the skills to master the topics and as their confidence increases, so does their motivation. By increasing the range of learning opportunities, learners develop the ability to rehearse, elaborate and organize the topics they have to teach. Also, they feel that they have acquired knowledge on their own instead of depending on the teacher.

Learners reported that the peer teaching experience increased their understanding of the subject matter, enabled them to apply course concepts in new settings, and encouraged them to participate actively in the classroom and be responsible for their own learning. Hence, peer teaching is a valuable, even critical, experience for students in college.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

The following set of statements relate to your views of peer teaching. Please indicate whether you strongly agree, agree, are uncertain, disagree or strongly disagree with the statements below. There is no right or wrong answer. Please circle the appropriate number which best reflects your views.

No.	Statements	Degree of Agreement				
		Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
1.	Peer teaching is interesting	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Peer teaching helps me understand language items	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Peer teaching helps me remember language items taught	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Peer teaching helps me learn from my classmates	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Peer teaching makes me feel confident	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Peer teaching makes me feel I am in control of my learning	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Peer teaching motivates me	1	2	3	4	5
8	Peer teaching gives me the opportunity to decide how language items are taught	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Peer teaching is something that I would like to be more involved in	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Peer teaching is something I take seriously	1	2	3	4	5

Please answer the questions below as honestly as you can.

1. What are your feelings about peer teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. How does teaching others benefit you?

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. What do you dislike about peer teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

"*What is happened?": A corpus-based analysis of L2 English unaccusative verbs

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Abstract

The unaccusative verb phenomenon is often discussed in second language acquisition. While most previous studies tend to explain this phenomenon of L2 overpassivizaton errors, this study adopts a corpus-based and quantitative approach by comparing the use of *happen* in three different corpora. In addition, its comparison to a native speaker reference corpus in this word further provides an insight into the similar or different performances of Taiwanese local EFL learners regarding this unaccusative verb.

Key words: unaccusative verbs, *happen*, BNC, learner corpus, second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

As proposed by Zobl (1989) and Yip (1995), the term 'learnabilty' refers to second language (L2) learners' learning process from one state of knowledge to another based on language input. The learning process may display L2 learning difficulty to acquire a certain linguistic form or language element in second language acquisition (SLA). Unaccusative verbs constitute one of the complicated language elements with various alternations in transitivity in different languages, and this makes mastering their native-like usages in L2 learning more challenging.

The Unaccusative Hypothesis, first posited by Perlmuter (1978), is a syntactic hypothesis claiming each of the two classes of intransitive verbs, the unaccusative and unergative verbs, possessing a distinctive syntactic structure, such as *The glass broke.* (from *John broke the glass.*) versus *John laughed.* (with no alternative form)**.** A large number of research later focused on the incorrect usages produced by L2 learners (e.g., **My father was died.* or **It **happened something** interesting.*) (cf. Balcon, 1997; Yip 1990; 1995; Yuan, 1999; Ju, 2000; Oshita 2000; 2001; Hirakawa, 2001; Park & Lakshmanan, 2007; Lozano & Mendikoetxea, 2008). Among these studies, the incorrect usage or error of overpassivization, such as **It was happened*, has been argued heatedly, even though to this date there seems to be no persuading evidence to explain why this incorrect usage occurs. Despite the generally discussed issue of overpassivization, the difficulty of acquiring the unaccusative verbs may also due to L1 transfer, i.e., the transfer of L1 linguistic features, such as auxiliary selection or word order to L2. Furthermore, the types and frequencies of incorrect usages with respect to every unaccusative verb, such as *break* versus *happen*, may not be similar. This preliminary study intends to use a corpus-based and quantitative approach to compare two reference corpora (the British National Corpus (BNC) for English and the Chinese Gigaword Corpus (GW) for Chinese, and they were contrasted to the LTTC Learner Corpus for L2 English (cf. Chung and Wu (2009)).[1] The work will investigate the unaccusative verb *happen* and its usages in four grammatical forms (*happen, happens, happening,* and *happened*) in order to discover other distinctive usages of this unaccusative verb *happen* between natives' and L2 English learners' production. With detailed L2 learner corpus analysis and its comparison to the two reference corpora, this paper will present similarities and differences between the natural occurring native data and L2 learner data in Taiwan so as to identify the local L2 English features and compare them with the global ones to find out a plausible solution and interpretation for the unaccusative verb *happen*. This study, further, focuses on the frequency, perfectivity, and word order of *happen* in English and its counterpart *fashen* in Chinese.

UNACCUSATIVE VERBS AND THEIR RELATED CORPUS-BASED STUDIES

Perlmuter (1978) originally proposed the distinction between the two classes of intransitive verbs—one is unergative verbs, involving willed and volitional acts (e.g., *run, walk, laugh,* etc.); the other is unaccusative verbs, involving unwilled and non-volitional acts (e.g., *melt, open, happen, appear, fall,*

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[1] The British National Corpus (BNC) is a 100-million-word collection of written and spoken texts. For more information, see: http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/. On the other hand, the Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC) Learner Corpus is an intermediate L2 English written texts collected from the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), a formal English standardized test in Taiwan.

break, etc.) On the other hand, the variation among these unaccusative verbs can be further divided into the two subclasses, namely alternating unaccasative verbs/ergative verbs (e.g., *melt, open, break,* etc.) and non-alternating unaccusative verbs (e.g., *happen, appear, fall,* etc.). The examples of alternative unaccusative verbs, non-alternative unaccusative verbs, and unergative verbs can be seen in (1) below based on Park and Lakshmanan's (2007: 329) study.

(1)   a. Transitive of alternating unaccusative/ergative:
          <u>John</u> broke <u>the glass</u>.
          Suject   Direct object   (Grammatical roles)
          <Agent>   <Theme>   (Thematic roles)
      b. Intransitive of alternating unaccusative/ergative:
          <u>The glass</u> broke.
          Suject   (Grammatical roles)
          <Theme>   (Thematic roles)
      c. Intransitive of non-alternating unaccusative:
          <u>The car accident</u> happened.
          Suject   (Grammatical roles)
          <Theme>   (Thematic roles)
      d. Intransitive of unergative:
          <u>John</u> laughed.
          Suject   (Grammatical roles)
          <Agent>   (Thematic roles)
                              (Park & Lakshmanan, 2007: 329)

As illustrated in (1a) above, the agent of alternating unaccusative/ergative verbs in a transitive pattern is mapped onto the subject position and the theme is mapped onto the direct object position. However, when transformed into an intransitive pattern, as can be seen in (1b), the mapping of the subject is similar to that of non-alternative unaccusative verbs (1c), where the theme is mapped onto the subject position. This is different from the thematic role mapping of unergative verbs in the intransitive pattern (1d), where the subject position is occupied by the agent.

Owing to the complicated alternative/non-alternative patterns, related research attempted to investigate the interface between syntax (e.g., Sorace, (2000) on auxiliary selection) and lexical semantics (e.g., Levin & Rappaport Hovav, (1995) of unaccusative verbs, such as *a recently appeared book*. Some studies also explained the unaccusative mismatches of unaccusativity, i.e., the imperfect matches between the two classes of verbs either syntactically or semantically among languages (Levin, 1986).

Hence there are two main lines of the previous research emerging in SLA. The first research line has paid attention to the distinction between the unaccusative and unergative verbs in the intransitive pattern in order to see whether L2 learners accept the incorrect usage of unergative transitive, such as *She sang hoarse. (cf. Nakano et al., 2005; Park & Lakshmanan, 2007). On the other hand, the second line of unaccusative verbs is related to the unusual phenomenon of overpassivization in non-alternating unaccusative verbs, such as (1c) previously or **Mary's mom was died* (e.g., Yuan, 1999). The overpassivization is difficult because neither learner's L1 nor L2 has a possible input to cause it to happen. A Chinese-English example is shown in sentence (2) below:

(2)
   Zha gouqu de yinian zhongda xingan buduan fashen. (adapted from *GW*)
  in past of one year significant crimes constantly happen
  'In the past year, significant crimes constantly happened.'

Sentence (2) shows the usage of the Chinese unaccassative verb *fa-shen*. As Yip (1990) pointed out that neither English (*was happened) nor Chinese (e.g., *bei fa-shen '*be happened') can provide passivized unaccusative usages, and thus, searching for the cause of L2 English overpassivization of unaccusative verbs would be difficult. Another viewpoint proposed by Ju (2000) is that not every unaccusative verb would cause the same frequency of overpassivization. Ju also said that "the frequency of unaccusative verbs" (p. 102) in native use would not be definitely consistent with that of L2 learners, which indicates that the discrepancy between the frequently appearing language patterns of native speakers versus those of L2 learners may also generate difficulty for L2 acquisition of the unaccusative verbs.

However, most of the previous studies above rely on the grammatical judgment test, a test used to judge grammatical correction, to investigate L2 learners' grammar competence. While understanding L2 learner corpus is becoming more important, in recent years, two corpus-based studies were seen to have analyzed L2 learner corpus, and they provided more linguistic evidence for unaccusative mismatches and overpassivization phenomena in SLA.

Oshita (2000) conducted a corpus-based study through using the Longman Learner Corpus (LLC) containing Italian, Spanish, Japanese, and Korean L1 data. The study attested these data based on the following five main issues (p. 295).

(3)
    a. learners' L1 transfer of a compound tense/aspect auxiliary selection system
    b. overgeneralization of the adjectival passive formation in English
    c. nontarget lexical causativization
    d. identification of the passive morphosyntax with the lack of a logical subject
    e. nontarget overt marking of syntactic NP movement

These five issues reflect both semantic ((3b) & (3c)) and syntactic ((3a), (3d), & (3e)) concerns, though the author claimed that the syntactic theory of the nontarget NP movement (3e) would be the most feasible one on account of its simplicity without dealing with complicated semantic features of every unaccusative verb.

As for (3a) above, many previous studies (e.g., Falk, 1984; Sorace, 2000; Keller & Sorace, 2003) suggested that this would more appropriately explain the unaccusative verb acquisition among Romance and Germanic languages. The two perfective auxiliaries BE and HAVE are suggested to consist of the following antecedent: verbs of location (*come, arrive, etc.*), verbs of changes of states or appearance (*die, happen, appear, etc.*), verbs of existence (*stay, exist, etc.*), and verbs of process (*walk, run, etc.*), all of which are between the concepts of the uaccusative (*come, arrive, die, happen, appear, etc*) and unergative verbs (*walk, run, etc.*). Although the sentences (4a) and (4b) from Oshita's (2000) examples (pp.296-297) clearly identified the L1 French and Germany auxiliary selection as the transfer to L2 English as sentence (4c), their use are found lacking in other Asian languages, such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean.

(4)
  a. *Trois garcons sont   arrives   á la gare*. (French)
   three boys **be 3pl** arrived   to the station.
  b.*Drei Jungen sind   am Bahnhof angekommen*. (German)
   three boys **be 3pl** to the station arrived.
  c. **The two girls are arrived at the bus stop*. (L2 English)

For this reason, a recent study of Chinese auxiliary selection by Liu (2007) found that the typological differences in languages make Chinese unaccommodated to Romance and Germanic auxiliary selection system because its semantic rather than syntactic differences. Thus, she suggested that the auxiliary selection of verb perfectivity could fit Chinese unacussativity analysis well. The imperfective aspectual auxiliary–*zhe* and perfective aspectual auxiliary–*le* in Chinese have been examined through the Chinese verbs. The verbs of location (e.g., *lai-le* 'come-perfective auxiliary') or the verbs of change of state in Chinese (e.g., *si-le* 'die-perfective auxiliary', *zhang-zhe* 'grow-imperfective auxiliary') typically selected the perfective aspectual auxiliary –*le* (5a), unless the change of the location or the change of state is indefinite or without a resultant state, in which either –*zhe* or –*le* would be possible (5b).

(5)
  a. *Nali lai-le/ *-zhe   hendou ren*. (adapted from Liu, 2007: 7)
   there come-LE/*-ZHE many people
   'There came many people.'
  b. *Tianli zhang-le/-zhe hendou zhong shucai*. (adapted from Liu, 2007: 8)
   Field-in grow-LE/-ZHE many kind vegetables
   'In the field is growing many kinds of vegetables.'

On the other hand, regarding (3d) mentioned previously, Lozano and Mendikoetxea (2008) used the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) to compare and investigate the non-native usages of postverbal subject order, such as **it happened a car accident*, produced by Spanish and Italian learners of L2 English learners. They found that L2 English learners generated postverbal subject order in the unaccusative verb structures. As can be seen in sentence (6a) below, Spanish allows postverbal subject order (*IIegado Juan* 'arrived Juan') in concordance with unaccusative verbs, and thus the L2 unaccusative mismatch in (6b) below may be transferred from L1 word order. Likewise, Chinese language has a similar postverbal subject order structure shown in (6c), and this may also influence L2 English unaccusative acquisition of Chinese learners.

 (6)
  a. *Ha IIegado Juan*. (Spanish)
   has arrived Juan 'Juan has arrived.'
  b.**I do believed that it will **exist a machine or something** able to imitate the human imagination*. (L2 English)
   c. *Rugua you renheren **fashen yiwai**, Zhashan ying fuze*.(Chinese, adapted from *GW*)
    If exist anyone   happen accident, Zhashan should manage
    'If an accident happens to anyone, Zhashan should manage it.'

From the overview of the literature of corpus-based L2 unaccusative verbs, two issues of the Chinese learners of L2 English acquiring English unaccusative verbs are still worth discussing. The first issue is how Chinese L2 English learners apply Chinese perfectivity to L2 English learning. This concerns how they display similarities and differences with regard to L2 English unaccusative verbs and Chinese counterparts. Since English uses auxiliaries (BE/HAVE) plus grammatical forms (*–ing/–ed* or *–en*) whereas Chinese uses the suffix-like auxiliaries (*–zhe/–le*) to display the distinction between imperfective and perfective aspectual concepts, we thus postulate that there exists a relationship between Chinese suffix-like auxiliaries and the L2 English grammatical forms in the incorrect usages of English unaccusative verbs. The second issue is whether the Chinese postverbal subject order (as in (6c) above) in unaccusative verbs will influence the usages of L2 English unaccusative verbs as well as the non-native overpassivized patterns discussed in most related studies.

The present study attempts to conduct a corpus-based research and incorporate a lexical semantic approach by focusing on a specific English unaccusative verb *happen* through the four mostly used grammatical forms (*happen, happens, happening,* and *happened*). With respect to the syntactic concerns, the contrast of the incorrect usages of *happen* from the LTTC Learner Corpus with the Chinese auxiliary selection system (*–zhe* and *–le*) and postverbal subject order (**fashen yiwai** 'happen accident') will be conducted. The possible L1 transfer of these features in Chinese to L2 English will be investigated and examined as well.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the previous studies and the unclear explanation of L2 English unaccusative verb acquisition, we then propose the following two questions:
1. How are the distributions of the grammatical forms (i.e., *happen, happens, happening,* and *happened*) in a native versus a learner corpus?
2. How do the Chinese auxiliary selection (*–zhe* and *–le*) and postverbal subject order (**fashen yiwai** 'happen accident') influence the choices of the grammatical forms for *happen*?
These two questions will be discussed in the following sections.

METHODOLOGY AND GENERAL FINDINGS

The methodology section includes analyzing three corpora and erroneous sentence analysis. Each of the two sections would be elaborated and discussed in terms of the procedure as well as general findings.

Analyzing Three Corpora

We first compared the English reference corpus (BNC), the Chinese reference corpus (GW), and the LTTC Learner Corpus— in order to find out occurrence of *happen* in three corpora. With respect to the BNC and the LTTC Learner Corpus, we searched the grammatical forms (*happen, happens,*

happening, and *happened*) of the unaccusative verb *happen* and investigated the frequency of each grammatical form in order to compare the differences between native and L2 English usages. The erroneous rate of each grammatical form was taken into account in the LTTC English Learner Corpus so as to provide some evidence for analyzing the difficulty of acquiring *happen*. On the other hand, in the GW, we searched the frequency of the Chinese auxiliary selection (*–zhe* and *–le*) within the auxiliary-attached structures *fashen-zhe* (impefective) versus *fashen-le* (perfective) in order to investigate the perfectivity concept in the Chinese counterpart *fashen* of *happen*. The result would tell whether or not L2 learners apply a similar perfective strategy in learning English *happen*. Additionally, the postverbal subject order was also investigated in order to distinguish the different frequency of word order between English and Chinese.

Data from both Chinese and English are shown in Table 1 below. As can be seen in Table 1, there are some similarities and differences in grammatical forms in both the English reference corpus and the learner corpus. We can find that the most frequently used grammatical form of *happen* is *happened* in both the BNC (with approximately 42 % from 31245 instances) and the LTTC Learner Corpus (with more than 45 % from 62 instances). The *–ed* form which includes the past tense as well as the past participle in the perfective aspectual concept. However, in the LTTC Learner Corpus, the erroneous rate shows that *happened* possesses a higher percentage (75% from 28 instances), which probably reflects the difficulty of learning the appropriate usages of past tense and perfectivity in L2 English unaccusative verbs.

TABLE 1. Frequencies, percentage, and erroneous rate of the grammatical forms

Happen					
English Reference Corpus (BNC)			*Learner Corpus (LTTC)*		
	Freq.	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Erroneous Rate**
happened	**13111**	**41.96%**	**28**	**45.16%**	**75% from 45.16%**
happen	**8472**	**27.11%**	**23**	**37.10%**	**52% from 37.10%**
happens	5693	18.22%	5	8.06%	0% from 8.06%
happening	3808	12.12%	6	9.68%	16% from 9.68%
others	161	0.51%			
Total	**31245**	**100%**	**62**	**100%**	**54% from 100%**

Although the second most frequent grammatical form in both corpora is the base form *happen*, the percentages show some differences. In the BNC, *happen* occupies 27.11% of 31245 instances, while, in the LTTC Learner Corpus, *happen* accounts for 37.10% of 62 instances. The erroneous rate of *happen* (52% from 23 instances) also reaches a higher proportion, indicating that the base form of the unaccusative verb *happen* may also have some potential problems in L2 learner data. Compared to the frequency of *happens* (18.22%) in the BNC, this form in the LTTC Learner Corpus shows only 8.06% of coverage, indicating that intermediate L2 English learners rarely use this grammatical form belonging to the third person singular agreement. This, however, may be due to the nature of the topic as well, as certain topics may require the use of more third person singular pronouns than the first or second person pronouns.

Concerning the Chinese auxiliary selection in the GW, compared to the imperfective structure *fashen-zhe* 'happen-imperfective auxiliary' with approximately only 2.16% within 18161 auxiliary-attached structural sentences (*fashen-le* and *fashen-zhe*), the perfective structure *fashen-le* 'happen-perfective auxiliary' returns more than 97.84% of these 18161 instances, which indicates that the Chinese counterpart *fashen* may frequently be combined with perfective aspectual auxiliary *–le*, and this also shares some similarities with the grammatical form *happened* of the perfective aspectual concept in English. Chinese tends to use more instances of (7a) than those of (7b), and this may suggest that students may mingle the perfective aspectual concept with the unaccusative verb *happen* in English. Unless when the time end point is not definitely clear as in (7b), the imperfective aspectual auxiliary *–zhe* in (7b) will be used.

(7)

a.….*Jiazhiguan dou **fashen-le   bianhua*. <GW:CNA19910108.0119>
　 moral Value all *happen-LE change*. 'The moral value has totally changed.'
b.…*Dalu jingji lingyu zhengzai ***fashen-zhe   fuza-de   bianhua*.<GW:CNA19930307.0117>
　 China economics field now *happen-zhe complicated-poss.change*.
　 'China's economics is now changing complicatedly.'

TABLE 2. Frequencies of the postverbal subject order in Chinese and English reference corpora

	fashen			*Happen*		
	GW			*BNC*		
	Freq.	**%**			**Freq.**	**%**
fashen+N	**187172**	**44%**	**Happen.*+N**		**139**	**0.44%**
Others	238051	56%	Others		31100	99%
Total	425223	100%	Total		31245	100%

The last part of the three corpora comparison focused on the frequency of the postverbal subject order in both Chinese and English. As shown in Table 2, the frequencies of this type of structure between Chinese and English display some differences. The Chinese postverbal subject order (*fashen*+N, e.g., ***fashen huozai*** 'happen fire') occupies 44% from 425223 instances of *fashen*, and, further, 5.7% out of 44% belong to a two-argument structure (N+*fashen*+N, e.g., *renheren ***fashen yiwai*** 'anyone happen accident'). This contrasts with the proportions of the English postverbal subject order for *happen* (e.g., *These things ***happen Danny***. <BNC:S:KPA>). Within 31245 samples of *happen* from the BNC, only less than 0.5% (0.44%) reflect this type of structure, indicating that the postverbal subject order is less frequent in English.

The analyses of the three corpora found that (a) the grammatical form *happened* was the most frequently used in both BNC and the LTTC Learner Corpus and this is also observed in the Chinese auxiliary selection *fashen-le* 'happen-perfective auxiliary' from the GW in terms of perfectivity; (b) *happened*, *happen*, and *happening* showed a similar order in terms of the frequency, while *happens* was found to show contrast in frequency between the BNC and the LTTC Learner Corpus; and (c) the postverbal subject order of Chinese (*fashen*+N, e.g., ***fashen huozai*** 'happen fire') is more frequent, compared to that of English (e.g., *These things ***happen Danny***.<BNC:S:KPA>).

Erroneous Sentence Analysis

In the second step of the methodology section, we extracted some erroneous examples in the LTTC learner data from the previous Table1. We categorized them as different types of errors as well as their frequency in the learner corpus. Our erroneous sentence analyses correspond to the data from the previous corpus analysis and show the L1 transferred linguistic features, such as the Chinese auxiliary selection or the postverbal subject order to L2 English.

TABLE 3. Frequencies, percentage, and examples of the erroneous examples in the LTTC Learner Corpus

Error Types	Freq.	%	Erroneous Sentence Examples and Possible Explanations
Type1-Subject-verb agreement or tense marker[2]	15	44%	8a. **How did this happened?* 0158.txt 8b. **Why the* 現象 *happened?* 1646.txt

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[2] We group modal verb problems into this error type.

Type2-Infinitive usage	9	26%	8c. **But you may say what is the reason cause this happen*? 1577.txt 8d. **What make this happened?* 0340.txt 8e. **There are some reasons what cause it happening.*1165.txt
Type3-Present Participle usage	5	15%	8f. **To avoid this thing happen..*0477.txt 8g. **Because there was one thing happened about me..* 0300.txt
Type4-Passivized Unaccusative Verbs	4	12%	8h.**I think it is happen because the development..*1256.txt 8i. **Maybe it's happened because of the TVs ..*0158.txt 8j. **First problem is always happened.* 1269.txt
Type5-[+human] subject	1	3%	8k. *****This situation*** *I have never* **happened** *before!* 0100.txt
Total	**34**	**100%**	

As shown in Table 3, there are mainly five types of errors discovered in the LTTC Learner Corpus – 44% in Type 1; 26% in Type 2; 15% in Type 3; 12% in Type 4; and 3% in Type 5. Among these types of errors, Type 2 reaches the most various grammatical forms, including *happen, happened,* and *happening* (22.22%, 66.66%, and 11.11% respectively from nine instances). Type 1 occupies the most proportions of the erroneous sentences. Moreover, the grammatical form *happened* appears to be the most frequent grammatical form in every syntactic structure (61.76 % from all of the 34 erroneous sentences). This overuse of a certain form may be due to the L1 Chinese transferred perfectivity, as discussed previously regarding the prominence of the perfective equivalent *fashen-le* in Chinese. We also discovered that the first three error types were affected by L1 auxiliary selection. The Chinese suffix-like auxiliaries (-*zhe* or -*le*) seem to influence the selection of perfectivity in Englsih (–*ing* or -*ed*). However, L2 learners of English tended to ignore the English auxiliaries (BE or HAVE), which can explain the rare uses of the complete imperfective structure (BE plus –*ing*, e.g., *What is happening?*) or perfective structure (HAVE plus –*ed*, e.g., *The accident has happened.*) and the low frequency of the grammatical form *happens* in the LTTC Learner Corpus. Once L2 English learners made decisions on perfectivity (*happening* or *happened*) or the base form (*happen*), they might commit errors by persistently using a certain grammatical form across the various syntactic structures, such as wh-transformed questions as in (8a) or infinitives as in (8c). The uses of *happened* in performing the perfective aspectual concept, impacted by similar Chinese counterpart *fashen-le* (97.84% from 18161 auxiliary-attached structural sentences (*fashen-le* and *fashen-zhe*)), would be more salient in most L2 learner errors. Even in example (8b) with Chinese code-mixing *xianxian* 'phenomenon', *happened* can be persistently combined with Chinese characters, meaning that L2 learners of English follow the Chinese auxiliary-attached pattern (*xianxian fashen-le* 'phenomenon happen-perfective auxiliary').

The last two error types, yet with lower frequency, are likely to be affected mainly by the Chinese postverbal subject order, while the grammatical form *happened* transferred from the Chinese perfectivity still occurs. Type 4 is constituted by three out of four errors with *happened* and one with *happen*. We postulate that Chinese learners sense the passive voice in L2 English unaccusative structures similar to the alternative unaccusative structures in Chinese (*renheren* **fashen** **yiwai** 'anyone happen accident'), the passivized patterns would occur as in (8j) **First problem is always happened*. The can also explain the [+human] subject errors as in (8k) *****This situation*** *I have never* **happened** *before*.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

From the result above, we find some answers to the two research questions. First, among the four grammatical forms, *happened* occupies the most instances, and this high frequency can be discovered similarly in the BNC and in the LTTC Learner Corpus. However, the grammatical form *happens* shows

differences in the two corpora, suggesting that *happens*, representing the English third person subject agreement, would be difficult to elicit. The overuse of *happened* may be seemingly due to the transferred Chinese perfectivity. Along with the transferred feature from the Chinese postverbal subject order, the overpassivized errors would emerge.

Moreover, regarding the overpassivized errors, if one's L2 possesses prominent morphological change in languages such as English, these passivized errors are likely to become more frequent. On the contrary, if one's L2 possesses less prominent morphological change in languages such as Chinese, the passivized errors may become less frequent. Shan and Yuan (2008) proposed a claim of "availability of passive morphology" (p. 179) in typological differences among languages. Their study showed that L2 English learners of Chinese produced fewer overpassivized errors due to the less prominent morphological change in the L2 language (i.e., Chinese). The reason is that English has salient and visible morphological change in passive voice patterns, e.g., *Your letter has **been** received*, while Chinese does not always require a passive marker *bei* (e.g., *Nide xinjian (bei) shoudao-**le*** 'your letter (be) receive-perfective auxiliary.'). However, our data showed that L1 Chinese transfer may also influence L2 English unaccusative verb acquisition, since the overuse of *–ed* form (e.g., (8j) **First problem is always happen**ed**.*) and postverbal subject order (e.g., ***fashen yiwai*** 'happen accident') would not always frequent in L2.

On the other hand, with respect to the overuse of the *happened*, the principles of the *Aspectual Hypothesis* (Housen, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999) could be adopted. This hypothesis states that the unaccusative verbs (generally categorized in the verb type of achievement/accomplishment verbs) incline to be combined with the perfective aspectual concept. Thus, in terms of the unaccusative verb *happen* with the feature of achievement/accomplishment verb, *happen**ed*** with the perfective meaning tends to be used more frequently. From this perspective, the overuse of *happened* in L2 learner data is likely to be the result not only from L1 Chinese transfer but also, to some degree, from the specific verb type's aspectual tendency, implying that perfective aspectual tendency with the verb type of achievement/accomplishment verbs is possibly a universal phenomenon across languages.

As for the implications of this study, first, understanding the frequency of a certain lexical item in native as well as learner data would assist L2 teaching and learning, particularly in EFL contexts. EFL teachers can realize L2 learners' difficulty when they learn a lexical item belonging to a complicated group of verb system and then design a more appropriate teaching method based on the word frequency. Additionally, noticing the L1 transfer to L2 will also be useful in dealing with L2 learners' non-native usages. On the other hand, with respect to research on unaccusativity, it would be more holistic when one analyzes a specific lexicon and categorizes all of its usages, which will help broaden the room for SLA research areas.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The Nature of Turkish speaking English language teaching students' syntactic errors in their free writing

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Abstract
The aim of the present study is to discover the nature of the syntactic errors in their free writing type of essays, which comprised a 9382-word corpus. According to the types of syntactic errors identified in a previous research of learner corpus (Yalcin 2008), the present paper focuses on describing the most frequent error types, namely the article use and the verb use. Totally 34 Turkish-speaking students at first-year and third-year classes at Anadolu University wrote the essays. After computerization of the texts, and native speaker identification and correction of the errors in the texts, relevant error tags were assigned to the errors for quantification and description purposes. The descriptive examination findings showed that the definite article and the verb tense constructed the most common areas of difficulty in the surface structures examined, regardless of the year level of the students.
Keywords: writing, learner language, syntactic error, written corpus, error analysis

Transfer Relationship of Writing Skills between L1 and L2

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Introduction

In 1998, Ministry of Education in Japan announced that the Study Guideline of English was changed to put more emphasis on students' acquisition of the practical communication skills. Since this Study Guideline was enforced, English classes in Japanese junior high and high schools have tended to be communication-oriented. Now, teaching methods used in the classes are largely based on the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, and the acquisition of speaking and listening skills is stressed. Thus, there is little time assigned for writing activities, and if any, the activities are not related to English writing conventions but merely the tasks of translation from Japanese to English. Hirose (2005) pointed out that the first year university students in her studies lacked the experience of writing in English or taking writing instructions because Japanese schools did not provide them with such opportunities. Nevertheless, students need to be able to write English compositions for varying purposes in the future, and English writing instructions are necessary for Japanese students. The writing conventions are different between English and Japanese in terms of organizational patterns and logics used in the arguments, and therefore, there are some cases that the passages written by Japanese people are not correctly understood by English readers. It is true that there are many things to teach in EFL class. However, the knowledge about English writing conventions instructed in a small amount of time can surely improve students' writing skills. In addition, the L2 writing skills and knowledge will give some positive influence on their L1 writings. The present study examines the effects of English writing instructions on the improvement of Japanese students' L2 writing skills and how the improvement of L2 writings skills affects their L1 writing skills.

Literature Review

There are some seminal prior studies about the effects of instructions on students' writing skills. Fukushima (1985) compared English essays written by Japanese students before and after the writing instructions and found that their writings showed improvement in paragraph organizations and coherence. Hirose (1997) insisted that it was necessary for Japanese students to acquire the knowledge of English writing conventions because they were not accustomed to writing English essays although writing instructions had been criticized in that they would force students to use a fixed writing pattern and interfere with students' creative writing, according to Silva (1990). Murai (1990) also stated that Japanese students tended to be used to writing about personal feelings, and therefore, the presentation of the typical logic patterns and model essay organizations is necessary for them. Based on such assumption, Sasaki and Hirose (1996) examined the effects of teaching English writing conventions on the development of English writing skills of Japanese university students through a semester. They also conducted journal writing activities to make the students accustomed to writing in English. The quantity of their writings was increased because of the journal writing activities. However, their writing quality did not show much development except for the mechanics. The improvement brought about by the writing instructions was not exhibited in their essays. Hirose (1997) explained that it would take more time to improve their organizational skills.

There are also several studies on the transfer relationships between L1 and L2. Mohan and Lo (1985) found that students who lacked L1 writing strategies showed a similar lack of the strategies for L2 writing. Edelsky (1982) insisted that L1 writing strategies helped students' L2 writing. These two research showed that writing strategies were interdependent and transferred between L1 and L2. As well as writing strategies, students' writing skills were also considered to be transferred from L1 to L2 (Jones & Tetroe, 1987). Similarly, the contrastive rhetoric research was conducted to examine how students' L1 essay organizations or logical patterns were transferred to or different from their L2 writing organizations. Earlier studies in this field tended to focus on the difference between L1 and L2 essay organizations, but the recent studies paid more attention to the similarities. Kubota (1998) found that L1 and L2 compositions written by the Japanese university students had similar organizational patterns.

The Present Study

The present study has two focuses on students' writing skills. The first focus is the attempt to show that the writing instruction in a small amount of time can improve Japanese students' writing organizational skills although the researchers of the studies mentioned above stated that it took much time to improve students' organizational skills. The second focus is the transfer of the organizational skills learned through the instruction from L2 to L1. This study examines whether the transfer relationship can be established by the one-shot English (L2) writing instruction.

Research Hypotheses
Proposed research hypotheses for the present study are as follows:
1. The L2 writing instruction improves students' L2 writing skills even if a small amount of time is assigned for the instruction.
2. The students' L2 writing skills are transferred to their L1 writing skills and have some influences on their L1 compositions.

Method
Participants
The participants in the present study were six female Japanese sophomore students recruited from several universities. They had never stayed overseas, and thus, they had studied English as a foreign language. Their English proficiency levels were from low to low-intermediate according to their TOEIC scores. They had no experience of taking English writing instructions before this study, and their major studies were not related to English.

Procedure
Before taking the writing instruction, the students were required to write a 100-word paragraph in English and a 400-letter paragraph in Japanese. They were allowed to use dictionaries. The different topics were given to them according to the languages in order to avoid the translation from one language to the other. It was because, if they translated one into the other, the paragraph organization would not differ according to the languages. 20 minutes were assigned to compose a paragraph in both languages respectively. 20 minutes might be short for them to write a paragraph, but the quality of the written products made in 20 minutes is not significantly different from those written in 30 minutes according to Livingston (1987).

Afterwards, the students received a 90-minute instruction in Japanese on paragraph organization patterns of English essays and English writing conventions. Immediately after the instruction, they were asked to write a 100-word paragraph in English and a 400-letter paragraph in Japanese in 20 minutes respectively. The topics were different from those which had been given to them before the instruction in order for them not to merely correct their paragraphs written prior to the instruction. Then, the writings before and after the instruction were compared to analyze how they were changed.

Materials
The topic of a 100-word English paragraph written before the instruction was "There is a controversial issue that school uniforms are not necessary for students. What do you think of this issue?". The topic of a 400-letter Japanese paragraph was "There is a controversial issue that the legal age should be lowered from 20 years old to 18 or 19 years old. What do you think of this issue?".

The topic of a 100-word English paragraph after the instruction was "There is a controversial issue that mothers should quit their jobs and stay at home to raise their children. What do you think of this issue?". The topic of a 400-letter Japanese paragraph was "There is a controversial issue that the entrance examinations for universities should be unified into one common examination. What do you think of this issue?".

The questions for argumentative essays ordinarily ask writers whether they are for or against the given statements, for example, by saying "Do you agree with the idea?". However, such questions are considered to induce students to begin their essays with the statements of their positions toward the issues. This research intends to examine how they start their writings in order to see if their paragraph organizational skills are transferred or not. Therefore, the questions were made to be open-ended by asking "What do you think of this issue?" instead of "Do you agree with the idea?".

Instruction

The instruction was given to the students by the present author. The contents of the instruction are presented below.

First of all, the difference of organizational patterns between English and Japanese compositions was explained by comparing the reading materials quoted from the English and Japanese entrance examinations of some universities. The English passages consisted of three parts, which were called introduction, body, and conclusion. On the other hand, the Japanese passages had a conventional organization pattern which was called "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*". The "*ki*" part contained only the introduction of main topics. The writers' insistence was presented in the "*ketsu*" part (Hirose, 2005). In other words, the Japanese writers tended to hesitate to take a position initially, and readers had to wait for their opinions until the end (Oi, 1986). It sometimes looks ambiguous and strange for English readers, and can be the cause of misunderstandings between the users of the two languages. (Naotsuka, 1980). By contrast, the English writers stated their opinions at the beginning of their essays and restated them in the last part again (Okabe, 1983). These explanations were presented in order for the students to recognize the difference between English and Japanese writings.

Secondly, the notion of essay organization patterns was narrowed down to the organizations at a paragraph level in both languages. The example paragraphs were presented to show that the same patterns as essay organizations also occurred at a paragraph level. Then, the details of an English paragraph were explained. An English paragraph has a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence, and they have specific roles in a paragraph. It was also instructed that the persuasive supporting reasons for writers' insistences were important in English essays, and the refutation for counterarguments was effective to make their arguments more objective and convincing.

Finally, the students were given a list of essay topics, and they chose a topic and practiced to write an argumentative paragraph in collaboration. Since the activity seemed difficult for some students, the instructor (the present author) led their discussion and gave them some cues such as a model format of a paragraph.

Analysis
The paragraphs written in both languages before and after the instruction were compared to examine how they were changed and influenced by the writing conventions of the other language. The analysis of the English paragraphs was based on the holistic rating scale of Brown (2005) and Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide (Hamp-Lyons, 1991). The former scale is a holistic scale which gives a single global rating from 1 (the lowest) to 5 (the highest) for an essay according to the overall organization, development of ideas, language use and so forth. The latter one is an analytic scale which gives ratings from 1 (the lowest) to 6 (the highest) for an essay separately in terms of ideas and arguments, rhetorical features, and language control. However, these rating scales were made to assess English essays composed of several paragraphs. Therefore, they were adjusted to the one-paragraph writings written in the present study. For example, the words used in the original scale, introduction, body, and conclusion were regarded as a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence respectively.

The English paragraphs were assessed based on the two scales mentioned above by three raters. The mean ratings for each feature among the raters were calculated for each paragraph and compared between the paragraphs written before and after the instruction to see the effects of the instruction on the students' writing skills. The *t*-tests were not conducted in the present study because the sample size was too small to validate the results. The texts in both English and Japanese paragraphs were also analyzed in terms of the similarities and differences in composition styles. They were examined for what sort of characteristics of the languages, such as text organizational patterns, exhibited or were transferred from the other language.

Reliability
All the three raters had experience of teaching and rating English writings in some educational institutions, and they referred to the same rating sample based on the two scales above to confirm and share the rating standard among them before actually rating the paragraphs. The correlation coefficient of inter-rater reliability was calculated for the rating of pre- and post-instruction writings (See Table 1). The correlation coefficient of .60 above can be regarded as moderate or high correlations, and .49 (Rater 1 and 3 in the post-test) can be considered to show low correlations according to Brown (2005).

Table 1. Inter-rater Reliability

	Rater 1&2	Rater 1&3	Rater 2&3
Pre-test	0.84	0.68	0.79
Post-test	0.75	0.49	0.69

Results
The results of the three raters' ratings were collected and the mean ratings among them were calculated. The results were showed in the tables below.

Table 2.1 Holistic Rating

Holistic Rating	Student A	Student B	Student C	Student D	Student E	Student F	Mean
Pre-test	1.00	3.00	3.33	2.00	1.33	2.00	2.11
Post-test	2.00	4.00	3.67	2.67	2.33	3.33	3.00

Table 2.2 Analytic Rating 1. Ideas and Arguments

Ideas & Arguments	Student A	Student B	Student C	Student D	Student E	Student F	Mean
Pre-test	1.67	3.67	3.33	2.33	2.00	3.00	2.67
Post-test	2.33	3.00	3.00	2.33	2.67	3.00	2.72

Table 2.3 Analytic Rating 2. Rhetorical Features

Rhetorical Features	Student A	Student B	Student C	Student D	Student E	Student F	Mean
Pre-test	1.00	2.33	3.67	2.00	1.67	2.00	2.11
Post-test	3.00	4.00	3.67	3.00	2.67	4.00	3.39

Table 2.4 Analytic Rating 3. Language Control

Language Control	Student A	Student B	Student C	Student D	Student E	Student F	Mean
Pre-test	2.00	4.00	4.00	2.67	1.67	2.00	2.72
Post-test	2.33	3.33	4.00	3.00	1.33	3.33	2.89

The detailed descriptions and analyses of each student's texts and paragraph organizations are given below.

Student A
Student A's pre-instruction English paragraph did not have an elaborate organization. It started with her opinion, and it was followed by a somewhat subjective supporting reason for her opinion. Then, she finished the paragraph. A concluding sentence was not written, and transition words were not used, either.

Her post-instruction English paragraph showed much improvement in all the features. It started with a topic sentence which stated her opinion and ended with a concluding sentence which restated her insistence. Before giving supporting reasons, she wrote "There are some reasons for this". It was considered that she showed an outline of the paragraph based on her planning of the paragraph organization. She presented a counterargument and a refutation for it in order to make her argument more objective. Several transition words were used although some of them were not used appropriately. The supporting reasons were sometimes still subjective. However, the overall organization of her paragraph made much progress according to the improvement of the mean rating of rhetorical features from 1.00 to 3.00 (See Table 2.3).

Her pre-instruction Japanese paragraph had an English-like paragraph organization. She clarified her position at first, contrary to the traditional Japanese writing organization. She disagreed with lowering the legal age, and the supporting reasons were given based on the examples of the assumed problems brought about by lowering the legal age. Then, she restated her insistence at last.

Her post-instruction Japanese writing exhibited a similar organization. Her position was clearly stated at the beginning as well as at the end of the paragraph. However, the introduction of a counterargument for her position newly appeared although her refutation for it was weak in that she merely presented other supporting evidence unrelated to the counterargument and did not actually refute it.

Student B
Student B's pre-instruction paragraph in English was not logically organized. She stated her opinion that school uniforms were not necessary for students at the beginning and in the middle of the paragraph. However, the main point of her argument was gradually shifted to a different point, and the paragraph ended up with a different argument that polite behavior was encouraged not by wearing school uniforms but by students' sense of morals.

However, her post-instruction writing was well-organized in that it had a topic sentence, two supporting reasons, a refutation for a counterargument, and a concluding sentence. Her position was coherent through the paragraph. The transition words such as firstly, secondly, therefore, and however, were effectively used to connect the sentences naturally. Therefore, although the supporting reasons for her argument were abstract, her paragraph organization was considered to be improved according to the mean rating of rhetorical features (See Table 2.3).

Her pre-instruction Japanese paragraph was similar to her pre-instruction English paragraph in organization. It was not logically organized in that her main argument was shifted to a different perspective when the paragraph got to the last part. The supporting reasons and examples were not persuasive because they were from the subjective viewpoints.

However, the post-instruction Japanese paragraph became similar to the English paragraph organization. There were equivalents of a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. A refutation for a counterargument was also included. She clarified her position at the beginning and restated it at the end, too. The overall organization became much more logical than her writing prior to the instruction.

Student C
Student C wrote a well-organized English paragraph which contained a coherent argument even before the instruction. Actual examples were effectively used as supporting evidence.

After the instruction, she also wrote a coherent paragraph which had a similar organization to her pre-instruction one. However, supporting reasons were abstract, and no concrete examples were given in the paragraph. In spite of the lack of effective supporting evidence, there was a refutation for a counterargument, which made her argument more objective than the previous one.

Unlike the logicality in her English writing, her pre-instruction Japanese paragraph contained an ambiguous argument. She took a position to disagree with lowering the legal age, at first. However, she made a concession, and her argument became weaker and weaker. Then, finally, the paragraph ended up mentioning to the points to be careful when lowering the legal age would be enforced. It could be even interpreted that she accepted the opinions of her opposite side.

However, she wrote a logically organized post-instruction Japanese paragraph. It began with the statement of her position to disagree with one common entrance examination for all universities. It was followed by the description of the current situation in Japan and the disadvantages of the common examination. Then, a merit of the different examinations according to the universities was stated, and finally, she finished the paragraph with the restatement of her position.

Student D
In Student D's pre-instruction English writing, she stated her position to support school uniforms at the beginning of the paragraph. Then, she developed her idea by giving a supporting reason and, finally, insisted that school uniforms were necessary not only for high school students but also for university students. However, the process of the development of her idea was not logical because they were based only on her personal experience and subjective reasons. Transition words were not effectively used, and thus, some sentences were very long.

Her post-instruction English writing showed much improvement in the paragraph organization. The mean rating of the rhetorical features rose from 2.00 to 3.00 (See Table 2.3). Her main argument was coherent through the paragraph and supported by three reasons including a refutation for a counterargument. The supporting reasons were not exemplified by concrete examples. Nevertheless, her opinion could be comprehensible because logical development was clear in that transition words were appropriately used to show the connection between sentences, unlike her previous writing.

The organization of her pre-instruction Japanese paragraph was a typical "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*" organization. At first, she presented a question about the current legal age, and then, she explained why she came up with the question. Finally, she showed her opinion that the legal age should be lowered to the age of graduating from high schools.

In the post-instruction Japanese writing, she did not exhibit the organizational change. She wrote it in the same organization as the previous one. She presented her own impression on the issue of the common entrance examination at the beginning and explained about it in the following sentences. At last, she clarified her opinion. However, one element similar to her post-instruction English paragraph was her reference to the general public opinions to introduce a counterargument for her position. She could not refute it logically, but this point showed the influence from English writing conventions.

Student E
In Student E's pre-instruction English writing, her position was clearly stated at first. Nevertheless, she stated "I do not have [a] perfect answer", which meant her position toward the issue was not established, in the latter part. Thus, her argument seemed unstable. After all, her paragraph ended up with her personal impression on the issue.

Her post-instruction English paragraph showed improvement in rhetorical features (See Table 2.3). She stated her position at the beginning as well as at the end of the paragraph. In addition, she presented the supporting reasons and inserted a refutation for a counterargument in the paragraph. These changes made her argument more logical and objective than the previous one.

Her Japanese pre-instruction paragraph showed a similar organizational pattern to that of her pre-instruction English paragraph. At first, she insisted on lowering the legal age. However, after giving some supporting reasons for her argument, she finally stated that lowering the legal age did not make any difference to the Japanese society. Therefore, her argument was not coherent.

Her post-instruction Japanese paragraph exhibited a coherent and more logical organization. The paragraph started with her disapproval of a common examination for universities and ended with the disadvantages brought about by the common examination. There was not a concluding sentence, but her insistence was coherent through the paragraph.

Student F
In Student F's pre-instruction English writing, there was a topic sentence which clarified her position. However, right after the topic sentence, she introduced a counterargument for her position and did not give any refutation for it. Then, she gave two supporting reasons for her insistence and closed her argument with the restatement of her position. The argument was not poorly organized, but there was a problem in ordering supporting sentences.

Her post-instruction English paragraph had a more natural order of supporting ideas. Two supporting reasons and a counterargument with a refutation for it were written between a topic sentence and a concluding sentence. Although the supporting reasons were abstract and the refutation for a counterargument was given from a subjective perspective based on a personal example, the improvement in rhetorical features from 2.00 to 4.00 showed that the overall organization made much progress (See Table 2.3).

Her Japanese pre-instruction paragraph was characterized by a typical "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*" organization. The introduction of the main topic came at the beginning, and some problems of the enforcement of lowering the legal age were weighed in the following sentences. She also presented a point to be cared when the legal age would be lowered. Then, she claimed to be against the lowering the legal age at last.

However, her post-instruction Japanese paragraph organization was changed into that of English writings. Her opinion was stated at the beginning and end of the paragraph. She gave two supporting reasons and a refutation for a counterargument. Although her refutation was not logically convincing, the overall paragraph organization was considered to be more logically constructed than the previous one.

Discussion
Research hypothesis 1.
Since all the students had no experience to write argumentative essays in English, they did not know how to compose a paragraph before the instruction. All the pre-instruction English paragraphs except for Student C's exhibited problems of ordering their ideas and organizing a paragraph. All of them had a topic sentence which stated their positions at the beginning. However, only two of them (Student C's and F's) had a concluding sentence which restated their claims at the end. Student A's paragraph did not have a concluding sentence. The rest of them reached the conclusions different from the claims in their topic sentences.

However, all of their post-instruction English paragraphs followed English writing conventions and showed logical organizations. All the students were given higher ratings in holistic rating (See Table 2.1). Rhetorical features, which included the overall organizations, also showed improvement except for Student C, who had already employed an English organizational pattern before the instruction (See Table 2.2). They clearly stated their positions at the beginning by writing a topic sentence. Their claims were supported by some reasons and evidence given in the following sentences. They also presented a counterargument for their positions and attempted to refute it. It could be considered that they tried to make their arguments objective by assuming the contentions of the opposite side. Then, finally, they closed their paragraphs with the restatement of their positions by writing a concluding sentence. All the six students' post-instruction English paragraphs were characterized by this organizational pattern. The overall organization and the coherence of their paragraphs showed improvement.

However, not all the students showed improvement in the development of the ideas and arguments and language control (See Table 2.2 and 2.4). The supporting evidence given by them was not logical enough to convince readers because most of the evidence was based on personal feelings or examples which seemed hard to generalize. As for the counterarguments, they sometimes merely introduce the assumed opinions of the opposite side and did not actually refute them. The counterarguments should be refuted by pointing out their problems or disadvantages. Nevertheless, after referring to the counterarguments, the participants sometimes tended to insist on the merits of their own opinions which were unrelated to the counterarguments as if they refuted them. In addition, the accuracy of their language use did not show any significant changes because the instruction did not focus on this aspect and the present study allowed the students to use dictionaries.

As these analyses above showed, a 90-minute English writing instruction can be considered to improve students' writing organizational skills and enable them to write a coherent paragraph. However, their skills of making logical arguments and the accurate language use will take more time to develop.

Research hypothesis 2.
Their pre-instruction Japanese writings had various organizational patterns. Only Student A adopted an English-like organization in the Japanese paragraph although her English paragraph did not have such an organization. Student D and F wrote their paragraphs in a traditional Japanese organization called "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*", and therefore, their opinions were stated in the last part. The rest of them wrote a topic sentence which clarified their positions in the first place. Nevertheless, the following arguments were not coherent, and they reached a conclusion which was different from their claims stated at the beginning. Student B and E wrote their Japanese paragraphs in the same organization as their English ones.

In their post-instruction Japanese writings, four of them (Student A, B, C, and F) adopted the English paragraph organization. Student E also composed his paragraph in a similar organization, except that it did not contain an equivalent of a concluding sentence. Only Student D did not show any organizational change and wrote a paragraph in the same "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*" organization as used in her previous one.

Compared with the improvement of her English paragraph, Student A's Japanese paragraph did not show any organizational changes because her paragraph was composed in an English-like organization even before the instruction. The Japanese paragraphs of Student B and E made the same progress as their English ones. They could write coherent arguments in the post-instruction paragraphs in both English and Japanese. Student C and F employed the English organization pattern for their post-instruction Japanese paragraphs. Thus, the Japanese paragraphs of Student B, C, E, and F could be considered to show the influence from the English writing conventions in terms of their paragraph organizations. In addition, the other two students, Student A and D, did not show any organizational influence in their Japanese writings, but their post-instruction writings contained the presentation of a counterargument for their positions and an attempt to refute it. Consequently, it can be stated that the knowledge brought about by the English writing instruction can give some influence on students' Japanese writings, especially in the paragraph organization and construction of arguments.

Implication
The present study shows that a 90-minute instruction on English writing conventions and paragraph organizations can improve students' writing skills in some aspects, especially organizational skills. Teaching English writing conventions and showing the English organization pattern can be useful for Japanese students although it has been criticized for discouraging the creativity of students' writings, according to Silva (1990). Moreover, the organizational skills can be utilized in their Japanese writing. Since even the instruction in a small amount of time can improve such skills, it can be considered as meaningful to assign some time for writing activities in English class. However, this study has a limitation that its sample size was too small to generalize the results. Thus, it is necessary to conduct a study on the effects of writing instructions in larger size in order to verify the positive effects found in the present study.

Conclusion
The current English curriculum in Japanese schools does not emphasize writing skills. Most of Japanese students do not have experience of writing English compositions, and English writing conventions are not instructed in class. However, the knowledge of different characteristics of English and Japanese writings learned from explicit writing instructions have profound impact on their writing skills of English as well as Japanese. Therefore, writing instructions should be conducted in EFL class even if only a small amount of time can be assigned for them.

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Development in teachers' profession: focusing on Korean cases

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Abstract

Teachers' professionalism has been recognized as one of the primary factors to reform public education. Educational leader's role has been recently emphasizing to support professional learning communities more effectively. Although academia of educational administration has increasingly recognized the significance of teacher's professional development, understanding on the educational leaders' role and contribution is quite limited and unclear. In this context, this study reviewed the structural and operational system and analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of professional learning communities provided in Korean society: the Association of Korean History Teachers & the Communities of Elementary School Classroom Management. In order to analyze two cases, Robey's organizational change model was used as a theoretical frame. Two research methods were mainly employed for the study: literature review (scholarly journals, official reports, policy papers, and information loaded on web-sites) and on-site interview (participants and organizers). The analyses found several strengths (easy accessibility, teachers' initiative and autonomous will, abundant and practical solution) and weaknesses (financial burden, lack of theoretical background, intermissive participants) that the Korean teachers' professional learning communities have. At the end, the study suggests three strategies for educational leader who has an important role in developing teacher's profession: 1) making an institutional effort to stimulate teachers' learning motivation, 2) creating a strong network of university professors and other experts to get career advice, 3) building synthesized and consolidated system to activate communities.

Key words: teacher, professionalism, learning communities

Introduction

The teacher's professionalism has been recognized as one of the primary factors to reform public education. In fact, the academia of educational administration and policy has argued that the teachers' acquirement of knowledge and skills through the professional development influence on teaching practices and student learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Corcoran, 1995; Dufour, 2004). Accordingly, it is not indisputable that how teachers learn the knowledge and skills and how educational administrators give them discretionary learning opportunities must be an important issue.

The emphasis on teachers' professionalism is not limited to Korea but other countries as well. Since *No Child Left Behind* in 2001, as well as schools in the United States, educational leaders' role has been dramatically changing. Especially, the shift in education accountability forces educational leaders to set high standards, to assess achievement, and to reward schools based on that. For this sense, as Obama administration stated, teachers' professional development is the most important factor in school reform. In Korea, the programs for teachers' professional development are expanding by the Ministry of Education and Science Technology. Government driven programs are efficient in providing general information and universal teaching skills for teachers.

A large number of educational researchers have been identified to build professional learning communities as a basis for teachers' professional development (DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Firestone et

al., 2004; Little, 2001). That is, whether formal or informal, teachers' collective opportunities for their professionalism are central to maintaining and enhancing teacher quality. Despite apparent evidence indicating that working collaboratively among teachers represents best practice, it is not understandable that teachers in many schools continue to work in isolation. Even in schools that endorse the idea of collaboration, the staff's willingness to collaborate often stops at the classroom door (Dufour, 2004, p. 9). Moreover, most previous studies heavily depend on formal condition for teacher learning within schools, districts, states or national contexts. For example, there are subject teaching associations, grade-level teaching associations, a state department of education, a national professional organizations and so on.

A major problem of the formal learning opportunities is narrow in scope and detached from real-time learning during the normal workday (Fullan, 1995; Knapp, 2003). It is because that mandated conditions make a compelling learning environment rather than spontaneous participation. Due to a top-down approach, it is not only easy to ignore teachers' individual context, but also vulnerable to develop more adaptive and prompt information for them. While teachers' professional learning communities under the formal condition are criticized for low relevance and passive participation, informal communities are less structured and planned with less coercive goals and objectives. Informal learning opportunities tend to be more spontaneous and reflective in that they are typically out of real-time experiences (Putnam & Borko, 2000; Smylie, 1995). For this reason, educational leader's role is recently emphasized in supporting professional learning communities more spontaneously.

However our understanding on how educational leaders induce teachers' spontaneous professional development is quite limited. In this context, the study focuses on spontaneous networks among teachers rather than compulsive context. With a belief that informal community makes a different in developing teachers' professionalism, the author makes an in-depth investigation of teachers' professional learning communities in Korea with overview the structural and operational system and examination of the strengths and weaknesses. Then, the author presents preliminary findings and implications for educational leaders.

Rationale

Why are more effective, rigorous, and spontaneous teachers' professional learning communities needed?

Reforming schools and improving student achievement basically depend on teacher quality. Several policies and institutional efforts have been undertaken for a long time under this assumption. Nevertheless, no one agree on the most effective way to improve teachers' quality and students' achievement. In fact, numerous studies has proposed teacher inputs, such as salary, education level, and certification requirements, in order to improve teacher quality. However, recent reports and meta-analyses asked a question the relationship between teacher inputs and teacher quality (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Wenglinsky, 2000). On the other hand, other research suggests more interesting result that teachers' impact on student achievement is influenced not by teacher inputs, but by a function of daily classroom-level curricular and instructional decision-making (Joyce & Showers, 2002; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999; Wenglinsky, 2000).

Successful school reform depends on shared governance, transformational leadership, student concentrated teaching, teacher collegiality, and cultural change in schools (Barth, 2000; Caine & Caine, 1997; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2001; Gordon, 2004; Green & Etheridge, 2001; Kovalik & Olsen, 1994; Leithwood, 1992; Sweetland, 2001; Wilmore & Thomas, 2001). These are critical aspects for the teachers' professional development. In other words, the idea of reforming schools is closely related to teachers' professionalism and, thus plans on reforming schools should focus more on building up professional learning communities.

The meaning of the professional learning communities is that educators commit working collaboratively in ongoing processes of collective inquiry and communication to achieve better results for the students they serve. Namely, professional learning communities operate under the assumption that the key to improved learning for students is continuous, job-embedded learning for educators (DuFour & Eaker, 1998, p. 25-29). The characteristics of professional learning community are presented in Table 1 (Hord & Sommers, 2008, p. 9). Though some assert that professional learning communities do not pay attention to students' achievement, professional learning communities are focusing more on the student's achievement compared to other approaches.

Table 1 The Characteristics of Professional Development Community

Shared belief, value and vision
The staff consistently focuses on students' learning, which is strengthened by the staff's own continuous learning
Shared and supportive leadership
Administrators and faculty hold shared power and authority for making decisions
Collective learning and its application
What the community determines to learn and how they will learn it in order to address students' learning needs is the bottom line
Supportive conditions
· Structural factors provide the physical requirements: time, place to meet for community work, resources and policies to support collaboration
· Relational factors support the community's human and interpersonal development, openness, truth telling, and focusing on attitudes of respect and caring among the members
Shared personal practice
Community members give and receive feedback that supports their individual improvement and that of the organization

Schools composed of teachers and educational administrators as professionals try to improve school performance through educational inquiries and collaborative works (Astuto, Clark, Read, McGree, & Fernandez, 1993; Louis & Marks, 1998). Despite the advantage and necessity of professional learning communities, there are few studies of how to create, organize, and develop them. In the United States, the efforts to facilitate professional learning communities have been attempted in the mid 1990s. For instance, there are Creating Continuous Communities of Inquiry and Improvement as a national support and the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory as federal supports (Hipp, Olivier, Huffman, Beaty, Pankake, & Moller, 2001).

Where professional community exists, teachers share and trade off the roles of mentor, advisor, or specialist (Lieberman et al., 1988; Little 1990). There are some excellent professional learning communities now, but not nearly enough. Most programs are designed by school governance without considering the profound individual teachers' unique need. It is because that intended programs often

pay little attention to the teachers' autonomy. The school governing authorities have an influence on behaviors, motivation and climate both within and outside schools contexts.

The professional learning community model flows from the assumptions that the core mission of formal education is not simply to ensure that students are taught but to ensure that they learn. This simple shift-from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning-has profound implications for schools (DuFour, 2004, p. 8). Thus, teachers' professional development must be planned and embedded under teachers' spontaneousness, focus on student growth and supportive of reflective practice. As instructional leaders, educational administrators play a critical role in ensuring that their buildings support a learning-rich environment for both students and teachers(Barth, 1990; Donalson, 2001; Drago-Severson, 2004). That is, school leaders are the keys to establishing a positive organizational climate in their building and well-functioning professional learning communities.

Method

To overview the structure and operational system of teachers' professional learning communities, it needs a theoretical frame. The study chooses Robey's organizational change model that has been employed to review the organizational effectiveness. Robey (1986) suggested the more developed model than Leavitt's socio-technical perspective on organization and took account of the impacts and directions between factors (task, human, structure, and technique) of organizational change. According to Leavitt, the organization departmentalizes a certain objective, and its structure, human, and technique are used to accomplish it. Figure 1 presents Leavitt's idea. As Leavitt defines the factors of the organizational change as task, human, structure, and technique, he points out the change of human areas as the effective element for improving organizational performance.
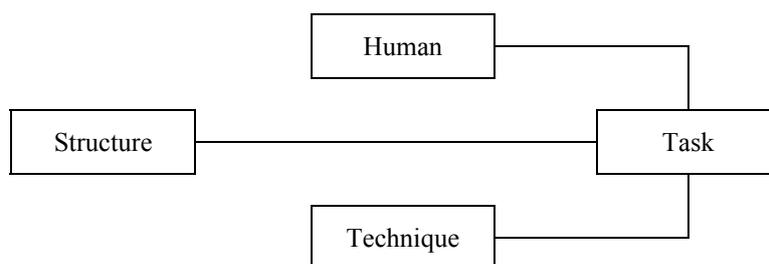
Figure 1 Leavitt's socio-technical perspective on organization

While the relation between human, structure, and technique is weak, the factors of human, structure, and technique dimensions center strongly upon task. Based on Robey's organizational change model, the study investigates two Korean cases of professional learning communities in terms of structure and operation.

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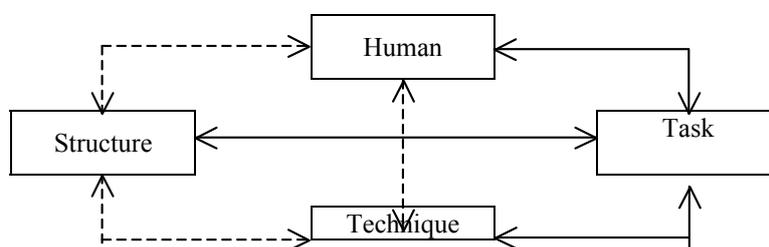
Figure 2 Robey's organizational change model

Data analysis included two Korean cases. One is the Association of Korean History Teachers (*afterward*, AKHT) which has intended to help history teachers who wish to get more professional development since 1988. The other is the Community of Elementary School Classroom Management (*afterward*, CESCM) which has been designed for the elementary school teachers since 1993.

Data were collected from literature reviews including scholarly thesis, official reports, articles, and information officially loaded on websites, and in-depth interviews. For in-depth interview, the author meets a total four of interviewees who have been involved with AKHT and CESCM : face-to-face interview and on-site interview. Interviews focused on re-identifying preliminary findings about the structural and operational system. Subsequent to the interviews, each informant was provided with a copy of the transcript of their interview and asked to check for its accuracy.

Findings

The Association of Korean history teachers

AKHT is designed for Korean history teachers for secondary school. AKHT is one of the noticeable associations amongst others. The main objective of AKHT is to share contents and methods for teaching Korean history classes. Table 2 summarizes the structural and operational characteristics of AKHT.

AKHT has 8,304 secondary Korean history teachers. The structure of AKHT is divided into operational teams and research membership which are tightly interconnected. AKHT provides materials, information training programs, organized study group and special lecture for novice teachers. All data and information are shared with members through the web site. AKHT handles off-line training programs during the summer and winter break.

Table 2 Descriptions of AKHT

Criteria	The Association of Korean history teachers
Human	Currently, AKHT has 8,304 members (middle & high school history teachers)
Structure	Operational teams: general affairs, research affairs, data & communications affairs, network affairs, public relation affairs) and research membership (regional research, teaching & lesson plan research, medium & material research, exchange research project research).
Task	Major tasks of AKHT are providing data & information, training & educating during summer & winter break, organizing study group, and giving a lecture for new teachers
Technique	Soft ware: data, information, skill, experience, knowledge related to teaching the history Hard ware: website linked with a private institution

The Community of Elementary School Classroom Management

CESCM has been intended for the elementary school teachers who wish to learn knowledge, skills, and information for teaching practice. Since 1993 CESCM has been initiated by the elementary school teachers and sustained in stable. Although external rewards such as incentive for promotion or financial support are not offered by Korean government, teachers organize the community based on their will and expectation. Table 3 describes the structural and operational characteristics.

The membership of CESCM includes elementary schoolteachers, principals, assistant principals, researchers, and school commissioners. CESCM is organized with operational membership, research & information membership, undergraduate student membership. CESCM waives the membership fee for all members except for research & information membership. All information is provided for all members. Pre-service teacher membership is eligible for undergraduate students of college of education. The main tasks include helping teachers and advising participants. All data are provided through the web site, and all members have the opportunities to participate in off-line training courses and seminars.

Table 3 Descriptions of CESCM

Criteria	Community of elementary school classroom management
Human	The number of CESCM is about 5,250 members (elementary schoolteachers, administrators, and researchers)
Structure	CESCM is composed of has operational membership (president, vice-president and membership), research & information membership, pre-service teacher membership.
Task	To research for teaching & lesson plan, to interact with aboard schools, to share data & information, and to conduct research projects.
Technique	Soft ware: data, information, skill, experience, knowledge related to teaching the subject, managing classroom, educating student behaviors Hard ware: website-based structure

Strengths and weaknesses

From the results, the author found several strengths of the Korean cases. First, teachers' professional development community is built by teachers' initiative and autonomous will. It is obvious that teachers-led approach to professional learning community is apparently a strong attractiveness. This plays a very important role in enhancing teacher professionalism. It is evidence in the AKHT member's comment.

I am comfortable enough. A culture of autonomy indeed is attractive. Honestly, getting

to know each individual teacher and asking them to work under formal system has

taken a lot of my time and it was quite tiring and nervous. This community has no place

for a climate steered by a superior institution nor for a culture of unwillingness.

Second, there are abundant information and data for developing teaching practice. It will be contributing to professional development for schoolteachers. In the words of one teacher:

It has shown me different resources that I didn't know before. It has helped me to learn how to teach students effectively… I learned a lot of skills on how to deal with students…This community has definitely helped me in developing my professional aspect…

Third, easy accessibility and practical problems-solving are met teachers' expectation and interests. It is possibly that teachers acquire knowledge and learn skills through not only web site but also training programs and seminars. The values are reflected in teachers' words such as:

Actually, I became more interested in it than I thought… When I first came, I didn't really take it seriously, but now, it became a very important part of my teaching practice. I asked them questions which were not solved in my classroom…having me some kind of knowledge I didn't realize before… Sometimes it makes me being able to answer them too. I was happy to find myself in position to help other teachers.

However, the two Korean cases reveal a couple of weaknesses that may affect the quality and effectiveness of teachers' professional learning. Those include the followings: absences of rigorousness of all members, financial burden, and a lack of theoretical background.

It is a limitation that communities tend to be managed by several members. Thus, the communities seem to fail to be interconnected. It makes the communities rather loose in the structure and operation. In this regards, one of teachers expressed a negative opinion in the following terms.

Data and information is obviously provided by a few members. Most teachers just got data free of charge… I believe that our community can be developed by working together…Each membership plays a very critical role for sustaining community…

Another critical problem is a lack of financial support. It possibly affects teachers' motivation. With regards to a negative aspect of communities, one of the teachers who is in charge of communities criticized:

I know that some teachers complained. It was not special for them. Because they have to pay a fee in order to join the seminars and training programs. Although we have financial support by Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, it is insufficient to waive fees…

Furthermore, the theoretical foundation of communities is not solid. It is because that communities heavily depend on teachers' experiences and fail to provide academic theories and analysis. A schoolteacher who participated in the communities pointed out:

It did upset to see that they did not provide a theoretical knowledge. In fact, knowledge
and skills we shared are heavily depends on each own experiences. I think this is very
dangerous…

Based on the findings, Table 4 summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of professional
development communities in Korean society.

Table 4 A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Cases	Strengths	Weaknesses
Community of elementary school classroom management The Association of Korean history teachers	- building organizations by teachers' initiative and autonomous will - abundant information and data for developing teaching practice - easy accessibility and practical problems-solving	- management by several members - financial burden - lacking of academic aspects

Conclusion

The teacher's profession has an extensive and illustrious history. It is based on the idea of
accountability for students and to society. Recently, preference to school teacher job is increasing and
the environmental factors around schools are rapidly changing in Korean society. Indeed, teachers'
profession is a primary factor to reform public education.

In the contexts, this study underscored the structural and operational system and examined the
strengths and weaknesses of two professional learning communities in Korea. Our analysis of two
cases indicated that institutional design of professional learning community might be less effective than
teachers own initiatives. For collaboration to influence professional growth and development it has to
be promised upon teachers' willingness and autonomy. Findings from two cases offer several clues
about strategies for school leaders and policy makers who are committed to developing teachers'
profession.

First, teachers' professional communities must be equipped with strong networking and be shared
by the academic know-how. The evidence from two Korean cases illustrates that teachers'
communities, as a learning organization, could be nurtured when individuals reflect upon academic
theory and teaching practice. Teacher professional development is more effective if community is
closely connected to academic theory rather than simply helping each other. For example, university
professors or other researchers may contribute to build more theoretical foundation.

Second, schools or district units have to make an effort to increase teacher autonomy. The findings
from this study show that teachers' autonomy may encourage their participant in professional learning
communities. In particular, teacher collective autonomy is required for optimum professional growth.
Teachers' collective autonomy is more effective if school leaders support the teachers' learning
communities, rather than simply controlling them. It is entirely possible that administrative
organizations operate mandated or structured direction. Under this system, there is certainly conflict

and competition that ignores teachers' need and expectation. If administrative authority proves to be structurally, it does not promote the conditions necessary for teacher profession. Thus educational leaders can facilitate teacher learning motivation by reducing a top-down administrative structure.

Third, the primary role of school leaders is to decrease teachers' workload. Research evidence suggests that when teacher has the autonomy to learn about how to teach, there is a greater likelihood the change will be positive. In order to stimulate teachers concentrate on professional development, it is required for school leaders to make an effort to reduce teachers' workload stress.

Finally, the effectiveness of learning communities needs further financial supports. A finding of this study reinforces the results of some previous studies (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; David et al., 2000). For example, Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin (1995) found that the teachers' involvement in learning opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills depends on the financial support for learning. Also, teachers in district which paid stipends for in-service teacher professional development are more likely to pursue reform idea grounded in curriculum and instruction (David et al., 2000). By having sufficient financial supports, educational administrators help to further enhance teacher profession for sustaining learning communities.

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TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES REGARDING DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION

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Abstract

Differentiated instruction is one of the teaching approaches that can meet the complex needs of students. The aim of this study is to determine teachers' perceptions and practices regarding differentiated instruction via semi-structured interviews. The study reveals that teachers do not have sufficient information about differentiated instruction, and they are not sufficiently proficient in the application of differentiated instruction.

Keywords: Differentiated instruction, teacher training, teacher perception.

INTRODUCTION

In today's classrooms, teachers are more interested in individual differences such as learning interests, learning profiles, learning needs and readiness. Due to variety of students' socioeconomic background, culture, ethnicity, and language, teachers face many diverse student characteristics and problems. Therefore, teachers use more student-centered approaches and instructional strategies to meet this broader range of diversity in their students. Differentiated instruction is one of the teaching approaches that can meet the complex and diverse needs of students.

Differentiated instruction is a philosophy of teaching based on the premise that students have individual differences based on learning styles, learning interests, abilities and learning necessities. Furthermore, differentiated instruction offers a variety of strategies for deeper individual understanding and expanded learning opportunities (Chapman & King, 2003, p.11). The main aim of differentiated instruction is to maximize the development of each student (Hall, 2002, p.1), establish a balance between a student-centered and teacher-facilitated classroom, and provide opportunities for students to work in a variety of formats (Heacox, 2002, p.1).

Differentiated instruction requires teachers to design a variety of teaching activities to enable students to achieve their learning goals (Smutny, 2003, p.30). Teachers accept that students have different learning needs depending on their interests, learning profiles, and readiness level in differentiated classroom, and thus they differentiate the content, process and product according to these different needs (Tomlinson, 1999, p.11; Anderson, 2007, p.50). In differentiated instruction, teachers should determine students' strengths, interests and learning preferences, and provide multiple teaching methods for them to construct knowledge. Teachers should follow current practices in the field of education, and have knowledge about how to apply these practices to individual students' needs (Kommer, 2004, p.15). Teachers should be clear about what students need to know (content), how they perform this (process) and the various products they create to demonstrate what they have learned (Theisen, 2002, p.2). Therefore, understanding what differentiated instruction is and how to implement it successfully in mixed ability classrooms are the requirements for teachers. Again, it is essential to determine teachers' perceptions and practices regarding differentiated instruction in order to help them use strategies for differentiated instruction in their classrooms. Based on this understanding, in this study it is aimed at determining the perceptions of primary school teachers related to differentiated instruction. Within the context of this aim, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the opinions of teachers about differentiated instruction?
2. Do teachers feel themselves competent at differentiated instruction?
3. Which differentiated instruction strategies are used commonly by teachers?
4. At which courses do teachers use differentiated instruction strategies commonly?
5. What are the common problems that teachers face in the application of differentiated instruction?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the study were 25 primary school teachers. Based on their professional experience, the most experienced teacher was in his/her 24th and the least experienced was in his/her 4th year in their profession. Additionally four of those participants have M.A. or PhD. degree in primary school education.

Data collection

To get in-depth understanding about teachers' perceptions and collect the study data, the semi structured interview technique was used. Before the interviews, the researchers met with the participants of the study and informed them about the study. Meeting schedule was determined with the participants, and a written permission was taken from them before the interviews took place.

Data analysis

The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. An auditor examined verbatim transcripts of the interviews independently, providing a reliability check. Later, the data were loaded into Nvivo 8 qualitative software analysis program and were analyzed through content analysis. NVivo 8 was used to categorize the data according to themes based on each data source and data were also divided into categories. To test the reliability of the study, Miles and Huberman's (1994, p.64) formula was used and P = 92,7% was found.

FINDINGS

The main themes obtained from the interviews with 25 primary school teachers are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Main themes obtained from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews

Opinions of teachers about the differentiated instruction approach
Reasons for implementing the differentiated instruction approach in teaching
Teaching methods and assessment techniques used in differentiated instruction
Proficiency perceptions of teachers regarding the application of differentiated instruction
Problems encountered in the implementation of differentiated instruction
Suggestions related to the application of differentiated instruction

As shown in Table 1, six main themes emerged from the data analysis. Afterwards, sub-categories were created for each main theme, and to reflect participants' ideas properly, direct quotations were also presented.

Sub-categories for the theme of "Opinions of teachers about the differentiated instruction approach" are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Opinions of teachers about the differentiated instruction approach

A teaching approach for students with different learning strengths
A teaching model that takes the individual differences of students into consideration
Organization of different teaching environments according to students' intelligence areas
A teaching model that takes the interest and needs of students into consideration
New models and applications in the teaching-learning process
Different practices depending on the educational status of the classroom
A separate teaching application applied for each student
Teaching activities for low or superior level students

A rich learning environment that requires an effective teaching-learning process
I had never heard of this approach
I do not have any information about this approach

For example, one teacher (T10: 854-858) explained her opinions as "*I think this approach is a teaching model held by taking individual differences, interests, and needs of students into consideration because each student in the class has different interests and needs. All the students have different capabilities and perceptions. Individual differences are at fore front*". On the same theme, another teacher (T2:161-163) described it as "*differentiated instruction is a teaching model considering students' individual differences. It meets the needs of students who have different learning needs. It requires a rich learning environment for effective teaching-learning process.*" Again, one of the participants (T12:1044-1049) who never heard of this approach expressed her opinions as "*as a term, I had never heard of it. But I think I use different applications related to differentiated instruction. In my opinion, it means to observe and evaluate individual students according to their own development because children are not exactly the same, every child's learning rate is different*".

Sub-categories for the theme of "Reasons for implementing the differentiated instruction approach in teaching" are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Reasons for implementing the differentiated instruction approach in teaching
Making abstract concepts more concrete in the science and technology course
Developing the multi-dimensional language skills of students in the language arts course
Eliminating the problems of students' perceptions in the mathematics course
Meeting the individual differences of students in the visual arts course

For example, one participant (T1:70-74) pointed out that she applied differentiated instruction in the science and technology courses more because "*It is difficult to understand some concepts in the science and technology course. For this reason, I usually applied differentiated instruction approach to make abstract concepts more concrete in this course*". Another teacher (T12:1085-1088) who applied this approach more in mathematics mentioned that "*As I believe that math is one of the intelligence units of people. I think everybody cannot do math. Mathematics has too many details and subjects. Diversification increases details*".

Sub-categories for the theme of "Teaching methods and assessment techniques used in differentiated instruction" are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Teaching methods and assessment techniques used in differentiated instruction

Teaching methods	Assessment techniques
Small-group teaching	Portfolio
Group work	Self-assessment
Collaborative learning	Peer assessment
Independent study	Observations
Different assignments	Projects and performance tasks
Multi-intelligence applications	Assignment reviews
	Interviews

Teachers gave the following strategies as examples and indications for their applications of differentiated instruction in the classroom: "Making individual and collective activities", "Exploring students' various areas of interest", "Using different work sheets, reading texts, and other different materials", "Accessing information and communication technology".

Sub-categories for the theme of "Proficiency perceptions of teachers regarding the application of differentiated instruction" are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Proficiency perceptions of teachers regarding the application of differentiated instruction
Teachers feel inadequate in:
Being aware of different methods and techniques
Managing student into groups
Guiding students
Organizing appropriate teaching activities for children

Child psychology
Implementing differentiated instruction methods and techniques
Assessment
Determining children's intelligence areas
Applying instructional methods and techniques suited to intelligence domain
Using technology

All participants indicated that they were not sufficiently proficient in the application of differentiated instruction and thus needed in-service training in it. As one teacher (T10: 903-910) proclaimed: *"I do not believe that I am sufficient because we have encountered with these new concepts, methods and techniques lately. Therefore, we need to follow something like that, need to get information about these new approaches in depth. This requires a certain time and education process. Therefore, people are going through a training process for some time but I do not know how much is enough. Therefore, I cannot say yes, I am proficient."* Another teacher (T6:560-567) also said: "*Now, I personally do not think I am proficient. But as far as I know, other teachers have not sufficient information on this subject. Based on my observation, I would say that I think other teachers do not know the differentiated instruction approach". I have information on this issue because I have a graduate degree. But most of our teachers are not knowledgeable on this issue. I find myself inadequate in the fields of the implementation of the strategies and assessment of students. I can implement strategies effectively if I learn. But I find myself insufficient as I have not learned the strategies. I feel inadequate."* This teacher bases her knowledge and skills on the opportunity to identify new methods and techniques that primary school education master program has provided for her.

One of the teachers (T12:1135-1139) who feels himself incompetent in the application of differentiated instruction said that "*I am incompetent in the field of both theoretical knowledge and application of the methods and techniques used in differentiated instruction. I was convinced that I would do it through trial and error. It actually took a great time for me as I had not received any training. It is a good idea to receive this training".* Another teacher (T8:756-762) who needs in service training to resolve the inadequacies stated her opinions on this matter as ""*For example, which methods, techniques or strategies are effective for the student groups? How should I determine student groups? How do I determine intelligence areas of the students? How can I apply the methods and techniques or differentiated instruction strategies in accordance with their intelligence fields? It would be more appropriate if such training were given as well as in the field of assessment. Actually I think that in-service teacher training in every field must be systematized*".

Sub-categories for the theme of "Problems encountered in the implementation of differentiated instruction" are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Problems encountered in the implementation of differentiated instruction

Problems caused by families
Insufficient family income
Lack of acceptance of students' individual differences
Not being aware of children's developmental features
Being irrelevant and unconscious

Problems caused by students
Being teased by other students who are lower level learners
Not accepting each other's differences

Problems caused by the physical conditions of schools and classrooms
Crowded classrooms
Lack of materials
Lack of resources in the library
Lack of teaching environment appropriate to individual differences and needs
Not preparing textbooks and manuals in a format suitable for individual differences.

Problems caused by teachers and school administrators
Lack of information and skills about implementation of methods and techniques
Lack of information and skills about investigation of students' individual differences
Failure to provide classroom management appropriate for individual differences

Having trouble in spending a great deal of time in the application of activities
Failure to monitor children's developmental levels
Lack of information and skills about teaching activities appropriate for learning styles
Lack of information of school administrators about this approach

As shown in table 6, most of the teachers mentioned that they encountered some problems in the implementation of the differentiated instruction approach. One of the teachers (T7:657-670) commented about this issue saying "*generally families do not accept that children are different from each other. This is the biggest problem (...) Families who do not accept children's individual differences sometimes intervene in teaching process. And they want their children to work beyond the interests and levels*".

Another teacher (T8:746-749) explained that a family's economic status and education level affect negatively the implementation of differentiated instruction activities. She asserted that "*Family is a very important element and I think we need to develop it. Mom and Dad should be sufficient. Low economic status and educational level of families limit the effective manner of teaching activities. Because of the lack of awareness and guidance in the family, I'm having trouble in carrying out different activities*". Additionally, another teacher said (T14:1301-1306) "*I'm having problems stemming from physical conditions of school and lack of materials. Especially when we look at the profile of the parents, we have noticed that economic level of them is very low. That's why we face difficulties when we want students to bring materials into the classroom. It is financially impossible for teachers to supply the materials on their own. These are the reasons why we experience failures in the application of differentiated instruction approach*".

One of the teachers (T10:929-936) who has mentioned the problems caused by the physical conditions of schools and classrooms said that "W*hen we look at the classroom environment, because of the crowded classes, problems emerge in classroom management. And it is not possible for us to allocate time for each student. In addition to the crowded classes, limited physical space also causes problem for me*". With regard to the same issue, another teacher (T4:340-347*) said that "textbooks and manuals have not been prepared in a format suitable for individual differences. The biggest difficulty here, in fact, a child in advanced level immediately completes his/her work whereas a child in lower level cannot understand it, and s/he is bored. Also the questions in the books are not appropriate to the multiple intelligences. Some children answer the question with just a word. Some write at length. Here, individual differences are emerging*".

Sub-categories for the theme of "Suggestions related to the application of differentiated instruction" are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Suggestions related to the application of differentiated instruction

In-service training programs should be organized by experts
Cooperation between the Ministry of National Education and universities should be enhanced
Family education should be provided
School administrators should be informed on this approach
Cooperation between school and family should be enhanced
Physical facilities of schools and classes should be improved
The number of students in each classroom should be reduced
Classrooms should be constituted according to students' interest groups
More books and resource materials about this approach should be provided for teachers

One of the teachers (T14:1339-1342) expressed his opinion as "*In-service training seminars related to differentiated instruction or individual differences may be developed. Cooperation between the universities and Ministry of Education may be enhanced. And we can get some information and sources relating this approach*". Another teacher (T9:845-850) said that "*instruments are very important. Also our classroom environment must be regulated according to this approach. Reduced class size provides students with many benefits and opportunities for participation in the learning activities. If teachers have the competence and the necessary materials and learning environment is prepared suitable for this approach, I think we can be successful in applying this approach.*"

One of the teachers (T1:151-155) suggested developing physical facilities of schools and classrooms and providing equipments. She mentioned on this matter stating "e*specially, we have expectations from*

school management about providing financial resources. I cannot supply the material to perform these activities. Many resources are insufficient in the library. It would be much better if books, materials and more resources were provided. Also, school administrators should be informed about this approach in my opinion". One of the teachers (T14:1337-1340) proposed that some informative seminars should be given for parents by adding "*First of all, parents should be conscious. At this point, the awareness of parents should be developed. Parents and teachers should be aware of individual differences, developmental characteristics of children, and child psychology*".

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the perceptions and practices of primary school teachers related to differentiated instruction. Although the findings are limited by the sample size, the nature of the findings seems applicable to teachers in other settings as well.

The findings of the study revealed that the majority of teachers have not much information and they have not received any training about this approach previously. In this scope, Tomlinson (2005) emphasizes that teachers may not be familiar with the concepts involved in implementing differentiated instruction in the classroom.

The findings of the present study pointed out that teachers try to implement some different teaching and assessment methods and techniques to meet the needs of the students in terms of their individual differences, interests, learning levels and capabilities. However, the findings of the study underline the fact that teachers do not have enough theoretical and practical knowledge on teaching methods and techniques for differentiated instruction. While the findings of the present study are in parallel with the findings of Ham's (2001, p.109) study, they are not consistent with Christian's (2006) study. According to Ham's study, a majority of the responses indicates that only a very limited number of teachers use differentiated teaching practices that provide more opportunities for students to experience different learning opportunities that meet their learning style. The data obtained from Christian's (2006) study revealed that the majority of participants were successfully implementing differentiated instruction in the classroom.

The third significant finding of the study indicated that the teachers mostly apply differentiated instruction approach in courses of science and technology, language arts, visual arts, and mathematics to take their attention to abstract concepts, develop language skills of students as a multi-faceted, eliminate problems of student's perceptions, and also meet the individual differences of students.

Findings of the study show that the majority of teachers feel themselves inadequate. Firstly, teachers do not have previous knowledge about this teaching approach, and they are not informed through in-service teacher training. Just four teachers with master and doctoral degree in primary education feel themselves medium level sufficient on this approach. Therefore, it is possible to say that these teachers have found opportunity to receive training and track recent studies in the field of education. For this reason, it can be said that they have knowledge about this approach and they feel a bit more sufficient compared to other teachers. According to the results of Holloway (2000) study, teacher-education programs rarely address the differing needs of learners, and the supervisors of these teachers rarely encourage the use of differentiated instruction. Additionally, Ayers' (2008) study supports the findings of this study. Ayers (2008) found out that the majority of participants are using differentiated instruction, but in varying degrees.

The results of the study revealed that teachers have encountered a variety of problems while implementing differentiated instruction. Most problems encountered in the implementation of this approach are caused by families, students, the physical conditions of schools and classrooms, teachers and school administrations. Related literature supports the findings of the study. For example, Tomlinson (2001) states that to be successful, taking on the task of differentiated instruction approach requires support that comes from the students, the parents, the administration and the school staff. Leaders need to develop a more complete understanding of differentiated instruction, have more training on leading a change process, and learn about more effective staff development practices (Richardson, 2007, p.ii). The biggest constraint teachers reported was time and student-teacher ratio. Therefore, teachers may perceive that they do not have time to individualize instruction or develop alternative assignments for each student (Hensel, 2009, p.204-209).

The findings reveal that teachers feel many important educational needs on differentiated instruction. Teachers feel inadequate and they **need to be *aware of*** implementation of different methods and techniques, using technology, identifying and managing student groups, guidance, identification of appropriate teaching activities to children, child psychology, implementation of differentiated instruction methods and techniques, assessment, determining children's intelligence field and also application of instructional methods and techniques suited to intelligence domain. Moreover, this study revealed that teachers need in-service teacher training on theoretical and practical knowledge of differentiated instruction approach. Therefore, it can be said that there is a strong need for a systematic in-service teacher training programs to inform teachers about differentiated instruction. Related literature supports the findings of the study. Kraft's (2005) study indicates that teachers felt less efficacious in student engagement and instructional strategies and equally efficacious in classroom management. Ankrum (2006) found out that teachers need much more guidance about how to apply differentiated instruction. Additionally, Clarke (2006) and Ayers's (2008) studies solidified the necessity of teacher training in differentiated instruction. Similarly, Fahim (2008, p.8) points out that when it comes to implementing differentiated instruction, the proper education and professional development should be provided to the teachers. Tomlinson (2005, p.11) explains that teachers may need training and administrative support during the onset of implementation. Professional development and collaboration may be required to assist teachers and familiarize them with the use of strategies and classroom management.

Consequently, it can be said that teachers feel themselves inadequate in terms of differentiated instruction, and they need in-service training regarding differentiated instruction both theoretically and practically. These findings stress that teachers need to be informed and trained via both in-service and pre-service training programs. Based upon the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered:

- Differentiated instruction approach should be addressed within the scope of special education methods courses in teacher training programs and prospective teachers should be informed about this approach in pre-service education.
- Teacher education programs should be developed in both theory and practice in terms of differentiated instruction.
- The administrators, principals and teachers should be informed about theoretical and practical knowledge by experts on this approach.
- Preparing in-service training seminars in which experts give abstract examples about how to use differentiated instruction in the classroom will be helpful to practice differentiated instruction effectively and successfully.
- Physical facilities of schools and classrooms should be improved; appropriate educational settings should be prepared and also the number of students in the classrooms should be reduced.

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Habits of highly effective teachers

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Abstract

Teachers are considered as most significant contributors in the overall development of nation; their job is not only follow the official syllabi and textbooks but they should also contribute towards the intellectual, moral, social and academic development of children enabling them to become better citizens. Teachers are key players in the process of educational change and school improvement; they do not only deliver curriculum but they are engaged in defining and reinterpreting curriculum.
The 7 habits of highly effective people by Stephen Covey has inspired millions across the world, if those habits can produce effective managers or leaders then they can be applied to teachers as well.
Be Proactive ,Begin with the End in Mind ,Put First Things First ,Think Win/Win ,Seek First to Understand, Then   to Be Understood , Synergize,Sharpen the Saw ,Find your voice and inspire others

Good teachers are not born, they are made. It takes a number of years for teachers to acquire good teaching skills . Subject knowledge, warmth, friendliness, being supportive, having good communicative skills (being a good Listener in particular), being empathetic, being orderly and in control, having respect for the students, providing positive feedback to students, rewarding students for positive behaviour and being fair
are the qualities of a good teacher.

keywords: Habits, effective teaching, teacher training, learning, reflecting

**ATTITUDE OF TEACHERS W.R.T THEIR ROLE IN INDIA- FACTOR ANALYSIS &
Strategies for Success**

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Abstract

Attitude is a major factor affecting behaviour. They influence the perception of objects and people, exposure to and comprehension of information, choice of friends, co-workers and so on. Attitudes are subjective attributes of people. They can be regarded as constructs in the sense that they are conceptualizations of human qualities that are formed on the basis of either rational consideration or statistical evidence. Thus, people may vary along each of a number of attitudinal dimensions. Keeping this measurement aspect into consideration, the attitudes might be defined operationally by describing the measurement systems that psychologists use to measure attributes. There are many methods of attitude measurement i.e. (i) self-report (usually elicited with questionnaires dealing with beliefs, feelings and behaviours); (ii) indirect tests (such as projective techniques and disguised approaches); (iii) direct observation techniques; and (iv) psychological reaction techniques.

This study aims at enquiring into Quality of working life differentials among teachers with a view to bring to the surface some of the conditions in context of job satisfaction categorically.

More specifically, following are the objectives of this study.

1. To analyse Quality of Working Life differentials among urban and rural school teachers;
2. To compare the urban and rural teaching environment on the basis of job satisfaction criteria like
       teaching and welfare facilities, job characteristics and leave welfare policies etc;

METHODOLOGY

  The research has been conducted in government schools in India. It was carried out with two samples of 200 teachers each from the urban and the rural area. For the selection of 200 teachers from the urban and rural area, the convenient sampling method was adopted and an attempt has been made to include all the young as well as the senior teachers. Similarly in case of rural area an effort has been made to include the teachers from the wider range of the border area schools.

  Keeping in mind the objectives of the study, the data were collected from primary sources. A questionnaire was formulated for the study, which was subjected to pilot testing and re-drafted. The questionnaire was of structured type. The questionnaire contained questions relating to different dimensions of QWL such as level of happiness or fulfillment in different aspects of life, satisfaction from the various job factors and job facilities, behaviour of boss, perceived growth, present pay, opportunities for promotion, working conditions, some common statements relating to factors affecting QWL and the determinants of QWL etc. the questions included in the questionnaire were open-ended, dichotomous and offering multiple choices.

Thus, this paper is, therefore, designed to study the attitude of teachers' w.r.to their role in the society and organization using Factor Analysis empirically.

The Study of Management and Operation Problem Level Following International Standards in Management: The Achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1

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ABSTRACT

This research was to study management and operation problem following international standard in management and achievement of Thai governmental sector work in data system number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 in the viewpoint of high level executives and working staff. The attitudes of high level executives and working staff were compared. In this research, sampling group was 124 people in the office. This sampling group was divided into 11 high level executives and 113 working staff. Research tools used were 5-rating scale and open-ended questionnaire. Data were analyzed by using frequency distribution, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The assumption was tested by t-test.

Research results found that problem level in management had mean at 3.23. This was in the moderate level compared to the criteria. The problem level in operation had mean at 3.54. This was in the high level. For the comparison, the attitude of the high level executives and working staff to the 1101 data system, it was found that the attitudes of the high level executives and working staff to the management problem level of the 1101 data system was generally statistically insignificant different at the level of 0.05. Also it was statistically insignificant different at the level of 0.05 for operation problem level.

Keywords : Management Problem Level, Operation Problem Level, Thai Governmental Sector, Data System Number 1101, Suratthani Education Service

Background and Significance

According to the law in the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand enacted 1997 (2540 B.E.) Section 75, The State shall ensure the compliance with the law, protect the rights and liberties of a person, provide efficient administration of justice and serve justice to the people expediently and equally and organise an efficient system of public administration and other State affairs to meet people's demand. In the 8th meeting of the Civil Service Commission in 2541 B.E. on September 14th, 1998, the Prime Minister was the chairperson and the meeting resolved that the State shall develop international standard for Thailand in the aspect of management and achievement of the State so that the State has a good management system different from the quality management system as defined by ISO. On October 27th, 2541 B.E. the meeting resolved that they agreed with the proposal by the Office of the

Civil Service Commission to develop Thailand International Public Sector Management System and Outcomes or P.S.O. [1].

P.S.O. is Thailand International Public Sector Management System and Outcomes. It is important for the increase in management efficiency so that the public sector can use this as a tool to reform and develop the economy, society, politics, poverty and the quality of life of the population. Moreover, it is aimed to create management system and governmental service in a fast manner, equally and in a fair manner in order that the people are highly satisfied [2].

Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 has planned to develop the operation efficiency and applied P.S.O. in its work for a while. Therefore, it was interesting and led to the problem in this research that is "What is the problem level of the operation which follows such system as described by the high level executives and working staff in Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1.

Research Objectives

1. To study the problem level of the administration which follows P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 as described by high level executives and working staff.
2. To study the problem level of the operation which follows P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 as described by high level executives and working staff.

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3. To compare the attitudes of high level executives with those of working staff towards the problem level in administration which follows P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1.
4. To compare the attitudes of high level executives with those of working staff towards the problem level in operation which follows P.S.O. or International Standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1.

Expected Outcomes

1.The problem level about the administration and the operation which follows P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 as described by high level executives and working staff.

2. The high level executives and working staff of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 could use the research results in planning to improve, extend the administration and operation results according to P.S.O. or International Standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 in a more effective way.

Population and Sampling Group

This research was based on the population which composed of 124 persons in Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1. They could be divided into 11 high level executives and 112 working staff.

Table   1   The Population in this research as classified by group/departments

Group/Directors	Leaders	Working Staff		Total (persons)
		Head	Working Staff	
Administrator	1	-	-	1
Director	2	1	23	26
Human Resources	2	1	21	24
Policies and Plans	1	1	11	13
Private Edcation	1	1	5	7
Education Promotion	2	1	10	13
Supervision& Assessment	1	1	34	36
Internal Audit	1	1	2	4
Total	11	7	106	124

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Statistics

Statistics used in this study were

percentage, mean, standard deviation and t-test

Results from Analysis of Personal Data

1. The results from an analysis of personal data as classified by positions of the persons in the office were shown below.

Table 2 Shows the personal data of the personnel as classified by the positions in the office.

Position	Number	Percentage
High level executives	11	8.90
Working staff	113	91.10
Total	**124**	**100.00**

According to Table 1, it was found that the majority of the persons in Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 were working staff (113 persons) or 91.10% and there were 11 high level executives or 8.90%.

2. According to the analysis of the problem level in administration in terms of visions and missions as expressed by high level executives and working staff to operate the organization according to P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1, it was found as below.

Table 3 Summarizes the problem level of administration according to P.S.O.

Management Problem Level	Results from Evaluation			Rank
	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Problem Level	
In terms of policies	2.88	1.16	Moderate	3
In terms of working personnel	3.19	1.17	Moderate	2

In terms of environment	3.63	1.04	High	1
Average	**3.23**	**1.12**	**Moderate**	**-**

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According to the results from the data analysis, it was found that in overall the management and operation problem level in terms of visions and missions as expressed by high level executives and working staff to operate the organization according to P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 was 3.23 on average. When it was compared to the set criteria, it was found to be at moderate level. When each item was compared, it was found that the highest management and operation problem level in terms of visions and missions as expressed by high level executives and working staff to operate the organization according to P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 was about environment with average mean of 3.63. When compared to the criteria set, it yielded high level. The first runner-up problem level was in terms of working personnel with average mean of 3.19. When compared to the criteria set, it yielded moderate level. The lowest problem level was in terms of policies with average mean of 2.88. When compared to the criteria set, it yielded moderate level. These average means and standard deviations were shown in table above.

3. The results from an analysis of the data about the management and operation problem level following international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 for 9 criteria as expressed by high level executives and working staff were shown below.

Table 4 Summarizes the management and operation problem level following P.S.O.

Operation Problem Level	Results from Evaluation			Rank
	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	Problem Level	
All-inclusiveness of the data	3.70	1.00	High	2
Speed of the data	3.60	1.11	High	5
Accuracy	3.69	0.97	High	3
Link between data	3.17	1.24	Moderate	9
Data being up-to-date	3.69	1.05	High	4
Reliability	3.57	1.05	High	6
Easy access	3.22	1.17	Moderate	8
Verifiability	3.72	1.22	High	1
Ability to participate	3.56	1.17	High	7
Average	**3.54**	**1.08**	**High**	-

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According to the results from the analysis of the data, it was found that in overall the average score for the management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 for 9 criteria as expressed by high level executives and working staff was 3.54. When compared to the criteria, it was at high level. When each item was considered, it was found that the highest management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 for 9 criteria as expressed by high level executives and working staff was about verifiability with average score of 3.72. When compared to the criteria, it was at high level. The first runner-up problem level was all-inclusiveness of the data with average score of 3.70. When compared to the criteria, it was at high level. The lowest problem level was about link between data with average score of 3.17. When compared to the criteria, it was at moderate level. The average scores and standard deviations were shown in the Table 3.

4. Results from the analysis of the attitudes expressed by high level executives and working staff towards the management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 were shown below.

Table 5 Analyzes the comparison of the attitudes held by high level executives and working staff towards the management and operation problem level following P.S.O.

Attitudes towards Management Problem Level	High Executives		Level Working Staff		t
	$\overline{X}$	SD.	$\overline{X}$	SD.	
In terms of policies	14.90	4.36	17.55	5.31	.30
In terms of working personnel	16.27	4.24	19.45	5.48	.18
In terms of environment	19.00	3.79	22.07	4.74	.97
Average	50.18	11.03	59.07	14.30	.45

With statistically significant difference at 0.05

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According to the results from analysis, it was found that the attitudes of the high level executives and working staff towards the management problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 were statistically insignificant different. When each item was considered, it was found that the management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or International Standard in Management and Achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 in terms of policies, working personnel and environment were statistically insignificant different (t = .30, .18, .97 respectively)

5. The results from comparative analysis of the attitudes expressed by high level executives and working staff towards management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 were shown below.

Table 6 Compares and analyzes the attitudes expressed by high level executives and working staff towards the management and operation problem level following P.S.O.

Attitudes towards Operation Problem Level	High Executives		Level Working Staff		t
	$\overline{X}$	SD.	$\overline{X}$	SD.	
All-inclusiveness of data	17.27	3.97	18.62	4.39	.53
Speed of data	16.00	3.92	18.22	4.31	.55
Accuracy	16.72	3.55	18.66	3.50	.85
Link between data	15.00	3.22	15.98	4.67	.09
Data being up-to-date	16.18	3.94	18.69	4.08	.74
Reliability	15.54	2.87	17.77	4.47	.06
Accessibility	14.45	4.18	16.26	4.79	.60
Verifiability	17.18	3.73	18.76	3.99	.83
Participation in data process	14.00	3.19	18.16	4.81	.06
Average	142.36	26.10	161.17	33.81	.46

With statistically significance difference at 0.05

The Study of Management and Operation Problem Level Following International Standard
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According to the analysis, it was found that the attitudes expressed by high level executives and working staff towards the operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 were statistically insignificant different. When each item was considered, the operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 in terms of all-inclusiveness of data, speed of data, accuracy, link between data, data being up-to-date, reliability, accessibility, verifiability and participation in data process were statistically insignificant different (t = .53, .55, .85, .09, .74, .06, .60, .83, .06, .46 respectively)

6. Summary of Attitudes and Suggestions
According to the summary, it was found that the personnel in Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 had the following attitudes.

6.1 Attitudes expressed by high level executives were
- The whole system should be flexible.
- More research and survey should be done.
- The personnel in the office do not have compassion; working is just a stage to create self-image.
- Practice should follow guidance.
- Knowledge should be distributed to everybody and technology should be applied.
- The meeting should be held to inform the personnel of the policies along with documents for the personnel.

6.2 Attitudes expressed by working staff were
- The data in the office should be based on the same standard.
- The data should be up-to-date and easy to use.
- Manual should be prepared in a clear and academic manner.
- There should be honesty and strictness in some work situations.
- There are many details for P.S.O.1101.

The Study of Management and Operation Problem Level Following International Standards

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Research Discussions

According to the analysis, it was found that the management problem level following P.S.O. in terms of visions and missions as expressed by high level executives and working staff to operate the organization to the international standard or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 of Suratthani Education Service Area Office 1 was 3.23 on average. When compared to the criteria, it was at moderate level. When each item was considered, it was found that the problem level about environment was high probably because high level executives did not show good attitudes towards the system and they had never been trained nor been to any study trip or seminars incessantly. Therefore, the office should promote the personnel by giving them training course, study trip or seminar. More importantly, high level executives as well as working staff should be encouraged to understand their roles. This complies with the research done by Somchai Kitkham [3] in that the office should have a role in promoting the roles and duty of the personnel in order that they do not have trouble working and planning for their operation.

According to the analysis in overall, the management and operation problem level following P.S.O. or international standard in management and achievement of Thai Governmental Sector Work in Data System Number 1101 for 9 criteria as expressed by high level executives and working staff was 3.54. When compared to the criteria, it was at high level. When each item was considered, it was found that the highest operation problem level as expressed by high level executives and working staff was about verifiability and the second highest problem level was about all-inclusiveness of the data. This was possibly because high level executives and working staff lacked understanding about systematic documentation, lacked verification, and did not operate according to the quality of the document. Moreover, there was neither campaign in the form of document nor accurate and important data about their roles and duty. This complies with Chanwit Yikusang [4] in that the personnel should understand their roles and responsibilities to operate. This will bring efficiency to the organization.

The Study of Management and Operation Problem Level Following International

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Suggestions from Research Results
1. Research results showed that the highest management problem level was about environment. In other words, the personnel in the office were not motivated to work in accordance with P.S.O. Data System Number 1101 and the personnel lacked clarity in their work. Therefore, the executives should motivate them to work by, for example, giving a training course, budget and clear policies which facilitate the operation of the working staff.
2. Research results showed that the most seen operation problem level was about all-inclusiveness of data. Therefore, the office should provide clear policies in the form of document in a concrete manner. The document system should be in the same direction and be based on the quality of the document. The presentation and the campaign for accessibility should be encouraged so that both customers and stakeholders can access this kind of data.

Suggestions for Further Research
1. The quality of the organization in other aspects such as PMQA and 5S should be studied and developed so that the organization could work effectively in various quality systems.
2. The qualitative research methodology should be used for further study so that in-depth data could be achieved. There should also be more sampling groups in other education service areas to cover all 14 provinces in Southern of Thailand.

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EXPENDITURE ON SCHOOL EDUCATION: AN INDIAN EXPERIENCE

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INTRODUCTION

All most all the countries of the world irrespective of their levels of development, realized that knowledge and skill will take crucial part in the process of sustainable development. It has now become evident that a high priority must be assigned to investment in human capital. Expenditures on education and training, improvement of health, and research contribute to productivity by raising the quality of population, and these outlays yield a continuing return in the future. While investment in human beings has been a major source of growth in advanced countries, the negligible amount of human investment in developing countries has done little to extend the capacity of the people to meet the challenge of accelerated development. Schultz(1962) rightly stated that an investment in the quality of the human factor through education is then as essential as investment in physical capital. An advance in knowledge and the diffusion of new ideas and objectives are necessary to remove economic backwardness and the policies pertaining to the development of human capabilities and motivations that are more favorable to desire economic progress of the third world countries.

Over the years, several steps have been taken to enhance the reach and content of education, but the system continues to suffer from infirmities. The lack of adequate financial resources, continuance of rural poverty and ever-increasing population have exacerbated in the constitution and the recommendations of many committees and commissions still remain unrealized.

UNESCO Report (1992) observed that the government spending on school education is low "In India, where between 60 and 70 children given primary education for the cost of training one university student, approximately half of the nation's children fail to finish primary school while the country as a whole produces more graduates than it can employ. Inevitably, one of the effects is a brain-drain of unemployed but highly qualified people to the industrialized nations.. In the way, a significant share of Government spending on education is used to benefit the rich nations rather than to achieve basic education for all which, as all experience suggests, is one of the corner stones of development". The report stated that there is an urgent need to expenditure on school education.

The public and private sector are playing major role in imparting education everywhere since time immemorial. The public sector is entirely under control of Government agencies due to financial dependency on civil estimates. On the other hand, the role of the private sector in catering education has substantially increased in recent years in the wake of India's New Economic Policy(NEP) as adopted by the GOI in August 1991, and characterized by Liberalization, Privatization, Globalization. The role of private sector in gross domestic capital formation in GDP has increased substantially from

13.1 percent in 1991 to 14 percent in 1998. Moreover, the increase in gross domestic capital formation in GDP since 1951 to 1991 has been almost negligible. Such increase in capital formation has certainly direct/indirect impact on educational development in the country. Now most of private educational entrepreneurs believe that schools are a good source of investment to make money, and it has become an important business to emerging private educational entrepreneurs in the country due to lack of provisions in educational policies on running the educational institutions, particularly at pre-primary, primary and upper primary stages. Money spent on running schools yield substantial dividends in terms of economic returns to the entrepreneurs. It is found even perceived by the teachers and parents that the private school management boards are a fund raising bodies giving rise to serious concerns of equity in case of poor communities in the present era, and is violation of NPE in regard to equal access and opportunity for all up to school stage and improvement of quality at all levels(GOI,1999). It is clear that the marginalized sections of the society are unable to bare the growing expenditure on school education. The private schools will have adverse impact on the weaker sections of the society and will prove to be disastrous for the political parties in power at the centre and state levels. If 50 million or so illiterate children along with their family unit and lobby against private schools for free education, no Government can afford to ignore their demand unless the party in power deliberately chooses to commit a political suicide. Being a sensitive instrument for human development, no Government can afford to deny the access of school education of satisfactory quality to the aspiring parents to educate their children.

ALLOCATION OF RESOURCES FOR SCHOOL EDUCATION

Gross Domestic Production from 1951 to 1998 increased many fold i.e. from 9445 crores to 1616033 crores. If we look in to GPDCF as percent of GDP it is also increased from 7.8 percent to 14.8 percent during the above said period. It is also observed that the educational expenditure as percent to GDP increased tremendously from 0.68 percent to 3.77 percent but still it will have increase further for better educational facilities. In the same way plan expenditure on school education per pupil is reported as Rs. 8.82 in 1951 and it has enhanced to 216.3 in 1998. This amount is also insufficient to meet the maximum educational facilities. This is a remarkable change on per capita expenditure on general education. It is estimated that during 1951 it is 0.74 percent where as it has been increased to 46.67 percent in 1998. Thus, it can be concluded that the per capita expenditure on general education is increased much.

The Economic Survey 2007-08 reported that the allocations to education made by union and the state governments together, as a proportion of GDP, have not been satisfactorily progressing during last few years. The ratio was above 3 per cent in 200-01, and ever since it has steadily declined to reach a low level of 2.69 percent in 2005-06. For example, the total expenditure on education incurred by the departments of education and other departments on education together constituted 3.7 per cent of GDP in 2005-06. The share of education in total government expenditure on all sectors declined from 11.3 percent in 2000-01 to 10 per cent in 2005-06. Even within the total social sector expenditure, the share

of education declined from 50 per cent to 47.2 per cent in 2005-06 and further to 43.2 per cent in 2007-08(revised estimates).

In February 2008, the total allocation for the education sector has been increased from Rs.28,674 crores in 2007-08 to Rs.34,400 crore in 2008-09, it constitutes just about 3 percent GDP, a far cry from the 6 percent that is being targeted, of this the Sarva Shikshya Abhiyan(SSA) is provided Rs.13,100 crores SSA, which aims at creating basic infrastructure in schools, the Government most ambitious scheme intended to provide education to all children in the 6-14 age group. Given the fact that the Government has a long way to go as far as SSA in concerned, with a vast number of schools still being devoid of basic facilities like class rooms, drinking water and toilets, allocation too will not be adequate if a serious effort is made to achieve SSA's goals. According to a recent report by the National University of Educational Planning and Administration(NEUPA) about 30 percent of elementary schools in the country still lack of pucca building for holding classes. Pertaining to elementary schools, where more than 80 percent are in the Government sector, reveal that a primary school has an average only 2.8 classrooms for classes I to V, while the minimum requirement is 5 rooms.

The report reveals that more than 60 children sit in one room in more than 16 percent of the schools. The Government has also provided Rs.8000/- crores for the midday meal Scheme, the decision extended their scheme to upper primary classes on 3479 educationally backward blocks and provide kitchen sheds in all the schools by 2006-07, only 29.30 percent schools had kitchen sheds.

The allocation for school education has gone up from Rs.17133 crore in 2006-07 to Rs.23142 crore in 2007-08 of this, SSA will be provided Rs.10671 crores. The allocation for strengthening teacher training has been increased to Rs.450 crores as against Rs.162 crores last year. Taking the cognizance of the Veerappa Moily oversight committee report, which proposed a national merit scholarship scheme for one lakh students from marginalized groups like the SCs and STs and Union Finance Minister proposed to introduce Merit Scholarship Scheme, selection for which will be made through a national test from among students who passed class-VIII with each selected student being given Rs.6000 per year to study classes IX,X,XI,XII.

Funding for secondary education has been doubled from Rs.1837 crores in 2006-07 to 3794 crores in 2007-08, while the allocation made for the school education sector looks importance the funding for SSA which is reduced from Rs.11,000 crores last year(2007) to 10,671 crores this year(2008) will be watched with interest as the funding this programme is to be shared 50:50 between the states and centre as against 25:75 last year(2007).

Per capita expenditure on education in 2003-04 is Rs. 598 and according to the budget allocation Rs. 997 increased in 2007-08. In the above said period all states in the country realized to increase the pr capita expenditure on education from Rs. 617 to Rs. 958.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study on school education is desired for itself as it opens up a vast world of opportunities and ideas to the educated persons. It is of great instrumental value in the process of economic growth

and development as to improve the quality of life of people through enhancing their well-being and provides them opportunities and choices to become productive assets in the society. The role of private sector in catering educational needs has substantially increased in recent years due to economic reforms. In this circumstances, the parents are forced to bear the expenditure on school education by sending their children to private schools where they expect that the qualitative of educational facilities are available in private schools.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In view of the growing importance of expenditure on school education the present study "Expenditure on School Education : Indian Experience" is based on the field study which was conducted in a village in Karimnagar District of Andhra Pradesh, India with the following objectives:

- ➢ To explore the significance of education for economic development.
- ➢ To study the socio- economic profiles of the respondents.
- ➢ To examine the pattern of expenditure on school education.
- ➢ To assess the educational and infrastructural facilities, which are available in the school.
- ➢ To suggest some policy measures to overcome the problems.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings of the field study are presented in the following paragraphs.

The population of B.C. community which consists more than 93 sub-castes representation is larger than other communities. Naturally the sample representation, the number of students are more in number in this community.

Out of 120 sample respondents 41.6 per cent are from BC community, which is the highest than others followed by SC, OC, ST with 30.8,18.4, 9.2 percentages respectively. Thus, the sample respondents are covered by all the castes in the study area.

Out of 390 students 43.6 percent are belonged to BC community, which is the highest than all other castes followed by SC, OC, ST with 25.6 percent, 16.7 percent, 14.1 percent respectively. Since, the number of respondents are more in BC caste the total children of that community is also higher than other communities viz. SC, OC and STs respectively.

It is an interesting observation from the field study that out of 120 respondents 75 percent of the respondents are literates and 25 percent are illiterates are reported among the parents of the children, it is a good progress in rural areas. Still there is a need to have more educated or 100 percent literacy among the parents in the villages.

More than 55.0 percent of illiterate respondents are unable to complete even primary education level, due to their financial constraints and lack of awareness about the benefits of education. However, all most all the sample respondents are very much interested to spend sufficient money on their children education.

There are 56.4 percent are male students and 43.6 percent are female children. Thus, even today the female children are less in number for their enrolment to avail educational opportunities. Out of 390 students 41.0 percent are at primary education level, which is the highest than the other levels followed by secondary, upper primary with 30.8, 28.2 percentages respectively. Thus, it is clear that the school going children of the respondents are spread over in primary, upper primary and secondary levels of education.

It is evident from the field investigation that more than 80.0 percent of the sample respondents are belonged to agriculture laborers, marginal farmers and small farmers categories.

The study shows that respondents belong to small farmers category are more literates and agriculture laborers category are more illiterates. It is an interesting observation that the literacy rate incase of agriculture laborers and marginal farmers categories of respondents are registered as low when we compare with the national literacy. The illiteracy rate is highest incase of ST community and the highest literacy rate is registered in SC community.

There are 58.3 percent parents who are sending their children to private schools and 41.7 percent parents under unavoidable circumstances, sending their children to government schools. In spite of their poverty and unemployment , they thought that spending the money on children education is a sensible expenditure. There fore, nowadays majority of the parents in rural areas are prepared to send their children to private schools only.

Most of the respondents of OC community are sending their children to private schools and the other communities like BC, SC, ST are incurring expenditure on school education in private management schools with 60.0, 48.7 and 45.5 percentages respectively. Thus, it is clear that the OC community, which are basically sound in financial matters are able to send their children to private management schools. It is very difficult to other categories of respondents whose income is insufficient to meet their minimum requirements.

It is focused that most of the parents as well as students are taking much interest to join their children in privately managed schools, where they expect that the quality education is available in private schools. Therefore, it is clear that the low income respondents of the sample area are also having a strong intention to join their children in private schools.

It is observed that the medium and big farmers categories of respondents are having their own houses. At present 35 respondents do not posses own housing facilities. The respondents those who are living in rented houses in the sample village are benefited through Indiramma housing scheme. The people living in rented houses and huts are also sending their children to schools.

Even today disguised unemployment problem is prevailing in rural economy. More than 50 percent of population income is up to 24000 rupees, which is not sufficient to meet their minimum requirements of subsistence living.

The less number of students pursuing their education in the village belong to higher income groups. And majority of them are staying in towns for taking good education.

The income earnings of BC, SC, and ST population is very low than OC community where the percentage of OC population is very marginal. Therefore, it causes growing income inequalities.

The expenditure on girls education is much more in secondary school than the expenditure on boys i.e. 1741.96 and 1315 rupees when it is compared with the average expenditure in primary education level. Therefore, it is concluded that expenditure on school education is increasing and more so particularly the expenditure on girls education is much more than the boys. The expenditure on school education is more in case of girls than the boys. Their parents are spending much money . All most all the parents opined that spending a little bit of higher money on girls education is quite natural and it is a sensible expenditure to meet their minimum compulsory requirements.

The study found that the OC community spending much money i.e Rs. 2234 followed by BC, ST, SC communities. It is clearly reported that the expenditure of OC and BC are above average and it is very low level incase of ST and SC students. It is quite natural that the capacity of OC community is much higher than the other communities. Therefore, the capacity to spend on their children education is very low among the parents of ST and SCs.

The expenditure on school education is more in case of girls than the boys. Their parents are spending much money . All most all the parents opined that spending a little bit of higher money on girls education is quite natural and it is a sensible expenditure to meet their minimum compulsory requirements.

Out of 390 students, a majority of the students pursuing their education at primary level followed by secondary school level students and upper primary school level with 120 and 110 students respectively. The average expenditure incurred on school fee, cloths and books is higher than the expenditure on other items. The average expenditure on secondary education is much more (Rs. 1649.56) than the upper primary as well as primary level of education. The lowest expenditure (Rs. 827.93) is incurred in case of primary education level, which is less than the total average expenditure.

It is an interesting observation from the field investigation that the average expenditure on school education in government schools is very low i.e. 512/- and this expenditure is much higher incase of privately managed schools which is worked out as Rs. 1558/- per month. It is also observed that school fee payment is very meagre amount in case of government schools. The common man unable to afford the private education to their children. Thus, even though the expenditure on school education is inevitable, but it is becoming a burden on the part of poor parents.

SUGGESTIONS

➢ The expansion of qualitative education in rural areas is still a challenging task to the society. The situation in India today is one of low achievement in education combined with significant inequalities across, sexes, regions, social classes as well as castes and communities. Tangible progress has been made in the last decade of the 20[th] century in school enrolment but the situation is far from satisfactory. Particular attention needs to be paid to the gender gap in educational achievements and to promote education of females.

➢ Teachers are , perhaps, the most important resource in a school education system. The schooling system in India needs more teachers to teach the Indian students at primary, upper

primary and secondary and senior secondary stages. The quality of infrastructural facilities in the schools is deplorable. It is clear that expansion of primary education requires large-scale expansion of basic school infrastructure in the schools and up grading of facilities in existing schools.

➤ Providing primary school educational facilities to all children requires huge amount of expenditure on primary education. The expenditure on education should be enhanced 6 percent of GDP to provide adequate quality and quantity of primary schooling compared to current expenditure of 1.5 percent on primary education.

➤ Since, there is greater demand for computer education, it is also necessary to allocate more funds for the purchase of computers and also recruitment of computer staff, to teach the school children in rural areas.

➤ The parent committees should also take active part in the functioning of Government and private schools in the rural areas.

CONCLUSION

A powerful knowledge society will emerge with the realization of dream "Education for all". Therefore the State and Central governments, the policy makers, the Non – Governmental Organizations(NGOs) and the civil society work together for the attainment of sustainable economic development through qualitative and quantitative educational achievements.

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Do solar power systems initiate energy conservation in schools?

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Abstract:

This paper examines whether installing solar power systems is an effective catalyst for stimulating energy saving strategies in schools by investigating the findings from a mixed-methods program effects study of an Australian Solar Schools Initiative. The question of whether schools with solar power installations come to view and use energy differently from schools without renewable energy technology is examined and contextualised against another Australian energy education program that has achieved concrete energy savings in schools.

Keywords:

energy behaviours; energy conservation; energy efficiency, photovoltaics; renewable energy; solar schools

Introduction

As the world faces the effects of climate change, OECD nations are confronted by the challenge of how to rapidly adjust from a culture of excessive energy consumption and high greenhouse gas emissions to one of minimising their environmental footprint and achieving sustainability. Large-scale renewable energy infrastructure initiatives, such as solar school programs, are being promoted as a way to reduce national greenhouse gas emissions and increase awareness of the need for energy conservation.

There are currently 1,200 schools in Japan that have solar power systems, however, the Japanese government recently announced that it aims to increase that number to 12,000 by 2012, then to all 32,000 public schools by 2020 in an effort to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and increase acceptance of renewable energy technologies (Chan, 2009). Promoters of solar school initiatives claim that installing solar power on schools has educational, environmental, financial and social benefits for schools as well as the wider community. Stakeholder objectives for solar school programs include:
  • educating students about renewable energy sources (educational);
  • reducing school greenhouse gas emissions (environmental);
  • initiating cost-saving measures in schools (financial); and,
  • increasing societal awareness and acceptance of renewable energy sources (social).
However, due to a lack of program evaluation the impact of participating in solar school initiatives on how schools view (attitudes) and use (behaviours) energy is not known.

This paper examines whether installing solar power systems is an effective catalyst for stimulating energy saving strategies in schools by investigating the findings from a mixed-methods program effects study of an Australian Solar Schools initiative (2001-2006). The question of whether schools with solar power installations come to view (attitudes) and use (behaviours) energy differently from schools without renewable energy technology is examined and contextualised against another Australian energy education program that has achieved concrete energy savings in schools.

Making Energy a Priority in Queensland Schools

The Queensland Department of Education and Training (DET) 2007-08 *Annual Report* estimates that each student attending a state funded school in the Australian state of Queensland consumed just over 460 kWh of energy and produced 490 kg CO2-e/kWh of greenhouse gas emissions in 2006-07. In

order to manage energy use within schools and reduce greenhouse gas emissions, DET "has developed a *Strategic Energy Management Plan* to support the whole-of-Government Strategic Energy Efficiency Policy (SEEP)" (p. 66). Two key components of the *Strategic Energy Management Plan* are the Solar and Energy Efficiency Program and the *EnergyWise* initiative.

In 2008, the Education Department established the Solar and Energy Efficiency Program to reduce energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions in state schools. This program has a budget of AUD$60m spread over three years, which will be used to install "a 2kW solar system where not already installed, smart metres, an information technology system and the installation of energy efficient lighting measures" in all 1250 state schools (Hunter, 2008). The program will also provide curriculum resources and professional development to support energy-related behaviour changes within schools.

The *EnergyWise* initiative, launched in 2007 in partnership with the Department of Mines and Energy, will allow 180 schools to participate in an energy efficiency program organised through the Queensland Environmentally Sustainable Schools Initiative (QESSI). Participating schools will undertake an energy audit and develop an energy reduction action plan for their school. QESSI "helps schools manage their resources more effectively, thereby reducing their ecological footprint through the reduction of energy usage, waste, water consumption and improvement of biodiversity within school grounds" (DET, 2008, p. 62). QESSI aims to foster environmentally sustainable behaviour by utilising a whole school approach to campus management.

The Queensland Government has committed a substantial amount of money and resources to energy-related programs in schools. The only way to predict whether these initiatives will result in the adoption of sustainable energy behaviours is by evaluating the efficacy of previous solar and energy efficiency programs.

The Energy Efficiency in Schools Program

In 2001, Education Queensland initiated the Energy Efficiency in Schools (EEIS) program, in partnership with the Queensland Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and Ergon Energy. EEIS residential camps have been offered in varying forms at three Environmental Education Centres located in the South-East, Central, and Northern Queensland, with "the primary aim of the program for participating schools to consider possibilities of reducing energy consumption and thus minimise greenhouse gas emissions due to school activities and to create greater awareness of greenhouse issues" (Purnell, Sinclair & Gralton, 2002, p. 5). EEIS has accomplished program aims by introducing students "to the concepts of energy efficiency and offering practical ways of realising it, culminating in an action plan to reduce energy consumption in schools" (p. 4). Students learn first hand about energy efficiency practices and alternative energy produced by solar and wind as well as exploring issues such as greenhouse gas emissions produced by coal-fired powerhouses.

A major outcome from the EEIS program was a student and teacher generated energy reduction action plan which committed each participating school to reduce school energy consumption by 15% over twelve months. In 2003, a grant of AUD$5000 was selectively offered to participating schools in order to install energy efficient technology and an additional AUD$1000 was provided to support school energy, water and waste audits (Purnell, Sinclair & James, 2004). Study findings found that these financial incentives positively influenced students' and staff's energy behaviours and helped reduce school electricity consumption, with some schools exceeding the 15% target. The learning outcomes of the EEIS program had a direct and practical impact on the participants and their school communities – particularly through the implementation of school action plans to change energy behaviours and reduce energy consumption. The EEIS program was replaced by the *EnergyWise* program in 2007.

Queensland Solar Schools Initiative

Between 2001-2006, approximately 90 educational facilities in the Australian state of Queensland received solar photovoltaic (PV) installations through the *Solar Schools* initiative. This initiative was funded through a combination of federal and state government rebates as well as sponsorship from energy industry partners. Government and energy industry sponsors believe that installing photovoltaic

systems on schools provides a valuable educational resource for students while reducing overall school electricity usage costs as well as raising community awareness of renewable energy technology, thereby increasing the uptake of Green Power[3] products offered by energy retailers (ENERGEX, 2005; EPA, 2004, 2005, 2006).

Solar Schools Pilot Program (2001-2003)

The *Solar Schools Pilot Program* was developed by the EPA in order to install 2kW grid connected solar PV systems in sixteen schools across Queensland. Each solar system cost approximately AUD\$25 000 for equipment and installation (ENERGEX, 2005). The Queensland Government contributed AUD\$7 700 for each system, with an additional rebate of up to
AUD\$10 000 available from the Australian Greenhouse Office (AGO) Photovoltaic Rebate Programme (PVRP) for community use buildings. The remainder of the funds came from energy industry sponsors. A 2kW grid-connected system was deemed to generate sufficient electrical output to create financial savings for schools, reduce school GHG emissions, and still be cost effective. According to the EPA (2005, 2006), each solar PV system reduces 3.6 tonnes of greenhouse gases a year and saves the school approximately AUD\$500 on electricity bills.

Initially, the EPA partnered with energy provider Stanwell Corporation, who supplied technical expertise and equipment as well as training and educational components. Due to a change in Stanwell management, the energy provider pulled out of the pilot program leaving the EPA looking for other energy industry partners to sponsor the remainder of the planned solar school installations (personal email communication with N. Martin, EPA Senior Technical Officer, 10 October 2004; personal telephone communication with C. Robertson, EPA Consultant, 1 December 2005). In 2003, the EPA partnered with Ergon Energy. Under the *Solar Schools Pilot Program*, six solar PV installations were sponsored by Stanwell Corporation, five by EPA, and five by Ergon Energy.

Solar Schools Urban Program (2003-2005)

In 2003, the EPA launched the *Solar Schools Urban Program* in partnership with Ergon Energy and ENERGEX. Funding for this program came as part of an agreement with both energy distributors to purchase green energy for State Government Buildings. Schools could apply for an AUD\$8 000 PVRP rebate, to be received by the installer after installation. In addition to the educational objectives of the pilot solar schools program, this partnership brought with it the goal of increasing Green Power subscriptions. There is some indication that the uptake of Green Power products has increased in communities with solar schools but no definitive evidence that the two occurrences are linked (MACER, 2006). At the end of 2005, which marked the closure of the *Solar Schools Urban Program*, approximately forty schools had received grid connected solar PV systems.

Solar Schools Goes Bush Program (2004-2006)

In addition to the installation of solar PV systems on urban and regional state schools, the *Solar Schools Goes Bush Program* was launched in 2004. The Queensland EPA and the Australian Government jointly funded this program, which targeted diesel based remote, isolated and indigenous schools. Thirty-two schools received a 5kW solar PV system, which produces about 8 Mega Watt hours of electricity per year, reduces reliance on diesel, and save schools approximately AUD\$1 000 on energy costs (EPA, 2005).

Evaluating the Queensland Solar Schools Initiative

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[3] Green Power is an Australian government accreditation program for renewable energy, which guarantees that the renewable electricity purchased from energy suppliers meets stringent environmental standards. Consumers can support the production of electricity generated by renewable sources by subscribing to Green Power products offered by their energy provider.

Government and energy industry sponsors believe that the Queensland *Solar Schools* initiative has educational, environmental, economical and social benefits by:

- providing an innovative, hands-on teaching tool about renewable energy technology;
- decreasing reliance on coal-fired electricity thereby reducing greenhouse gas emissions and saving schools money on electricity bills;
- raising community awareness of the benefits of renewable energy technology; and
- increasing Green Power subscriptions.

However, there is a lack of empirical evidence to support these assumptions.

There are very few evaluation studies of solar school programs, and even less investigating the impacts of exposure to renewable energy technology on school building user behaviour. This represents a serious gap in knowledge regarding the influence of renewable energy technology on school energy usage. Therefore, this paper will examine behavioural outcomes, such as the adoption of energy efficiency measures and energy conservation behaviours in solar schools in order to determine whether the installation of solar power systems has been an effective catalyst for changing the way energy is used within Queensland schools.

Survey of Energy Efficiency Measures and Energy Conservation Behaviours

The collection of data for this study, involved the administration of two separate surveys, follow-up correspondence with schools, school visits and observations as well as student focus groups and interviews with teachers. Qualitative data collected through a survey sent to fifty-five schools which participated in the Queensland *Solar Schools* pilot and urban programs (referred to as solar schools), is compared with fifty-five schools that did not participate in these programs (referred to as non-solar schools). Schools that participated in the *Solar Schools Goes Bush Program* were not included in the study population.

The survey contained questions about demographic information, energy costs, energy efficiency strategies and energy conservation measures. The survey questions were developed using information about energy saving practices outlined in a guide for school operations published in the United States (United States Department of Energy, 2004). Of the 55 surveys mailed out to solar schools, 19 usable surveys were returned – representing a 35% response rate. Of the 55 surveys mailed out to non-solar schools, 15 were returned – representing a 27% response rate. The following sections examine the survey results.

Part One: Demographic Information

Of the nineteen solar school surveys that were returned, 5 surveys were from schools that participated in the *Solar Schools Pilot Program* and 14 surveys were from schools that participated in the *Solar Schools Urban Program*. Thirteen surveys were from primary schools, three from secondary schools, two from P-12 schools, and one from a P-10 school. Of the fifteen non-solar school surveys that were returned, 8 surveys were from primary schools, six from secondary schools, and one from a P-12 school. Four solar schools and one non-solar school had participated in the Energy Efficiency in Schools program.

Part Two: Energy Costs

While the majority of respondents had access to school electricity bills and could see their energy usage patterns, 34% of respondents did not receive information about their power consumption, so were unaware of their energy usage patterns. The data indicates that energy costs have been continually rising in both solar and non-solar schools for similar reasons: higher tariffs; the installation of air-conditioners; additional computers; new buildings; and, more students. The Queensland Department of

Education, Training and the Arts 2005-2006 *Annual Report* admits that school energy usage is increasing due to the installation of air-conditioners through the *Cool Schools* initiative as well as the use of more computers, increasing student numbers, and new buildings – which was corroborated by the survey findings. However, 68% of solar school respondents felt that the installation of the solar PV system was helping to reduce overall electricity costs, even though school-wide energy usage continues to increase.

Although reducing energy usage is cited as a priority area for the Education Department, the survey results indicated that only 4 (21.1%) solar schools and 3 (20.0%) non-solar schools had implemented an energy policy on their own. Of the 7 schools with an energy policy, 2 of the solar schools had also participated in the EEIS program. Unfortunately, there was no question to determine whether solar schools had implemented energy policies before or after participating in the Queensland *Solar Schools* program or the EEIS program. However, only one solar school and one non-solar school had conducted an energy audit in order to ascertain how to improve energy efficiency and decrease electricity consumption.

The literature on implementing energy efficiency measures in schools (Dobbyn & Thomas, 2005; U.S. Department of Energy, 2004) and designing effective solar school programs (Colello, 2004; Hoffner, Pichumani & Wiese, 2002) indicates that it is important to first conduct a school-wide energy audit to determine base-line usage and indicate where energy efficiency measures can be made, and then develop an energy policy to reduce energy consumption by adopting efficiency measures and energy-related behavioural changes before installing renewable energy systems. The goal of the EEIS program was to assist Queensland schools with both these tasks. However, neither an energy audit nor an energy reduction action plan were parameters for participating in the Queensland *Solar Schools* initiative. While it is understandable that non-solar schools lack energy policies, one of the requirements of becoming a solar school should have been the development of an energy reduction action plan based on an energy audit (Colello, 2004). Since solar PV systems were installed by certified electricians and sponsored by energy providers, an energy audit could have easily been conducted prior to the installation.

Furthermore, the majority of staff and students at solar schools did not receive any training to help reduce energy usage and thereby energy costs in the school. According to the survey data, there were few differences between solar and non-solar school responses to *Part Two: Energy Costs*, indicating that the installation of solar power systems has not led to the implementation of energy reduction action plans in solar schools. This is in marked contrast with schools that have participated in the Energy Efficiency in Schools program.

Part Three: Energy Efficiency Measures

Energy efficiency is defined as a measure that reduces the amount of energy typically required. Energy efficiency measures are usually one-off financial decisions influenced by economic and contextual variables (Black, Stern & Elworth, 1985) as well as internal variables such as altruism for the environment (Clark, Kotchen & Moore, 2003). Barriers to the uptake of energy efficiency measures include a lack of information or knowledge, financial costs, low energy pricing, and institutional constraints (Sustainable Energy Policy Concepts, n.d.).

Respondents were asked to indicate from a given list, which energy efficiency measures have been implemented in their school. A comparison of the energy efficiency measures practiced by solar and non-solar schools revealed that there was very little difference in the types of measures adopted. The most prevalent measures were ones that are convenient, inexpensive, or already being practiced as part of the school's maintenance procedures, such as:
- replacing inefficient light bulbs
- using power-down features on equipment
- automatically setting room temperature, and
- regular maintenance of building systems.

The overall number of solar and non-solar schools implementing energy efficiency measures was also similar, which suggests that the installation of a solar power system under the Queensland *Solar Schools* initiative has not had a significant influence on the adoption of energy saving strategies.

Part Four: Energy Conservation Measures

Energy conservation behaviours involve repeated or continual actions that curtail the amount of energy normally used, and are influenced by personal variables such as obligation and self-efficacy (Woods & Skumatz, 2004) as well as values, beliefs and attitudes (Energy Saving Trust, 2007). Energy usage behaviours are typically routine or habitual in nature; thus changing wasteful energy consumption behaviours into energy conservation behaviours "involves the unfreezing of existing behavioural patterns" (Jackson, 2005, p. 115). In a school setting, energy usage behaviours are an evolution of social practices or acceptable social norms; therefore, "unfreezing existing behaviour patterns needs to take place in a group environment," so that preferred energy conservation behaviours are adopted throughout the school (Jackson, 2005, p. 116). That is, it is not merely a matter of individual choices but something that a group must take on and value.

A list of ten energy conservation behaviours related to energy consumption in the classroom was provided. Since the survey was completed by the school principal or person-in-charge of the solar project, respondents were asked to indicate the energy conservation measures staff and students were being *encouraged* to take rather than what measures were being practiced. Unlike the list of energy efficiency measures that generally require a one-off action, energy conservation behaviours require daily or even hourly diligence on behalf of staff and students. While respondents can indicate the type of behaviours being encouraged, they cannot definitively say whether all staff and students are actually practicing these behaviours. The list of energy conservation actions that were provided have been ranked below:

Table 1: Energy Conservation Measures Encouraged in Queensland Schools

ENERGY CONSERVATION MEASURES	SOLAR SCHOOLS (N=19)		NON-SOLAR SCHOOLS (N=15)	
	Staff	**Students**	**Staff**	**Students**
Turn off AC, fans, heaters in unused rooms	19 (100%)	13 (68%)	13 (87%)	09 (60%)
Turn off computers at the end of the day	18 (95%)	14 (74%)	13 (87%)	13 (87%)
Turn off computers when not in use	16 (84%)	14 (74%)	08 (53%)	10 (67%)
Close doors & windows when AC is on	16 (84%)	11 (55%)	09 (60%)	08 (53%)
Turn off lights in unused rooms	15 (79%)	14 (70%)	13 (87%)	12 (80%)
Use water sparingly	14 (74%)	10 (53%)	11 (73%)	09 (60%)
Use natural daylight wherever possible	14 (74%)	10 (53%)	09 (60%)	07(47%)
Turn off computer monitors not in use	13 (68%)	10 (53%)	10 (67%)	08 (53%)
Set air-conditioners at 25°C	11 (58%)	06 (32%)	09 (60%)	06 (40%)
Close blinds or curtains in warm weather	10 (53%)	07 (37%)	07 (47%)	04 (27%)

A comparison of the energy conservation behaviours being encouraged in solar and non-solar schools revealed that the number of schools promoting curtailment behaviours was above 50% for both sample groups; however, more solar schools tended to encourage energy conservation behaviours than non-solar schools. Teachers in both solar and non-solar schools were being encouraged to take energy

conservation actions that control classroom environment and ambiance, while students were being encouraged to take energy conservation actions related to the use of equipment. Since energy conservation measures require daily or hourly repetition, the encouragement of these actions within the school can significantly reduce energy consumption while at the same time foster habitual sustainable energy behaviours that staff and students may continue in the home.

Respondents were also asked to identify all of the ways in which students and staff were encouraged to reduce energy use at school. While the number of energy conservation actions being practiced in schools appears to be quite high, the ways students and staff were being encouraged to reduce energy use does not fare as well. The list of measures that were provided are ranked below:

Table 2: Ways Students and Staff are Encouraged to Reduce Energy Use

METHODS TO REDUCE ENERGY USE	SOLAR SCHOOLS (N=19)	NON-SOLAR SCHOOLS (N=15)
Reminders above light switches	9 (47.4%)	5 (33.3%)
School energy patrols	8 (42.1%)	5 (33.3%)
Educational programs offered to students	8 (42.1%)	3 (20.0%)
Reminders in computer labs	7 (36.8%)	7 (46.7%)
Reminders on school equipment	7 (36.8%)	4 (26.7%)
Reminders in school newsletters	4 (21.1%)	4 (26.7%)
Special recognition of energy reducers	4 (21.1%)	1 (6.7%)
Energy efficiency and energy conservation contests	2 (10.5%)	1 (6.7%)
Training courses offered to teachers	Nil	Nil
Training courses offered to school-based staff	Nil	Nil

Behaviour change theories suggest that modelling and prompts are two effective ways to aid in the diffusion of preferred behaviours, yet less than half of the schools surveyed used visible reminders or modelling to encourage energy conservation behaviours (Aronson & O'Leary 1982-83). Although it appears that staff and students were being encouraged to practice energy conservation behaviours, the data indicates that the use of reminders, modelling, and education as a means to foster reduced energy use was quite low.

On the whole, the survey findings indicate that the installation of renewable energy technology alone is not going to significantly increase the uptake of energy efficiency measures and energy conservation behaviours in schools.

Conclusion

The Solar and Energy Efficiency Program has taken over from where the Queensland *Solar Schools* initiative left off. While funding solar school programs is a step towards changing the way school staff and students view (attitudes) and use (behaviours) energy by raising the issue of how energy is produced and consumed in Australia, long-term energy conservation behaviours will only occur if barriers to energy-related behaviours are removed. According to behaviour change theories, the uptake of preferred behaviours tends to increase if barriers are addressed as part of the intervention, and participants are asked to pledge their commitment to the program (Burns, 1991; McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Woods & Skumatz, 2004). Changing the way school staff and students view and use energy requires a combination of approaches that:
- identify and remove barriers to energy-related behaviours;
- unfreeze existing energy consumption patterns; and,
- replace counter-intentional habits with preferred energy conservation behaviours.

Findings from an ongoing study of the Energy Efficiency in Schools program (Purnell & James, 2006) have revealed that the development of energy reduction actions plans was a significant factor in ensuring success. Monitoring and follow-up conducted by the EEIS program organisers also provided positive outcomes. Additionally, saving money is important and reaping the benefits of savings contributes to the continuation of energy conservation behaviours within schools. Finally, authentic curriculum and assessment experiences for learners that reinforce connectedness to the real world and help students see that they make a difference within the school and their community are crucial. The

Energy Efficiency in Schools program provided educational and motivational incentives that support the uptake of effective energy reduction action plans in schools. The *Solar Schools* initiative, on the other hand, was more about the installation of technology rather than a means to encourage energy saving strategies in schools. Study results indicate that although some Queensland schools were initiating energy saving strategies, the installation of solar power systems did not directly correlate to the uptake of energy efficiency measures or energy conservation behaviours.

The installation of renewable energy technology, without an energy reduction action plan that includes an educational component and appropriate incentives and disincentives, will as the survey data suggests, only have limited influence on the adoption of energy efficiency measures and energy conservation behaviours in schools. It is necessary, therefore, to take a more holistic pedagogical approach to change school energy usage by installing renewable energy technology and providing school-wide energy education, combined with appropriate behaviour change incentives and disincentives. This evaluation of the Queensland *Solar Schools* initiative (2001-2006) in light of the Energy Efficiency in Schools program (2001-2006) has provided evidence to support a whole school approach to reducing energy consumption in schools. It appears as though the Queensland Department of Education and Training has established clear objectives for the development of comprehensive school energy policies through the Solar and Energy Efficiency Program which will hopefully overcome the institutional, organisational, financial and behavioural barriers to the implementation of energy saving strategies in schools.

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The Construction of Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

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Abstract

Title : The Construction of Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for Life"
The Construction of Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for Life"
which had the objectives as follows : 1.) To create Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water
Conservation for Life" for primary school students in Bangkok. 2.) To evaluate the quality of
Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for Life" 3.) To measure the
effectiveness of learning by using Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for
Life" 4.) To evaluate the satisfaction of the learners towards the media. The evaluation came from 6
experts, 3 in content and 3 in the media.The value of the Multimedia Computer Program Entitled
"Water Conservation for Life" quality was at 4.08 and 3.80 which was in good level. This
Multimedia Computer Program had been used with the 40 primary school students by using simple
random sampling. The test after using the Multmedia Computer Program showed that the students got
.05 which had the posttest score higher than the pretest score and the satisfaction of the students in the
Multimedia Computer Program was at 4.32 which was in good level too. The result showed that the
Multimedia Computer Program had enough quality and could be able to use as the stated objectives in
order to give knowledge about environment to help learners to love and reservate water with care and
bring the King Bhumibol Adulyadej' words about how to have sufficient way of life into reality.

Keywords : Multimedia Computer Program / Water Conservation for Life / Conserve Water /
          Sufficent way of life / Protect the world

1. Introduction

        Human beings and nature have relationship in terms of living together. Human beings depend
on the nature for survival and they repay the kindness of the nature by conservation so that the nature
sustains. However, at the present time, human beings are repaying the kindness of the nature by
exploitation of the natural resources without conscious mind. The nature has been destroyed without
considering the bad effects which will happen in the future. To illustrate, many forests are being cut
down and this results in floods and landslides every year. Using chemicals leads to air pollution,
including the Earth's atmosphere. There is also water problem-wastewater in many water sources such
as rivers and canals which look like trash for garbage and refuse. With the increase in population in the
community, the causes of water pollution seems to be irresolvable. In the past, many communities
protect their water sources in a clever way. Many pools were considered as sacred so bathing and
washing in such pools were not allowed. Still, people can take such water for drinking.
        With wastewater problems in Thailand, it was found that one problem is related to other
problems like global warming, which is the cause of many world natural disasters, even in Thailand
which is located in Southeastern Asia. Thailand also suffers from floods like any other countries in the
world.
        Water is important for occupations and survival for everybody because water can be used for
consumption and for agriculture. King Bhumibol Adulyadej stated one comment in Chitralada Palace
on March 17[th], 2004 as follows: "…The main thing is to have water for consumption and for use, like
growing crops because life depends on water. Where there is water, there can be life. Where there is no
water, there is nobody. Without electricity, people can survive. Without water, people cannot
survive…" . Wastewater is one problem which concerns everybody in the sense that everybody must
take responsibilities together. Therefore, good conscious mind about making the best use of water as
well as conservation of water sources to keep its good condition is important, especially good
conscious mind in younger generations which are regarded as the future of the nation. Younger

generations will play an important role in developing the country to have advances in technology, environment as well as conscious mind about the importance of water because water problem is the problem which needs to be solved immediately.

The usage of technology for education like computer is one popular way. There are many features for computer media such as they can gain interests from learners, the contents can be presented with other advanced media and skills, unlike other media.

Multimedia Computer Program is regarded to be in accordance with the National Education Act 2542 B.E. in that all learners have abilities to learn and develop themselves. Moreover, learners are the most important. Therefore, the instruction must meet the interests and the aptitudes of the learners. The lessons and the activities must be based on the differences in individual to improve skills, thinking process and encountering situations. The application of knowledge must comply with the rapid changes in the society. Technology can create good and bad effects on modern life, resulting in more complexities. Therefore, the way of life must be changed so that it is valuable and leads to happiness.

According to the above-mentioned importance, the construction of multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" was an option to develop learning process so that it was beneficial for the project "Water Conservation for Life" held by Hadammara School. This program was based on the King's ideas and the project to promote conscious mind of the personnel inside the school about water conservation and nature conservation, especially wastewater management system and drainage system before releasing the water to Chao Phraya River, including the importance of water and the impacts of wastewater on themselves.

2. Research Objectives

2.1 To construct the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

2.2 To find out the quality of the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

2.3 To find out the learning achievement of learners who learn the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

2.4 To study the learners' satisfaction towards the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

3. Research Hypotheses

3.1 The effectiveness of the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" is at least at high level.

3.2 After learning the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life", the learners show higher learning achievement for posttest than the one for pretest at the level of statistical significance of 0.

3.3 The learners' satisfaction towards the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" is at least at high level.

4. The Scope of The Research

4.1 Population

The population in this research project was 120 sixth graders in Hadammara School in the second semester of academic year 2008 in Bangkok.

4.2 Sampling Group

The sampling group in this research project consisted of 40 sixth graders in Hadammara School in the second semester of academic year 2008 in Bangkok. They were chosen through simple random sampling method.

4.3 Experts

Experts were persons specialized in the contents about water resources and in designing contents and graphics with at least 5 years of experience to evaluate the quality of the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life". They were

4.3.1 Experts in multimedia had knowledge and skills in content design and graphic design. There were 3 experts to evaluate the quality of the multimedia computer program in 4 following aspects: texts, still images and animations, sounds and interactions.

4.3.2 Experts in contents had knowledge and skills in the contents about water resources. There were 3 experts.

4.4 Variables consisted of

   4.4.1 Independent variable which was the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

   4.4.2 Dependent variables which were

   - The quality of the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

   - The learning achievement of the learners who learn the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

   - The learners' satisfaction towards the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

   4.5 Tools Used in this Research

   4.5.1 The multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" consisted of the contents about water resource and would like to arouse conscious mind about the responsibilities and the importance of water resources including how to use the knowledge to achieve benefits in education and survival. The program contained the following contents:

   - Definition of water resource
   - Water life cycle
   - Types of water sources
   - Problems about water resources
   - Main causes of the water resource problems
   - Impacts of such problems
   - Principles in conservation of water resources
   - Approaches in conservation of water resources

   4.5.2 The quality evaluation forms for the experts in the multimedia and in the contents about the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

   4.5.3 The learning achievement test about the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" was composed of pretest and posttest, each of which had 30 question items. Each item had 4 choices. The pretest and the posttest were intended for testing knowledge, remembrance, understanding and application.

   4.5.4 The satisfaction questionnaire for the learners of the developed multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life".

   The quality evaluation form for the experts in multimedia and in the contents as well as the satisfaction questionnaire for the sampling group had 5-rating scales according to Likert's method as follow:

Level	Meaning	Average Score
5	The best/The highest	4.50-5.00
4	Good/High	3.50-4.49
3	Moderate	2.50-3.49
2	Mediocre/Low	1.50-2.49
1	Needs improvement/The lowest	1.00-1.49

5. The Development of the Tools Used in this Research

   Here is the process of the tool development:

   1. Theories, principles and concepts were studied. They were excerpted from academic textbooks, documents and related research works in order to gain information from various sources to be used in the development of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life".

   2. The quality evaluation forms about the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" were given to the experts.

   - Experts in multimedia had knowledge and skills in content design and graphic design. There were 3 experts to evaluate the quality of the multimedia computer program in 4 following aspects: texts, still images and animations, sounds and interactions

   - Experts in contents had knowledge and skills in the contents about water resources. There were 3 experts. After the quality of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" were evaluated by the experts, the multimedia computer program was used with the sampling group in the next step.

   3. Experiment with the Sampling Group

The researchers introduced the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" to the sampling group first so that they understood this kind of instruction. Afterwards, the experiment followed.

Experiment
The experiment with the sampling group of 40 persons followed One Group Pretest–Posttest Design.

Pretest	Treatment	Posttest
T_1	X	T_2

Definitions
X   represents   Treatment or learning from the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life"
(One lesson takes around 3 hours.)
T_1 represents   Pretest
T_2 represents   Posttest

4. The satisfaction questionnaires were given to the sampling group. The opinion could be divided into 5 rating scales as follow: the highest, high, moderate, low, and the lowest.
5. The data from the quality evaluation results done by the experts in multimedia and the experts in contents, the learning achievement or pretest and posttest, as well as the satisfaction of the sampling group were used for analysis through mean, standard deviation and t-test dependent.

6.   Research   Results

The results were as follow:

6.1 The Quality as Evaluated by the Experts in Multimedia and the Experts in Contents
Table 1 shows the average score for the quality of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" as evaluated by 3 experts in multimedia.

Evaluated Items	Mean ($\overline{X}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Meaning
1. Still images and animations	4.20	0.35	Good
2. Sounds	4.06	0.46	Good
3. Texts	4.00	0.63	Good
4. Interactions	4.06	0.35	Good
Mean	**4.08**	**0.45**	**Good**

According to Table 1, it can be concluded that the quality of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" as evaluated by the 3 experts in multimedia was 4.08 on average with the standard deviation of 0.45. This means it was at good level.

Table 2 shows the average score of the multimedia computer program as evaluated by 3 experts in contents.

Evaluated Items	Mean ($\overline{X}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Meaning
1. Contents and presentation	4.00	0.43	Good

2. Images, sounds and language	3.80	0.23	Good
3. Tests	3.60	0.58	Good
Mean	**3.80**	**0.41**	**Good**

According to Table 2, the quality of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" as evaluated by 3 experts in contents was 3.80 on average with the standard deviation of 3.80. This means it was at good level.

Table 3 shows the average scores as evaluated by both experts in multimedia and experts in contents.

Evaluated Items	Mean ($\overline{X}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Meaning
1. Multimedia	4.08	0.45	Good
2. Contents	3.80	0.41	Good
Mean	**3.94**	**0.43**	**Good**

According to Table 3, the quality of the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" as evaluated by 3 experts in multimedia and 3 experts in contents was 3.94 was average with the standard deviation of 0.43. This means it was at good level.

Table 4 shows the comparison of learning achievements between pretest and posttest for the sampling group of 40 persons.

Tests	Number of Persons (N)	Total Score	Mean ($\overline{X}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	t
Pre-test	40	30	12.50	2.31	20.16**
Post-test	40	30	22.50	3.31	

* at the level of the statistical significance of 0.05

According to Table 4, the comparison of the average scores shows that the average pretest score was 12.50 with the standard deviation of 2.31. The average posttest score of the sampling group was 22.50 with the standard deviation of 3.31. The learning achievement of the sampling group for the posttest was higher than the one for the pretest at the level of the statistical significance of 0.05.

Table 5 shows the average score for the satisfaction of the sampling group towards the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life".

Evaluated Items	Mean ($\overline{X}$)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Meaning
1. In General	4.32	1.65	High
2. Presentation of Contents	4.31	0.65	High
3. Presentation Types	4.31	0.66	High
4. Tests	4.19	0.67	High
5. Summary	4.46	0.60	High
Mean	**4.32**	**0.41**	**High**

According to Table 5, the satisfaction of the sampling group towards the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" was 4.32 on average. This means the learners were highly satisfied.

7. Research Result Summary

In this research, the quality was evaluated by 3 experts in multimedia and 3 experts in contents, totaling 6 experts, the learning achievement was determined and the satisfaction towards the developed program was done with the sampling group of 40 persons. The results were as follow:

7.1 The average score for the quality as evaluated by 3 experts in multimedia was 4.08 on average. When this score was compared to the set criteria, it was in the range of 3.50-4.49 or at good level.

7.2 The average score for the quality as evaluated by 3 experts in contents was 3.80 on average. When this score was compared to the set criteria, it was in the range of 3.50-4.49 or at good level.

7.3 The learning achievement from the pretest and the learning achievement from the posttest for the sampling group of 40 persons showed that learning achievement from the posttest was higher than the one from the pretest at the level of statistical significance of 0.05.

7.4 The average score for the satisfaction of the sampling group of 40 persons towards the multimedia computer program entitled "Water Conservation for Life" was 4.32. When it was compared to the set criteria, it was in the range of 3.50-4.49 or highly satisfied.

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Examples of The Construction of Multimedia Computer Program Entitled "Water Conservation for Life"

Introduction
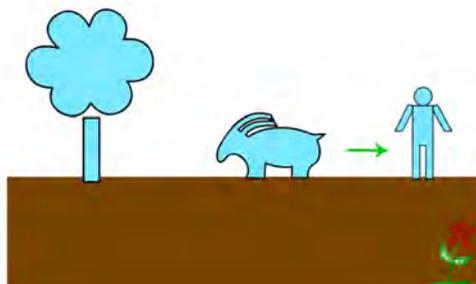
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Teachers' Reflections Toward Improving Student Achievement
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Abstract

Teacher reflection has been shown to correlate positively with activities toward self-improvement and self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy refers to the belief that an educator can positively affect student learning. For teacher self-efficacy to have real meaning, positive self-efficacy judgments must line up with actual gains in student ability, requiring diligent and careful self-reflection. This paper outlines the factors which influence teacher self-efficacy and self-regulation, and how reflection works with teacher beliefs to improve pedagogy.

Introduction

Reflective practice has been posited as an integral part of teachers' professional development (Clarke, 1995; Kettle & Sellars, 1996; Wilhelm, Coward, & Hume, 1996). Many teacher-training programs now emphasize reflective practice (Atay, 2007; Lee, 2007; Brandt, 2008) and encourage future teachers to make formal self-evaluation a habitual practice. This paper will investigate the development of self-regulatory teaching practice by exploring teachers beliefs, self-efficacy, and perceptions of reflection as feedback on teaching practices.

Declarative beliefs and reflection

In discussing teacher reflection, it is primary first to briefly explore the idea of teacher beliefs. In discussing reflective teaching practice, it is important to consider teachers "as active learners who construct their own understandings" (Putnam and Borko, 1997, p. 1225). As a matter of course, teachers will develop their own systems of belief regarding what is and is not effective in the classroom. Kember (1998) has stated that through previous exploratory studies, teachers' conceptions of teaching have been well established in the literature, but that the relationship between beliefs, practices, and the formation of these beliefs has not been thoroughly explored.

For the purposes of teacher development, beliefs have been described as difficult to change (Murray and MacDonald, 1997). Martin and Ramsden (1993) noted that promoting staff development required slow training and retraining in order to promote improvements in teaching practice. Further, Kagan (1992) describes the necessary pre-requisites of programs looking to improve teacher quality:

> If a program is to promote growth among novices, it must
> require them to make their preexisting personal beliefs
> explicit; it must challenge the adequacy of those beliefs;
> and it must give novices extended opportunities to
> examine, elaborate, and integrate new information into
> their existing belief systems. (Kagan, 1992a, p. 77)

If teachers are actively reflective for the purpose of improving teaching, the first step would appear to be the active declaration of beliefs regarding the practice of teaching for the purpose of examining the veracity of those beliefs in relation with actual practice.

Reflective practice for self-efficacy and self-regulation

The theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; 1997) refers to an individual's belief regarding his or her ability to succeed at a specific endeavor. The theory claims that specific judgments a person makes regarding the degree of skill with which they are able to accomplish a task or activity can help determine, among other things, his or her motivation relating to the endeavor. It takes into account the person's experiences of success and failure, vicarious experiences from watching others, encouragement from others, and emotional and physiological engagement (Bandura, 1997). This construct has been shown to have strong connections with professional and personal motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002), academic goal seeking behaviors (Elliot & Dweck, 1988), and academic self-regulation (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008; Pajares, 2008).

Teacher self-efficacy is a specific application of the theory and refers to "teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated"

(Guskey & Passaro, 1994, p. 4). Several researchers have emphasized how teacher self-efficacy affects teachers' behaviors and attitudes toward student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). These same teacher behaviors affect student learning and engagement, (Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Gordon, Dembo, & Hocevar, 2007; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Wild, Enzle, & Hawkins, 1992) with positive correlations between teachers with high personal and professional self-efficacy and student motivation levels and achievement. Less confident teachers tend to perceive external influences as more important, while more confident teachers believe they have control over students' attitudes (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teacher self-efficacy has also been shown to correlate to teachers' engagement (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002), professional commitment (Coladarci, 1992), and student achievement (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). This confidence often comes from mastery experiences early in teachers' careers (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

When discussing self-efficacy, professional development and motivation, one salient concept is that of a "will to learn" (Van Eekelen, Vermunt, & Boshuizen, 2007). One of the primary ways in which this "will to learn" can manifest itself is in reflective teaching practice, where the teacher utilizes one of a number of methods to concretely consider his or her teaching, its effectiveness, and methods of improving their professional practice (Jadallah, 1996). Research has demonstrated that reflective practice can improve teaching effectiveness (Clarke, 1995; Kettle & Sellars, 1996; Wilhelm, Coward, & Hume, 1996) thereby improving teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Research has also shown that teachers become more reflective with experience in the field, and use reflection to grow professionally (Chiang, 2008; Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006)—whether they continue to outside of a teacher training environment, remains to be verified. In order to develop positive self-efficacy beliefs, teachers must engage in reflective practice and be aware of feedback from students.

Numerous studies of teachers' reflective practices have focused on pre-service teachers and teacher trainees (Chiang, 2008; Lee, 2007; Wilhelm, Coward, & Hume, 1996; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2002; etc.) and to a lesser extent teacher trainers (Kremer-Hayon & Tillema, 1999; Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002). Studies investigating in-service teacher reflection have been less forthcoming, though some data does exist (e.g. Davis, Petish, and Smithey, 2006). In investigating teacher trainers, it was found that while teacher educators encouraged reflective practice as a part of their curricula, not all were actively reflective in practice (Kremer-Hayon & Tillema, 1999; Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002). This would indicate that in service teachers are also unlikely to self-regulate through self-reflection.

Additionally, according to Marsh (2007), many university teachers do not continue to develop (i.e. reflect on their practice) after the first years of academic placement. Teachers did not change greatly over the course of his 13 year study (Marsh, 2007), which may indicate a lack of reflection in university teachers, or that teachers reflect at the beginning of their careers, but gradually begin to do so less as they gain in mastery experiences (i.e. positive feedback on job performance, student successes, etc.) and are less affected by their environment (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Since teachers are less likely to change after the first several years, and early experiences can build teacher self-efficacy, new teachers' willingness to reflect in order to build mastery experiences is extremely important for developing long-term teacher self-efficacy, and thereby more effectively self-regulate (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994).

Reflection as feedback

This study posits that teacher reflection offers teachers a chance to investigate their beliefs, and receive feedback about processing of the teaching task and their self-regulation of their teaching, called FP and FR respectively (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). FP and FR are posited to have a powerful effect on the learning process, and can provide learners with ways of recognizing their errors through encountering impediments (Carver & Scheier, 1982; 1990), improved strategy use (Harakiewicz, Mabderlink, & Sansone, 1984; Wood & Bandura, 1989), improve self-efficacy (Earley, Northcraft, Lee, & Lituchy, 1990), and is a pre-requisite for effective self-regulation (Butler & Winne, 1995). Self-assessment is an important part of the self-regulatory process (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Schunk & Ertmer, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000), exactly what reflection seeks to elicit. As noted by Hattie and Timperley (2007), timely feedback is one of the most powerfully effective concepts in education.

Conclusions and implications

The above studies all illustrate the importance of reflection in academic professional development. Knowing the necessity of declaring beliefs in order to properly examine them, we recognize that this marks the first step in teacher reflection and development. Deeply held beliefs are less likely to change (Murray and MacDonald, 1997), but deeply held beliefs that are based on faulty understanding of the effective teaching nonetheless require re-examination. By exploring their extant underlying belief structures about their own profession, teachers are better able to recognize and understand discrepancies between those beliefs and what happens in their classrooms.

If teachers are to develop a sense of self-efficacy, and thereby become more self-regulatory, reflection and self-awareness give teachers the chance to engage with their experiences and thereby improve their practice. Without proper reflection and change toward more successful practices, teachers' will not develop a sense of self-efficacy for teaching. This lack of self-efficacy stands in the way of self-regulation, which would in turn lead to decreased autonomy support for students (Roth, et al. 2007), decreased motivation orientation (Assor, et al. 2002), and a drop in student engagement and learning (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). While self-efficacy beliefs are often formed earlier rather than later in academic careers (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007), intervention for professional development can have an effect on teaching practice (Martin and Ramsden, 1993).

Educators and administrators interested in improving the quality of teaching within an institution can do so by giving teachers time to reflect as a group. Due to the high likelihood that teachers will not reflect on or change their teaching (Marsh, 2007), intervention seems necessary in order to improve quality of teaching. As is discussed by Kagan (1992a; b) the systematic declaration of teachers' beliefs about their pedagogy is instrumental in providing self-assessment feedback. Helping teachers to do this in such a way that they are not threatened is crucial for the learning process (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). The optimal format would be a peer guided reflection system by which teachers would work with colleagues to reflect on and share experiences regarding the process of their teaching. This guided reflection format would allow teachers to regularize reflection and incorporate it into their classroom activities. While the process of retraining in-service teachers is not quick nor a lightly undertaken project (Martin and Ramsden, 1993), it is a worthwhile one that promises improvement in both teacher motivation and student achievement.

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Collaborating for Development

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Abstract
In Japan, the term team teaching usually refers to two teachers, a Japanese teacher of English (JTE) and an assistant English teacher (AET), teaching in the same English language classroom in secondary educational settings. Japanese universities usually do not employ team teaching. However, our department implemented team teaching in 2008. All required English classes (Listening & Speaking, Reading & Writing, and CALL) for the first two years are taught by teams of teachers, native English speakers and Japanese EFL teachers. Our goals are to provide a variety of teaching styles, take advantage of the strengths of individual teachers, foster cooperation and collaboration and improve teaching and to help realize those goals, we hold monthly meetings and use a website for communication about classes and students. An initial investigation to evaluate team teaching demonstrated that for the most part team teaching has been successful (Kwon 2009). Teachers' fea
 rs that team teaching would result in a larger burden were not realized and most felt that it had positive effects on their teaching. Although students' perception that teachers were working in teams was not strong, they appreciated having a variety of personalities and teaching styles. In that paper, Kwon (2009) quotes a number of advantages of team teaching from the literature, specifically, improvement in the quality of teaching, promotion of professional growth, coherent teaching, and improvements in morale. Whether our goals and those advantages are being realized is the focus of paper. Using questionnaires and interviews it will report on teachers' perceptions and attitudes and evaluate how team teaching has, or has not, affected their teaching.
Kwon, Hitomi. 2009. Experiment in Team Teaching. In Bessette, A. (Ed.). Curricular Innovation. Sakai, Japan: Poole Gakuin University English Education Research Bulletin.

Keywords: Team-teaching, Professional_development, Curricular_innovation, Collaborative_teaching

Local Solutions for Global Problems in Teacher Professional Development: Focus on Japanese Approach of Lesson Study

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Abstract

In the early 21st century, educational researchers and practitioners shifted to put more emphasis on learning-oriented strategy for change and to focus on empowerment of teachers and self-sustaining restructuring in school. Consequently, teacher quality has developed into a core innovation issue of school education in many countries as a global movement.
Recently Jugyou Kenkyuu as a Japanese approach of 'lesson study' and local solution has become an alternative model of core innovation of school education and improving teaching-learning process in the world. This model of classroom-based research and school-based teacher professional development has been examined as an effective approach for empowerment of teachers to design more attractive lessons and to improve teaching in many countries based on their culture and educational context.
This paper examines the process of 'lesson study' in practice and the main challenges to sustaining momentum in Japanese lesson study include the educational system and school cultural issues. The intention is to clarify why and how Japanese model of lesson study has been examined as an effective approach for teachers to design more attractive lessons and to improve teaching in many countries based on their culture and educational context.

Keywords: Teacher Education, Professional Development, Lesson Study, Improving Teaching, Japan

Self-invented languages in second language learning

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Abstract

Observations of the use of languages of second language young learners identified the invention of a new language by these learners. The new language resembled neither their first language nor the new language in the learning setting. This presentation draws on this finding of a PhD study on Chinese immigrant children's learning experiences in New Zealand early childhood settings. Through focusing on the children's invention of 'a new language' this presentation explores what this focus can tell us about the new language learning experience of young children.

Building on both the psychological and sociolinguistic approaches of language learning, the presentation puts forward personal and social lens through which the invention of a new language can be viewed. Within these concepts, the interplay of inner and outer determinants forms the basis of a new language learning process and outcome. In line with this thought, the aim of this presentation is to show how the sociocultural surroundings and children's inner desire for learning set conditions for their development of a new language. The invention of new languages by these young learners as seen in this study is the result of their exposure to the new language social settings and their determination to learn the new language through self-exploration. The presentation argues that the social practice in which children participate directly or indirectly shape the experiences of their language learning. Educators' insight and knowledge about second language young learners' str
engths and needs influences their possibilities for supporting these learners. Therefore, this empirical finding also implicates a challenge to pedagogical thinking of teachers.

Keywords: invention of a new language; psychological approach; sociolinguistic approach; pedagogical thinking

A Sociological Critique of "Chinese-English Bilingual Education" in Mainland China

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Although organized promotion of English-medium instruction in mainland China started only at the turn of the century, this form of language provision has gathered great momentum and is sweeping across the country. Drawing on Bourdieu's sociological theory, this paper presents a critical review of the reform initiative. It examines the driving forces behind the runaway expansion of English-medium instruction and analyzes the implications and consequences of such instruction for mainland China.

The last two decades have seen much policy attention to the linkage between the quality of education and mainland China's further development in economic, scientific, political, and sociocultural domains (Chinese Communist Party Central Committee & State Council, 1993, 1999; Ministry of Education, 1998). Various top-down and bottom-up initiatives have been promoted and implemented at an ever quickening pace to reform education at all levels and to achieve the goal of quality education (Hu, 2005b). One recent initiative introduced in the name of educational reform and quality education is English-medium instruction in non-language school subjects at the primary and secondary levels. This type of language provision is widely known in mainland China (hereafter China) as "bilingual education/instruction." The so-called Chinese-English bilingual education is provided for majority language students and differs from what is traditionally regarded as bilingual education in China, namely the education of ethnic minorities in their native languages and Chinese, the majority language (A. W. Feng, 2005; X. Ye, 2003; W. J. Zhang, 2002; Zheng, 2004). It also differs from most forms of bilingual provision that are typically denoted by the term in international contexts (Baker, 2006; Hu, 2008).

Although only a few well-resourced schools located in socioeconomically advantaged areas were experimenting with English-medium instruction as a means of improving the quality of English teaching in the 1990s, organized promotion of Chinese-English bilingual education started at the turn of the century as part of Shanghai's drive to become an international metropolis (Hu, 2002; W. Lin, 2001; Shen, 2004). Within the space of several years, this form of language provision has gathered great momentum and is sweeping across the educational landscape of China. It has become one of the hottest topics in the Chinese language education literature. As an illustration, an online search through the Periodical Database of the China National Knowledge Infrastructure Net – the largest database of academic periodical publications – found 1,817 bibliographic entries for the period of 2000 to 2005 that matched the descriptors "bilingual education/instruction" and "English language teaching." Indeed, as A. W. Feng observes, "from kindergartens to tertiary institutions, bilingual education has become part of the everyday vocabulary not only of educationists but also of ordinary people" (2005, pp. 529-530).

The promotion and spread of English-medium instruction have met with skepticism and criticisms from a small minority of educators and researchers (e.g., Gu & Dong, 2005; Gui, 2004; Xu, 2004). Some of them have drawn attention to a multitude of constraints that can frustrate the optimistically envisioned goals of mass Chinese-English bilingual education and turn the initiative into a disastrous waste of human and economic resources. Others have raised concerns over its potential negative educational and sociocultural consequences. Their voices, however, have been drowned in an overwhelming academic discourse constructed by an ever growing contingent of vocal advocates (e.g., A. Y. Huang, 2005; H. D. Jiang, 2002, 2003; Qian, 2003; Qiang & Zhao, 2000; Sun, 2002; B. H. Wang, 2003; Wen, 2001; Zheng, Tian, & Li, 2006; Zhu, 2003). Those advocates hail Chinese-English bilingual education as the vanguard of educational reform, a cornerstone of quality education, a vital means for China to interface with the rest of the world, and an indispensable resource for the country's endeavor to achieve national development and modernization in the era of globalization.

This paper presents a critical review of the Chinese-English bilingual education initiative from a sociological perspective. It consists of three major sections. The first section briefly discusses French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu's (1986, 1991) theoretical work which informs the current critical review. The second section examines some of the major driving forces behind the runaway expansion of

English-medium instruction. The final section analyzes the implications and consequences of such instruction for China.

Bourdieu's Theory of Social Practice

As this paper draws on Bourdieu's sociological notions of capital, field, and distinction, it is useful to outline at the outset these notions and their relationships as formulated in his theory of social practice. Bourdieu (1991) uses field (and sometimes "market") to refer to a structured social space in which individuals or institutions act. This structured multidimensional space is "constructed on the basis of principles of differentiation or distribution constituted by the set of properties active in the social universe under consideration" (p. 229). The set of properties current in a field are comprised of material and immaterial resources, or various forms of capital, that "govern its functioning in a durable way, determining the chances of success for practices" (1986, p. 242). Thus, Individuals or groups are "distributed … according to the overall volume of the capital they possess and … the relative weight of the different kinds of capital in the total set of their assets" (1991, p. 231). For this reason, a field is also an arena of struggles in which the occupants seek to preserve or change the status quo, that is, the current distribution of capital. The composition and volume of capital, "like trumps in a game of cards, are powers which define the chances of profit in a given field" (1991, p. 230).

In Bourdieu's sociological theory, there are several types of capital. Economic capital comprises material goods and resources that can be quantified and thus have numerical values in the form of money. It can be accumulated, bequeathed, and invested. Cultural capital consists of knowledge, competencies, and other cultural resources that individuals come to possess. It can exist in one of three states: "in the embodied state, i.e., in the form of long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body; in the objectified state, in the form of cultural goods (pictures, books, dictionaries, instruments, machines, etc.) … and in the institutionalized state [i.e., in the form of qualifications, certificates, and credentials granted by authorized institutions]' (1986, p. 243). The acquisition and accumulation of cultural capital require socialization and inculcation as well as investment of time and economic capital. Cultural capital "derives a scarcity value" and "yields profits of distinction for its owner" (1986, p. 245). Social capital "is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity-owned capital, a 'credential' which entitles them to credit" (1986, pp. 248-249). Simply put, social capital consists of resources afforded by social networks and group membership.

An important property of the various types of capital is their mutual convertibility. Thus, cultural capital in the form of academic qualifications can be cashed in for economic capital yielded by lucrative employment or social capital that a powerful position affords. For various types of capital to be current and to be deployed to procure profits, they must be acknowledged by players in the field as having convertible value and symbolic power in the form of prestige, status, and reputation. In other words, they need to be recognized as symbolic capital, "the form assumed by these different kinds of capital when they are perceived and recognized as legitimate" (1991, p. 230). Symbolic capital then is "another name for distinction" (p. 238). In this definition, distinction is nothing but capital recognized as legitimate. Importantly, holders of distinction, or symbolic capital, "are able to impose it as the only legitimate one in the formal markets (the fashionable, educational, political and administrative markets)" (pp. 56-57) and thus secure "a profit of distinction" (p. 55).

Bourdieu's constructs of capital, distinction, and field, together with their interrelationships, offer a sociological vocabulary for analyzing, and a useful framework for understanding, the propagation and spread of Chinese-English bilingual education in China. Knowledge of English has become cultural capital par excellence and one of the most powerful forms of symbolic capital in the country. Access to such knowledge is inexorably intertwined with the availability and deployment of other types of capital, creates relations of power, and leads to both symbolic and material profits.

Driving Forces Behind the Bilingual Education Craze

Researchers have identified several driving forces behind the craze for bilingual education in China. Hu (2008), for example, discusses two major driving forces: 1) an entrenched modernization discourse that links national development to English proficiency and 2) a misleading academic discourse that embraces bilingual education unreflectively. This sociological critique focuses on another group of

driving forces: the vested interests of stakeholders and major players in the field of English language provision.

In light of Bourdieu's theory, it is not difficult to see that Chinese-English bilingual education in China is a field of struggles in which different stakeholders and players compete to maximize their various forms of capital and to redefine their relative positions in the economic, educational, and sociocultural markets. It can be argued that major promoters of Chinese-English bilingual education, such as local governments in Shanghai and Guangzhou, have been driven by a desire for a maximal profit of distinction and to maintain their positions as centers of power. These large urban centers were able to occupy their leading positions because of their economic power. However, a large crop of cities have been quickly catching up in the last three decades as a result of the central government's reform and opening-up policies. To distinguish themselves from the upstarts and to take the lion's share of the available capital (i.e., capital as conceptualized by Bourdieu), these older power centers are determined to join the rank of international metropolises rather than remain merely domestic centers, knowing that capital accrues to the most powerful (Bourdieu, 1991). An obvious strategy for them to retain their powerful positions is to exploit their existing advantages. One such advantage has been their much greater resources for ELT. Thus, as current holders of distinction, they have imposed English proficiency as a legitimate and prestigious form of symbolic capital. This strategy is clearly reflected in the discourse of the Shanghai Education Commission's action plan for the 21st century: "To develop world-class foreign language teaching programs in Shanghai is a prerequisite for turning the municipality into a world-class international metropolis" (cited in Hu, 2002, p. 33). The upstarts, however, have refused to be mere onlookers.

The same psychology of distinction also underlies the strong enthusiasm for Chinese-English bilingual education showed by district educational departments and prestigious schools. Thus, the principal of a highly prestigious school in Shanghai gloated about his school's high quality bilingual program on the one hand and insinuated at the low quality of startup programs elsewhere (W. Lin, 2001). Other schools struggle to set up bilingual programs because their interests are at stake. For example, the principal of another school in Shanghai knew that his school would remain on the periphery of the field if it did not take action to offer bilingual programs (Pi, 2004). Similar vested interests sent universities vying to offer bilingual courses after the Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education announced that the number of bilingual courses offered would be taken into account in the assessment of universities (Zheng, 2004). This led to 48 bilingual courses at Fudan University, 164 at Zhejiang University, and 216 at Wuhan University (W. Huang, 2004; L. F. Wang, 2006; Zheng, 2004).

Many teachers welcome Chinese-English bilingual education because it brings with it opportunity for them to procure more economic, cultural, and symbolic capital than they normally can hope for. These are typically junior teachers who have not established themselves and have to slog their way slowly and patiently up the professional and social hierarchy. Thanks to their possession of greater English proficiency than most of their more senior colleagues, bilingual education offers them a much sought-after opportunity to appreciate in value, to attain "distinction" (Bourdieu, 1986) in the eyes of their superiors and colleagues, to be recognized, and to be better remunerated. All these are possible because to encourage teachers to teach bilingually, most schools offer various incentives: honorific rewards, promotions, salary increases, bonuses, subsidies, favorable formulae for workload calculation, sponsored training at home or abroad, grants for Chinese-English bilingual education research, and many other rewards (Li, 2006; Shen & Feng, 2005; Xu & Zhang, 2003; Zheng et al., 2006).

Parents and older students support Chinese-English bilingual education because English proficiency has become a most valorized form of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986, 1991). It is a passport to a host of economic, social, educational, and professional opportunities and resources (Hu, 2005b; Li, 2006). For example, promotion for professionals depends crucially on passing a national English test. "Failing in this test," Y. J. Jiang (2003, p. 4) bemoans, "even a Nobel Prize winner will be rejected for promotion to professor, senior researcher, chief physician, or even class-I teacher in a school." Consequently, parents, especially those from a middle-class background, want their children to learn English well for an improved future (J. Lin, 2003). They are willing to pay higher school fees or donate generously in order to get their children into bilingual schools (A. W. Feng, 2005). Two incidents show how the signboard of bilingual education can work wonders for schools because of parents' eagerness to give their children a head start in English learning. A kindergarten in Beijing was on the brink of closure because of its small enrolment (Liu, 2002). To get out of the difficult situation, the kindergarten declared itself a bilingual education kindergarten and did some publicity work. Immediately parents

queued to enroll their children in the kindergarten. In the second incident, 1,000 parents were queuing up in the sun outside of a little-known primary school in a small town for places in an 'experimental bilingual education class' (J. Lin, 2003). Some of them had rushed there the night before from large cities like Guangzhou and Shenzhen!

Finally, many other individuals, organizations, and businesses have self-interests in Chinese-English bilingual education because it is a gold mine. Indeed, English proficiency has become a very expensive commodity in China. According to Y. P. Zhang (2003), there were 3,000 English language tuition centers in Shanghai alone. In a tuition center that had an enrolment of more than 2,300, a 48-hour course charged ¥7,300 (more than US$900). Another tuition center charged ¥9,980 for a 6-month course. These were hefty amounts in a country whose GNP per capita was below US$1,000 in 2003. The New Oriental School in Beijing, the largest private English-teaching school in China, had an annual income of US$25 million in 2001 (Y. J. Jiang, 2003). In the craze for English, publishers also make big money. According to a report quoted in Niu and Wolff (2003, p. 30), "of the 37 billion yuan annual book sales, ESL [English as a second language] takes up as much as 25% of market share." The drive for Chinese-English bilingual education has also created a highly profitable market for reprinting textbooks published overseas. Given the huge economic profits, it is little wonder that various Chinese-English bilingual education services have been springing up everywhere (W. Lin, 2001; Nian et al., 2002).

Consequences of Bilingual Education for China

Because of the driving forces discussed above, there is no sign that the Chinese-English bilingual education craze will dissipate or even abate in the foreseeable future. The runaway expansion of English-medium programs requires serious consideration of the consequences of bilingual education for China. What educational, economic, and sociocultural consequences has it already produced? What potential consequences may it give rise to? This section tries to answer these questions.

Educational Consequences

Chinese-English bilingual education has been promoted ostensibly to make English learning more effective and to greatly raise students' English proficiency. Has this objective been attained by the extant bilingual programs? At first sight, the few available formal evaluations suggest that this would be the case. However, as Hu's (2008) critical review makes clear, the studies suffered many of the problems plaguing evaluation research on bilingual education discussed in the literature (Greene, 1998; Swain, 1978; Willig, 1985). A close scrutiny of the studies raises doubts about the validity of their findings and suggests that the effectiveness of the costly bilingual education efforts fell far short of the claims.

What, then, are the chances for the goal of mass Chinese-English bilingualism to be achieved in the foreseeable future? A rational answer would be in the negative, given the poor English proficiency of most 'bilingual' teachers, the actual extent of English use in the classroom, the dubious quality of bilingual learning materials, the lack of curricular standards, the general lack of professional training in bilingual education among teachers, the lack of a threshold English proficiency in students to benefit from bilingual instruction, and so on. Research (e.g., Swain & Johnson, 1997) suggests that only under favorable conditions can the potential benefits of bilingual education be reaped, and a full additive bilingualism achieved. Cummins (1998), a strong advocate of bilingual education, has pointed out that students from French immersion programs - programs widely considered in China to be models of highly successful bilingual education - lag behind native speakers of the immersion language in spoken and written competence, especially in the grammar of the target language. If this is the case in Canada, it is more likely that Chinese students will develop half-baked bilingualism, or semilingualism, given China's limited resources for Chinese-English bilingual education.

It is also important to consider how Chinese-English bilingual education, now a synonym for quality education in China, may affect students' academic achievement in the long run. Although there is no report of systematic longitudinal research conducted to examine the effect on academic attainment of learning non-language subjects in English, there are already some indications that the use of English as

a medium of instruction may very well affect students' academic achievement negatively. One of the few evaluation studies admits that bilingual instruction may "injure subject learning" and calls for strategies to prevent this from happening (Shen, 2004). Many teachers have also complained that they have to reduce or simplify curricular content to accommodate bilingual instruction because their students lack the academic language competence to understand complex topics and engage in higher-order thinking in English (Pi, 2004; B. Z. Ye, 2002). Jin and Zhuang (2002) report that in one school after half a semester of bilingual instruction in mathematics, the teachers had to re-teach major topics in Chinese because the students had performed poorly in assessment. Such examples suggest that Chinese-English bilingual education is carried out at the expense of curricular content. As Liu (2002) observes, while bilingual education has been pushed forward as a way of correcting the evils of "costly and ineffective" approaches to English language teaching, it has made the teaching of other school subjects costly and ineffective. In light of Hong Kong's unsuccessful English immersion education, Gu and Dong (2005) draw attention to potential problems that may result from a mass shift in the medium of instruction and calls for great caution in promoting Chinese-English bilingual education in mainland China.

There are other real and potential consequences of great concern. Safty (1992) argues that in evaluating bilingual education programs, it is important to examine wider educational issues such as school integration, teacher employment, and staff morale. There is every possibility that the craze for Chinese-English bilingual education will bring along, if it has not already done so, unwelcome consequences in these respects. To solve the problems of bilingual teacher shortages, many local governments and schools have redefined what it takes to be a qualified teacher. As A. W. Feng (2005, p. 540) points out, "qualified educators from preschool up to tertiary levels now need to be bilinguals who can teach their subjects in a foreign language, particularly English." In some schools, teachers are classified according to their ability to teach bilingually: those who are "qualified," those who are "sub-qualified," and those who are "probationers" (Shen, 2004). While such policies create golden opportunities for the minority of teachers who possess the much sought-after English proficiency, they can pose serious threats to the majority who do not have such capital. The latter's prowess is threatened with depreciation because they cannot display it in English. Thus, they face losing their symbolic capital in the form of professional recognition and reputation (Bourdieu, 1986, 1991). Marginalization and dislocation loom real. All this can have a demoralizing effect on teachers who cannot hope to teach bilingually and cause resentment for those who occupy privileged and envied positions afforded by bilingual education. "Divergence of interest and conflict within the group," Safty (1992, p. 27) notes, "will result if a segment is perceived as having acquired prestige and social mobility not previously available or accessible to the rest."

Economic and Sociocultural Consequences

Massive promotion of Chinese-English bilingual education in China also has huge economic and financial consequences for the central government and local governments at various levels. It entails tremendous governmental spending because of its requirements for teacher training, teacher employment, instructional facilities, and learning materials development (X. Y. Zhao, 2004). Su (2003b) reports that between 2000 and 2003, Shanghai alone sent nearly 2,000 teachers to English-speaking countries for training and recruited about 1,600 expatriate teachers for its primary and secondary bilingual programs. In addition, 400 teachers were sent to universities in Shanghai for training. This translated to governmental expenditure of millions of dollars. Bilingual education also means more expenditure on the part of schools. For example, Zhejiang University spent more than one million yuan in 2002 in setting up bilingual courses (W. Huang, 2004). Schools that are serious about bilingual education have to expend their often limited financial resources on school-based training for their bilingual teachers, on wage hikes, bonuses, and/or subsidies for their bilingual education teachers, on recruiting new staff for their bilingual programs, and on equipment and other facilities needed to create an 'English environment' conducive to bilingual education (J. Lin, 2003). Even some advocates admit that bilingual education is expensive and suggest that it should be implemented on a restricted scale (Su, 2003a; Sun, 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2005). It is difficult to justify the huge spending on bilingual education, whose effectiveness in China has yet to be proved, when numerous schools in the vast rural areas of the country are poorly equipped for basic education and when the great majority of children in these underdeveloped areas do not go beyond a nine-year compulsory education (Hu, 2005a).

Even more disconcerting are some of the sociocultural consequences following from the drive for

Chinese-English bilingual education. Even before Chinese-English bilingual education was officially promoted, English proficiency was already a commodity of strong exchange value (Bourdieu, 1986) and a gatekeeper of opportunities to procure various forms of capital, economic, cultural, and social (Z. J. Feng, 2002; Hu, 2005b). The Chinese-English bilingual education craze has further consolidated its status as symbolic capital, that is, as a most valorized form of cultural capital. Mastery of English has come to be regarded as a defining characteristic of talents in the 21st century (A. Y. Huang, 2005; Shen & Feng, 2005), an essential part of "a perfect character" (Qian, 2003), and a sign of distinction. It is now a widespread belief that "everything is low but English is high" (Xu, 2004). This belief is well illustrated by a news report of a group of children standing under the Oriental Pear, the television tower in Shanghai, and shouting in unison "No English, no future!" (Y. J. Jiang, 2003, p. 3). Hu (2005b) provides a further example of how English has been perceived as synonymous with competitiveness and quality as well as how the demand for English has often been created artificially.

Conclusion

It is all too obvious that English has become the language of social and economic prestige and has the power to confer greater possibilities on those who can command it. On the face of it, the explosive growth of Chinese-English bilingual education seems to offer opportunity for a large segment of the Chinese society to acquire the scarce symbolic capital of English proficiency. However, this opportunity exists only in theory. Researchers (e.g., Valdés, 1997; Walsh, 1995; Yau, 1988) notice that it is generally students of higher socioeconomic levels that benefit most from successful bilingual education programs in USA, Canada, and Hong Kong. Expectedly, there are also indications that Chinese-English bilingual education in China is becoming a service to the elite (Gill, 2004; P. Zhang, 2002). This is happening because, as Bourdieu (1986, 1991) points out, the educational system serves as a principal institution for the accumulation, production, distribution of cultural capital and for the reproduction of social inequality. Thus, at the school level, a minority of elite schools can take advantage of their much greater volume of various types of capital – greater financial resources, excellent infrastructure, wider social networks, well-trained staff, and high-caliber students – to offer bilingual programs of a quality that the majority of schools with limited capital cannot hope to emulate. At the personal level, students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds can benefit more from bilingual programs than those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds because of the much greater resources their families can invest in creating conditions of success for them (A. W. Feng, 2005). Thus, Chinese-English bilingual education not only perpetuates the existing unequal and hierarchical distribution of power and access to cultural and symbolic capital but is creating new forms of inequality and further differentiating the Chinese society.

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Globalization and language learning: Strategic bilingualism in the age of globalization
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Abstract

 The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between globalization and the education, and language learning of Asian immigrant students in the United States. Students today are being influenced by globalization. It is a phenomenon that comprises multiple changes in educational, economic, political, and cultural terms. Globalization influences the way people position themselves in the world. With globalization and mass immigration transforming local and homogeneous communities into global communities (Singh, 2002), people have a different sense of being and ways of identifying themselves in the world. Many people move or aspire to move all over the world in search of the symbolic capital that globalization awards (Banks, 2006; Ong, 1999, 2004; Castles, 2004). However, research has not specifically described the effect of globalization on the education, and language learning, and identity of Asian immigrant children in the United States. Using ethnographic research methods, the researcher examined 6 Asian immigrant parents living in the northwestern part of the United States. This study examined how globalization, English as a global language, the mass migration of immigrants around the world, and transnationalism influenced the ways the parents strategically structured their children's education and language learning. The researcher found that globalization changed the conditions under which language learning took place. It changed not only the Chinese immigrant parent's motivations and choices about which language(s) their children should learn, it also affected the resources and practices the parents allocated for education. The researcher argues that in the age of globalization, Asian immigrant parents are situating their educational and linguistic practices on a global scale, beyond the local context in which their families are situated.

keywords: globalization, Language Learning and Acquisition , bilingualism, immigration, primary education

Local Problems, Global Solutions?
Using popular cultural texts in the humanistic classroom: How Japanese stories can work for Hong Kong students

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Abstract

With the increase in university student numbers over the world, university education has changed from the elite to the general. University education has also changed from a kind of gentleman-training to career oriented training and shifting to more general humanistic training today. The education sector has called for changes not only in the content but also the approaches to university education in view of the changing environment (i.e. globalization, the internet age, etc.) and the changing people that are produced by this environment. To adequately teach the new generation of young people and prepare them not only for the work life but life in general, we must get to really communicate with them. To do this, designers of curriculum need to comprehend how they think, how they relate to the world, and what kind of decisions they tend to make in given circumstances. Educators must do some research to understand the youth culture before they can utilize suitable and effective strategies to create a learning experience for this generation of young people.

One of the most effective ways of doing this would be to get through to students via the cultural world they inhabit, and ideally borrow insights from those texts they enjoy. In Hong Kong, for example, comics, animation, games and popular reading are most important components of their cultural life. I propose to use a Japanese literary text which is very popular among youngsters in HK to illustrate how we can perhaps make use of popular texts welcomed by young people in our classrooms. Yumemakura Baku's *Onmyoji* series is first a successful popular novel series, then adapted into comics series, and film adaptation and TV mini-series have also followed. I hope that through a textual analysis of this Japanese literary series and its other products, I can show how interdisciplinary, cross-cultural, and even bilingual teaching and learning materials can be created for use in a humanistic classroom.

Keywords: Literary Studies, Japanese Popular Culture, Cross-Cultural Text, Fantasy Literature, Onmyoji

Introduction

The idea of this presentation comes from my own experience of teaching humanities courses to both Humanities majors and students from out-of-discipline groups taking humanities subjects to fulfill their general education requirements. Teaching a class of mixed backgrounds has always been challenging because of the difference in students' knowledge level and their expectations concerning the mode of teaching and learning. But in teaching humanities courses, there is an extra dimension to this challenge – how do teachers convey the significance of these subjects in the globalized world and their relevance to life in the 21[st] century when the tendency is to look forward rather than looking back? Today educators are well aware that we are dealing with a group of students who were born in the internet age, who are more familiar with reading and writing on the net than writing on paper and who are not trained to have the patience to read traditional texts within the humanities. At the same time, they are probably accustomed to seeing a university education as a training to prepare them for a profession. This is indeed very far from the original Renaissance understanding of a humanistic education – to give the elite class the necessary training so that they will exhibit a learning as well as a gentlemanly civility which befits their class and heritage. In a world so fundamentally different from the Renaissance, what can the teachers do to impart such knowledge to the new group of youngsters? The purpose of this presentation is to share some of my ideas and to invite further suggestions from fellow educators.

William Paulson had painted a rather bleak picture of the situation of the literary culture in the 21[st] century in his book *Literary Culture in a World Transformed: A Future for the Humanities* (2001). The literary classics, he wrote, whether in book form or even in filmic adaptations, are no longer a part of young people's life, and it is not easy to cultivate an initiation in the students today to approach the literary culture as a relevant subject to be studied. If we want to make "literary culture's mode of engagement with the life of the world" (Paulson, 2001, 76) more satisfactory, we must do more than just a casual modernization of the curriculum, as in teaching the film adaptation of literary classics; but instead go back to rethink the fundamental worth of the literary culture, what it can do, as well as its limitations in the real world today. That is why he suggested that on the one hand we have to admit that "grand syntheses and worldly interventions will often lie outside the scope of literary culture" (76), but on the other hand we should recognize its ability to help us understand and articulate the issues around us. He said,

> Without knowledge of what has been said in the past, without experience of how reading and writing can nurture thought and imagination, without a sense that the fictional and poetic are no less part of our technologies for encountering the real than any supercomputer, efforts to understand and act on the world will be poorer and more reductive than they need to be. (76)

Although the material world has changed a lot in the generations between the teachers and the learners today and even more between the Renaissance and the globalised 21[st] century, it is still a world inhabited by human beings, and thus the dreams and fears, desires and anxieties remain essentially human. Forty years ago, R. B. Perry defined the humanities as signifying "a certain condition of freedom" which "certain divisions of knowledge or parts of a scholastic curriculum", or "certain human institutions, activities and relationships" seek to create (Perry, 1969, p.4). These subjects, activities, or relationships should enable us to realize our human capacity to the full, and to further humanize us in the process of learning so that we can live up to the ideal of being human. Perry further pointed out that humanities today is different from its origin in the Renaissance only in the much increased number of people who can have access to it and not the nature and purpose of the learning. This expansion of the population who has access to humanistic learning only confirms its relevance to our world and not the opposite. More people can have access to such learning only means more people can have the chance to become more humane – which is a significant antidote to the complaint about the unfeeling and segregated world that we are living in today.

The inherent value of the humanities to any human being aside, even when considering a humanistic education from a "practical" perspective, its value to a person working in the new century is still not to be doubted. Daniel Pink argued in his book *A Whole New Mind: Why Right-brainers will Rule the Future* (2005) about a "seismic shift now under way in much of the advanced world", and urged a change of the mindset inherited from the previous century which appreciates left-brain competence. He claimed that:

> The future belongs to a very different kind of person with a very different kind of mind – creators and empathizers, pattern recognizers, and meaning makers. These people – artists, inventors, designers, storytellers, caregivers, consolers, big picture thinkers – will now reap society's richest rewards and share its greatest joys. (Pink, 1)

He observed that globalization ships a lot of the work of the "knowledge worker" to previously third-world countries, at the same time when technologies have helped to eliminate certain kinds of work, resulting in major labour redistribution. The world has evolved into a new stage which requires new qualities to sustain and move forward, thus the approach to training workers need to be changed in order to meet the new demands coming from a new world. These "new qualities" may be very different from what was perceived in the previous century as important qualities, but they are certainly not qualities newly appearing in the human world. In fact, those qualities mentioned by Pink are very similar to those possessed by the ideal humanized being who have received a humanities education as defined by Perry.

Seeing that training in the humanities is a fundamental humanizing process to us all, the following presentation will attempt to illustrate how a text from popular culture, in this case Japanese writer Yumemakura's *Onmyoji* narrative series, can be called upon to facilitate Humanities learning for Hong Kong young people. Although the narrative series have been translated into many different languages, in this presentation I am referring to the Taiwan-published Chinese translations of the fiction and the manga, as they have both enjoyed enormous popularity among Hong Kong young and adult readers. The choice of the Chinese translation is also a logical one considering the closeness and the historical interaction between the Chinese and the Japanese cultures. A lot of the Japanese beliefs and values mentioned in the *Onmyoji* narratives can find understanding and identification in the Chinese readers because of similar beliefs and values in the Chinese culture.

Yumemakura's *Onmyoji*: Some background information
Onmyoji in Chinese is literally the "yin yang master", referring to someone skilled in a traditional Japanese esoteric cosmology, onmyōdō, which is based on the Chinese philosophies of "wu xing" and "yin and yang". Since their introduction into Japan in the 6th century, this cosmology had been accepted as a practical system of divination. Over time, Taoism, Buddhism and Shintoism all played a part in the evolution of this originally Chinese philosophy, resulting in a uniquely Japanese system called onmyōdō. This was taken by the Japanese so seriously that the Japanese court had set up an individual office to be in charge of such matters and employed its own official yin yang masters. Abo no Seimei is the name of an official yin yang master serving the Japanese court during the Heian period (794-1192) and Yumemakura Baku uses him to be the main characer in his fiction series which contain adventures describing him dealing with beings not of this world but which cause problems to the living.

Yumemakura's *Onmyoji* narrative series started as short stories published in newspapers and literary magazines. In 1988 a number of these short stories were collected into the first volume of what is now known as *Onmyoji*, a collection of short stories with a couple of extended novel-length narratives using the same protagonists of Abe no Seimei and his aristocratic warrior friend Minamoto no Hiromasa. After the publication of the first few volumes, because of their popularity with readers of different age groups, a manga series was created with the collaboration of the author and comics artist Okano Reiko. In 2001, the first film adaptation of the fictions appeared, featuring the same main characters who engaged in a series of adventures taken from the various short stories. To date, 12 volumes of fiction, 13 volumes of manga, 2 films, and a TV miniseries have already come out of this series and all of the books have been translated into different languages and become an important element in Asian popular culture.

Besides Abe no Seimei, the main characters in *Onmyoji* include Minamoto no Hiromasa, an aristocratic warrior who is also a famed musician, and other important officials in the Japanese court then. Both Seimei and Hiromasa were historical figures of the Heian period, with Seimei recorded as being born in 921 and Hiromasa a few years his senior (918-980). In the context of ancient Japanese history, the Heian period is a relatively stable and peaceful period, allowing literary, cultural, and artistic interests to flourish and creating a glorious period of classical learning and culture. Many of the Japanese literary and cultural treasures were produced during this period, among which include *Genji Monogatari* [The Tale of Genji] of the early 11th century, believed to be written by Murasaki Shikibu, a female courtier, although some believe that it was the work of collective authorship. *The Tale of Genji* is the earliest epic fiction in Japan, not only does it start a whole new tradition, but to many it is among the greatest literary work ever written in world literature. The early 12th century *Konjaku Monogatari Shu* [Tales of Times Now Past], although unfinished, contains a vast variety of tales from different cultures and lands, and is the source of many of the best modern and contemporary Japanese literature. Yumemakura' *Onmyoji* stories also draw many of their basic plots and characters from it.

"A Biwa Called Genjou Is Stolen by an Oni": The original and rewritten versions

To make the presentation more focused, the following discussion will only take one story from the first collection as an example: "A Biwa ("pipa" in Chinese) Called Genjou Is Stolen by an Oni ("ghost" in Chinese)",[4] which is a rewriting of a short story of the same title from *Tales of Times Now Past*. The rewritten story keeps the basic story structure of the classical tale – a precious biwa called Genjou, which belonged to the emperor, was reported lost and one night Hiromasa heard music played by the biwa and he followed it. He found that Genjou was in the possession of a ghost and demanded its return. Although the precious biwa was successfully restored to the palace, it appeared to have acquired human emotions after its adventure outside the palace, and would variously sulk or remain silent depending on the skills of its player. In Yumemakura's *Onmoyji*, this basic story is expanded, and contains interesting details which not only give the characters more substance and the plot more development, but also render the story a more relevant piece of narrative to contemporary readers.[5] While I agree completely with Reider that this modernized and expanded version of the story probably holds an appeal to the Japanese readers because "the humanization of *oni* portrayed in Onmyoji is a reflection and expression of contemporary Japanese feelings about, and attitudes towards, themselves – and by extension the uncertainty of their lives" (Reider, 119), the fact that these stories enjoy such popularity in societies other than Japan indicates that they embody values, attitudes, and descriptions of life conditions which have a much wider appeal. The appearance and success of the manga version further confirms the ability of the rewritten story to transgress cultural, age, and gender boundaries.

In Yumemakura's expanded version, Hiromasa came to pay Seimei a visit, having heard that he had just returned from a month-long trip to faraway monasteries, obviously intending to share with him some news from court. Hiromasa waited outside Seimei's house, wondering if he was in, and as usual, remarking on the unkempt condition of the courtyard. Immediately he was invited into the house by an attractive young lady coming out of nowhere, but who was really a shikigami[6] controlled by Seimei. Hiromasa asked Seimei about his trip and was told that Seimei went all the way to the monks to discuss the issue of the "zhu" ("spell" in Chinese). In return, Hiromasa told Seimei that about 10 days ago Mibu no Tadami[7] committed suicide after a long period of depression resulting from a defeat in the waka competition in the palace. Since then there had been reports of his ghost haunting the palace, still reciting his poem which failed him in the competition. Although this was an intriguing incident, Seimei knew that was not the reason for Hiromasa's visit, and urged him to move on to the main reason for his visit.

Five days ago, the precious biwa called Genjou was discovered stolen from the palace. No one knew who or when or why it was stolen. But two nights before his visit, while Hiromasa was on duty in the palace, he heard music played by the biwa and traced the source of the music to outside the palace where it stopped. It was not only the familiar sound of the biwa that attracted him, but also the mysterious and profound music piece which was played. It reminded him of the music that he waited outside the dwellings of a monk everyday for three years just to have a chance to hear. The next night he heard the music again and again he followed the music to the city walls. This time a human eye dropped from above and he was scared that whoever got the biwa would destroy the precious instrument, so he came back and invited Seimei to go with him. Seimei agreed, and they brought along the monk-musician whose music Hiromasa was reminded of. They followed the music and this time

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[4] About the potential meanings of "oni" in the Japanese culture, Noriko Reider in the paper "Onmyoji: Sex, Pathos, and Grotesquery in Yumemakura Baku's *Oni*" has given a clear and comprehensible explanation. As the focus of the present discussion is not about the complexities of the concept of oni in the Japanese culture, and also because the Chinese translation is being used as the basis of reference in this paper, a relatively simple concept of "ghost" or "spirit" will be taken as the central meaning of the Japanese word "oni" which is translated as the Chinese character "ghost" [鬼]. Ghost here will be referring to the spirit of a human being left behind in the human world after the person's death if the person does not die naturally, or still has some unfinished business that he or she wants completed.

[5] Reider has discussed the modern pathos of Yumemakura's version of the Seimei stories in the article "Onmyoji: Sex, Pathos, and Grotesquery in Yumemakura Baku's *Oni*", but it was specifically geared towards a discussion of contemporary Japanese attitudes and values. Here in this discussion, the implication of the stories, both in their fiction version and the manga version, is considered in a wider perspective to include different groups of Chinese readership.

[6] Shikigami refers to spirit summoned to serve a practitioner of *onmyōdō*. It was believed that these spirits could not be seen by ordinary people, but they could also be made to appear in various shapes and forms under the command of the onmyoji. Abe no Seimei was believed to be particularly skilled at manipulating shikigami, and in Yumemakura's narratives, Seimei even had them performing odd jobs around the house.

[7] Mibu no Tadami was a Japanese nobleman and a famous waka poet during the Heian period. His poems were collected in several imperial poetry anthologies and he was highly considered at his time.

the mysterious player spoke to them in a foreign language. Seimei was able to converse with him and found that he was a musician from India, and had settled in China for a time before travelling to Japan and staying to work as a biwa maker. He was killed by burglars and his spirit wandered around, yearning for his home country. He wandered to the palace and saw a maid who looked very much like his wife, but instead of abducting her he took the biwa Genjou, which was one of his creations, to relieve his yearning. Now that Seimei wanted the biwa back, he wanted to spend a night with the girl in exchange. Seimei agreed. So they brought the girl the following night to get the biwa. Everything went well, and the biwa was handed back, except that the girl was armed and the foreign spirit felt betrayed. He killed the girl and threatened to eat Seimei and Hiromasa. Hiromasa was paralyzed by the foreign spirit but Seimei was able to overpower the foreign spirit and coax it into attaching itself to the biwa instead. Genjou was finally restored to the palace although it was felt to have acquired human emotions and would vent its discontent when its player was not professional enough.

Using *Onmyoji* in the classroom: The partners in detection
One of the first things that are noticed in reading the *onmyoji* stories is the Seimei-Hiromasa pair as a contemporary rendition of the Holmes-Watson partnership (Moro, 323) with a cultural and supernatural twist. A typical story in the series will have Seimei expecting a visit (because of his magical power) from his friend Hiromasa, to share with him a piece of news from the court, or a problem that someone has put into the hands of this kind gentleman. The two will engage in small talk, and then Hiromasa will present his problem and enlist Seimei's help. Seimei will usually say yes and invite Hiromasa to join him in his investigation, which unfailingly ends with the problem solved and Seimei commenting on human nature and some inevitable problems caused by such nature. The Seimei-Hiromasa partnership in detection and the overall detective-mystery format that the narratives adopt make them attractive to young people because they remind them of famous detective fictions and at the same time offer a very interesting variation of that popular genre. A classroom experience of discussing the *Onmyoji* stories with Sherlock Holmes stories in the background makes meaningful comparisons which can enhance understanding of the literary texts as well as their relevance to our life.

The "detective" figure
Although strictly speaking Seimei is not a detective in the sense that Sherlock Holmes is one, he investigates and he always leads both Hiromasa and the readers to the truth. A comparison with Sherlock Holmes, arguably the prototype of the detective figure in this genre, can yield interesting results concerning this individual in the following aspects:

- Seimei shares with Holmes a link to official authority and yet somehow subverting it – Holmes is a former policeman in Scotland Yard although he has left to start a private practice. Seimei is an important official onmyoji and he serves the Emperor and his court. But he is totally unconventional and does not act according to the accepted mode of behaviour. In the stories, he keeps referring to the Emperor as "that man" (much to Hiromasa's frustration) and he is seen to be playful even in the most serious moments. In accepting Hiromasa's invitation to meet the mysterious player of the music, he even brings with him wine despite the potential danger involved, for he sees the trip as a chance to appreciate good and profound music!
- Holmes sees detection as an art of its own and will resort to the most unusual methods to find out the truth – disguise, spying, lying, threats, tricks, even unlawful behaviour. Holmes is something of a bohemian, a musician and a drug user. Seimei's method of handling trouble is also highly unconventional, besides pretence, lying and tricks, he also cast spells and use his magic to manipulate people. In the story of the biwa, he lied to the Indian ghost about his real name so that the spirit could not control him when he found he was betrayed. After releasing the Indian spirit from it host, he persuaded the spirit to enter the biwa which would be restored to the palace. This can be risky for he is introducing a ghost into the palace, but it in turn gives an extra dimension of humanity to the already well-made biwa, making it an even more profound instrument.
- Both Seimei and Holmes are good readers of the world around us and their investigation very often succeed because of their profound understanding of the parties involved in the cases. While the Holmes stories put a lot of emphasis on clever and logical interpretation of material evidence, Seimei draws attention to the emotional and psychological reactions of parties involved.
- While Holmes is described as an exceptional individual because of his disregard for conventional behaviour, the Seimei character is made into an even more extreme individual. In the manga version of the biwa story, even his human identity was called into doubt. There were rumours that his mother was a white fox, making him half-human and half-fox. This feature, together

with the highly androgynous appearance (readers' attention is repeatedly drawn to his pale complexion, red lips and long fingers in the fiction) he is given in the manga version, makes him the ultimate individual character who is perpetually an outsider. This aloneness becomes a personal style, an indication of his exceptional power, but also appeals to contemporary readers because it is also an aspect of contemporary life.

The detective side-kick – the gentleman and our point of identification
One of the major differences between the two detective partnerships is the role of the side-kick. Watson is the "narrator" of the Holmes adventures because he faithfully records all the adventures he has with Holmes, and very often he shares his personal comments on the cases with the readers too. Hiromasa, on the other hand, is as much a character in the story as Seimei, known to us through the voice of the writer Yumemakura. But apart from this major difference, Watson and Hiromasa have very similar symbolic meaning in the context of the stories.

- Both Watson and Hiromasa are down to earth, approachable and kind. They are the point of identification for the readers because they are humanly fallible – both are rather naïve concerning human nature, especially towards ladies. Hiromasa's obsession with good music is also a weakness that can put him in danger. He stood outside the monk's dwellings to wait for a chance to hear the legendary secret music everyday for three years, and he followed the sound of Genjou to come face to face with the Indian ghost.

- But they are also exemplary "gentlemen" in their own societies. Watson is a professional doctor, he has served in the army, loyal to his friend, and is willing to take up arms and fight when there is a need. Hiromasa also embodies all the best qualities that a gentleman in the age of classical Japan requires: courage, loyalty to the court, gentlemanly knowledge about music and poetry, civility to everyone asking for his help, and honesty. To top it all, he is the grandson of the emperor and thus literally of noble blood. A comparison of these two gentlemanly figure can reflect the expectations of the Victorian England and Heian Japan towards gentleman behaviour.

The narratives as the unconscious
Although the nature of the problems they deal with are very different, with Holmes-Watson investigating crimes (murders and thefts) and Seimei-Hiromasa trying to unfold mysteries crossing the realm of the spiritual, their adventures happen around human beings and reveal much about the human world.

- The investigation in both narratives comes down to a close reading of the material world and the human subjects involved. Holmes emphasizes attention to details, including both material details and emotional details exhibited in the human subjects. Seimei's approach to these mysteries is always informed by the human emotions and desires of the parties involved. The person who stole the biwa from the palace and played it for all to hear must have something to say; the ghost longing for his home country wished for a permanent place to settle; and the failed poet whose poem did not win the prize only wanted to claim a name for his prided work. Seimei's success in all the cases is a complete revelation of the story of human desires and emotions hidden in the background.

- The basic pattern of the detective fiction creates a layered structure for the reading of the stories. The crimes in the Victorian stories and the mysteries in the contemporary Japanese stories are both the manifest symptoms of problems hidden below the surface. While the Victorian crimes reveal the hidden greed, desires, hatred, and insecurity buried in the minds of the criminals, the spiritual trouble-makers are very often revealed to be the deeply buried anxieties and fears of the living world. In this sense, the mysteries is actually a creative articulation of the repressed problems troubling our world. Presenting the stories is drawing our attention to them, and hopefully handling them to eliminate the anxieties.

The role of language
Detective fiction is a genre that relies particularly on special qualities of language for plot development and the construction of the investigation. At the simplest level, interrogation is a scenario of the investigator trying to using clever questions to trick the suspects into revealing the truth, whereas the suspects will choose words or ways of representation to hide or mislead without resorting to lying. It is a battle fought in language.

- "The Speckled Band" is one of the more obvious Holmes stories where the key to solving the crime lies in the correct understanding of a word or a sentence. In the *Onmyoji* series, Seimei repeatedly discuss the concept of the "spell" with Hiromasa because he sees it as the key to understanding the human condition. In the biwa story, he refused to reveal his real name to the Indian spirit because he regarded a person's name as the world's shortest spell, which revelation

would put the person under the control of the name-caller. In the end of the story, Hiromasa was paralysed by the Indian spirit because it called his name and he responded. Refusing to yield his real name, Seimei was free and was able to overpower the spirit. Finally he even "cast a spell" by tenderly persuading the spirit to settle in the inanimate biwa for good, explaining that the most powerful spell in the world was the most tender words because people would comply.

- Elsewhere in other adventures Seimei demonstrates that the power of language comes from its capacity to create another world. Indeed language is a man-made system human beings create to refer to the physical world. The connection between this symbolic order and the touchable world is totally arbitrary, and the symbolic order can even exist outside the physical reality. Literature is the most obvious demonstration of this power of language to create a completely detached and independent world.

Narratives as historical texts

The Victorian age gives birth to a tradition of detective fiction because of a culmination of historical, cultural and social factors. Although the Victorian period is now remembered fondly by many as one of the most glorious periods in British history, a more careful examination of the period will reveal economic and political problems at various points in the long period. Migration to the urban areas for jobs creates the Metropolitan as we know it today: overcrowded, impersonal, highly nervous, and insecure. The human identity assumes a new meaning and faces challenges never encountered before in this place of high crime rate. The detective fiction in a way reports the horrendous crimes found in the city but also describes a general hope in the figure of the intelligent detective who can always find out the truth. Sherlock Holmes is one of the most famous icons coming out of the Victorian period just as Jack the Ripper is the symbol of the intense terror felt by the mass living in the Victorian society. Thus detective stories to a certain extent serve as a historical document of the Victorian period: surveillance and policing, the transgressive detective image, protocols of behavior, gender relations, crime and justice, etc. are all discussed in the creative texts, just as the workings of one's unconscious can be gleaned from a study of his dreams.

In this sense, the *Onmyoji* stories are more interesting because they are a revisiting of classical Japan. Using historical figures and even events from the Heian period, the modernized version embodies not only facts from an important period of Japanese history, but also contemporary understanding and attitudes towards this past. Yumemakura starts the series by commenting on the "darkness" of the period, where human beings share the same living space with the spirits, and where spirits have the power to cause disruption to human affairs. The emphasis on this murky spiritual atmosphere and the co-existence of the spiritual world and the human world in the fictional text is not only an enhancement of the historical setting, but also an allusion to the intense insecurity that contemporary 21st century people are feeling again at the cusp of new times. We may not believe that ghosts are parading on the streets ("Hyakki Yako"[8] in Japanese, "Night Parade of One Hundred Demons" in Chinese), but we certainly feel akin to the characters in the stories when Seimei explains to them that the ghosts are just manifested symptoms of their repressed desires and illness inside. In other words, the ghosts in the Heian stories are symbols of our internal turmoil, and seeing them relieved, dissolved, and liberated has a therapeutic value for contemporary readers.

Conclusion

The above presentation is an attempt to illustrate how texts taken from the popular culture can be used in the humanities classroom to create a meaningful learning experience for young people today. Although the 21st century globalized world has changed many aspects of our life, such as the mode of communication, our sense of values, human relationships, and even habits of reading and understanding, the core value of a humanities education is still valid to the human beings and the world today. To facilitate the teaching and learning of the humanities in such a changed material environment, materials that appeal to the young learners can be useful because they are part of the youth's culture and embody ideas and beliefs that young people can identify with. From the above discussion using Yumemakura's reinvention of the classical onmyoji stories as an example, it can be seen that this series of Japanese narratives can have a meaningful interaction with Hong Kong readers through a comparative reading of the Japanese stories with detective fiction and a cultural comparison

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8 "Hyakki Yako" was a Japanese folk belief. It was said that the Japanese supernatural beings will group together and walk the streets during summer nights. Anyone who comes across the procession will die, unless protected by some Buddhist sutra. In a way this is very similar to the Chinese ghost festival in the 7th month of the Lunar Calendar. It is believed that every year on the 14th day of the 7th month (also the summer time), the gate of the underworld will be opened, and the ghosts will come to the living world. People usually avoid staying on the street until late on this day for fear of bumping into ghosts.

of the similar features in the Chinese and Japanese culture. Yumemakura's stories creatively articulate the contemporary world and the issues surrounding us through the resolution of personal problems faced by characters in the stories. In other words, the author, true to his namesake ("Baku" refers to a mythical animal which eats up nightmares), has presented us with imaginary narratives that dissolve our repressions as we follow them to their conclusions.

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Hong Kong Preschool Teacher's Perspectives of Using Portfolio to Assess Young Children's Learning and Development

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Abstract
Portfolio assessment is a collection of children's work and classroom from a variety of sources to document and monitor the individual learning progress in terms of their growth, progress, and effort over time (Hanson, & Gilkerson, 1999; Losardo & Notari-Syverson, 2001). It utilizes many traditional assessment strategies for monitoring progress regularly and offers a systematic procedure for information collection in an extended period of time (Appl, 2000).

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate the capability of Hong Kong preschool teachers in using the portfolio to assess young children in all six developmental domains which are emotion, social, language, arts, physical, and technology and science. Regarding to the quantitative data, a total of 37 teachers from three preschools responded in the five-point Likert Scale questionnaire ranging from 'very satisfy', 'satisfy', 'average', 'unsatisfy' and 'very unsatisfy'; and 'very able to', 'able to', 'partly', 'not able to' and 'not very able to'. In order to enhance the reliability of the study, nine of the 37 preschool teachers were interviewed to collect their perspectives of using portfolio assessment. The findings revealed that the satisfactory level of teachers using the portfolio and how they reviewed the preschool curriculum and teaching methods with the documentation from portfolio. In addition, the teachers indicated that the portfolio enhanced the parents-teachers communication to maximize the benefits of learning and development of young children.

Keywords: Children portfolio, children assessment, early childhood education

Elementary school teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development and their Internet self-efficacy

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to explore the relationships between teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development and their Internet self-efficacy. By gathering questionnaire data from 484 elementary school teachers, this study indicated that the teachers' Internet self-efficacy and their motivation toward web-based professional development were significantly positively correlated with each other. The results probably suggest that educators should try to find some effective ways to improve teachers' Internet-related capabilities in the Internet-based environments.

Keywords: motivation; web-based professional development; Internet self-efficacy

1. Introduction

In the past, the role of an individual's motivation on his/her learning has been highlighted by many educators and researchers (Kauffman, 2004; Rau, Gao, & Wu, 2008). In particular, it has been revealed that motivation bears a reciprocal relation to learning and performance; that is, motivation influences learning and performance, and, on the other hand, what learners do and learn also influences their motivation (Morris, Finnegan & Wu, 2005; Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2008). Recently, some pioneering studies have also focused on how learners' motivation is related to their learning outcome and learning experience in Internet-based learning environments (Artino, 2008; Saadé, He & Kira, 2007).

For teachers, their professional development is crucial for the improvement of their teaching practice. Loughran (2007) has proposed that teachers should view themselves as learners in their professional development. Recently, teachers have more opportunities to learn and advance their professional development on the Internet. However, while teachers have more opportunities to learn and advance their professional development on the Internet, studies about the nature of teachers' web-based learning have not kept pace with their usage of the web-based learning (Kao & Tsai, 2009). Similar to the important role of student's motivation in their Internet-based learning, teachers' motivation may also play a significant role on their web-based professional development. In other words, teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development can be an important issue for investigating. However, still little research addressed the aforementioned issue. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate elementary school teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development.

In addition, what are the important factors influencing teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development may be another essential research issue. "Self-efficacy" refers to an individual's beliefs and expectations in his/her capability to perform a task (Bandura, 1996). In motivation research paradigms, it has been revealed that individuals' motivation is influenced by his/her self-efficacy in conventional learning contexts (Fives & Buehl, 2008; Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2008). Recently, learners' "Internet self-efficacy", which refers to their self-perceived confidence and expectation of using the Internet, has been highlighted (Huang & Liaw, 2007). Similar to the findings derived from the aforementioned research conducted in conventional learning environments, it is plausible to hypothesize that teachers' Internet self-efficacy may affect their motivation toward web-based professional development. To examine this perspective, this study examined the relationship between teachers' Internet self-efficacy and motivation toward web-based professional development.

In sum, the major purpose of this study was to probe teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development. To this end, a new questionnaire for assessing teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development was developed in this study. In addition, teachers' Internet self-efficacy was also examined. Then, the possibility of using teachers' Internet self-efficacy in predicting

their motivation toward web-based professional development was examined. By gathering questionnaire responses from 484 in elementary school teachers in Taiwan, this study addressed the following questions:

1. What motivation toward web-based professional development do the elementary school teachers have?
2. Will the teachers' background characteristics, such as gender and age, make any difference to their motivation toward web-based professional development?
3. What are the relationships between the teachers' Internet self-efficacy and their motivation toward web-based professional development?

2. Method

2.1 Sample

According to the statistical data from Minister of Education (2008), the numbers of female teachers were more than male teachers in Taiwan. The participants of this study were randomly selected from 30 elementary schools in north region of Taiwan. The final sample included 484 Taiwanese elementary school teachers of which 151 (31.2%) were male and the remaining 333 (68.8%) were female. Among these teachers, 109 (22.5%) were less than 30-years-old, 217 (44.8%) were 31-40 years-old, 158 (32.7%) were more than 41-years-old.

2.2 Instruments

To assess the teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development, Internet self-efficacy, two instruments were implemented in this study.

The Motivation toward Web-based Professional Development Survey (MWPD) administered in this study was developed on the basis of some relevant studies (e.g., Boshier, 1991; Mulenga & Liang, 2008). As a result, the initial pool of items in the survey included a total of 36 items, which were presented by using a seven-point Likert mode (ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 7, "strongly agree"). Six scales were designed for MWPD. The details of the six scales are as follows:

1. Personal interest: People who score high on this scale participate in web-based professional development for its own interest. That is, they care about the inherent joy of web-based professional development that impels their participation. A sample item of this scale is "I learn for the joy of it while participating in web-based professional development".
2. Occupational promotion: People who score high on this scale participate in web-based professional development mainly because of maintaining current job or getting a new job. That is, web-based professional development is a way to advance professionally. A sample item of this scale is "I participate in web-based professional development for getting a better job".
3. External expectation: People who score high on this scale participate in web-based professional development because of the expectation from someone at work. A sample item of this scale is "I participate in web-based professional development to be influenced by colleagues' encouragement".
4. Practical enhancement: People who score high on this scale are committed to "doing good" in education. That is, they think web-based professional development helps them do good work in education. A sample item of this scale is "I participate in web-based professional development to help me acquire better instructional ways for students".
5. Social contact: People who score high on this scale participate in web-based professional development because of the joy of interacting with others. A sample item of this scale is "I participate in web-based professional development to make more friends with the same interest".
6. Social stimulation: People who score high on this scale are usually lonely or bored in regular life or teaching and they participate in web-based professional development to meet others and to grapple with problems in their social life. A sample item of this scale is "I participate in web-based professional development to take break from routines".

The second instrument of this study, the Internet Self-efficacy Survey (ISS), was implemented from Kao and Tsai's (2009). They proposed two factors of Internet self-efficacy, including a total of 16 items presented with bipolar strongly confident/strongly unconfident statements on a seven-point Likert scale. The details of the two scales are as follows:

1. Basic self-efficacy scale: measuring teachers' perceived confidence at a basic level of using the Internet, such as using Internet-related tools. That is, the higher the scores, the better basic self-efficacy toward the Internet. A sample item of this scale is "I feel confident of printing the content of a Website."

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2. Advanced self-efficacy scale: assessing teachers' perceived confidence and self-expectations of Internet-based interaction or advanced usages of the Internet. In other words, the higher the scores, the more perceived confidence about advanced usage of the Internet. A sample item of this scale is "I feel confident of playing online games on the Internet."

2.3 Data analysis

To fulfill the main purposes of this study, factor analysis, correlation and ANOVA were conducted as the statistical methods in this study. The factor analysis was utilized to reveal the scales of the instruments on the teachers' MWPD. In addition, this study also gathered teachers' information about gender and age. By t-tests, gender differences on teachers' MWPD were analyzed. Also, the scales were examined via analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyze age differences. Moreover, correlation analysis was utilized to examine the relationship between teachers' Internet self-efficacy (ISS) and their motivation toward web-based professional development (MWPD).

3. Results

3.1 Factor analysis

Through the factor analysis, the final version of the MWPD consisted of 29 items with six scales. The reliability coefficients for the scales respectively were 0.91 (personal interest, 5 items), 0.84 (occupational promotion, 4 items), 0.89 (external expectation, 6 items), 0.90 (practical enhancement, 5 items), 0.91 (social contact, 5 items) and 0.90 (social stimulation, 4 items). The factor loadings for the retained items are shown in Table 1. The alpha value of the whole MWPD questionnaire is 0.94 and these scales explained 75.39% of variance totally. Therefore, these scales were deemed to be sufficiently reliable for assessing teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development.

Table 1. Rotated factor loadings and Cronbach alpha values for MWPD scales

Scale	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Factor 1: External expectation, α=0.893, mean=4.79, S.D.=1.27						
Expectation 1	0.820					
Expectation 2	0.821					
Expectation 3	0.611					
Expectation 4	0.852					
Expectation 5	0.682					
Expectation 6	0.682					
Factor 2: Personal interest, α=0.905, mean=6.02, S.D.=0.74						
Personal 1		0.804				
Personal 2		0.896				
Personal 3		0.674				
Personal 4		0.847				
Personal 5		0.832				
Factor 3: Social contact, α=0.905, mean=5.43, S.D.=1.09						
Social 1			0.771			
Social 2			0.814			
Social 3			0.767			
Social 4			0.649			
Social 5			0.666			
Factor 4: Practical enhancement, α=0.902, mean=5.78, S.D.=0.89						
Practical 1				0.558		
Practical 2				0.613		
Practical 3				0.837		
Practical 4				0.770		
Practical 5				0.795		
Factor 5: Occupational promotion, α=0.841, mean=5.33, S.D.=1.15						
Occupational 1					0.780	
Occupational 2					0.689	
Occupational 3					0.859	

Occupational 4				0.668	
Factor 6: Social Stimulation, α=0.900, mean=5.47, S.D.=1.26					
Stimulation 1					0.696
Stimulation 2					0.782
Stimulation 3					0.678
Stimulation 4					0.617
Percentage of variance	41.22	10.69	8.73	7.13	4.01	3.61

Overall α=0.944. Total variance explained is 75.39%

3.2 Teachers' scores on the scales

For the MWPD as shown in Table 2, teachers' mean scores on six scales of MWPD were over 4 points on a seven-point scale. Teachers attained high scores on the personal interest scale (mean=6.02), the occupational promotion scale (mean=5.33), and the external expectation scale (mean=4.79), the practical enhancement scale (mean=5.78), the social contact scale (mean=5.43) and the social stimulation scale (mean=5.47). The results indicate that the teachers tend to base on personal interest for participating web-based professional development, advance their professional ability from using web-based professional development, serve in education from using web-based professional development, meet some friends demonstrate when using web-based professional development, and change their living style while using web-based professional development. But their relatively low score on the external expectation scale (with comparatively large standard deviations) still implies that some teachers express their personal willingness to participate web-based professional development.

Table 2. Teachers' scores on the scales of MWPD and ISS surveys

Scale	Mean	SD
Internet self-efficacy		
Basic	6.61	0.61
Advanced	5.64	1.40
Motivation toward web-based professional development		
Personal interest	6.02	0.74
Occupational promotion	5.33	1.15
External expectation	4.79	1.27
Practical enhancement	5.78	0.89
Social contact	5.43	1.09
Social stimulation	5.47	1.26

Table 2 also shows that the teachers' mean scores and the standard deviations on the ISS scales. The teachers had high scores on the two ISS scales, scoring over 5 points on the seven-point scale. On average, they attained higher scores on the basic self-efficacy scale (mean=6.61) than on the advanced self-efficacy scale (mean=5.64). This result implies that the teachers in this study tended to display high confidence and expectations of using the Internet for both basic and advanced purposes, but they had comparatively higher confidence and expectations of using the Internet for basic than for advanced purposes.

3.3 Background differences on MWPD scales

In this study, t-test and ANOVA tests were employed to examine the background differences such as gender and age on the MWPD scales. First, a series of t-tests were performed on the gender differences of teachers' mean scores for the MWPD. Among the variables examined in Table 3, no significant differences were found on the scales of teachers' motivation of participating web-based professional development between two genders.

Table 3. Gender comparisons of the scales of MWPD survey

Scale	Male (mean, SD)	Female (mean, SD)	t value
Motivation toward web-based professional development			
Personal interest	6.08(0.84)	5.99(0.69)	1.30(n.s.)
Occupational promotion	5.44(1.16)	5.29(1.14)	1.32(n.s.)
External expectation	4.64(1.30)	4.85(1.25)	-1.70(n.s.)
Practical enhancement	5.78(0.92)	5.78(0.89)	-0.01(n.s.)
Social contact	5.56(1.02)	5.37(1.12)	1.76(n.s.)
Social stimulation	5.46(1.32)	5.47(1.24)	-0.05(n.s.)

Moreover, in order to compare the possible differences derived from age, we categorized the teacher respondents into three major groups: <30 years, 31-40 years, and >41 years. The ANOVA tests, presented in Table 4, indicated that age did not show any significant differences in teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development. These findings suggested that teachers across different age groups tended to possess statistically similar motivation toward web-based professional development.

Table 4. Teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development among different age groups

Age Group	(1) Less than 30 years (mean, SD)	(2) 31-40 years (mean, SD)	(3) 41+ years (mean, SD)	F(ANOVA) Scheffe Test
Motivation toward web-based professional development				
Personal interest	6.06(0.74)	6.03(0.71)	5.97(0.78)	0.53(n.s.)
Occupational promotion	5.42(1.02)	5.36(1.10)	5.25(1.29)	0.75(n.s.)
External expectation	5.08(1.23)	4.69(1.32)	4.73(1.19)	3.83(n.s.)
Practical enhancement	5.80(0.90)	5.74(0.93)	5.85(0.82)	0.74(n.s.)
Social contact	5.52(0.96)	5.40(1.13)	5.42(1.13)	0.48(n.s.)
Social stimulation	5.59(1.17)	5.38(1.33)	5.51(1.22)	1.11(n.s.)

3.4 Correlation motivation toward web-based professional development and Internet self-efficacy

The Pearson correlation coefficients shown in Table 5 indicated that the scales of the MWPD and the ISS were significantly positively correlated with each other ($r>0.12$, $p <0.01$), except the result that no statistical correlation was found between ISS and external expectation. These results in general, supported that teachers expressing higher Internet self-efficacy would display stronger intention to learn for their own interest, to make occupational promotion, to enhance teaching practice, to make more social contact, to adapt social stimulation toward web-based professional development. In particular, teachers' responses on the occupational promotion, social contact and social stimulation scales were relatively more highly correlated with those on the advanced self-efficacy scale ($r=0.32$, $p <0.001$). This implied that higher advanced Internet self-efficacy may help the teachers attain higher motivation of web-based professional development particularly for promoting occupational status and creating social interactions.

Table 5. Correlation of the teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development, Internet self-efficacy and the beliefs about web-based learning

	Personal interest	Occupational promotion	External expectation	Practical enhancement	Social contact	Social stimulation
Basic self-efficacy	0.23***	0.12**	-0.06	0.12**	0.14**	0.12**
Advanced self-efficacy	0.19***	0.35***	0.11	0.24***	0.34***	0.32***

** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to explore elementary school teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development. To this end, a questionnaire to assess teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development (i.e., the MWPD) was developed in this study. The results showed that the MWPD developed in this study was sufficiently reliable to assess elementary school teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development.

Gender and age differences in motivational issues have always been highlighted by researchers (e.g., Chouinard, Karsenti & Roy, 2007; Meece, Glienke & Burg, 2006; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008). Conducted in conventional learning contexts, previous research concerning gender differences in motivation, in general, has shown that male students' had higher learning motivation than female students (Corpus & Lepper, 2007; Warburton & Spray, 2008). However, in this study, with the MWPD, no gender difference in teachers' motivation on web-based professional development was found. It seems that both male and female teachers perceived similar levels of motivation toward web-based professional development. In particular, as revealed by their high scores on MWPD, both male and female teachers may tend to view their personal interests and the enhancement of teaching practice as the major reasons to attend web-based professional development. In other words, many of them, either male or female teachers, were driven by their personal desire and the enrichment of instructional practice while participating in web-based professional development.

Besides, this study revealed that the teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development were not significantly different across ages. And the result is consistent with the perspective proposed by Mulenga and Liang (2008) that age had no significant on adult learners' motivation for distance education. It seemed that younger and older teachers expressed similar motivation toward web-based professional development.

This study also demonstrated that the teachers' Internet self-efficacy was positively correlated with their motivation toward web-based professional development. Teachers with higher Internet self-efficacy would express better motivation of personal interest, occupational promotion, practical enhancement, social contact and social stimulation for web-based professional development. It suggests that, to improve teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development, teachers' Internet self-efficacy should be highlighted.

In addition, researchers have proposed that the positive effects of training programs on learners' self-efficacy regarding the Internet (Lagana, 2008; Markauskaite, 2007). The results probably suggest that educators should try to find some effective ways to improve teachers' Internet-related capabilities and practicing relevant tools in the Internet-based environments. It may be practicable for educators to enhance teachers' Internet self-efficacy by utilizing useful training programs.

This study is quite helpful to facilitate the understanding of teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development. By using the MWPD questionnaire, educators and researchers can assess and review teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development in a more effective way, with possibly higher validity.

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Factors Affecting Kindergarten Learning and Teaching in Hong Kong:
A Multiple Case Study
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Introduction

Teachers internationally are faced with the challenge of implementing educational reforms and adopting new teaching approaches. Teachers in Hong Kong's pre-primary institutions are no exception. In addition to dealing with the new quality-assurance mechanism introduced by the government, they are also adopting new educational approaches to attain high-quality learning and teaching.

Some research suggests that pre-primary educational quality is closely related to teachers' educational and professional backgrounds (National Research Council, 2001; Oden, Schweinhart, & Weikart, 2000; Phillips, Mekos, Scarr, McCartney, & Abbott-Shim, 2000; Whitebook, Sakai, Gerber, & Howes, 2001). Teachers with higher levels of education have been shown to facilitate positive short- and long-term achievements in children (Kontos & Wilcox-Herzog, 2001). Documents published by the Hong Kong Education Commission (1998) demonstrate that quality teachers and effective school management are the prerequisites of quality education (Rao & Koong, 2000).

Whitebook (2003a) averred that professionalism among principals strengthens teachers' abilities, and positive reactions from parents instill confidence in those abilities. When teachers have greater confidence, they are more effective, and children are more likely to learn. Further, when teachers are more knowledgeable about the concepts and practice of pre-primary education, they use fewer traditional teaching methods. In fact, research suggests that teachers' academic and professional preparation is key to quality pre-primary education (Curriculum Development Institute, 1996, 2006; Rao, 2002; Rao & Koong, 2000, 2003).

Learning and Teaching in Hong Kong Kindergartens

The quality of Hong Kong's pre-primary education is primarily monitored by government authorities, who provide curriculum guidance and conduct annual inspections. The government began to promote Kindergarten Quality Assurance Inspections enthusiastically in 2000, when it established performance indicators for these institutions. Kindergartens have adopted different teaching approaches to raise their level of competitiveness and teaching quality, although many of them have adopted the Thematic Approach promoted in the 1984 Guide to the Kindergarten Curriculum. Others make use of the Project Approach, which is also very popular in Taiwan and mainland China, and puts emphasis on "how children learn" rather than "how teachers teach."

Although the Hong Kong Education Bureau's (EDB) 2005/06 quality-assurance inspection report indicated that, of the 35 kindergartens assessed, the majority were actively implementing new teaching approaches, then-Permanent Secretary of Education Fanny Law (2006) stated that half failed to understand the self-assessment concept being promoted by the government. In the 2006/07 report, the overall performance of 40% of the kindergartens was found to be unsatisfactory. Many of the schools were found to be overly reliant on traditional modes of teaching. Some were criticized for overly difficult and age-inappropriate curricula and a lack of teacher training and monitoring, and few allocated time for activities, such as music and physical exercise, that would support the all-round growth and development of children (EDB, 2007). Most of the institutions emphasize children's learning outcomes on the basis of academic achievement, which reflects difference in quality assessment standards in Chinese and Western education.

Influence of Teacher Beliefs and Training on Learning and Teaching

Many research studies have shown that teachers' knowledge, beliefs, values and interests affect the decisions they make about teaching programs and approaches and that their concepts of reality influence their professional thinking (Roopnarine and Johnson, 1993; Eisehart *et al.*, 1989; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Spodek, 1991). At the same time, teachers' qualifications have been found to be

strongly related to child outcomes, as teachers with more training have more time to interact with children and engage in more varied teaching activities (Ruopp *et al*., 1979). Abbott-Shim *et al*. (2002) demonstrated that teachers with a lower educational level held inappropriate beliefs, thus leading to inappropriate teaching approaches. Teacher training therefore has an indirect effect on educational quality through teacher beliefs. Western ideas on teacher training hold that highly qualified teachers create a high-quality classroom environment (DOE, 2004), and many curriculum advocates believe that the ability of a curriculum to exert a positive influence on children depends primarily on teachers' qualifications. Therefore, in recent years, increasing numbers of pre-primary education advocates, such as Barnett (2003), Barnett *et al*. (2005), the National Research Council (2001), and Trust for Early Education (2004), have requested that teachers of children aged three and four possess at least a Bachelor's degree with a major in pre-primary education. There is also some indication that Hong Kong's pre-primary educators are striving to upgrade teachers' qualifications, although at present the EDB only encourages principals to possess a Bachelor's degree.

In terms of international trends, a report by Early *et al*. (2006) shows that many public kindergartens have followed the suggestion that teachers gain higher-level qualifications. According to research from the National Institute for Early Education (Barnett *et al*., 2005), of the 38 U.S. states that have pre-primary programs, 17 of them require all kindergarten teachers to possess a Bachelor's degree, and 12 of them require at least some of their teachers to do so. Research indicates that there is a relationship between teacher qualifications and (i) classroom quality and (ii) children's learning outcomes (Burchinal *et al*., 2002; de Kruif *et al*., 2000; Howes *et al*., 1992; NICHD ECCRN, 2002b; Scarr *et al*., 1994). On the basis of this research, it appears that if the aim of an educational program is to improve children's learning outcomes, then improving teachers' qualifications seems a suitable starting point.

In the present qualitative study, the beliefs of teachers and principals with varying levels of qualifications at Hong Kong kindergartens of different degrees of quality were explored through interviews and document analysis. The training received by the principals and teachers involved is shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 1: Training Received by the Three Principals

School A Principal 1(P1)	School B Principal 2(P2)	School C Principal 3 (P3)
1987 QKT	1986 QKT	1988 QKT
1993 Higher Certificate	1992 Bachelor in Special Education (4 years full time)	2004 started CE training
2003 BEd	2005 CE	
2005 Started MEd	2005 Started BEd	

Table 2: Training Received by the Five Teachers

School A Teacher 1	School A Teacher 1a	School B Teacher 2	School B Teacher 2a	School C Teacher 3
1996 QKT (part-time)	2001 CE (One year full-time)	1997 Cert. in Pre-primary Education (One year full-time)	1997 QKT (part-time)	1992 QKT
2006 start CE training (part-time)	2004 start CE training (part-time)	2003 Higher Diploma (part-time)		

Methods

Data Collection Procedures

i)   Three principals and five teachers were interviewed (Appendices 1-2) to determine the teaching conditions, teacher beliefs, and factors affecting teaching, and the interviews were recorded and transcribed.

ii)　　Teacher beliefs were assessed using 25 statements about behavior, ranked on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (all of the time).

iii)　　Questionnaires (Appendix 3) were distributed to the teachers to obtain information about their teaching beliefs and the factors affecting their teaching.

iv)　　Classes covering the same theme, "the Green Lawn," were observed for three hours each day on three consecutive days in each school.

Participants

The participants were five kindergarten teachers (T1 and T1a from School A, T2 and T2a from School B, and T3 from School 3), the three principals of these schools (P1, P2, and P3), and 79 K2 students (aged 4-5).

<center>Results</center>

Questionnaires on Teacher Beliefs

The findings from the questionnaire show the beliefs of the teachers to be very similar, as can be seen from Table 3. The three items receiving the highest scores show that the teachers in all three schools agreed that learning should be fun, that children should learn through games, and that learning should match the individual needs of the child.

Table 3:　Teacher Beliefs in the Three Schools

	School A	School B	School C	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. All children are able to learn.	4.14	4.67	4.10	4.27	0.94
2 Children should be treated equally, as a matter of justice.	4.93	5.00	4.70	4.88	0.42
3. Activities should be systematically adjusted to accommodate children's needs and interests.	4.93	4.22	4.80	4.70	0.64
4 . Children should be given praise and recognition for what they have learned.	4.86	4.56	4.60	4.70	0.81
5. Children will be successful in exercises and problem-solving if they obtain adult help.	4.57	3.11	3.50	3.85	1.12
6. Children have the self-motivation to learn.	4.43	4.00	4.20	4.24	0.87
7. Teachers should impose an integrated early childhood curriculum, instead of a subject-divided curriculum.	4.23	4.22	4.33	4.26	0.86
8. Teachers should cultivate the inner aspirations of children and not enforce too many limitations and physical obstacles on them.	4.29	4.44	4.60	4.42	0.87
9. Teachers are guides and arrangers, not instructors, in the classroom.	4.29	3.44	4.20	4.03	1.13
10. Teachers should be responsible for both what is and isn't learnt by children in the classroom.	4.00	3.89	3.60	3.85	0.87
11. The curriculum should be chosen by the child, rather than imposed by the teacher.	3.50	3.89	3.60	3.64	0.90
12. Children should be respected as individuals who can decide and learn independently.	4.71	3.89	4.20	4.33	0.82
13. Learning should be fun.	4.93	4.22	4.90	4.73	0.80
14. Children learn best when their physical needs are satisfied and they feel safe.	4.71	4.38	4.00	4.41	0.84
15. Children learn through social interaction with other adults and other children.	4.71	4.67	4.60	4.67	0.78
16. Children are able to learn through play.	5.00	4.67	4.70	4.82	0.64
17. Children's interests and curiosity can be the motivation for their learning.	4.79	4.44	4.40	4.58	0.75
18.The curriculum should promote interactive learning and constructive knowledge.	4.71	4.56	4.67	4.66	0.70
19. Lessons should be meaningful for children	4.71	4.67	4.50	4.64	0.74
20. Lessons should be relevant to children's lives	4.71	4.33	4.50	4.55	0.87
21. Lessons should be of interest to the children and the teacher.	4.71	4.44	4.70	4.64	0.82
22. Lessons should be based on the current knowledge and ability of the children.	4.21	4.56	4.50	4.39	0.83
23. Lessons should encourage active learning and allow children to make meaningful choices.	4.57	4.67	4.50	4.58	0.75

24. Lessons should foster children's exploration and inquiry, rather than focusing on "right" answers and "right" ways to complete a task.	4.50	4.78	4.30	4.52	0.76
25. Lessons should promote the development of higher abilities, such as thinking, reasoning, problem-solving, and decision-making.	4.50	4.67	4.40	4.52	0.83

Interviews Results on Teacher Beliefs

In line with their answers to the questionnaire, the interviews with the teachers revealed that they all believed that children learn through play and that learning should be fun, with several of them stating that these are the goals of their classrooms. The teachers also emphasized encouragement and the provision of "warmth and love." However, the questionnaire indicated that only T1 and T2 were able to put their beliefs into practice. For example, the mean score of the three schools for the question "children learn through social interaction with adults and other children" was 4.67, with an SD of 0.78. T1's interview responses match this belief better than those of the other teachers:

> *The interaction among children and the teaching approach adopted by teachers are very important . . . . As we only have 19 children and 2 teachers, the teacher-student ratio is satisfactory, and we can frequently use interactive supervision.*

In discussing the curriculum, T1 highlighted that innovation is key:

> *I use concrete materials to stimulate children's senses, and it's easy to get them to participate in the learning. When children are interested in a topic, they will learn naturally. The use of concrete materials helps children to perceive abstract concepts easily.*

> *I think that the experience of children consists of what they have done, including their success and failure. It is very important for children to acquire problem-solving ability through settling things by themselves during group activities.*

T1 also talked about the importance of incorporating Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) into her curriculum, and spoke of the importance of free play in pre-primary education because "that's how they [children] learn, through play." She also emphasized that play is important in the socialization process. When asked why she had chosen a family role play game for a certain topic, her answer was "Because the children like that!" This is indeed vital: children's interest is the key point of consideration, and teachers should therefore respect children's personal interests.

The interview with T2 also indicated that she managed to put the beliefs she indicated in the questionnaire into practice in the classroom. For example, in response to the question, "You should compliment and recognize the outcomes of children's learning," she agreed:

> *If the children have done something good, then we should praise them, as it can encourage them to improve . . . .*

T2 also stated that her school has adopted the Project Approach, which she believes allows her to better cater to children's individual needs. This approach also allows her to ask the children questions rather than telling them answers and facilitates the incorporation of activities that actively engage the children more effectively than traditional approaches. She explained:

> *As children are not robots, their learning speeds are different. The children with lower learning abilities are given some extra help. This enables them to catch up with their peers in the learning process. In this way, children can learn together and this is the aim of education.*

> *[In] project learning, I focus on asking children questions, instead of telling them the answers. This method is more open to feedback from children.*

> Children are assigned different roles. Some of them are responsible for designing, whereas others are responsible for making teaching materials. Also, after the group work, we go out and sing. Children have to alternate between musical instruments during the activities.

The classroom observations in Schools A and B support the assertions of these teachers that they are putting their beliefs into practice in the classroom. However, it is clear that teachers' stated beliefs are sometimes in conflict with their practice. For instance, T3 said she believes that children should learn through play, but in practice the activities she arranged were very boring. She offered the following explanation.

> We barely have time to teach and explain in the lesson . . . When we find that children are interested in a topic, we further elaborate our teaching on that topic.

> How can we put all the content of a textbook into our curriculum? Sometimes, we may supplement certain additional content in our teaching. However, we don't have enough time to teach, as there are so many holidays over the year.

Further, although T3 stated that she believes small-group teaching to be more effective, in practice she teaches using the whole-group mode. She considers herself to fulfill the role of "teacher" most of the time, and believes instruction to be very important:

> The children are still young; they will mess things up if they have only been provided with direction but no instruction. For example, when they are told to line up, they tend to fall over one another, huddle together, and complain about each other.

It was observed that T3 did not convey a sense of enthusiasm in carrying out her tasks. Nor did she adjust to the behavior of individual children, which is important in effectively communicating with young children.

Principals' Beliefs about Learning and Teaching

In the interviews, both P1 and P2 elaborated on their teaching beliefs, with P1 emphasizing that she takes a firm stand on the teaching beliefs that should be put into practice. She said:

> The EDB appreciates our insistence on our teaching beliefs, as we do not follow trends aimlessly. This insistence allows us to take a diversified thematic approach that involves children, parents, and teachers.

P1 has led her school, School A, in implementing the Thematic Approach and reminds the teachers not only to teach the children to read, write, and calculate, but also to let them play wholeheartedly and freely and try to reach their teaching targets through games. An important component of the Thematic Approach is the establishment of "learning corners," and P1 asks the teachers to supplement the materials in these corners frequently, thus enabling children to learn from them. Teachers are encouraged to gradually reduce the amount of direct teaching they do and increase the time the children spend in these corners.

P1 is certain that corner learning cultivates and integrates children's abilities and can satisfy children's demand for wide and deep learning. She stated that a well designed and richly arranged corner can provide children with basic and balanced learning. P1 believes that children's experience and interaction with one another and the teaching approach adopted by the teachers are both very important.

The interview with P2 focused on better understanding the reasons for the improvement in teaching performance, as assessed by the EDB, that has been realized in her school, School B. She thought the two main reasons for the improvement were the implementation and promotion of professional and school-based training and greater parental involvement. To improve management and organization, the school has established working plans, carried out self-evaluations, and arranged more training for teachers. P2 believes in the importance of continuing improvement and professional knowledge, and so she began studying for a Bachelor of Education (Early Childhood Education) (BEd (ECE)). She has also arranged for the teachers to visit local and foreign schools to learn more about the methods of the Project Approach, which the kindergarten has adopted, and has held related seminars for the teachers. She also emphasizes class observation and encourages the teachers to further their own education.

In line with the tenets of the Project Approach, P2 regularly visits the parents to discuss their children's learning and invites them to participate in project activities each month. Through these endeavors, many of the parents have gradually accepted the school's new teaching and learning approach.

The interview with P3, in contrast, highlighted some of the difficulties already witnessed in the interview with T3 from the same school, School C. When asked about her view of DAP, she admitted that she did not know what it was. This answer was somewhat surprising, as it is now one of the fundamental theories of pre-primary education, but it serves to explicate the aforementioned gap between teaching beliefs and practice in this school, as well as why its teachers tend to stick to traditional teaching methods.

Classroom Observation
In general, the teachers in the three schools hold similar beliefs (Table 3). In the questionnaire, the teachers from School C stated that they believed children should learn from games and should have a happy learning experience. However, their practice did not reflect this. T3 said she believes that she needs to use concrete materials to teach, but she did not actually do so. This does not mean that she does not hold this belief, merely that she could not actualize it. Alternatively, it may be that what she said did not reflect what she actually believes.

Of the three teachers, T1 and T2 showed some consistency between words and behavior, whereas T3 showed varying degrees of contradiction between theory and practice in all of the classroom observations. T1 and T2 spoke of the importance of professional development, of being lifelong learners, and stated that this was part of their career path as teachers. However, there was a difference between their stated beliefs and their classroom practices. Li (2004) noted that kindergarten teachers in Hong Kong who have received in-service training are often criticized for being unable to put theories into practice. She said she believe that teachers in pre-primary education place too much emphasis on teaching and discipline during lessons and that they neglect learning, which should be seen as integral.

In the nine lessons that the researcher observed in the current study, all three teachers used whole-class teaching much of the time. The other common activity witnessed was that they put the children into small groups to finish tasks. During the whole-class teaching, children could ask or answer questions only upon the teacher's instruction or approval. However, T1 and T2 did put more emphasis on encouraging children to cooperate with their peers when they carried out the tasks in groups.

T2 put more effort into preparing the teaching materials than did T3, and used authentic objects, posters, and picture cards. She also provided a greater variety of materials. Whereas T3 mostly used pictures from the textbook, for example, T2 used pictures from other sources, such as magazines and self-prepared materials. T2 said she believes that using authentic objects motivates children, and she claimed to have evidence of this from the children's responses, which further supported and consolidated her belief. According to the personal belief system of Kindsvatter *et al.* (1998), this implies that T2 constantly examined her professional belief as an on-going procedure.

At the time of the study, School C had no visual displays, and the researcher witnessed virtually no dramatic play or constructions centered on the topic being studied. The classroom environment was very teacher-directed, with limited learner autonomy. T3 demonstrated the greatest dissonance between belief and practice in the areas of teacher control and classroom management. Not only did teacher-directed activities predominate in all of the classroom observations, but the teacher-child interaction was inappropriate.

It was observed throughout the lessons that T3 failed to put her beliefs into practice. She frequently asked open questions and always read directly from the textbook, and she urged the children to memorize by repeating what she told them. These examples show that T3's purported belief that "children learn through play" did not inform her practice. Another problem was that not all of the children performed the tasks cooperatively, and many did not do them as expected. T3 played the role of knowledge transmitter, and failed to provide opportunities for the children to learn through exploration and inquiry. As it was also her belief that children need to practice more to learn, she gave them additional exercises to do. T3 stated that if she did not bring authentic objects to use as teaching materials during class, then the children might be bored. However, she failed to bring any such objects to class during the lessons observed.

All in all, the evidence from the nine observed lessons reveals that T3 did not use the same teaching approach as the teachers from the other two schools. Her belief statements indicated a superficially stronger commitment to appropriate practice than did her actual behavior in the classroom, which leaned more toward a traditional or didactic approach to the curriculum. Much of what T3 discussed as being important and relevant, or what she ranked as being extremely important in the beliefs questionnaire, was contradicted by what was actually observed in her classroom.

Discussion

The results of the interviews show that the teachers in all three schools have "ideal" teaching beliefs, in that they hope the children will learn in a good environment. The interviews also revealed that the teachers place great emphasis on interaction between children and teachers and on paying attention to individual needs and the learning environment. It is clear that they believe the teacher's role is to design the environment and encourage children to learn by arranging discovery and exploration activities, that is, by allowing the children to learn through play. The class observations revealed that T1 and T2 came closest to designing activities that accorded with their beliefs, and these teachers encouraged and allowed the children to learn happily by interacting with them. Schools A and B both achieved the target of a good level of interaction between teachers and children, but there was little such interaction in School C. Although the teachers there exhibited conscientious attitudes, they rarely smiled. As noted above, with the opinions expressed by T3 in the interview differed completely from her classroom performance. She had a positive belief in theory, but in practice made the children engage in repetitive practice, repetitive learning, and didactic rote learning. She usually took up the traditional "teacher" role by asking the children to be obedient and follow the rules, and she did not allow them to talk in class. It is very clear from her example that teachers' performance affects the teaching quality of a school.

The interviews with the three principals revealed them to hold different beliefs and play different roles in the implementation of teaching approaches. P1 and P2 stressed that children should learn freely from games, and stated the importance of the arrangement of the environment and materials and of interaction between teachers and children. P2 believes strongly in boosting parental participation, and holds that teacher training can improve both learning and teaching. P3 was found to have no knowledge of DAP and to only follow the theoretical perspectives of the school; she also complained that the teachers do not use authentic materials during class.

T1 and T1a expressed clear teaching beliefs. They believe that they should compliment the children, that curriculum and activity design should be innovative, and that they should have an open attitude toward the children, use real and concrete teaching tools to allow children to learn, and build up children's problem-solving skills. They placed great emphasis on DAP, and agreed with their principal's opinion that they should arrange different learning corners in which the children could explore their own interests. They expressed satisfaction with the process and outcomes of the Thematic Approach. T1 further stated that it is important to accept children, and that teachers should show patience, love, and attentiveness toward them. T2 expressed very similar teaching beliefs and also stressed that children should not be given too many limitations, but should be provided with a safe environment.

The findings of this study show a close relationship between effective classrooms and teachers' teaching beliefs. The formation of these beliefs and the practical conditions that teachers create in the classroom were, in turn, found to be connected with professional training, which gives teachers different levels of knowledge. This finding is supported by the work of Shulman (1986), who posits that there are three aspects of teachers' basic knowledge that are important in the education process: their understanding of thematic content, their teaching approach, and the programs that they devise.

In addition to these three aspects, Beattie (1995) includes a fourth category, "personal practical knowledge," which is the knowledge that teachers gain from their professional experience, such as understanding children's learning modes, interests, needs, strengths, and difficulties, and their own teaching and lesson management skills. Elbaz (1983) points out that practical knowledge is, however, "informed by teachers' theoretical knowledge of subject matter and of areas such as child development, learning and social theory" (p. 5).

Teaching theory and belief, which are the main components of teachers' basic knowledge, directly affect their ability to understand, manage, and use information (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Munby,

1982) and represent "a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action" (Harvey, 1986, p. 660).

Attaining a higher educational level helps pre-primary teachers to implement quality education programs. For example, teachers with a better educational background can often provide children with easy and understandable guidance and introduce novel, non-repetitive, and high-level activities (de Kruif *et al.*, 2000) to encourage children to participate on their own initiative in activities that can promote their social and linguistic development and their intelligence (Howes, 1997; Bowman, 2000). Teachers who have completed an early childhood teacher education program will not only possess a certain degree of knowledge about appropriate teaching approaches and child development, but will also know how to implement developmentally appropriate practices to help children develop their basic knowledge and skills (Helburn *et al.*, 1995; Kontos & Wilcox-Herzog, 2001).

Few of the teachers from School C had had the chance to attend a CE (KG) course, and this situation is likely to be reflected across kindergartens in Hong Kong, many of which are still unable to fully utilize the further education allowances given to teachers every year under the government's Voucher Scheme. Kindergartens need to make appropriate use of subsidies for school-based training to improve their teaching quality. In addition, it is hoped that the government, in addition to devising policies to improve the professional qualifications of principals and teachers, should also pay attention to the situation of training quota provision.

While such teachers are waiting to enroll in a further education course, their personal training and sense of self-value need to be strengthened. For example, it was discovered in the interview with T1 that she has been waiting for eight years for the chance to enter the CE (KG) program at her own expense. However, in the meantime, she has received support from P1, who has provided a working environment that allows teachers to develop fully. P1 also emphasizes teachers' experience, and encouraged teachers to develop a greater interest in teaching. It can thus be concluded that formal teacher training and the school-based training provided by principals are equally important.

Recommendations

The Voucher System currently implemented by the government eases the economic burden of parents to a certain extent, and it also increases opportunities for teachers to engage in further education. The system has also reduced the waiting time for admission to CE(KG) programs for teachers. Since 2007, the system has provided only a four-year professional teacher training subsidy, and only a portion of the vouchers' face value goes toward supporting the professional development of principals and teachers. However, starting with the 2011-2012 academic year, their entire face value will be used to subsidize tuition fees for teachers. As has been discussed, improved professional training helps teachers to develop appropriate teaching beliefs and practices, and yet the government provides only a four-year subsidy for further education at present. Oden *et al.* (2000) found that early childhood teachers with four-year degrees were better able to articulate their beliefs about their practices with young children and were twice as likely to provide "cognitively focused" rationales for their curriculum choices than teachers with less education. Similarly, Doherty *et al.* (2000) found in their study of Canadian child care that the highest level of education "in any subject" was directly related to the quality of care in the providers they studied. Hooks *et al.* (2006) further pointed out that "research does indicate that professional preparation is important – teachers with degrees and specialized training do provide higher quality early education experiences for children" (p.400).

It is doubtful whether a mere four years will allow sufficient on-the-job training to raise all teachers up to CE(KG) standard. The government suggests setting the minimum entry requirement for kindergarten teachers at the diploma level, but this requirement is far lower than the entry requirement for primary and secondary school teachers. Many studies have shown that children of 0-8 years old are in the "budding" stage of learning, yet the government is treating pre-primary as the "less-loved daughter." The government should thus consider extending the period of subsidy so that teachers can be subsidized with vouchers for longer, or it should set up other further education funds for in-service teachers.

At the same time, the government must also increase its funding to pre-primary teacher training institutions so that they can increase their quotas. Although the government has pledged to provide at

least 1,000 subsidized places on CE courses and suggests that all newly admitted principals should hold a Bachelor of Education (Honors) (Early Childhood Education) degree by 2011-2012, the professional upgrading and recognition of teachers should still be allocated more resources to improve the quality of pre-primary education. The professed aim of the government in implementing the Voucher System is to improve the quality of pre-primary education, and yet it sets the target qualification of kindergarten teachers only at the diploma level. On the one hand, the government demands high-quality education, but, on the other hand, it will commit to only four years' worth of money. This seems unreasonable. The government should confirm the requirement that teachers of pre-primary education possess a Bachelor's degree in line with the requirements for primary- and secondary-school teachers, and should treat all teachers within the education system alike. Research, including this study, has indicated that the education of pre-primary teachers significantly affects the quality of early childhood programs (Cost, Quality and Outcomes Study Team, 1995; NICHD, 2003).

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Assessment using young children portfolio: A case study in Hong Kong preschools

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Abstract

Educators, professionals and parents emphasized the promotion of young children's learning and development, in particular, the competence of children and their ability to make meaning out of their learning experiences (Herbert, 2001). Therefore, a call for change in the education evaluation system: from a testing culture to an assessment culture (Struyven, Dochy, Janssens, Schelfhout, & Gielen, 2006). Hence, portfolio assessment of children at preschools has become increasingly prominent in the last 20 years for providing multi-dimensional assessments of young children in their environmental context for emphasizing their strengths instead of deficits (Vacc, & Ritter, 1995).

Starting from 2006, the Education Bureau (EDB) (former called Education and Manpower Bureau) of the Hong Kong encouraged preschools to use portfolio assessment to keep track of young children's development and growth (EMB, 2006). The aim of this paper is to share the teachers and parents of young children the experiences of how to implement a special project on children portfolio in three preschools managed by a charity organisation. By participating in designed activities, the development and learning of young children could be enhanced. The teaching effectiveness of early childhood teachers could be promoted. The parents of young children could benefit the knowledge and skills of educating their children's development and learning.

Quality of life and motivational issues for Asian medical students studying in New Zealand

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For the Asia Conference on Education, Osaka, Japan (October 24-25 2009)

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Quality of life and motivational issues for Asian medical students studying in New Zealand

Marcus Henning, Susan Hawken, Jessica Zhao, Christian Krägeloh

Abstract

There is a dearth of research into the links between quality of life and motivation with respect to Asian medical students.

This study surveyed 4th and 5th year medical students and utilised the abbreviated versions of the World Health Organization Quality of Life questionnaire and the Motivated Study for Learning Questionnaire. Multivariate statistics were incorporated to consider the intertwining connections between these dependent variables and demographic variables including gender, enrolment status (international versus domestic), year of study, and age.

The paper considers the findings and the implications for quality of life, medical education and the Asian student community. The conclusions and discussion will have definite relevance for this conference theme of 'Local Problems, Global Solutions?'

Introduction

According to the New Zealand 2006 census (Statistics New Zealand, 2007), the ten most cited ethnicities in New Zealand were New Zealand European, Māori, New Zealander, Chinese, Samoan, Indian, Cook Islands Māori, Tongan, English, and Korean. The New Zealand population profile indicates a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural society. The New Zealand European grouping (67.6 %) accounts for the largest proportion of the New Zealand population, followed by Mäori (14.6 %), Asian (9.2 %), Pacific peoples (6.9 %), and other ethnicity (11.2 %) (Statistics New Zealand, 2007).

Asian students (e.g., Chinese, Korean, South East Asian, Indian, and Japanese) tend to be considered as high achievers (Kember, 2000; Ng, 2003). In New Zealand, the census statistics indicate that 32% of the Asian group had post-secondary qualifications and 16% of the Asian group achieved a bachelor degree qualification (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). Furthermore, a large proportion of medical students are from an Asian background. Fitzjohn, Wilkinson, Gill and Mulder (2003) indicated that, in the Auckland Medical School, 30.5% of medical students were Asian and more recent anecdotal statistics show this proportion is increasing, as it is in the USA (Akins, 2007).

The Asian student population is comprised of both domestic and international students. Each student group is likely to have their unique needs and characteristics. International students comprise a significant proportion of the Asian medical cohort (Fitzjohn et al., 2003). Sam (2001) found that Asian international students, studying in Norway, expressed themselves as having low satisfaction with life. Lack of meaningful social networks and social support systems contributed to this perception, as well as experiencing racial discrimination. In more general terms, domestic and international Asian students also have a strong sense of being a part of a collectivist culture and are likely to experience a lack of perceived control over their experiences in the host country (Sastry & Ross, 1998).

Furthermore, there are numerous studies reviewing and investigating the study-related experiences of Asian students both domestic and international (Holmes, 2005; Kanagawa, Cross, & Markus, 2001; Kember, 2000; Leung, 2002; Yip & Chung, 2005). For example, in a study of Asian students in Hong Kong, Yip and Chung (2005) found student perceptual differences between high achievers and low achievers in the university environment in terms of concentration and motivation. A more in-depth New Zealand experiential study was conducted by Holmes (2005), who explored the learning experiences of an ethnic Chinese population that came from China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Taiwan. Holmes suggested that the Chinese student group, inherently influenced by their Confucian heritage, differed from their New Zealand student counterparts in terms of communication practices and expectations about classroom etiquette. They, thus, revealed behaviours and perceptions that were interpreted as placing a high value on education and a strong belief in effort and willpower. The student group also appeared to have strong systems in place to enhance memorization and rote learning. Other studies, have also suggested that Asian students appear to emphasize a need for understanding material being taught (Kember, 2000). Consequently, Asian students often embrace a deficit model of learning whereby they consider things they do not know and consider how these aspects of learning could be improved (Kanagawa, Cross, & Markus, 2001; Leung, 2002).

Holmes (2005) also reported that Asian students are pro-active but quiet in the classroom environment. They tend to form study groups and networks outside the lecture theatres. Leung (2002) also revealed that Asian students reported that they have a low sense of confidence and interest in their studies, which is related to their notions of modesty and humility. Moreover, Holmes' (2005) suggested that Asian students have a collective sense of self and embrace notions of loss of face, silence, and harmony. This learning praxis is manifested in terms of passivity and attentiveness to what is being taught.

Issues linked with the notion of quality of life amongst medical students have been well documented (Gupchup, Borrego, & Konduri, 2004; Mitmansgruber, Becka, Höfera, & Schüßlera, 2009; Robotham & Julian, 2006; Ross, Cleland, & Macleod, 2006; Srivastava et al., 2007). In addition, aspects of motivation amongst medical students have been documented (Pelaccia et al., 2009). The need for universities to measure quality of teaching and learning in the medical environment is paramount (Hays, 2007). Nonetheless, within this area of research, the Asian medical student cohort has not been investigated in any depth.

In reviewing the literature on Asian medical students' motivation, very few studies were located. Nevertheless, many Asian medical students follow medicine as a career choice as a response to parental expectations and these expectations, especially for international students, may be linked to status orientations and residency options in host countries (Dundes, Cho, & Kwak, 2009). Interview data presented in a pilot study suggested that Asian American students tend to study medicine because it relates to their parents' ideal of academic achievement and was part of a family tradition (Akins, 2007). There is, thus, suggestion of a strong external locus of control in terms of motivating medical students to learn.

The aim of the present paper is to explore the relationships between motivation, and quality of life with respect to the Asian medical student context. The conclusions and discussion will have definite relevance for this conference theme of 'Local Problems, Global Solutions?'

METHOD

Participants

A larger study involving 274 medical student participants (out of 344) completed the questionnaires, generating a response rate of 80%. From this sample pool, this study examined the responses of 97 self-identified Asian participants (51 female, 46 male) who voluntarily participated in the study. The average age of the sample was 22.00 years (SD = 1.43). The sample comprised of self-selected volunteers chosen from two clinical years (65 from 4th year, 32 from 5th year), comprising both international and domestic students (40 international, 57 domestic).

Procedure

This correlational study was conducted during Semester 1, 2009. Students were asked to fill in a demographic survey, the Australian version of the World Health Organization-BREF questionnaire (WHOQOL-BREF) (Murphy, Herrman, Hawthorne, Pinzone, & Evert, 2000) and a shortened version of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire or MSLQ (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). The students were requested to fill in the questionnaires in classroom environments and collection of data occurred directly after class time. The researcher, and three assistants, collected participants' completed questionnaires.

Measures

Three main measures were incorporated into the study design, namely background details, WHOQOL-BREF, and MSLQ data.

The demographic survey included for this paper related to:

1. Year of study
2. Student status (Domestic; International)
3. Age
4. Gender

The Australian version of the WHOQOL-BREF is an abbreviated version of the WHOQOL-100 (WHOQOL-Group, 1998). The WHOQOL-BREF has 26 items, which includes two global items about health-related quality of life and 24 items relating to four domains (physical, psychological, environmental, and social quality of life). The physical domain has 7 items, psychological well-being 6 items, social relationships 3 items, and environment 8 items. The respondents rate the items using a 5-point Likert interval scale and the temporal frame of reference is within the last two weeks. Three of the 26 items are reverse coded, and a low rating towards 1 suggests a negative evaluations and a high rating towards 5 indicate a more positive perception of quality of life.

An earlier version of the MSLQ (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) was considered appropriate for this study. This version has 44 items and five sub-domains, namely self-efficacy, intrinsic value, test anxiety, cognitive strategy use, and self-regulation. These five sub-domains are categorised within two domains, specifically motivational beliefs and self-regulated learning strategies. Due to the constraints of time, the shortened and earlier version of the MSLQ was selected in preference to the 81-item version (Pintrich et al., 1991). It was deemed that the 44-itme MSLQ would adequately envelop the domains of interest related to the present study as used elsewhere (Ackerman & Beier, 2006).

Data analysis

For this study, four computational phases were conducted.

1. The descriptive WHOQOL-BREF data for the Asian group were generated and compared with some established data.
2. The domestic and international Asian medical students were compared.
3. Zero-order correlations were calculated for the Asian sample for WHOQOL-BREF and MSLQ domain measures.
4. The demographics variations were considered employing a multivariate analysis approach.

RESULTS

Phase 1

The descriptive WHOQOL-BREF data for the Asian group were generated and compared with some established data of New Zealand university students from a variety of different faculties (Hsu, Krägeloh, Shepherd, & Billington, 2009; Lewis, Krägeloh, & Shepherd, 2009). For reference purposes, Study 1 refers to the present study; Study 2 is the Lewis et al. (2009); and study 3 refers to Hsu et al. (Hsu et al., 2009).

Table 1a shows, for the three studies, the mean and standard deviations of the domain scores that were transformed according to the WHOQOL-BREF guidelines (Murphy et al., 2000). Z-test scores were computed for the comparisons between the present study and each of the other two studies. When compared with study 2 (Lewis et al., 2009), Asian medical students scored significantly lower in terms of the psychological and social domains. In comparison with study 3 (Hsu et al., 2009), the Asian medical students scores were significantly lower on the social and environmental domains. Hence, in relation to all two studies the Asian medical students were scoring significantly lower on the social domain.

Table 1a. Means and standard deviations of the WHOQOL-BREF domains by datasets

Domains	Study 1 (n=97) M (SD)	Study 2 (n=281) M (SD)	Study 3 (n=316) M (SD)
Physical	69.00 (13.42)	72.10 (14.40)	67.62 (15.67)
Psychological	61.44 (15.86)	67.13 (14.23)**	62.22 (14.54)
Social	60.13 (20.58)	70.43 (20.53)**	65.98 (20.32)*
Environmental	66.05 (14.56)	65.65 (15.00)	55.48 (14.61)**

*p< 0.05
**p<0.01

Table 1b shows the Likert response means and standard deviations for the social domain. Using t-test evaluations, no differences were noted between the international and domestic groups for each item. The lowest response means were shown for item 21 - How satisfied are you with your sex life?

Table 1b. Means and standard deviations of the WHOQOL-BREF social domain items

Items	Domestic (*n*=57) *M (SD)*	International (*n*=40) *M (SD)*
20. How satisfied are you with your personal relationships?	3.60(.91)	3.35(1.09)
21. How satisfied are you with your sex life?	3.34(.98)	3.06(1.05)
22. How satisfied are you with the support you get from your friends?	3.76(.95)	3.92(.66)

Phase 2

Table 2 shows the mean scores and standard deviations for the domestic versus the international Asian medical students on the WHOQOL-BREF domains (using the Likert 1 to 5 measures) and the MSLQ sub-scale scores. The scores were lower for the international students on all four domains. Employing a t-test for comparing the two independent samples on the WHOQOL scores, only environment yielded a near significant difference ($t(92)=1.93$, $p=.06$). In comparing the MSLQ scores, self efficacy ($t(95)=2.53$, $p=.01$) and test anxiety ($t(95)=-3.31$, $p=.001$) yielded significant differences. These results suggest that international students experience lower levels of self-efficacy and higher levels of test anxiety than their domestic students counterparts.

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of the WHOQOL-BREF domains by status of enrolment.

WHOOQOL- domains	Domestic (*n*=57) *M (SD)*	International (*n*=40) *M (SD)*
Physical	3.84(.52)	3.72(.54)
Psychological	3.52(.70)	3.46(.51)
Social	3.57(.76)	3.46(.77)
Environmental	3.74(.61)	3.51(.50)
MSLQ - subscales	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*
Intrinsic value	3.94(.48)	3.81(.37)
Self-efficacy	3.48(.60)	3.17(.57)**
Test anxiety	2.68(.80)	3.24(.85)**
Cognitive Strategy Use	3.65(.51)	3.58(.37)
Self-regulation	3.58(.52)	3.46(.40)

**p<0.01

Phase 3

Table 3 below presents zero-order correlations for the WHOQOL domains scores against the MSLQ sub-scale scores. Significant associations are noted for self efficacy on all domains, test anxiety on three of the domains (physical, psychological and environmental), and intrinsic value (physical) and self-regulation (psychological) on one domain. These results suggest that self-efficacy and test anxiety are two areas that produce critical associations with quality of life variables.

Table 3. Summary statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for the WHOQOL domains and the MSLQ sub-scales

WHOQOL Domains	MSLQ sub-scales				
	Intrinsic value	Self-efficacy	Test anxiety	Strategy use	Self-regulation
Physical	.309**	.431**	-.302**	.071	.191
Psychological	.155	.456**	-.479**	.163	.304**
Social	.152	.258*	-.329	.187	.146
Environmental	.122	.267**	-.395**	-.088	.118

Note. $N = 94$
*$p < 0.05$
**$p < 0.01$

Phase 4

A MANCOVA was computed, including the nine dependent measures (four WHOQOL domains and five MSLQ subscales) and the three independent measures of years of study, gender, and status of enrolment (domestic; international) with age as a covariate. Using Wilks' Lambda, the multivariate statistical analyses showed a:

1. Non-significant 'year*gender*status' result, $F(9, 75) = .72$, $p = .69$;
2. Non-significant 'year*gender' result, $F(9, 75) = .68$, $p = .72$;
3. Non-significant 'year*status' result, $F(9, 75) = .84$, $p = .59$;
4. Non-significant 'status*gender' result, $F(9, 75) = .54$, $p = .84$;
5. Non-significant 'gender' result, $F(9, 75) = 1.35$, $p = .23$;
6. Non-significant 'year' result, $F(9, 75) = 1.15$, $p = .34$;
7. Significant 'status' result, $F(9, 75) = 2.13$, $p = .04$.

Reviewing the status effect further, the only significant results was in the area of test anxiety, $F(1) = 4.72$, $p = .01$. The means and standard deviations for the test anxiety sub-scale indicated a higher level of anxiety for international students compared to their domestic counterparts ($M_{international} = 3.24$, $SD = .84$; $M_{domestic} = 2.68$, $SD = .80$). No other significant results were noted.

DISCUSSION

The following investigation aims to evaluate the quality of life and motivational factors associated with Asian medical students within the New Zealand context. The present study has generated some interesting and significant findings. First, in relation to other studies in New Zealand the Asian medical students scored significantly lower on the social domain. Second, with respect to the domestic and international students groups, self efficacy was significantly higher for the domestic students and test anxiety lower. More complex analyses were computed to consider any confounding effects. The test anxiety sub-scale finding indicated a higher level of anxiety for international students compared to their domestic counterparts. Third, self-efficacy was positively associated with all of the quality of life domains, and test anxiety was negatively associated with three of the quality of life domains (physical, psychological and environmental).

In relation to the first finding, Asian medical students appeared to score lower on the social domain than that found elsewhere (Hsu et al., 2009; Lewis et al., 2009). The differences found between the Asian medical student group and the two studies on New Zealand university students indicate an important disparity, namely in the area of social relationships domain which encompasses the ideas of satisfaction with personal relationships, social support, and sexual activity (WHOQOL-Group, 1998).

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Asian medical students versus others

The present study's finding showed that New Zealand Asian medical students consistently scored lower than the other New Zealand students. The comparison university cohort (from Auckland) are representative of a multi-ethnic and more generic university population encompassing undergraduate students from various faculties (Hsu et al., 2009; Lewis et al., 2009). Moreover, the Asian medical student sample results showed no difference between the international and domestic students on each of the three items. The low scores on this domain suggest that Asian students perceive themselves to be less satisfied with their personal relationships, social support and sexual activity than other students in general. There are several possible explanations for this finding.

First, Asian medical students may be more interested in academic study than other students and thus have less time to develop, or think of developing, social relationships (Kember, 2000; Ng, 2003). Ng suggests that in Chinese cultures there are strong familial networks as well as family and social obligations. Chinese students have strong academic goal orientations that tend to be performance-based, highly competitive, and tend to mastery so that they can outperform others and gain high achievements. As such there is less emphasis on developing personal relationships and friendships akin to a Western perspective, let alone a satisfying sex health, but rather the focus is on developing pragmatic networks to forward their academic goals (Holmes, 2005; Leung, 2002).

Second, Asian students emphasise developing modesty and humility, in addition to being well focussed on the study requirements at hand (Holmes, 2005; Leung, 2002). As such Asian students may find the notion of sexual activity and personal relationships as being counterproductive to developing academic excellence. The results may indicate a perception that they have of low satisfaction with life on the social realm, but in reality the magnitude of their perception may be misleading (Sam, 2001). Asian students may, thus, underplay their level of satisfaction with life.

Third, Asian students may feel isolated and may distance themselves from majority cultures (Sam, 2001). This may be especially true of the international Asian students who may find the development of social relationships difficult. In New Zealand a large proportion of the international medical student population are Malaysian and the Malay student group have different religious norms to the majority culture group. Hence, questions like sexual activity may in fact be offensive to this group. This would be an interesting area for further research. International students may also feel less empowerment over their social situation and environment given the likelihood of higher levels of uncertainty and lack of familiarity with the Western system (Sastry & Ross, 1998). If students have a sense of isolation and lowered empowerment, and the results somewhat confirm this, this would have important implications for university personnel involved in pastoral care.

Self efficacy and test anxiety

The next major finding of note relates to the problems associated with self-efficacy and test anxiety. The international students appear to be less self-efficacious and more test anxious than their domestic student counterparts. Moreover, for all the Asian students surveyed, higher self-efficacy significantly correlates with higher levels of quality of life. In contrast higher levels of test anxiety correlate with lower levels of quality of life.

These findings pose important implications for educationalists, university administrators and those involved in pastoral care and academic learning. There is likely a familial and parental factor that strongly influences Asian medical students and this is likely to be more pronounced for international students, as Asian with domestic student status are more likely to have acculturated to the New Zealand mainstream culture (Dundes et al., 2009). Parental pressure is strongly focussed on achieving academic success and putting in long hours of work (Akins, 2007). The thought process is often outcome oriented as this hard work will pay off in dollar terms especially if the students can gain a medical degree. In Akins' study all interviewees, emphasized family as a primary motivating factor for studying medicine, and that many students were under a sense of obligation to do well. This pressure and goal orientation is interesting given that the medical profession has an inherent obligation to service the needs of the people in terms of maintaining and promoting well-being. This is a fascinating area of study and the New Zealand Asian medical student community could be investigated in more depth using a similar approach.

In addition, international students have more pressure to perform as they pay higher fees than domestic students and thus accrue larger debts and outgoings (Fitzjohn et al., 2003). The annual student fees for domestic students studying Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery - Year 2 onwards are $ 11,324 compared to the international students' fees of $55,650 for the same programme (The

University of Auckland, 2009a, 2009b). This fact alone will likely create intense familial and financial pressure on many students, particularly those studying abroad.

The pressure of family and finance will likely combine with the need to save face, and the belief that willpower and effort will achieve results will likely impact on self-efficacy and test anxiety. If students believe in their competence and ability to achieve a specific outcome, they will have high self-efficacy (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Pintrich (2003) proposed that if students believe that they will do well and believe they have the right skills and knowledge, then they tend to implement more effort and have a high likelihood of achieving their goals. Hence, there is likely to be a bi-directional causal relationship, whereby self-efficacy leads to appropriate outcome but poor outcome will likely lead to low self-efficacy. In addition, the findings of this study suggest that physical, psychological, social and environmental factors are correlated with the notion of self-efficacy (Table 3). It is not surprising then that if Asian students are unable to achieve their academic goals then their quality of life will probably suffer and this effect will be greater than for other ethnic groupings given the intense familial and financial pressure they are under (Akins, 2007; Holmes, 2005). Similarly, this will likely impact on the way they cope with test anxiety.

An issue for university personnel involved in pastoral care is to be sensitive with respect to the communication differences between Asian students and other ethnic groups. Holmes (2005) suggested that there are likely to be power differences between teachers, administrators and students making it more difficult for Asian students to communicate problem issues to those in authority given the different educational expectations of the Western self-directed approach to learning. As one student in Holmes' interview survey stated, when "reflecting on his teachers in medical school in China, summed up this relationship: 'The lecturer[s] they help you in every area, not only the practicing, the training, even the homework. They help you with everything''' (Holmes, 2005, p. 298). Other areas of difficulty include English language competency, the ability to interact with others within the lecture theatre or when on clinical placement, the ability to express honest opinions and ideas, being interactive within small groups, and interaction with teachers.

Holmes (2005) has indicated ways to meet the needs of Asian students and in particular international students. These are important considerations given the emphasis on recruiting overseas students into domestic academic programmes. Areas of importance include building trust and recognition of differences. Developing intercultural communication signifies improved service and an equitable process and intent that will likely enhance teaching and learning by promoting understanding and creating a sense of global consciousness (Kanagawa et al., 2001; Kember, 2000). It is also a key step towards addressing potential and existing local issues and at the same time providing global implications and solutions to broadening views of educational praxis within university settings.

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Collaborative Health – A New Concept in Educational Psychology

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Abstract

Based on research about teamwork in human service organizations in Sweden, such as e.g. example education, the concept of collaborative health, CH, is introduced and found to be a relevant expression in educational psychology for the physical, psychological and social health resources that the individual uses in teamwork and that are, simultaneously, influenced by the teamwork.

Collaborative health is examined in this article through a social constructivistic approach and viewed in the perspective of earlier concepts in social psychology and working life research, such as psychosocial stress and burn-out.

The need for a holistic team theory as a prerequisite for future research in this area is emphasized. A core criterion in, and an indispensable part of, this team theory is the access to relevant and logical concepts, one of which is collaborative health.

The article concludes that the concept of collaborative health has a role to play in a relatively new research area. There is even a need for this concept in the complex collaborative and co-operative teamwork of education and other human service organizations of today.

Key-words: Teamwork, education, working climate, collaborative health, human service organizations

Introduction

This article focuses on and introduces the concept of collaborative health (CH), a concept not previously used as a theoretical concept in today's working life research. As far as the author is aware, collaborative health has no meaning or independent significance outside the meaning given to it in this article. The concept as used in this article has its current base in Scandinavian teamwork research

published 1995-2008 (Sandberg, 1995; 2004a,b, 2006, 2007, 2008; Berlin & Carlström, 2004), and it was first presented in a research report 2004 (Sandberg, 2004a), with the Swedish term "samarbetshälsa", and defined as (p. 97)

> … the physical, psychological and social health resources that the individual uses in teamwork and that are, simultaneously, influenced by the teamwork.

Briefly, collaborative health is synonymous with the health aspects of co-operation within a working group of frequently interacting colleagues, i.e. a team of professionals, e.g. in education.

The aim of this article is to describe the findings making the concept collaborative health a logic consequence of inductive reasoning and to point out applications for this concept as an important theoretical tool. A self-evident reflection upon this theme of presentation is that the question of collaborative health exists all over the world, in every organization where co-operation and collaboration exist. So it is indeed a global question with local applications.

The article is structured primarily by first pointing out the inductive reasoning leading to the concept and possible definitions by giving some examples. Secondly the concept, originally created by inductive reasoning, is examined through a theoretical construction, more precisely a social constructive approach. This second step in illuminating the concept of collaborative health is a way of further conceptualising in a context-related way by describing the concepts of psycho-social stress and burn-out. Thirdly, the core concept in this article is discussed in terms of justification and usefulness, thereby illuminating the arguments behind the creation of the concept and its pragmatic aspects. Finally, this article will provide the reader with theoretical reflections that may have implications for adequate research areas.

Inductive origin of the concept Collaborative Health

Starting 1995, various research publications have indicated and finally explicitly expressed collaborative health (in Swedish: samarbetshälsa) as a conceptualization from empirical studies of teamwork in the welfare sector in Sweden commented by various theoretical studies from working life in general (Sandberg, 2004a; 2006). The studies referred to clearly indicate the influence teamwork has

upon team members' wellbeing. Since self-reported wellbeing indicates an important aspect of the individual's psychological health, the link between health and teamwork seems to be out of question.

Looking at the nature of teamwork clarifies which aspects of teamwork have a general connection to wellbeing. These connections are found both on a theoretical level, in how teamwork is defined, and in empirical studies. On a theoretical level, a core definition of teamwork made up of certain criteria is used and the criteria serve as points of reflection. In this section I will mention some core criteria, generally accepted as such, and leave other, more peripheral criteria aside. The criteria are divided into the essential/functionalistic qualities, structural qualities and process qualities (Sandberg, 2004b; 2006). Though it is possible to make a distinction between them for analytical purposes, there is no sharp line between them, which the following will show.

The essential qualities are mainly two: The team creates synergies and there is a distinct goal-orientation in the teamwork. Without these qualities, there may be an active working group, but it is certainly not a team. When these two qualities are added to each other, I propose the use of the term and concept functional synergy (Sandberg, 2006). Theoretically, both synergy and a distinct goal-orientation can consume energy as well as provide energy of a psychological as well as a physical kind. Which one it is largely depends on the circumstances surrounding the teamwork. Below are two examples from Swedish child and youth psychiatric teams entailing different consequences for the team members' CH (Sandberg, 1995). These examples are followed by an example from teamwork at a university.

The first team is located in a small town. Four therapists work in the team. One of them is physician, two are psychologists and one is a social worker. They all apprehend their resources and patients as well as the organisation as reasonable. They further judge the co-operation and working climate within the team as a strong support for successful work. CH in this team is an obvious resource for the professionals, supporting a successful teamwork and manifested in personal well-being. The other team is located in a suburban area of a big city. Fifteen therapists work in the team. Six of them are psychologists, two are physicians, five are social workers and two are nurses. They apprehend their resources as limited, feel that the patients are too many and experience heavy conflicts within the team. The team is often divided into formal or informal sub-teams.

The two teams described above differ according to the way they can create functional synergy. Looking at the teams from the outside, an inductive conclusion, supported by empirical data,

is that their well-being differs in favour of the small town team. The co-operative prerequisites or premises for co-operation differ between the teams in a way that influences the team members' well-being. It is reasonable to hypothesise that the CH is of a significant different kind in the two teams. Kira (2003) investigates and comments upon current working life conditions with such possible outcomes.

Nancarrow (2004) provides an example of one of the aspects of teamwork influencing functional synergi. She states that prior research has pointed out overlapping roles as a threat to the confidence within the team, but her study did not confirm this. On the contrary, the team members were not threatened by overlapping roles, and recognised confidence in their own roles. An understanding of the roles of other workers was necessary to avoid feeling threatened. Nancarrow (ibid.) concludes that intermediate care can promote role overlap across a range of workers. Team members' role overlap can enhance clinician confidence in their own area of expertise whilst optimising patient care.

These examples show that achieving functional synergy in teamwork requires a set of supporting structural and process factors. These factors are e.g. the mentioned working roles and other organizational prerequisites, the clients' needs, general resources, competence, internal support and working climate etc. By using the concept of confidence, Nancarrow (ibid.) points to a "well-being direction" associated with co-operative qualities within the team.

Inductive reasoning from another example also makes the concept of CH plausible. In this example a university lecturer describes two totally different kinds of co-operative situations from a working climate perspective (Sandberg, 2004a). In the first situation, a group of university teachers discuss the organization and content of a course in occupational therapy: We talked in a very open manner. No one tried to prove that she or he was right. … We could be critical but constructive. We shared goals and objectives and had similar professional experiences. … One did not felt manipulated; one's knowledge was used in the discussion …. One could be oneself. It was very satisfying …. There was an open space. The other situation, describing co-operation with the manager, is experienced in a very different way: Neurosis combined with bureaucratic thinking. Decisions are implemented through manipulation … and opposition leads to isolation and exclusion from courses and conferences. … The working group is made to some kind of family. An academic discussion is experienced as a way to … destroy good climate. … You have to survive somehow.

As shown by these examples there is no doubt that experiences of teamwork and the accompanying working climate are sources of well-being. To state that these experiences have importance for the team members' health seems reasonable and logic. However, stating that the aspects of health involved in these certain contexts have such specific characteristics such as to make it meaningful to isolate a new concept, scientifically and pragmatically, is a different statement. It surely demands a logical reasoning upon solid empirical studies. This paper shows the outlines in such a process.

Collaborative Health – a constructivistic approach

In the previous section, the concept and term collaborative health is "invented", through inductive reasoning, as adequate in relation to empirical studies. There is prima facie no known connection to the notion that CH possibly could be a successor of related working life concepts. As a way to create a clearer picture of CH as a concept and avoid misunderstandings, a comment to such possible connections will be made here. The constructivistic approach is a perspective motivated by the fact that this concept is not born in a vacuum. It is created in a scientific context where humans express themselves in a way that, by inductive reasoning, is adequate for a phenomenon which otherwise would be "silent". As a researcher, I design a research study, and when concluding my findings construct relevant concepts in order to generalize, to make findings visible and communicative and construct a theoretical reference for further studies – in short making the research findings meaningful.

The constructivistic or social constructivistic approach in this case refers to the fact that society and its organizations with e.g. teamwork are created by humans in interaction. Teamwork in this case is not given by nature, but can be seen as a construction in the interaction between the labour market parties, an interaction which also might use scientific reports and research as arguments added to ideological, political and directly labour related points of view. From this perspective collaborative health can be viewed as a construction in the interaction between employees in the public sector and me as a researcher, who at the same time interact with (texts written by) other researchers and the academic environment. The creation of such an idea as collaborative health is depending on the usefulness in the current context consisting of teamwork and research upon teamwork. In this context, the creation and use of collaborative health is a way of spotting a figure. This also means that the concept has a power limited not only to a certain physical and social context but is also restricted in

time.   The concepts we us in everyday life or as scientific concepts are ways of making reality comprehensible or understandable. The social processes of teamwork and doing research upon teamwork are a basic prerequisites for the construction of collaborative health as a concept, and from this perspective an analytic and critical attitude follows, based on the contextualisation of CH (cp. Burr, 1995).

Working life concepts associated to CH in earlier decades were "detected", "constructed" or "invented" depending on the labour market situation, political and ideological influences, current research, media priorities etc. Two such concepts have been psycho-social stress and burn-out. Stress originated out of Selye (1956) and was contextualised in the industrialized countries the following decades as psychological stress or psycho-social stress. The working life research tradition with this origin, e.g. in Sweden, has an emphasis on the combination of high demands, low control and a lack of social support as constituents of psycho-social stress (Gardell, 1986; Theorell & Karasek, 1996). The concept of burn-out is a sign of the shift from the dominating industrial sector in the Western countries to the expanding service sector (Freudenberger, 1974; Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Emotional exhaustion has been shown to lead to depersonalization which subsequently leads to diminished personal accomplishment. Interpersonal contacts between staff in the organization were related to the development of burn-out at each stage (Leiter & Maslach, ibid.). For both the above mentioned concepts, social circumstances play a major role, both as causes, symptoms and as a way to solve the unwanted situation. By developing teamwork over the recent decades, these social determinants have become even more important.

Discussion

Core concepts in behavioural sciences come and go. The need for a holistic team theory in e.g. education is understood as a way of giving an injection of energy to the development of team research, a field of research that is so far fairly limited since the current team concept in working life is a young phenomenon. Olsson (1998) notes that building scientific knowledge about group processes requires scientific concepts. These concepts describe important aspects of the "invisible construction made up from the group as a whole" (p. 63, authors translation) and at the same time are applicable to the concrete and visible. Olsson refers e.g. to Cartwright & Zander (1968), Forsyth (1990), Yalom (1975) and West (1996) and "frames" the meaning of different kinds of small group research by dropping

concepts used in this research, e.g. leadership, group-goal, uniformity, attraction, conflict, norms, power, sub-grouping, climate, communication, feedback etc. It is in a process like this that collaborative health (CH) takes place as a concept and thereby creates and emphasizes a meaningful perspective.

During the past hundred years of behavioural sciences, concepts such as "unconscious", "conformity", "mobbing", "demand-control" and "social support" etc. have summarized findings in social psychology and working life research with relevance for the educational sector, making us take new perspectives and starting new research traditions and debate. Now, what can collaborative health (CH) bring? Teamwork in the welfare sector, in the human service organisations, has in general not, or to a limited extent, been described and analyzed in a systematic and scientific way. From a pragmatic point of view, the creation of a team theory with relevant general and specific context related concepts is a necessary tool in team research to come. CH is a part of this foundation and at the same time offers a bridge to earlier more familiar concepts related to health and working life. To focus on CH brings in its turn into focus a question of importance for the well-being of the team and each team member, as well as for the success of the team. It's a part of a new discourse relevant for the human service organizations. It's about not only producing welfare for others but also achieving welfare for the team member.

Lawson (2004, p. 234) finds that "collaboration … takes many years to develop and even longer to institutionalize. It is very costly". With reference to Shrader (2001), Lawson (ibid.) concludes that collaboration has several costs, viewed as transaction costs. From the perspective of the findings in the research described in this article collaborative health is undoubtedly a transactional cost, or a "gain", with importance for the team member and the teamwork. Following this, collaborative health is an important support for the team member, if it has a positive value, and a way to ruin the team member and the team work when having a negative value.

Reflections and conclusions

To accept the concept of collaborative health (CH) as a) relevant, b) useful and c) generative requires a reliable scientific foundation and insights into the possibilities of further applications where this concept plays a major role, both in practice and theory. From my point of view and by describing CH the way I do, collaborative health has an important role to play as a major health related concept

connected to the highly professional team workers in education and elsewhere in the human service organizations. The use of the concept of collaborative health instead of e.g. co-worker health is related to the fact that empirical data leading to this concept are based on collaborative and co-operative working situations in teams of professionals within human service organizations. The major supporting argument is the way a new perspective, expressed as collaborative health, is emphasised in a relatively new area of research, team-research in working life, a research still in search for theoretical and methodological tools. In conclusion there is a need for a scientific concept such as collaborative health (CH), considering the demands in e.g. education with complex phenomena, focus on quality and results, new ways of collaborating and co-operating as well as competing, a need for sustainability on a social, economic and environmental level and activities that require a high degree of research-based knowledge and competence. The concept of collaborative health is also obviously relevant globally and locally. Still the main argument is the logic inductive reasoning from a solid research ground and an apparent usefulness of the concept, scientifically and in practice – an argument this paper have had the ambition to show.

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Theories and Models Related to Learning Needs or Motivation
– A Psychological Perspective

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ABSTRACT

The paper focuses on establishing an understanding of the current state of knowledge about theories and models related to learning needs or motivation from view of psychology. It includes need / drive theory, expectancy / value theory, Wlodkowski's model, Maslow's theory, achievement motivation theory, social-learning theory, self-efficacy theory, attribution theory, self-worth theory, Keller's model, personal causation theory, situated motivation, as well as classification of motivation. The purpose of this literature view is not to attempt to prove which theory or model is the best, it is to provide a general overview and highlight implications for future research in the related field.

Need / Drive Theory

Psychologists found that needs and drives compose motives (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1981). One way to classify needs is to divide them into two groups, primary and secondary (Parsons et al., 2001). Meeting primary needs is vital for physical survival such as food, water, and oxygen. Secondary needs are important for psychological well being and happiness such as companionship, prestige, and status.

Murray (1938) defined need as "a construct which stands for a force in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation" (pp. 123-124). He listed seven classifications of human psychogenic needs:

1. Needs associated with the inanimate: acquisition (e.g., to gain property), conservance (which means conserving attitude, e.g., to protect against damage), order (e.g., to be scrupulously precise), retention (e.g., to hoard), and construction (e.g., to organize and build).
2. Needs expressing ambition: superiority (e.g., to gain power over people and high social status), achievement (e.g., to overcome obstacles), recognition (e.g., to demand respect), exhibition (e.g., to attract attention to one's person), inviolacy (based on pride and personal sensitiveness), infavoidance (e.g., to avoid failure), defendance (which means defensive attitude, e.g., to justify one's actions), and counteraction (e.g., to select the hardest tasks).
3. Needs related to human power: dominance (e.g., to influence others), deference (e.g., to serve gladly), similance (which means suggestible attitude, e.g., to agree and believe), autonomy (e.g., to strive for independence), and contrarience (e.g., to be unique).
4. Needs constituting the sado-masochistic dichotomy: aggression (e.g., to murder) and abasement (e.g., to surrender).
5. A need involves inhibition: blamavoidance (e.g., to avoid blame).
6. Needs have to do with affection between people: affiliation (e.g., to join groups), rejection (e.g., to be discriminating), nurturance (e.g., to express sympathy), succorance (e.g., to cry for help), and play (e.g., to relax).
7. Needs occur with great frequency in social life: cognizance (which means inquiring attitude, e.g., to ask questions) and exposition (e.g., to give information).

Based on the needs presented by Murray et al. (1938), Edwards (1959) developed 15 personality variables for the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS). These 15 variables are: achievement, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality, and aggression.

Parsons et al. (2001) explained that need is a force, and drive is the desire to act. When needs are activated, one is forced to act in ways that decrease or satisfy that need. Accordingly, three possible reasons can explain the low motivation of some learners. First, a learner has a low felt need toward a certain activity. Second, some activities are more appealing than others. Third, a learner lacks the skills to perform the activity. Hence, Parsons et al. suggested that teachers need to know the needs state of the students and how to decrease competing needs while increasing the need to achieve.

Expectancy / Value Theory

Vroom (1964) observed that the central problem of motivation is "the explanation of choices made by organisms among different voluntary responses" (p. 9). He outlined a conceptual model which guides the interpretation of his research. The main concepts in the models are: valence, expectancy, and force. Valence is identified as "affective orientations toward particular outcomes" (p. 15). Expectancy means "a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (p. 17). Force refers to "a monotonically increasing function of the product of valence and expectancy" (p. 19). An approach motive represents that the ideal outcomes have positive valence (an individual prefers attaining it to not attaining it). An avoidance motive indicates that outcomes have negative valence (an individual prefers not attaining it to attaining it).

Feather (1982) asserted that the particular characteristic of the expectancy-value models is the "attempt to relate action to the perceived attractiveness or aversiveness of expected consequences" (p. 1). Parsons et al. (2001) indicated that expectancy is the action leading to goal attainment, and value means the goal is worthwhile. Parsons et al. stated that motivation is a product of expectancy and value. Motivation exists when an individual values the goal of the activity and believes the task can be completed successfully.

Based on expectancy theories of motivation, Porter and Lawler (1968) developed a theoretical model to explain the relationship of managerial attitudes to managerial performance. They hypothesized that "the greater the value of a reward and the higher the perceived probability that effort will lead to this reward, the greater the effort" (p. 31). Further, higher effort is expected to lead to higher performance; "ability and traits" and role perceptions also determine one's performance. Additionally, a person would exert effort to gain a high level of performance while he/she sees a great connection between his/her performance and his/her rewards. Finally, when high performance decreases the gap between the perceived equitable level of rewards and the amount seen as being actually received, then high performance will lead to high satisfaction (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

On the basis of the expectancy-value model of motivation, Pintrich and Groot (1990) proposed three motivational components: expectancy, value, and affective component. Expectancy refers to learners' perceived ability to perform a task and perceived responsibility for the performance. Learners who think they are able to perform the task usually are more likely to persist at a task than are those who do not have that belief. Value relates to learners' goals and beliefs toward the significance and interest of the task. In other words, this component concerns learners' reasons for performing a task. Learners who believe the task is interesting and important often engage in more effective effort management than do those who do not have that belief. Affective component involves learners' emotional reactions to the task. One of the most relevant affective reactions in a school learning context is test anxiety (Pintrich, 1990).

Wlodkowski's Model

Wlodkowski (1978, 1981, 1985) regarded each learning situation as a whole with beginning, during, and ending time stages. Attitudes and needs are the two motivation factors in the beginning time phase. Stimulation and "affect" are the two motivation factors in the during time phase. Competence and reinforcement are the two motivation factors in the ending time phase. Wlodkowski (1978) encouraged educators to use these six general motivation factors in any motivational plan.

Maslow's Theory

Maslow (1987) argued that there are seventeen propositions about motivation:

1. Holistic approach: "The individual is an integrated, organized whole" (p. 1). For example, a person wants food, not his/her stomach; Food satisfies a person's hunger, not his/her stomach's hunger; when people are hungry, their perceptions, memories, emotions, and the content of thinking also change.
2. A paradigm for motivational states: For example, the desires for clothes, friendliness, and praise.
3. Means and ends: There is one major characteristic of the average desires in people's daily lives, that those desires "are usually means to an end rather than ends in themselves" (p. 5).
4. Unconscious motivation: It is necessary for sound motivation theory to consider the unconscious life.
5. Commonality of human desires: The fundamental or ultimate desires of all human beings are more alike than one would think.
6. Multiple motivations: It is uncommon "for an act or a conscious wish to have but one motivation" (p. 6).
7. Motivating states: A motivational state should be "constant, never ending, fluctuating, and complex" (p. 7).

8. Satisfactions generate new motivations: Human beings are always desiring something. When one desire is satisfied, another one comes up. However, the "wants" are in some sort of hierarchy of prepotency.
9. Impossibility of listing drives: To once and for all to make atomistic lists of drives is unreasonable. There are several reasons. First, "there are great differences in probability of appearance of the various particular drives" (p. 8). Second, drives are not isolated. Third, a listing of drives is normally made on a behavioral basis and ignores the dynamic nature of drives. Fourth, drives arrange themselves in a hierarchy of specificity instead of an arithmetical sum of discrete members.
10. Classifying motivation according to fundamental goals: Any list of drives in the ordinary sense of instigation, certainly motivated behavior, and the specific goal object are not good bases for classification of the motivational life of human beings.
11. Inadequacy of animal data: Animal data needs to be used cautiously and wisely. It is sensible that motivation theory be anthropocentric rather than animalcentric.
12. Environment: Sound motivation theory has to consider the situation in which the organism finds itself, but must never turn into pure situation theory.
13. Integrated action: The organism behaves ordinarily as an integrated whole when life is easy and successful. The organism behaves in a disintegrated manner when the threat is overwhelming or when the organism is too weak to handle it.
14. Unmotivated behaviors: Not every reaction or behavior is motivated.
15. Possibility of attainment: People yearn for things that can possibly be actually attained. Nevertheless, the factor of possibility of attainment depends on cultures.
16. Reality and the unconscious: John Dewey believed that the characteristic impulses in adults "are integrated with and affected by reality" (p. 13). However, ". . . the occurrence of fantasy impulses . . . exist without regards to reality, common sense, logic, or even personal advantage" (p.13).
17. Motivation of highest human capacities: Motivation theory must concern the finest people as well as the weakest people.

The most famous hierarchy of needs was developed by Maslow (Oxford and Shearin, J. 1994). The hierarchy of needs begins with biological/physiological needs and moves upward to psychological/social needs (Ericksen, 1974; Oxford and Shearin, J. 1994). Maslow observed that humans are motivated to satisfy needs, and deficiency and growth needs are two classes of needs (Parsons et al., 2001). Deficiency needs are the lower four needs in the hierarchy; they are: physiological, safety, belongingness, and esteem needs. Growth needs are the higher three needs: need to know and understand, aesthetic, and self-actualization needs. The seven needs above are arranged in order of precedence, and the higher needs generally manifest themselves only when the lower needs have been satisfied. Deficiency needs cease to be motivating once they are satisfied; however, growth needs continue to expand and are never completely met(Parsons et al., 2001).

In the academic setting, Maslow "recognized that studious preparation in depth was prerequisite to a student's personal development and the ultimate satisfaction of his self-actualizing needs" (Ericksen, 1974, p. 71). In the foreign language learning setting, needs are often related to emotional or psychological security (Oxford and Shearin, J. 1994). When the learners' needs are satisfied in the second level of the hierarchy, students experience needs related to the third, fourth, and fifth level of the hierarchy (Oxford and Shearin, J. 1994).

Although the hierarchy of needs theory is well-known, Parsons et al. (2001) found that oversimplification might be one of the most common criticisms of Maslow's theory. Woolfolk (1995) indicated that most people move back and forth among the different types of needs and a behavior might reflect the perception of several needs at the same time.

Based on Maslow's theory, Alderfer (1969) proposed E.R.G. theory. E.R.G. represent three core needs of a human being. E refers to existence needs which involve all the different forms of physiological and material desires. R refers to relatedness which relate all the needs of relationships with significant others. G refers to growth which concerns all the needs of making creative or productive effects on oneself and the environment.

Achievement Motivation Theory

The achievement motivation probably is the most discussed and researched acquired motive among educational psychologists (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1981). The theory of achievement motivation is "a theory of achievement-oriented performance" (Atkinson, 1964, p. 241), which concerns "the relationship between performance and individual differences in strength

of achievement motive" (p. 240). This theory applies when a person knows that he/she or others will evaluate performance, and the result will be either success or failure. It assumes that every person has a motive to achieve success (a general disposition to seek success) as well as a motive to avoid failure (a general disposition to avoid failure). If one's motive to achieve success is stronger than the motive to avoid failure, the tendency to perform an act is strongest when the probability of success is fifty percent. In the other case, if one's motive to avoid failure is stronger than the motive to achieve success, the tendency to perform an act is strongest when the probability of success is either very high or very low (Atkinson, 1964).

The hope of success and the fear of failure are the two determinants of whether an individual will move forward or away from achievement-related tasks (Weiner, 1972). Hope of success has three components: the need for achievement, the probability of success, and the incentive value of success. Fear of failure also contains three elements: the motive to avoid failure, the probability of failure, and the incentive value of failure (Weiner, 1972).

Usually, individuals with strong achievement motivation have self-confidence and are willing to take responsibility in a controllable situation (Alschuler, Tabor & McIntyre, 1971). They set challenging goals, make long-range plans, look forward to concrete feedback, and enjoy the sense of accomplishment (Alschuler et al., 1971). Students with high needs for achievement are usually more intrinsically motivated than are those with low achievement needs (Parsons et al., 2001).

Hermans (1970) synthesized the relevant literature and proposed the following characteristics of achievement motivation. First, aspiration level: Students with low needs of achievement selected tasks that were either very easy or very difficult, while students with high needs of achievement preferred the difficulty of tasks to be in between. Second, risk-taking behavior: When the performance was dependent mainly on chance factors, students with high needs of achievement preferred lower risks than those with low needs of achievement. Third, upward mobility: People who seek occupational stratum promotion usually had high needs of achievement. Fourth, persistence: Students with high needs of achievement persisted longer than those with low needs of achievement when the probability of success approximated .50. However, students with low needs of achievement persisted longer than those with high needs of achievement while at the extreme probabilities. Fifth, task tension: Students with high needs of achievement recalled more unfinished tasks than those with low needs of achievement. Sixth, time perception: Students with high needs of achievement regarded time as dynamic, while students with low needs of achievement regarded time as static. Seventh, time perspective: Students with high needs of achievement tended to be more future oriented than those with low needs of achievement. Eighth, partner choice: Students with high needs of achievement were more likely to choose the competent, but unsympathetic, partners than those with low needs of achievement. Ninth, recognition behavior: Students with high needs of achievement strove more for recognition than did those with low needs of achievement. Tenth, achievement behavior: There was a close relationship between needs for achievement and performance tasks.

Social-learning Theory

Social learning theory holds that humans are driven by a continuous reciprocal interaction of personal and environmental determinants (Bandura, 1977). Moreover, learning occurs by direct experience, as well as by observation. "The capacity to learn by observation enables people to acquire large, integrated patterns of behavior without having to form them gradually by tedious trial and error" (p. 12). In fact, some complicated behaviors, such as linguistic skills, can be learned only through the aid of modeling. By observing different results of the actions, people acquire information which serves as a guide for future action. Further, people are motivated by the prospective consequences (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy involves the beliefs about an individual's competence in a particular situation (Parsons et al., 2001). Gredler (1986) indicated that perceived self-efficacy influences one's choice of activities, the quality of performance, and persistence in difficult tasks. People are more likely to be involved in a task if they feel capable of doing it (Pajares, 1995). "The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the more likely are persons to select challenging tasks, the longer they persist at them, and the more likely they are to perform them successfully" (Bandura, 1986, p. 397). People with low self-efficacy may think that things are more difficult than they really are, while people with high self-efficacy have feelings of serenity when facing hard tasks (Pajares, 1995).

In Bandura's theory, an anticipated outcome will occur when both outcome and efficacy expectations are met before an individual enacts a behavior (Driscoll, 1994). When a person can be sure that certain activities will result in certain outcomes, those expectations are so-called outcome expectations. Efficacy expectations refer to the self-assessments of whether a person can perform the required activities (Driscoll, 1994).

There are four sources of self-efficacy information (Bandura, 1986). First, enactive attainment: repeated successes develop strong sense of self-efficacy while repeated failures lower it. Second, vicarious experience: seeing other people's success in similar situations may raise self-efficacy. Third, verbal persuasion: people who are persuaded verbally may mobilize sustained effort. Fourth, physiological state: people usually expect success when they do not experience aversive arousal (Bandura, 1986).

Schunk (1989) offers a similar approach. Schunk argued that observing people succeed could increase observers' self-efficacy, which motivates them to attempt the task. In reverse, observing people fail could lead observers to think that they lack the ability to succeed, which could discourage them from trying the task (Schunk, 1989).

Attribution Theory

Although there are different types of attribution theories, they all involve "perceptions of causality, or the perceived reasons for a particular event's occurrence" (Weiner, 1980, p. 280). In other words, attribution theorists try to explain "the attempts of ordinary people to understand the causes and implications of the events they witness" (Ross, 1978, p. 338). "Attribution theory concerns the allocation of responsibility for an event" (Heckhausen & Weiner, 1974, p. 56), because it guides subsequent behavior (Weiner, 1974). Attribution theory assumes that thoughts guide behavior (Weiner, 1980). Weiner stated that people "seek to maximize pleasurable stimulation and to minimize painful experience" (p. 275).

Heider has been recognized as the founder of attribution theory (Weiner, 1972). Heider (1958) clarified some basic concepts about naive descriptions of behavior. The center of his analysis was the discrimination between personal and impersonal causality (Jones & Davis, 1978). He believed that the result of an action was dependent on a combination of effective personal force and effective environmental force (Heider, 1958). The effective personal force was composed of a power factor and a motivational factor. Ability was a main characteristic of a person that affects his/her power. The motivational factor referred to a task a person was trying to do and the degree of the effort he/she expended. The combination of the power factor and the effective environmental force was the "can" of an individual, while the motivational factor was the "trying" of him/her. Consequently, if one could do something and he/she tried to do it, in that case, this person would take action (Heider, 1958).

"Can" may be attributed to the person or to the environment (Weiner, 1980). For instance, success may be ascribed to high ability or to the ease of the task, whereas failure may be ascribed to a lack of ability or to the difficulty of the task. In addition, the performance of others influences the attribution of the person or the environment. If a person succeeds/fails when most others meet the same outcome, the results are attributed to the ease/difficulty of the task. If a person succeeds/fails when most others do not do, the outcomes are ascribed to the person. Furthermore, the attribution to the person or to the environment is significant for the learning of students. For example, if a student attributes success to high ability, he/she might anticipate performing well in other courses, which raises his/her level of aspiration (Weiner, 1980).

According to Schunk (1989), when people attribute their accomplishments to their ability and efforts, they take pride in what they have done. When people think that they failed because of low effort, they tend to self-critical. Similarly, students may have a low sense of efficacy for performing well and be unmotivated to study harder when they attribute their successes to teacher assistance (Schunk, 1989).

The causes of success and failure could be ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, fatigue, illness, or other people (Weiner, 1980). These causes are inferred based on the following factors: specific informational cues (e.g., past success history), casual preferences, rules that relate causes to effects, reinforcement history, and communications from others. Besides the causes of success and failure, Weiner further generalized three dimensions of causality: locus of causality, stability, and controllability. Locus of causality refers to internal or external sources of causality. Stability differentiates causes on a continuum from stable to unstable (perceived as relatively fixed or not). Controllability distinguishes causes from controllable to uncontrollable as perceived by the individuals.

Three assumptions guide the study of the intensity and the persistence of behavior in attribution theory (Weiner, 1980):

1. Behavior is mediated by both expectancies of success and the anticipated emotional reactions to these outcomes. 2. Expectancies are influenced by attributions to the stability dimension of causality. Any causal ascription for failure to unstable causes . . . will augment intensity and persistence more than ascriptions of failure to low ability or task difficulty. Effort attributions for failure seem especially facilitative because effort is subject to volitional control.

3. Affects also are influenced by perceived causality. In achievement domains, feelings of adequacy-inadequacy are particularly important determinants of action. Hence, attributions of failure to low ability are especially detrimental to future performance, compared to ascription to bad luck, lack of effort, and so on (p.381).

In achievement-related contexts, one may ascribe his/her success to effort or high ability and may regard failure as consequent to a lack of effort or low ability (Weiner, 1974). Individuals with high achievement needs attribute failure to a lack of effort, so they will work harder to strive for a previously unattained goal. On the contrary, people with low achievement motivation attribute failure to a lack of ability which is stable and not under personal control. Attribution theory has great implications for the educational process, because the attribution process is a decisive factor in learning and performance in the classroom. The causal attributions influence the possibility of trying achievement activities, the intensity of work at such activities, and the degree of persistence when confronting failure. These behaviors have influence over the degree of individual learning in educational settings (Weiner, 1974).

Attribution theory involves an individual's explanation of the factors impacting his/her success or failures as influencing his/her motivation and behavior (Parsons et al., 2001). Accordingly, understanding student attributions can lead teachers to know student motivation. Gredler (1986) found three basic assumptions of attribution theory in the classroom setting. First, "the search for understanding is a source of motivation" (p. 293). Second, a person's beliefs about the causes of past outcomes can determine his/her behaviors in new situations. Third, "the beliefs and reactions of others are important contributions to the development of students' causal attributions for success and failure" (p. 293). For example, a teacher may influence students in three ways: "the specific feedback given to the student about the performance, the teacher's nonverbal affective reaction, and the teacher's subsequent behavior toward the student" (p. 294).

Self-worth Theory

Self-worth theory presumes that "a central part of all classroom achievement is the need for students to protect their sense of worth or personal value" (Covington, 1984, p. 5). That is, personal worth depends mainly on one's accomplishments. Moreover, performance level, self-estimates of ability, and degree of effort expenditure are the factors affecting one's sense of worth. Perceptions of ability play an important role in one's self-definition. High effort and failure cause humiliation and the perception of incompetence. Thus, high ability is widely perceived as a major cause of success, and low effort is usually perceived as a major cause of failure (Covington, 1984).

Keller's Model

Keller (1983) proposed the motivational-design model for instructional designers to produce interesting, meaningful, and appropriately challenging instruction. This model assumes that there are four basic categories of motivational conditions: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. Interest concerns the arousal of learner's curiosity. Relevance relates to personal need satisfaction in the learning situation. Expectancy involves the perceived possibility of success. Finally, satisfaction includes the combination of extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation (Keller, 1983).

Personal Causation Theory

Personal causation, which is influenced by the theory of achievement motivation, is the fundamental assumption of deCharms' motivation theory (deCharms, 1976). It means that the cause of one's behavior is the person himself/herself when this person decides to act from personal commitment. Two motivational states, origin and pawn, are basic to personal causation. An origin state refers to an individual who feels that fate is controllable and the cause for his/her behavior is within himself/herself. A pawn state refers to an individual who feels the locus of causality for his/her behavior is external. The origin is positively motivated while the pawn is negatively motivated. To help a student to be an origin is to help him/her develop purpose and commitment so that his/her desired outcome can be reached (deCharms, 1976).

Personal causation involves the combination of doing, thinking, and learning (deCharms, 1984). People are origins at times and pawns in some cases. To maximize students' motivation, deCharms made some recommendations. First, teachers have to trust that all students can be origins. Second, teachers pursue the optimum amount of structure to fit the needs of the class and the individual by giving choices and creating atmosphere (deCharms, 1984).

Situated Motivation

Paris and Turner (1994) held a concept called situated motivation, that is, students' personal motivation in different situations. This concept has four critical characteristics. First, motivation is an outcome of the cognitive assessments (expectancies, values, and probabilities of potential goals, rewards, and satisfactions) that students provide in situations. Secondly, "cognitive interpretations of events are constructed, which means that they are open to distortion by virtue of age, bias, and defensive interpretation" (p. 215). Thirdly, "motivation is necessarily contextualized because individuals create unique interpretations of events, goals, and probabilities in different situations" (p. 215). Fourthly, "situated motivation is necessarily unstable" (p. 216).

Analyses of students' thoughts, feelings, and actions in specific contexts can help teachers create optimal situations that enhance students' motivation (Paris and Turner, 1994). Thus, Paris and Turner further indicated four characteristics of tasks that may promote students' motivation for learning. These important characteristics are choice, challenge, control, and collaboration.

Enhancing self-determination is one way to promote learners' intrinsic motivation, and one of the general methods for enhancing students' feelings of self-determination is to give them choices (Lepper & Henderlong, 2000). After all, the ability to choose is the essence of motivated action (Paris and Turner, 1994).

In Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) model of the flow state, people are aware of the opportunities which challenge them to act and of their capacity to cope with the situations. When the demands for action are much greater than one's capabilities, a state of anxiety ensues. When the demands for action are fewer, but still over one's skills, the experience is worry. When opportunities for action and skills are in balance, the experience is flow. When skills are more than the opportunities for action, the state of boredom occurs (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

After students choose personally interesting and challenging tasks, they have to show control and autonomy to reach their goals. Finally, students need to have opportunities to collaborate with others, which are also fundamental to motivation.

Classification of Motivation

According to Woolfolk and McCune-Nicolich (1984), psychologists are likely to have three views of motivation: the original causes of an individual's initiating a certain action, the causes of an individual to move toward a particular goal, and the causes of an individual to continue trying to reach that goal.

Brophy (1987) classified motivation as a general trait and a situation-specific state. On the one hand, general motivation to learn refers to "an enduring disposition to strive for knowledge and mastery in learning situations" (p. 206). In this situation, students usually find learning intrinsically rewarding. On the other hand, specific motivation to learn occurs "when the student engagement in an academic activity is guided by the goal or intention of acquiring the knowledge or mastering the skill that the activity is designed to teach" (p. 206).

Nolen (1988) proposed three motivational orientations. First, task orientation: a person is interested in performing, and disregards the performance of others. Second, ego orientation: an individual has a desire for better performance of a task relative to others. Third, work avoidance: one has a desire to endeavor to do as little as possible and get away with it.

Cronbach and Snow (1977) categorized motivation as constructive and defense. Constructive motivation refers to learners' need for achievement. Defense motivation concerns learners' facilitating anxiety.

Another distinction in motivation theories is primary versus secondary motivation. "Primary motivation is derived from physiological needs such as sleep, hunger and pain avoidance. Secondary motivation is learned and includes higher level needs such as those obtained within a profession" (McNeese-Smith, 1999).

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Promoting Taiwan's Adolescent's Learning Motivation in Classroom Contexts through Positive Thinking and Positive Emotion

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Abstract

This article is based on recent research approaches of educational psychology that combine cognition, emotion and motivation. In this article, positive thinking means cognition and positive emotion means emotion. Due to more and more academic stress, young students in Taiwan get less and less learning motivation. By reviewing relevant literature, this article is to, from positive and preventive perspectives, investigate how to apply the concepts of positive thinking and positive emotion to promote Taiwan's adolescent's learning motivation in classroom contexts.

This article attempts to encourage teachers to help students establish and maintain learning motivation in two major ways. First, teachers cultivate students' positive thinking. Specifically, teachers may guide students to learn how to use Seligman's ABCDE model to dispute pessimistic thoughts and to change negative explanatory style to positive explanatory style when they encounter frustration during learning. For instance, when students don't understand some concepts in class, teachers can encourage them to attribute the sake of the trouble as "temporary ", "specific", and "external". So, they would like to keep learning. Besides, teachers can help them set reachable and practical goals in order to promote students' self-efficiency. Second, teachers cultivate students' positive emotion. It means that, during learning, teachers help students discover and well use their strengths, such as perseverance, ingenuity, etc. Also, teachers may help students e
xperience flow to make sure that they are toward a wonderful positive emotion state. Furthermore, to help students experience flow, teachers should ensure that, during learning process, tasks' difficulties match one's capability. In this way, students would learn happily and grow up healthfully in classroom. Their learning motivation would be promoted.

In conclusion, there are two major ways teachers can promote adolescent's learning motivation in classroom contexts in Taiwan: positive thinking and positive emotion cultivations.

keywords: adolescent, learning motivation, classroom contexts, positive thinking, positive emotion

Teacher Professional Development and Student Math Achievement: A Successful Partnership

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Abstract

Investing in the growth of teachers has become a major facet of current federal and state reform initiatives. The advancement of professional growth of teachers is a valuable tool in school improvement. The most effective way to improve student achievement and advance school success is to increase the quality of teaching occurring in the school through quality professional growth activities. According to research, increasing the education of teachers is the investment that yields the greatest increase in student achievement (31st Annual Phi Delta Kappa, 1999). Schools and students benefit from having quality educators, as teachers acquire new skills and knowledge and "reconnect with what it means to learn and grow" (Duke, 1993, p. 712).

The most valued product of high quality education is an increase in student achievement. The ultimate goal of the professional growth of the teacher is to foster student success. To investigate the issue of teacher professional development and the impact of successful student achievement, a National Science Foundation (NSF) Math and Science partnership grant between the Regional Educational Service Agency II (RESA II) and Marshall University titled MATH was procured and designed to increase the math knowledge of practicing teachers. The research design of the study was a pretest-intervention-posttest experimental design. There was a teacher control group (30 participants) and a teacher experimental group (30 participants) that were matched with about half of the participants in each group being special education teachers and about half being regular education math teachers with similar educational degrees, age, gender, and background characteristics. A total of 364 exper

imental students (students of the experimental teacher participants) and 466 control students (students of the control group teacher participants) took both the pretest and posttest that were comprised of 20 problems dealing with algebra.

The interventions involved in the research study were a summer institute (two weeks in length) and four mini-institutes. The topics covered in the interventions dealt with a DNA blood spatter reenactment and the math involved in estimating the measurement of angles of impact, lines of best fit, and height of impact. The participants were also taught algebra content that centered on intersection of lines, parallel and perpendicular lines, slope, and trigonometry ratios. The topic of problem based learning (PBL), Excel spreadsheet in the classroom, use of graphing calculators, and TI-84 Plus and TI-Navigator were taught during the institutes.

The teacher participants in the experimental group increased their achievement test scores by 15.91% while the teachers in the control group did not have a change in their pretest to posttest percent

scores. Students of the experimental teacher participant group increased their scores by 3.93% compared to an increase of 2.40% for the students in the teacher control group.

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keywords = Professional Teacher Development, Student Math Achievement, Teacher Success, Student Science Achievement, and Successful Teacher/Student Partnership

Cross-Cultural Transfer of the Abacus for Teaching Mathematics

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Abstract. In the Far East the abacus is widely used as a teaching tool. It is argued that a computer- based abacus could provide a useful teaching aid in the UK for children with mathematics difficulties. This paper will outline research undertaken in UK schools to examine teaching and learning needs of children aged from 5-7 in the area of mathematics. Current design work and future evaluation of a computer-based abacus will be described.

Keywords: Computer-based abacus, mathematics difficulties, dyscalculia, interactive multimedia, multi-sensory learning

1   INTRODUCTION

Research suggests that 6-7% of school children in the UK have mathematics difficulties (Butterworth, 2005). Difficulties in language and mathematics appear to be closely related (Chinn and Ashcroft 1993) and many children with dyslexia are found to have difficulties in mathematics as well as language (Miles and Miles 1992, Bynner and Parsons, 1997).

Dyscalculia is a specific learning difficulty that results in problems understanding and learning mathematics (Rittle-Johnson et al., 2001). In the UK, dyscalculia is defined by the Department for Education and Skills (2001) as:

> *"A condition that affects the ability to acquire arithmetical skills. Dyscalculic learners may have difficulty understanding simple number concepts, lack an intuitive grasp of numbers, and have problems learning number facts and procedures. Even if they produce a correct answer or use a correct method, they may do so mechanically and without confidence."*

In information processing terms, the child may have problems with short term (working) memory (McLean & Hitch, 1999), retrieving arithmetic facts from long term memory (Bull & Johnston, 1997), visuo-spatial perception (McKenzie et al., 2003), sequencing (Geary, 2004), spatial awareness (Gifford, 2005), problem solving (Geary, 1994) and perceptual motor difficulties (Staves, 2001) and directional confusion (Geary, 2004). As a result, children who have dyscalculia may have difficulty with calculations, and with rapid processing of maths. They may find it hard to understand the concept of numbers, to add and subtract, remember sequences, and may reverse or transpose numbers (Dyscalculia Centre).

Research suggests that the area most commonly found to create difficulties is 'memory for arithmetical facts' (Dowker, 2004). This refers to the ability of a child to grasp simple mathematical concepts, thinking about numbers and the relationship between them (e.g. $8 + 5 = 13$, $24 - 13 = 11$, $6 \times 9 = 54$).

Children experiencing difficulties, often rely on counting strategies (e.g. counting fingers/objects); whereas unaffected children at the same age are able to rely much more on fact retrieval (Ostad, 1998; Cumming and Elkins, 1999). Other common mathematics difficulties include use of the language of mathematics, basic numeracy concepts such as the immediate recall of simple number bonds, learning multiplication facts and tables, as well as sequencing and directional problems.

There is little research on dyscalculia in general, and those studies carried out, have not received wide publicity (Dowker, 2004). There is a much stronger focus in the research literature on literacy problems (Cohen Kadosh & Walsh, 2007). However, it is argued that poor arithmetic skills are in fact, more of a handicap in the workplace than poor literacy skills (Bynner and Parsons, 1997). Struggling with mathematics can be common amongst children without specific learning difficulties, so is an important area for attention. Despite this, there has also been little in the way of recent design developments specifically targeted at children struggling with mathematics during the early school years.

1.1   Cross cultural transfer of teaching methods

The literature indicates there is limited cross-cultural transfer of teaching methods from East to West (Bishop, 1988). Fuson (1992) suggests that there is a need to develop and test new ways of teaching mathematics and specifically to test and adapt approaches from cultures that seem to be more successful in mathematics teaching.

Research findings reveal enormous discrepancies in young children's levels of mathematics competencies, and these discrepancies appear to be larger in Western countries than they are in some other countries in the Far East (Starkey & Klein, 2008). Although no formal research been undertaken regarding the prevalence of mathematics difficulties in the Far East, in general, pupils in the Far East perform well in international comparisons of mathematics achievement (Geary, 1996; Wang and Lin, 2005; D'Ailly, 1992).

One mathematics tool widely used in the Far East, but rarely seen in use in the UK is the abacus (Fuson et al., 1988). The abacus is a device used to perform operations in mathematics, mainly addition and subtraction. At a more complex level of operation it can also be used for multiplication and division. It does not require pen and paper to perform calculations, but is solely based on the visual representation on the counting board or frame. It can be used for any base number system (Young, 2004). There are various formats of the abacus from the ancient counting table, to a frame with strung beads (bead frame). There are 3 main forms of abacus still in use today; the Chinese abacus (Suan-Pan), the Japanese abacus (Soroban), and the School abacus (originated from the Russian Schoty) (Pullan, 1968). The Japanese abacus is pictured in use in Figure 1.

Figure 1. School children in the Far East performing calculations using an abacus.

The validity of the abacus as a mathematics teaching tool has been demonstrated for 'normal' students in the Far East (Chen et al., 2006). Chen et al (2006) demonstrated that changes to the brain occur with intensive training and practice on the abacus. This study used fMRI brain scanning to explore the brain activation differences between abacus experts and non-expert subjects. They found that solving computation-based problems involved more visuo-motor imagery processing, and very low level use of executive function in a group of expert abacus users compared to a group of non-experts. They also demonstrated that abacus experts tended to use fewer and more effective strategies in mental computation, which may account for the outstanding computational skills of abacus experts.

The evidence suggests that as a teaching aid, the abacus does not result in high levels of dependence. In fact, skilled abacus users are able to visualise a mental image of the abacus, and performing rapid mental calculation by manipulating imaginary beads in their brains (Stigler, 1984). As a result the users develop effective mental calculation ability.

In Sudan, Irwing et al. (2008) have shown the abacus to improve mental arithmetic and reduce dependence on rote learning and memorisation. They showed that abacus-based training supports mental arithmetic and provides benefits to working memory which are advantageous to the performance of other mental processes. As a result they believe that the abacus can provide a greater emphasis on problem solving skills which may lead to an increase in general intelligence.

Cotter (1996) reports findings that show using the AL abacus may help children develop a mental abacus as well as to develop arithmetic concepts such as place value and mental computations. AL abacus is a physical plastic frame that introduces simple number representation. The visual representation of an AL abacus such as the arrangement and colour help children understand the structure of numbers in an easy and effective way and avoid a reliance on counting.

Furthermore, a Japanese study showed that given the right circumstances, abacus-based learning can promote motivation and achievement in school mathematics, and general attitudes towards the subject (Shwalb et al., 2004). The research on use of the Japanese abacus explored its influence on mathematics learning and motivation in formal school settings. It was found to have a positive influence on mathematics education. The existence of the mental abacus was supported by the reports of many children, and was seen to be related to motivation towards mathematics and calculation skills.

Despite the emerging evidence of the benefits of the abacus, we are not aware of any existing research demonstrating use of the abacus for children with mathematical learning difficulties, or indicating extensive adoption within the UK. It is likely to be an appropriate tool to support children with learning difficulties because it conforms to the principles of tactile learning; provides a visual aid; and enables left to right reading avoiding confusion (Shen, 2006).

1.2   Computers and mathematics education

The use of computer-based learning or ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) is widespread in the UK (BESA, 2008) and strongly recommended within the National Curriculum (2009). The availability of ICT impacts how children learn mathematics (Yelland, 2001). It can enable experimentation, logical thinking and problem-solving. It can help children observe, explore and

explain patterns in numbers, shape and data, and develop mathematical vocabulary and language (National Curriculum, 2009).

It has extended benefits of motivating and engaging children and encouraging confidence and independence in learning (Higgins, 2003; Yelland, 2001; Valentine et al., 2002). However, there are few available programmes aimed specifically at mathematics and specifically dyscalculia (Parliamentary Office of Science and Technology, 2004). It is proposed that an ICT-based abacus could offer significant advantages to children with mathematics difficulties in the UK.

1.3   Aims

The literature indicates that mathematics difficulties are a significant problem in the UK. However there has been limited attention to research and development in this area. Here, we suggest a novel way of supporting UK children through the development and introduction of a Far Eastern teaching tool. A computer (or ICT) based abacus is proposed as a way of capitalising upon, and updating this traditional mathematics aid.

Through this study it is aimed to explore user needs for an ICT-based abacus through a user-centred design process (Stanton et al., 2005) and determine the feasibility of the concept for teaching children with mathematics difficulties. Here, the initial user requirements research stage is described. We then go on to describe current design work and future evaluation.

2   METHODOLOGY

A user-centred design process involves extensive consideration of the needs, wants, and limitations of the end user at each stage of the design process. This methodology adopted involved the collection of teacher and child needs in the design of a novel teaching aid for mathematics difficulties. This was undertaken through a review of existing products, observation in the classroom, and 1:1 interviews with teachers. Classroom observation was carried out to gain an understanding of mathematics difficulties and see current teaching methods in use. Interviews were used to follow up the observation sessions and gain a more in depth understanding. Ethical approval for this element of the research was obtained from Coventry University Ethics Committee.

2.1   Participants

Observation of 14 teaching sessions with 7 different teachers was observed. Group teaching was observed in 3 main stream schools (7 sessions). This included classes of 11-25 pupils, at least 2-5 pupils per class experienced mathematics difficulties, some of which were severe. Small group teaching, of up to 5 children per class was observed in 1 special education school (2 sessions). Five, one to one teaching sessions were observed at a dyslexia centre. The length of each teaching session lasted between 45 and 90 minutes.

Interviews were undertaken with 8 dyslexia teachers in the UK (with 5-15 years experience), 7 of which had been observed teaching. A further interview was undertaken with a Malaysian teacher with experience of running her own learning support and intervention service in Malaysia. All of the teachers were female.

2.2   Procedure

Informed consent was gained from the teachers, the children and their parents involved in the research. A protocol was developed for structuring the observation. This included focussing on pupil difficulties, the teaching methods employed, physical or computer-based tools in use, and students' responses to the teaching (e.g. motivation and attention). The observation sessions lasted between 45 and 90 minutes.

Interviews with the teachers were held following the observation sessions. A semi-structured interview format was followed, this comprised of questions relating to problems and strengths of children experiencing mathematics difficulties, teaching materials and methods they employ, and their views on current product/tools that are available. The interviews were taped and written notes taken.

The observation and interviews enabled identification of the teaching tools and techniques available for children with learning difficulties. This process was supplemented with a literature and web search. These tools were reviewed by three of the teachers and the first author based on criteria such as ease of installation, use and control, sound and graphics quality, learning objectives, teaching methodology appropriateness for children with mathematics difficulties.

3   RESULTS

The findings from the research reported in this paper highlight pupil difficulties, teaching methods and tools currently in use, as well as pupil responses to these. The research focused on Key stage 1 in the UK education system (typically age 5-7 years) as the literature about early child development indicated that this was the time during which a basic foundation should be developed to enable later building of more abstract concepts of number and arithmetic.

3.1   Challenges to pupils

The research revealed that many students struggle with elements of mathematics, particularly numeracy concepts, and practical mathematics skills needed to function in everyday life. Other common challenges included:

- counting
- properties of numbers and number sequences (e.g. counting numbers reliably forward and backward up to 100; knowing the number names and reciting them
- place value and ordering (read and write numerals up to 100; understand 23 is made up of 2-tens and 3-units etc.)
- estimating
- simple calculations (to solve problems using counting, addition, subtraction, doubling and halving)
- using mathematical language (read, write and order numbers)
- remembering times table

It was observed that the answers to mathematic problems often seem more important to children than the working steps of calculation. This makes it difficult to determine whether they understand the rationale of the calculations, and hold knowledge that can be built upon.

3.2   Teaching methods

The teaching tools and techniques currently employed in the UK have been identified and analysed. Many different teaching methods are used to deliver numeracy concepts. Most of these tools are physical artefacts, rather than ICT products.

The existing methods can prove impractical for problems with high values, or for use in formal exams (e.g. counting fingers and objects). Some of the teaching aids can lead to reliance, so that children reach the correct answer without understanding the rationale (e.g. Number-line & 100-square).

Some teaching methods were reported to be confusing, requiring students to perform many steps to complete the task (for example see Figure 2.). This is challenging for students with short term memory deficits, as is often the case for children with learning difficulties.
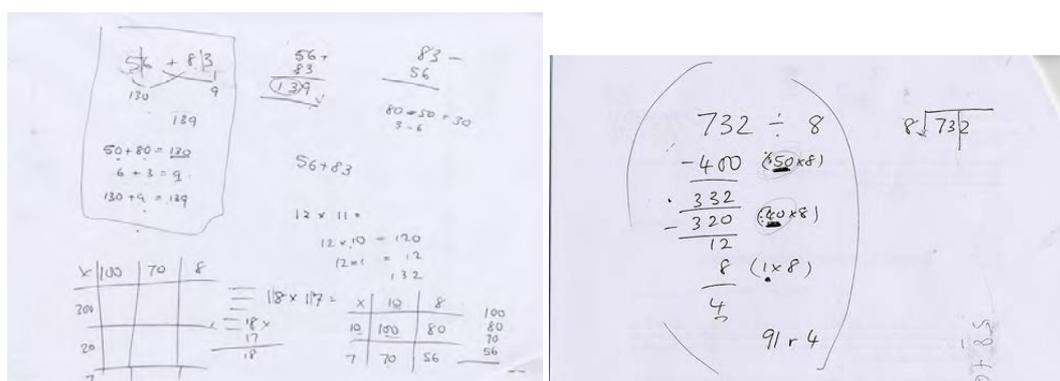
Figure 2. Complicated calculation steps may lead to confusion.

The teachers interviewed were willing to try new and varied methods to suit individual children, and specifically developments for children with dyscalculia. They all felt that they do not currently have adequate tools for improving mental arithmetic. As a result, some had developed their own methods to help pupils grasp numeracy.

The abacus is not widely used in the UK for teaching mathematics, and has not been explored for children with learning difficulties. Only 3 teachers had used a western abacus in teaching, and just for counting numbers. They were not fully utilising the functions of an abacus and were unaware of how it could further facilitate early numeracy. They were, however keen to explore this further.

3.3 ICT

The literature indicates that computer-based learning is attractive and motivating to students (Rieber, 1996). The classroom observation and interviews with teachers indicated that the graphics, animation and independent working are engaging and motivate child participation. This is important to raise confidence and self-esteem, which often dyslexic children are lacking.

Despite the advantages offered by this format, most of the tools used are physical artefacts. The available computer programmes (e.g. NumberShark®), are mainly game based and dyslexic children can be distracted by the colourful graphics and sound effects (McFarlane & Latorella, 2002).

4   DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPUTER-BASED ABACUS

In the Far East the abacus is widely used as a teaching tool. It has been shown to improve mental arithmetic and reduce dependence on the calculator. It conforms to the principles of tactile learning; provides a visual aid; and enables left to right like reading avoiding confusion and so may provide benefits to children with learning difficulties (Shen, 2006).

The area most commonly found to create difficulties for pupils with dyscalculia is developing an understanding of fundamental numeracy concepts and the relationships between numbers (Dowker, 2004). Mathematics and numeracy is a sequential subject which builds upon early knowledge and skills. Therefore remembering the fundamental numeracy concepts are essential and a tool for supporting this would be of value.

4.1   Rationale

It is proposed that in an ICT format, the abacus could add to the advantages offered by the physical abacus by offering an engaging and motivating learning experience. Therefore a computer-based abacus for supporting pupils with mathematical learning difficulties is being developed.

The tool will be directed at Key stage 1 in the UK education system (typically children aged 5-7 years). At this stage it will enable building of mental arithmetic, and most children are able to follow rules and methods.

4.2   Software development

The abacus is being designed using Macromedia Flash software. It will run on both Microsoft Windows and Apple Macintosh machines. This will enable interaction using a mouse, touch screen and keyboard.

This platform will enable use in class for demonstration, and practice on a smart board, or at home by the pupil.

4.3   Abacus design and layout

The interviews indicated that the Chinese and Japanese abaci formats were not familiar to teachers and were complex to learn in the West. The beads represent different values (e.g. upper deck beads representing values of 5, lower deck beads representing values of 1) (see Figure 3.). This requires a certain amount of basic mathematical knowledge (i.e. the relative worth of 1 and 5, and the ability to count in 5s). Operation is also dependent on the capacity to hold information in the working memory when performing calculations which involve carrying and borrowing. These would present specific challenges to young children and those with mathematic difficulties.
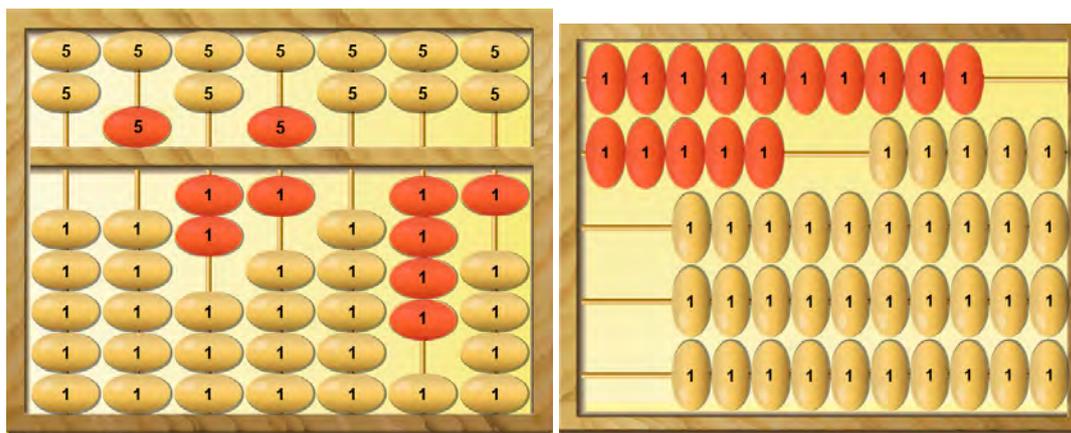
Figure 3. Eastern abacus (left) vs. Western abacus (right)

Therefore the software abacus has been developed based on the Western model. This is more straightforward, as each bead represents a value of 1, arranged in blocks of 10. This facilitates simple counting strategies reinforcing the properties of numbers as discrete units. Simple sums are readily visualised, and the concepts of tens and units and borrowing can be demonstrated.

Whilst it is not used widely in schools, the format is familiar to most children and teachers.

The physical Western abacus however cannot be used in such an advanced manner as has been demonstrated by the Chinese and Japanese abaci in the East.

4.4   Abacus activities

The advantage of ICT is that the format can be enhanced to enable additional tasks and functionality built in and it enables a log of performance to be retained. The computer programme will incorporate a resource of different learning tools designed around the abacus concept.

It will focus on different sub-sections of the curriculum standards set by 'National Literacy & Numeracy Strategies: Curriculum Standards'. In particular, the exercises will focus on developing mental images of quantities, strategies, and mathematical operations and understanding basic sets and numbers (e.g. ordering, steps of the sequence i.e. every number, every second number, and grouping) (Department for Education and Skills, 2002).

The programme will offer a combined suite of tools building on existing physical tools used in schools. It will incorporate abacus-based activities for children to grasp number sense and numeracy concepts. Figure 4 shows some early paper prototyping to explore the tasks and activities. The final design will incorporate tasks that focus on the development of early numeracy concepts and arithmetical facts. It will enable a child to practise counting, place value, recognition of odd and even numbers, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.
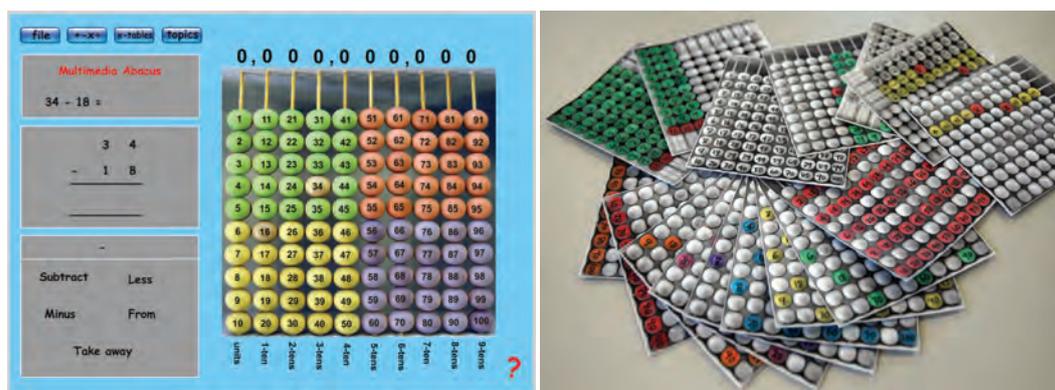
Figure 4. Paper prototyping explores the possible abacus activities.

4.5   Learning support

The presentation of multi-sensory information within the abacus programme will meet the needs of children with varying learning styles and reinforce the learning experience (Orton-Flynn & Richards, 2000). Furthermore, the provision of graphics, sound and tactile interaction (through the touch screen) will support spatial thinkers and visual and kinaesthetic learners (Doyle & Rutherford, 1984).

The programme can be personalised and therefore set for the different needs of children in regards to topic, level of difficulty, complexity, visual needs, background knowledge and interest. The activities undertaken can be saved and performance over time logged for each child. Activities can be flexibly set in terms of time frame needed, repetition of visual representations, instance feedback, and rewards in order to support the learning curve.

4.6   Future Work

Evaluation of the ICT abacus in UK schools in due to begin in October 2009. An iterative user-centred design approach is being adopted (Stanton, 1998). This will involve evaluation of whether the learning objectives have been met by the programme, and an assessment of the programme's usability.

Usability evaluation is an essential validation phase that considers the extent to which a product achieves its specific goals, with effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction (ISO, 1998). Initially a mock up will be evaluated informally with teachers in terms of the usability of the system.

Once reliability and usability has been established, a working prototype will be taken into schools and the impact of the tool on children's level of understanding, and learning of basic mathematics concepts will be evaluated. Children at Key stage 1 will take part in the study, as well as children identified to have specific mathematics learning difficulties. This stage of evaluation will also involve qualitative feedback on the engagement and motivating qualities of the software and usability assessment, to ensure ease of use is achieved for both teachers and children.

5   CONCLUSIONS

This paper has described initial research undertaken in the design of ICT for children with mathematics difficulties. Based on the transfer of a teaching tool used widely in the Far East, a computer-based abacus is being developed. A user-centred design approach is being adopted to build in activities based on National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies to address Key stage 1 learning outcomes. The resulting tool will cater to the needs of children with learning difficulties and offer the benefits of conforming to the principles of multi-sensory learning, providing a visual aid allowing tactile exploration, and enabling left to right reading. Ongoing work involves the iterative design and evaluation of the resulting software.

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Application of the Flanders' Interaction Analysis System to Evaluate Students' engagement on Mathematical lessons

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Keywords: interaction analysis, engagement, mathematical lesson, lesson study; secondary education

Abstract

Lesson study is a hot issue in the world. Many researchers conducted several studies and reported their results to say how they improved their lessons by the way of teacher's reflection or students' learning portfolios. A big problem is that it is difficult to evaluate student's engagement scientifically. Therefore, how to measure the active learning attitudes and students' learning effect in Mathematics lessons is still a very important issue in Taiwan. This study is to explore the characteristics of "Flanders' Interaction Analysis System" and then apply this technique to analyze a video tape of mathematics lesson. We cut the 37-minutes video tape into 1163 units and then used 10 category, 22-category and 18-category systems to analyze the video and paper data. Finally, we got 1174 codes totally to span some tables. After the data analysis, we found that: the value of "Percent teacher talk" is 54.94 (norm=70); "Percent student talk" is 36.54 (norm=19); "Teacher response ratio" is 79.95 (norm=35); "Teacher question ratio" is 68.75 (norm=20); "Pupil initiation ratio" is 39.39 (norm=35). All the evidences indicated that it was a typical dialogue teaching. The teacher used questioning to guide classroom discussion. Both Percent student talk and Pupil initiation ratio shows the students were active during the teacher-student interaction. A continuing challenge for this study is to modify the evaluation category for mathematical teaching and to identify the content and thinking elements to reinforce the interpretation power of "the content cross ratio".

Keywords: interaction analysis, engagement, mathematical lesson, lesson study; secondary education

Piloting Web Based Exam with large number of students

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Abstract:

Students in the pre-college Foundation Program (FP) at Qatar University study Mathematics in English. In such circumstances would the assessment method impact the learning process? This paper explores two approaches that were experimented with 217 students to determine if the exam delivery method has an impact on student performance. One assessment method was completely paper based and the other fully computer based.   In this paper we will explore the benefits and shortcomings of each method.

6   PARTICIPANTS

In this paper, the selected sample is from Science, Engineering & Pharmacy track consisting of two semesters of intermediate algebra, pre-calculus & trigonometry (Math3 & Math4).

This study took place in the Department of Math and Computer (DMC), Foundation program at Qatar University. There were 217 students from 11 math groups participating in this study. All enrolled in the first level (Math 3). This sample is made of 4 Male groups with a total of 78 students and 11 female groups with a total 139 students. The sample is a combination of repeating students and newly enrolled students in the course.

7   INTRODUCTION

Web based exam WBE also known as Computer-Based Testing (CBT), e-exam, computerized testing and computer-administered testing, "is a method of administering tests in which the responses are electronically recorded, assessed, or both. As the name implies, Computer-Based Assessment makes use of a computer or an equivalent electronic device (i.e. handheld computer)." (Source: *Wikipedia*).

The mission of the Foundation Program (FP) is to prepare high school graduates to meet the minimum common entrance requirements in English language, Mathematics and computing skills, as set by Qatar University, and specific entrance requirements, as set by the University colleges.

In order to enhance the performance of Science & Engineering students and to encourage them to work continuously during the semester the DMC introduced an additional set of exams called *mini-exams*.

Mini-exam duration is 50 minutes with the possibility for a student to have a second chance (i.e. take the exam a second time but with a different exam version) in the event that s/he fails the first attempt.

Each mini-exam is held once a month and is worth 3 percent of the overall student total grade for the course. It is the responsibility of the student to register for **three** mini-exams during the semester. Each mini-exam is worth **three marks** totaling **nine marks** of the course grade.

Each mini-exam is administered outside regular classroom hours during two days which are specified by the DMC at the beginning of the semester and published in the syllabus as well.

Different exam versions are always administered for each trial. By passing the first try the student will earn the full 3 points of that exam. Passing on the second try will result in earning only 2 points. Failing both tries but with a combined score of 70% or more for both attempts will result in earning only 1 point; otherwise no points are earned for that mini-exam. Students are not allowed to take both tries within the same day.

8   WHY COMPUTER WEB BASED MINI-EXAM?

These mini-exams are administered by the DMC for over 700 students (2 math levels). It requires large resources such us classrooms, tutors, and proctoring staff. The three main challenges facing the DMC during mini-exams are:

1. Exam papers should be graded and posted for students within 48 hours after exam. This will give time to students who failed to prepare for the second trial.
2. Since grading is done in a short period of time for a large number of students, errors in students' grades were always reported.
3. Some versions of the mini-exams have different degrees of difficulty and this is unfair to students and consequently the results do not reflect exactly the students' levels.

In order to meet all of these challenges and to administer the mini-exams efficiently, the DMC moved the paper-written mini-exam to a Web Based Test using Learning Management System Blackboard. In order to make students familiar with this new system, the DMC has implemented in the computer course level 1 syllabus the features, tools and functionality of Blackboard. In addition, the use of Blackboard for all math courses is mandatory starting fall 2008.

 A committee was assigned the task to create test pools consisting of questions consistent with the syllabus. This mini-exam Implementation Committee, MIC, was tasked with the transformation of both Math3 (first level intermediate algebra with trigonometry) and Math4 (second level intermediate algebra with trigonometry) paper based exams to randomly generated Computer Based Exams using the Learning Management System on Blackboard.

After three months of having been handed the task, in spring 2009, MIC had reached its first objective. It had delivered the mini-exams online to Math3 students. To meet the pedagogical concept of delivering a variety of question types to students, MIC has created a large number of test pools which

were populated with an appropriate variety of question types: true/false, multiple choice questions, multiple answers questions, hot spots, and fill in the blanks.

At that point the exam had been run six times (both try1 and try2) successfully and had received great feedback from students and faculty members. The MIC continues to work on the second objective to get the same results for the Math4 course.

9   MINI-EXAM E-REGISTRATION (MEE)

The online registration system developed in the University has been designed to smooth the process of mini-exam registration. It gives the opportunity for students to select the exam date, time, and location that are convenient to their course schedule. MEE is a web application that allows online registration by functioning as a web server that accepts and responds to the requests made by the users. In short, students can organize their mini-exams schedules through the internet.

10   GOING TO LEVEL 2 COURSE: THE VISUAL APPROACH

In the Foundation math program, Math3 is a rather technical course centered on studious algebraic manipulations and is, therefore, extremely abstract.   For this very reason it was relatively straight forward process to build the test bank for Math3 in 3 months' time.

On the other hand in Math4 the content (Functions, Reading Functions, Transformations, Quadratic Functions, Operations on Functions, Exponential & Logarithmic Function and Trigonometry) calls for both algebraic **calculations** and the concept of **visual** interpretation of results. Therefore we use a different approach which is to teach students techniques that help them interpret the solutions based on mathematical reasoning combined with visualizing the problem. This approach also functions as a critical thinking method to help students' reasoning capabilities.

 In our approach we lead students to visualize, and to represent intuitively and easily, various functions starting with simple cases and progressing to complex cases. In this way, the ***techniques*** of problem solving are acquired incrementally. Students gain strength, confidence and insight into investigative methods, ***naturally***, by handling the solution of simple to complex tasks in stride. With our method, students are not blind-sided by the sometimes daunting invasion of algebra into the realm of calculus. With our technique, students identify the class to which a function belongs and step by step trace what seems easier (basic functions), then gradually reconstitute the given expression.

11   WEB-BASED INSTRUMENT

To generate high quality of graphs for the mini-exam test bank, the authors chose the software **Acrotex** [1] which consists of Adobe's **Acrobat** software and the mathematics typesetting system **Latex.** For instance, you may look at samples of resources online [2] where students can find mixed assortment of course files. These on line course materials were designed to help students to practice and get prepared for mini-exams, midterm and final.

A sample of question using Acrotex tool.

12   WEB BASED TESTING

The search for a suitable testing tool to give the joy of seeing good and clear pictures to students was a top priority to authors in designing the test bank for Math4. If we neglect the visual aspect of problem solving, and put more emphasis on algebraic methods, our exam delivery efforts may not fully be beneficial due to algebra's abstract nature. A significant amount of calculus concepts can be taught more effectively using visualization especially if supported by graphs.

The following image shows the pool manager of questions following a specific syntax, for example 1.1A_LINEAR_EQUATIONS_SOLVING_LINEAR_FORM_ [MC] represent a pool of questions that covers the section linear equations and the type of questions [MC] stands for multiple choices.
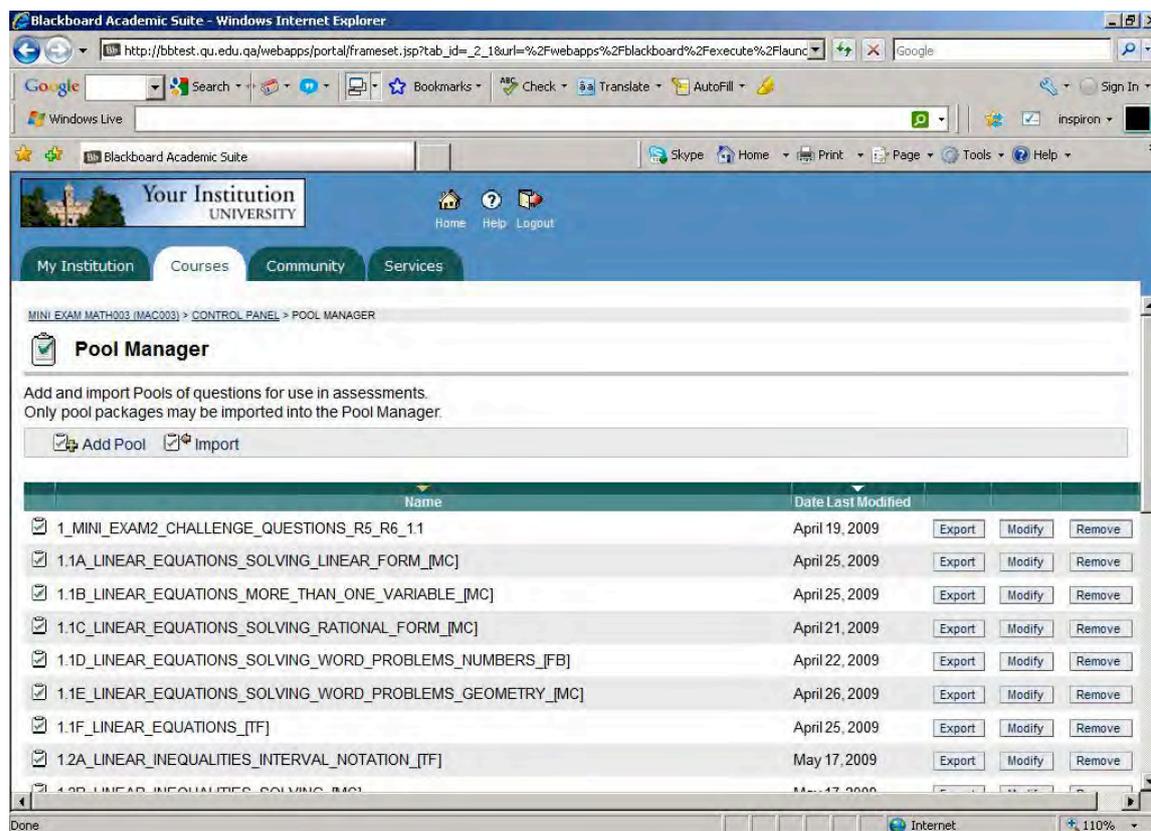
Two samples of questions chosen from the Math 3 (level 1) pools

Below a sample of a question chosen from the Math 4 (level 2) pools of questions.

13   COMPARISON RESULTS

In this section, we compare Math 3 students' results of Mini-exam 2 (ME2) done using paper-pencil during the term spring 2008 and web based exam done during the term spring 2009. The sample of students is almost identical with a slight higher number of female students during the spring 2009. There were almost no changes in students' results.

Math3-Spring2008

Pencil and paper

Math3-Spring2009

Web based

	ME2		
		# of students	Passing Rate
Male	Attended one trial	42	51.22%
	Attended two trials	13	15.85%
	passed with 3	32	39.02%
	passed with 2	8	9.76%
	passed with 1	2	2.44%
	failed with 1 trial	10	12.20%
	failed with 2 trials	3	3.66%
	did not attend	27	32.93%
	Total	**82**	
Female	Attended one trial	83	61.94%
	Attended two trials	18	13.43%
	passed with 3	74	55.22%
	passed with 2	8	5.97%
	passed with	3	2.24%

	ME2		
		# of students	Passing Rate
Male	Attended one trial	35	42.68%
	Attended two trials	17	20.73%
	passed with 3	25	30.49%
	passed with 2	4	4.88%
	passed with 1	10	12.20%
	failed with 1 trial	10	12.20%
	failed with 2 trials	3	3.66%
	did not attend	26	31.71%
	Total	**78**	
Female	Attended one trial	67	50.00%
	Attended two trials	32	23.88%
	passed with 3	42	31.34%
	passed with 2	6	4.48%
	passed with	20	14.93%

	1		
	failed with 1 trial	9	6.72%
	failed with 2 trials	7	5.22%
	did not attend	33	24.63%
	Total	**134**	
All	Attended one trial	125	57.87%
	Attended two trials	31	14.35%
	passed with 3	106	49.07%
	passed with 2	16	7.41%
	passed with 1	5	2.31%
	failed with 1 trial	19	8.80%
	failed with 2 trials	10	4.63%
	did not attend	60	27.78%
	Total	**216**	

	1		
	failed with 1 trial	25	18.66%
	failed with 2 trials	6	4.48%
	did not attend	40	29.85%
	Total	**139**	
All	Attended one trial	102	47.22%
	Attended two trials	49	22.69%
	passed with 3	67	31.02%
	passed with 2	10	4.63%
	passed with 1	30	13.89%
	failed with 1 trial	35	16.20%
	failed with 2 trials	9	4.17%
	did not attend	66	30.56%
	Total	**217**	

The following organizational chart helps to understand the structure of the WBE process at FP, Qatar University.
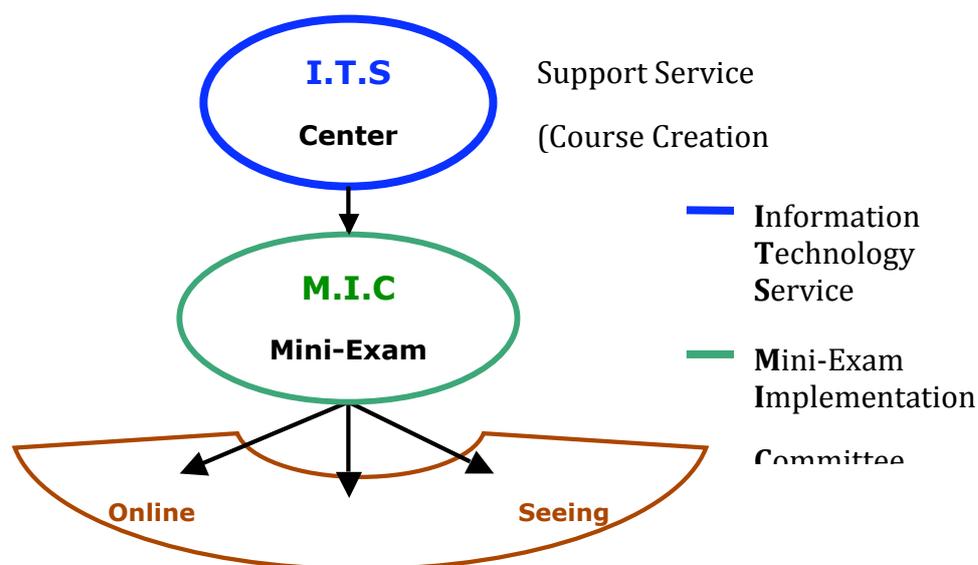
14   CONCLUSION

This pilot project was started during the semester of spring 2009 and the MCD is continuously evaluating and studying the impact of this new method of assessment in the student learning process. For the fall 2009 semester, MCD will run online mini-exams for both levels. More data will be collected and therefore the authors plan to make a thorough comparison of students' results with pencil-paper vs. online mini-exams. This will be the subject of the next paper.

Automating the Mini-Exam leads to students' error free grades, less paperwork, and the student is able to see his/her grade and feedback right after submitting the test.

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In this paper, the authors have reported the results of a great team work. The help of QU Information technology Center staff was remarkable and efficient. All tutors and teachers within the DMC contributed to facilitate the process and the logistics in all mini-exams.

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Different solutions ? Teacher professionalisation in an era of reform in Scotland and Hong Kong

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Abstract

How professionalised is teaching ? Debates on this topic have raged for many years and more recently in many parts of the globe teachers' work and professional status has been under pressure from economic and educational reforms. While in some places reform has been understood to threaten and undermine teacher professionalism, in others (reform through teachers rather than reform of teachers) evidence has emerged of teacher autonomy and professionalism being maintained and even enhanced by reforms (Tatto, 2006). There are of course many facets to professionalism including control of access to the profession through qualifications, standards and regulation, teacher autonomy, commitment to improvement and recognition of the complexity of judgement inherent in teaching . This paper draws on research by the authors in Scotland and Hong Kong, looking at the different paths to professionalism which have been followed in these two contexts, with a particular focus on professional formation and teacher development from initial teacher preparation through early induction into teaching to opportunities and support for continuing professional development and professional leadership. It will draw on theories of professionalism and critically consider the contribution of these to an understanding of the professionalism journeys. It will consider the extent to which the processes in place to support the development of teachers reflect distinctive local solutions to a global shift towards teacher professionalisation

Keywords: teacher development,professional formation, induction, professionalisation

Teacher Development in an Asian Context

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Abstract

This research-funded project focuses on teacher development with the aim of establishing a teacher development program. The ongoing project is being implemented at selected tertiary schools in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand. It seeks to equip teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to meet the specific needs of the students, and to develop learner autonomy and critical thinking. A significant part of this is the development of a non-prescriptive teacher self assessment guide.

Background

For the past few years, students at the authors' university have been involved in study abroad programs in Vietnam and Thailand. At the same time, we had the opportunity to observe English classes in local schools and we noticed that teachers in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand had similar teaching practices. It also became apparent that many teachers were not getting what they expected from their students, that is, to be able to communicate in English. With the aim of helping teachers to improve their teaching and to develop their own materials, we formally began our research with class observations of English classes in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand. Along with the class observations, we conducted interviews with the teachers before and after the lessons observed. In September 2008, the findings from these sessions were presented at a teacher seminar in Vietnam. Teacher concerns and needs raised at the seminar led to the development of a Teacher Self Assessment Guide. This guide is currently being trialed in schools in all three countries.

Literature Review

Teacher development, like professional development as emphasised by Diaz-Maggioli (2003), is an ongoing learning process in which teachers voluntarily learn how best to modify their teaching to the learning needs of their students. As expected, the role that teachers play in the classroom is vital, and Carey (2004) and Haycock (1998) have emphasised the increasing recognition that teachers are the most important factor in student achievement. However, Smith and Gillespie (2007) pointed out that regardless of whether it is the teachers' background and qualifications, teaching methodologies, or alignment of standards with curriculum and accountability that leads to learner success, each of these depends on effective training and preparation of the teachers. Marva Collins (1992), an American educator and National Humanities Medal recipient, put it succinctly when she said, "Don't try to fix the students, fix ourselves first" (p. 9). Indeed, well-informed teachers pay attention not only to the conduct and behaviour of their students but also to their own actions. In fact, Ur (1997) pointed out that self-reflective observation of classroom practices is a necessary part of the teacher development cycle. Kayler and Weller (2007) emphasised the idea of self-reflection as one component of a cycle, stressing that improvement should be continuous. In reviewing their own practices, not only are the teachers able to detect any areas of their teaching that may be deficient or problematic, there is also increased awareness of the impact of their teaching on their students (Kayler & Weller, 2007, p. 143). When teachers initiate changes to better themselves professionally, they are also making meaningful contributions to the students' learning experience, and this in turn would be reflected as growth on the program or institution itself (Hrach, 2001-2002, pp. 6-7). Furthermore, self-evaluation is not only valuable for improvement of the teachers, students and the program, it also gives the teachers ownership, individual voices and control of their own teaching (Contreras, 2000; Fritz, 2001; Kayler & Weller, 2007).

Project Framework

The aim of this project is to develop a teacher training program in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand. The first stage of this project involved classroom observations at selected public and private primary, secondary, and tertiary schools in the three countries. This was done to explore classroom processes relevant to language use, content focus, content control, skills focus, and type and source of materials

used (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). As a result of the interviews and observations, many participating teachers came to realise that there was incongruence between their teaching beliefs, their expectations from a classroom and what actually took place in the lessons. In the second stage of this project, the data from the observations and interviews were presented at a teacher seminar in Vietnam with over 80 local English language teachers and graduate students of English teaching. Common basic questions and needs among the participants of the seminar were identified, leading to the development of a Teacher Self Assessment Guide. The third stage, trialing the self assessment guide, is currently taking places in schools in the three countries. Throughout the stages, this project does not seek to prescribe any particular teaching methodology. Its objective is to encourage teachers to be to self reflective in their teaching so that they are able to design and develop their own materials that are supported by their teaching philosophies and suited to the needs and interests of their students.

Participants

The participants in this study comprise of selected public and private primary, secondary, and tertiary teachers in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand. They were chosen using the non-probability sampling, specifically the availability or convenience sampling. In each country, we received assistance from teachers with whom we have established professional relationships. For example, in Japan, we sought permission to carry out classroom observations from our University, schools of our colleagues, and high schools we had visited for our University's high school visit program. In Vietnam, the Office of International Affairs of the University of Social Sciences and Humanities (USSH) in Ho Chi Minh City obtained permission for us to observe classes of their English teachers. The same Office also facilitated our classroom observations at primary and secondary schools with which they have connections. In Thailand, we made contact with individuals from Thammasat University with whom our University has an international exchange agreement. For our teacher seminar in Vietnam, an open invitation was sent to our colleagues and their associates, as well as teachers the teachers who participated in our class observations and interviews.

Stage 1 – Class observations and interviews

In trying to understand the nature of interactions in the language classroom, two types of instruments were prepared. One is a pre-lesson interview questionnaire. It asked teachers about their education background, teaching methods, philosophy of teaching, problems encountered in the classroom and solutions to the problems, student performance assessment, use of homework, and expectations from students. The second instrument is Spada and Frohlich's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme. The scheme was designed to describe the complexity and diversity of instructional events in L2 classroom settings. This includes the variety of activities and modalities used, the type of language that learners produce in pair or group work, the types of questions teachers and students ask each other, the kinds of verbal interactions which take place within different tasks, the lesson's content focus, the control of content and even the type of source of materials used. The original COLT observations scheme has two parts, but only Part A was used in this project. Part A, the macro-level analysis, involves real-time coding that details classroom activities on five levels (Yu, 2006). These are *activity type* (kind of tasks and exercises that students need to perform during the lesson), *participant organisation* (teacher-centered or student-centered activities), *content* (code-based or meaning-based), *student modality* (time spent on listening, speaking, reading, and writing), and *materials* (type, length and sources of texts used). The scheme was not modified for this study.

Before the classroom observations took place, permission was sought from the schools, teachers and their students. In Japan, we visited schools where we taught previously and also observed classes at our university. We also visited high schools that are part of our university's high schools visit program. Formal letters were sent to the principals for approval. In Vietnam, we explained our research objectives to the Office of International Relations of USSH, followed by a formal letter to the Office asking for permission to conduct classroom observations. After permission was granted, the Office contacted teachers from USSH, and the principals from different public and private primary and secondary schools about our project. The same procedure was followed in Thailand. Only teachers and students who had given their agreement to be observed, recorded on video and allow us to publish materials based on their classes were observed. We confirmed this agreement with the teachers and students before each class observation.

For the observations, each of us observed classes separately when possible. The lessons were recorded with a video camera. Using video analysis to study teaching and learning resources has some advantages (Stigler, Gallimore & Hiebert, 2000). It allows for in-depth examination of complex activities from different points of view. It also preserves classroom use of teaching and learning materials by many people with different kinds of expertise, making possible detailed descriptions of many classroom lessons. Furthermore, it increases the opportunity to develop powerful theoretical observational systems to analyse the use of resources in the classroom and learning situations. During the observations, besides recording in the COLT scheme and by video, we also made observational notes or anecdotal notes to record anything that may not have been within the scope of the COLT scheme and not captured by the video camera. After the observations, we also conducted post-lesson interviews with teachers to clarify any questions we may have had about their lessons.

In analyzing the classroom activities, data from the COLT scheme was used to determine the language teaching and learning nature of the lesson. For example, the teacher spent 15 minutes teaching a new grammar point, then spent 5 minutes on activity explanation, and students spent 15 on the activity. This data was first examined against the teacher pre-lesson interviews and then the post-lesson interviews. In most cases, the teachers had expressed in the pre-lesson interviews that they wanted their students to be able to speak more in English. However, many of the lessons involved the teachers teaching or explaining to the students, effectively decreasing the time and opportunity for students to use and practise English. When this was mentioned in the post-lesson interviews, many of the teachers expressed that they simply did not realise that this was the actual situation. Some teachers did not accept the situation as applicable to them until they were shown the video recording. Notwithstanding, it was established that there was significant differences between teaching philosophy, what teachers believe they were doing in lessons, and what was actually happening in lessons. Also, teacher self assessment was an essential component to be incorporated into the teacher development program.

Stage 2 – Teacher seminar and discussion

In September 2008, we held a seminar at USSH (Vietnam) to present the findings from the observations and interviews. Teachers were invited to participate in an open discussion about the findings and their applications to language teaching. The seminar was not limited to teachers involved in the original observations. When teachers from different backgrounds came together, there was the opportunity to learn from each other's different experiences. This was an important component of the teacher development program as it acted as an invaluable resource for the teachers and the information was diverse, current and personal.

In the seminar, it was established that that teaching, as in other professions, has standards that ensure the quality of its members. Although Davidson (2002) suggested that English teachers be treated as other professionals (like doctors and lawyers) to the extent that they can be held legally responsible for the lack of quality service provided to their students, there are some deterrents to teachers upholding or meeting such standards. Many of the teachers at the seminar expressed that working conditions were sometime poor to the extent that they did not have access to essentials like chalk and dusters. This was also often the case in Thailand. In Japan, limited access to computers and printers discouraged some teachers from realising their plans. Teachers also stated that another reason that may deter them from trying harder is the rigid pay scale for teachers. In Japan, Vietnam and Thailand, many of the teachers we interviewed (particularly part-timers) found it necessary to hold two or three teaching jobs to earn a sufficient salary to support their preferred lifestyles in their respective countries. Although it seems that the system in which many teachers work does not encourage personal growth or change, teachers do spend time and effort on self-improvement. This could be observed in teachers spending their own time and money attending language teaching conferences and seminars.

Although most teachers expressed that their classroom aim is for their students to be confident and be able to use English beyond the textbook and examination context, this aim is actually not part of most teachers' requirement as a language teacher. Most teachers agree that the aim of their classes set by their institutions is to help students pass entrance examinations. However, most of these examinations test only reading, writing and grammar. Many students who pass these examinations cannot functionally use English outside the classroom. While the teachers' actions are influenced by their respective Ministries of Education, the students' parents and the society, their desire to develop student

competency in English is in fact what motivates them to continue to develop themselves as professional teachers (Hosokawa, n.d.).
However, even though students' ability to use English is not a course objective in itself, many teachers make it a personal goal for their classes.

Teachers at the seminar and those we interviewed conveyed personal satisfaction in their jobs when working with highly motivated students, especially those who actively utilise the teachers as a learning resource. In contrast, students with low motivation is a result of the students' own lack of interests. In other words, motivated students are viewed as the teachers' own success, while unmotivated students are seen as being responsible for their own failures. A point to be made is that motivated students are "good" students regardless of the teacher. Students who read ahead in the textbook are progressing at their own pace regardless of the teacher's pace. Students' own personal interests in the target language can also affect the students' achievement (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991). However, students who are unmotivated or disruptive are often classified as "bad" or "lazy". The use of these labels conveniently avoids placing responsibility on anyone but the students. Teachers do not feel it necessary to change their own behaviours because it is the students' bad behaviours, determined by factors outside the classroom, that need changing. Collins (1992) sees this often-typical situation and remarks that "the good ones [teachers] are constantly trying to find answers; the poor ones are constantly making excuses" (p. 11).

Stage 3 – Teacher Self Assessment Guide (TSAG)

It was determined at the seminar that a key aspect of effective teacher development and successful language learning is the importance of teacher awareness. The teachers must first understand and be actively aware of what is happening in their classes, and only then can they make effective changes in the classroom. Our Teacher Self Assessment Guide (TSAG) is one way of having a written record of what happens during a lesson. *Appendix A* shows a possible layout for the TSAG. It is intended to be easily understood by the teachers who use it and could be used without being time-consuming. There are 5 Teacher Self Assessment Guides: reading, speaking, listening, writing, and grammar. Each TSAG, planned to fit on an A4 size sheet, has four sections, including a pre-lesson and post-lesson section.

The pre-lesson section includes a list of common *Objectives* for the particular skill, plus space to write in other objectives. The list of objectives gives the teachers a list from which they can decide what they will teach in the lesson. It also serves as a checklist to remind the teachers of the variety of objectives that can be taught within one skill. Frequent use of the TSAG for a specific skill provides a record and a broader picture of what has been taught over time. *Activities* directly related to the objectives are also in the pre-lesson section. This provides for a clear connection between the objectives for a lesson and the activities done to achieve those objectives. Explicitly stating the class activities also encourages the teachers to reflect on the lesson.

The post-class section includes space for *Reflective Notes*. Reflection is valuable for growth in education. Teacher diaries (Jeffrey, 2004), peer coaching (Benedetti, 1997), portfolios (Johnson, 1996), weblogs (Hall, 2006), and collective reflection (Dong, 1997) could all be beneficial to varying degrees. However, these types of reflection may be considered by teachers as being too time-consuming. Brief and detailed notes are suitable for the *Reflective Notes* section of the TSAG.

A final section is *Student Observation*, to record notes on one particular student during class. As discussed before, achievement by self-motivated students does not necessarily show teacher success. For the purpose of assessing the effectiveness of a lesson, choosing a less motivated student or a student who ranks average or just below average in the class would provide a more accurate representation. Awareness of that student's attitude, behavior and how they are responding to class activities could help teachers reflect on their teaching.

The TSAG was developed to be used easily and quickly. It is currently being tested by our teacher partners in Japan, Vietnam and Thailand. We have encouraged them to use it frequently to give themselves a better understanding of their teaching practices, not only for one lesson, but also throughout the course of a class (or classes). It is hoped that as teachers incorporate the Teacher Self

Assessment Guide into a routine of self-reflection, that they will see an improvement in their students' competency as well as their own teaching.

Conclusion

Rogers (1940) asserted that "when we become English teachers, we take on responsibilities to our subject and to our students" (p. 397). We regard self-reflection by teachers as a vital part of undertaking those responsibilities. Teachers' active awareness of themselves and their students is essential for professional development. We believe that the TSAG is a helpful way to develop this awareness. With the feedback from the participating teachers, we expect to introduce a comprehensive TSAG kit. Beyond that, we plan to have discussions on developing materials for good teaching practices.

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Appendix A

Sample Teacher Self Assessment Guide - Reading

Teacher Self Assessment Guide - Reading			
OBJECTIVES[1]	**ACTIVITIES**	**REFLECTION NOTES**	**STUDENT OBSERVATION**
- get the main point - understand important facts - guess vocabulary from context - get specific information - make inferences - recognise text organisation - identify writer's purpose - understand writer's conclusion - reading speed Others: - _____ - _____ - _____ - _____ - _____	Pre - Read a passage, students answer questions. Post – this was too difficult, so I had students work in pairs	Many students couldn't do the work. I changed to have them do it in pairs. I thought it would be easy, but too much vocab they didn't understand. Too much time needed to look up words. need to do something about vocab… students don't write vocab in notebook… they need to read the questions first…	**Name**: B. Arthur Arthur read the passage, but then tried reading the questions but didn't succeed. He was looking up each word in the dictionary, but sometimes got the wrong definition for how it was used – e.g. red-faced – he thought it was about paint. He needs to think about understanding the whole passage...next time I should give questions about the general topic

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[1] Adapted from Robb & Susser (1989), Levine, Ferenz, & Reves (2000) and Jiao (2007).

Teacher Development in Cambodia

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Overview

This case study depicts professional development activities of primary teachers in four schools located in Siem Reap, Cambodia, in child development, health and hygiene. In March, 2009 the National Institute of Education (NIE) in the Republic of Singapore was commissioned by the Singapore-based Temasek Foundation to fund a capability-development programme in Siem Reap, in collaboration with Caring For Cambodia (CFC). CFC is a non-profit, non-governmental organization, which focuses on improving the education and lives of more than 5,000 Cambodian students within the Siem Reap region. The brief was to make available a training programme for CFC which would enhance primary teachers' pedagogical and content knowledge with regard to child development and to improve the standards of health and hygiene of the children in their care. In addition to the CFC teachers, three representatives of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of the Kingdom of Cambodia also attended the workshops.

During a six-month period, teacher educators at NIE worked intensively with CFC to assess teachers' professional development needs, create relevant, meaningful and engaging professional development activities, implement training, and evaluate outcomes. There is an enormous gap in research related to the professional development of teachers in Southeast Asia. This paper contributes to the emerging research literature.

Extreme poverty, poor sanitary conditions, contagious diseases, and low levels of education are pervasive throughout the country. CFC has concentrated on providing sustained, coherent, and relevant professional development for teachers. Prolonged engagement and three visits to Siem Reap, Cambodia allowed teacher trainers to gain some understanding of the educational needs of the community, engage in conversations with teachers and administrators, and visit schools and villages.

Glorious Past and Current Conditions

Cambodia's past reveals a flourishing civilization, with a vibrant culture. From the 9th to the 15th century the Khmer Empire built glorious palaces and temples. The center of the civilization was the Angkor Wat temple complex, near Siem Reap and the Great Tonle Sap Lake.

In the 1970's, internal strife resulted in genocide during which more than one million and half people were annihilated and the culture nearly destroyed. Educated citizens were targeted for extermination and this led to the loss of a generation of teachers and educated leaders. According to Benveniste, Marshall, and Araujo (2008), the Royal Government of Cambodia estimated that individuals killed included 75 percent of teachers, 96 percent of university students, and 67 percent of primary and secondary school students. The government, along with non-governmental organizations (NGOs), is striving to rebuild the educational system.

Today, most people live under dire conditions. The country has a high poverty level, low levels of education, poor sanitation, and high infant mortality.

Not every family has access to clean water and adequate sanitation. Many families do not have enough to eat and therefore expect young children to work. This affects school attendance and the risk of dropping-out. Children are frequently required to help their families by minding siblings, working in the rice paddies, gathering firewood, sweeping, washing clothes, cooking, and other similar tasks. Families often lack an understanding of child development and the skills required to prepare children

for school. There may be little connection between home life and the knowledge and skills needed for learning. Many families lack an understanding of child development because it has not been taught to caregivers.

Within the Siem Reap region, there are abundant water resources including the great Tonle Sap Lake, Mekong River, and the coastal areas of the Gulf of Thailand. However, most people do not have access to clean, sanitary water resources. Tonle Sap and parts of the Mekong River and coastal areas have high pollution levels. The lack of sanitary water contributes to the high childhood disease level and mortality rate.

Childhood mortality (Collins, Lewis, & Stenberg, 2007) is attributed to neonatal causes, water borne illnesses (such as diarrhoeal diseases), infectious diseases (such as malaria and measles), and malnutrition and under-nutrition. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that approximately 60,000 children die every year in Cambodia from preventable and treatable diseases (Collins, Lewis, & Stenberg, 2007).

Structure of Primary Education in Cambodia
The main content areas covered in primary schools are mathematics, Khmer language, literacy, social studies and science. Primary education is available from the age of three. Table 1 shows the structure of primary education.

Table 1. Structure of Primary Education in Cambodia		
Grade Level	Age of Entry	Hours of instruction per week
Lower Kindergarten	3 year olds	8:00 – 10:00 daily, 8 hours per week
Middle kindergarten	4 year olds	8:00 – 10:00 daily, 8 hours per week
Upper Kindergarten	5 year olds	8:00 – 10:00 daily, 8 hours per week
Grade One	6 year olds	24 hours per week
Grade Two	7 year olds	24 hours per week
Grade Three	8 year olds	24 hours per week
Grade Four	9 year olds	24 hours per week
Grade Five	10 year olds	24 hours per week
Grade Six	11 year olds	24 hours per week

All government schools work on half day sessions, six days a week. Students attend either a morning session or an afternoon session of four hours in duration. The morning sessions take place from 7:00 a.m. to 11:00 a.m.; afternoon sessions are scheduled for 1.00 pm. to 5.00 pm. The daily schedule is reversed each month, allowing students who attend morning school one month to attend afternoon school the following month. Teachers remain with their class in the rotation system. Students are not promoted to the next grade unless they pass the annual government tests. Summer school has been implemented in many schools which allows students who failed the end-of-year tests to participate in additional studies so they can retake the test at the beginning of the new school year in the hope they will pass and be promoted to the next grade.

Preparation of Teachers in Cambodia
Many teachers lack formal training and skilled school administrators are in very short supply. Teaching conditions are poor and morale tends to be low. The average teacher salary is one U.S. dollar per day. Teachers typically receive lower salaries than most other workers. Government schools receive a yearly budget based on the number of pupils, which is approximately U.S. $1.50 per student per year (Benveniste, Marshall, & Araujo, 2008; VSO, 2008).

Local teacher training programs are typically two years in duration. The average age of applicants is between 18 and 22 years. Most trainee teachers have graduated from the government high school with a diploma. The college classes are large, and generally use a didactic mode of delivery. More recently, Cambodian teacher colleges have enlisted the expertise of overseas educators to provide professional development for their teachers.

Research Methodology
Our study of the CFC schools is consistent with the design orientation of a case study as it is an example of a unique instance and seeks "understanding of this particular case" (Stake, 2000, p. 437) by investigating the complex dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and influences in this school context (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000), focusing specifically on the interplays of culture, beliefs, engagement and pedagogy.

As Stake (2000) points out, a case study does not intend to tell the whole story but attempts to present the unity of the case, seeking to understand and communicate the complexity of the "bounded system " (Stake, 2000), the single entity, the unit around which there are boundaries and what the focus of the research is. For the purpose of this study, the "bounded system" is the CFC schools. It is bounded by time, personnel, curriculum requirements, and CFC's particular mission and goals.

The focus is on situating the research in a context so that there are mutual benefits for researchers, schools, and students (Belanger, 2006). Images add to the richness of understanding of processes, relationships and events. In this instance, the methodology purposefully integrates such richness by combining both images and narrative. Van Leeuwen and Carey (2001) described the importance of using images as documentary evidence of people, places, and events. Collier (2001, p. 35) wrote that images can "be both creations and concrete reflections of what is visible within the scope of the lens and frame." Using the camera to make records involves subjective choices influenced by identities, intentions, and relationships.

All data were methodically collected, rigorously analysed and triangulated or 'crystallized' (Richardson, 2003). The data analysis and conversations among the NIE team and the CFC Director of Teacher Training confirmed findings, and also highlighted perceptions and generated valuable questions for additional research. Mutual collaboration among researchers, stakeholders, and educators (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Stake, 2007) is an essential aspect of this project. The program was structured so that the research provided mutual benefits for researchers, schools, and students (Belanger, 2006).

Data Sources
Multiple data sources were used in the development of the case study. Extensive use was made of collecting data through photos because of a language barrier. The NIE team members are not fluent in Khmer, the local language, and many teachers lack familiarity with English. During each of the three visits, the NIE team and CFC staff members sought to document their visits and collect information and evidence that informed the teacher development activities. The images also documented the condition of school buildings, classroom settings, materials available, professional development activities, home and village environments, and portraits of children and adults living in Siem Reap, Cambodia.

A needs assessment team from NIE visited CFC schools from 23 to 28 January 2009 to gather information for training on child development which was scheduled for April and June 2009. Researchers gathered preliminary information during the first visit to the Siem Reap region. Interviews with the teachers revealed a range of educational backgrounds. Some teachers had attended the teacher training college in Cambodia, while others had only a primary school background. Repeatedly, the teachers indicated that they recognized the need for training and wanted to learn more about how to teach and promote their children's learning.

The team observed classrooms in which teaching and learning occurred. While frontal teaching predominates, some observations were made of teachers and children working in small groups and engaging in learning. However, there were classrooms in which little creativity and learning was apparent. In several instances, teachers were observed just sitting in classrooms with little teaching taking place.

During the needs assessment site visit, the Director of Teacher Training related the dire conditions of education of the CFC schools in 2007:

In 2007, when CFC began implementing a training program for the teachers in four government schools, the classroom environments were dismal and deteriorating. The classroom structures were either concrete or wooden. Many of the doors and windows were damaged and the rooms were not secure. Most of the government schools at this time had no toilet facilities.

Classrooms had no windows only wooden shutters, and because the playground was a dust bowl for most of the year, the classrooms were impossible to keep clean and free of dust. There was no evidence of children's work in any of the classroom environments. This would have been impossible to achieve as there were no resources with which children could create work.

Many of these classes were crammed with 50 plus students sitting in wooden desks together in rows. The desks were often broken, and five or six children shared a space designed for three. Each classroom had barely enough space to walk between the rows due to overcrowding. The teacher's wooden desk would be sitting at the front of the room resting on a rubble of broken concrete.

Classes were conducted in a very didactic way. The teacher could be seen standing at the front of the room, and children were involved in rote learning. It appeared that the louder the students recited the facts the more successful the learning. Classroom management was based on a very authoritarian disciplinary system, with students being reprimanded in front of their peers for wrong answers or non compliant behavior.

On many occasions teachers would not be present in the classroom during learning time, but could be found socializing with their colleagues. Students would often be sitting waiting for their teachers to arrive and instruction to begin.

There was little or no equipment for either students or teachers in most classrooms. Each child (if they were fortunate) brought an exercise book with them to school, a small pencil, a piece of chalk and perhaps an individual blackboard. Those children who came without these tools were left to just sit; no work was completed by these students. Teachers were operating in bleak classrooms with minimal or no resources. Teacher morale was low; this was evident when we visited the school and interacted with the staff. When CFC asked the Cambodian teachers what support they most needed and wanted at this time, they made a plea for teacher training. It was based on this request, and the combined professional knowledge of teachers involved with CFC back in Singapore that the teacher training program was developed.

Narrative data were collected during each visit. The researchers met frequently, documented their conversations, and shared information. Simultaneously, on-going conversations were conducted with CFC leadership and CFC's Director of Teacher Training. Drafts of professional development materials were reviewed and revised.

As a result of the professional development activities, CFC produced several newsletter articles as well as a report of the training. These documents were also used as data sources. Evaluation of training activities consisted of post-training conversations with CFC teachers and administrators, and accompanying notes. On-site evaluation of training activities occurred 3 to 4 weeks after the training was completed.

NIE Training Programme
During the needs assessment site visit, the CFC Director of Teacher Training explained her vision for the upcoming training. When working with teachers she advised the NIE team to minimise theory and actively involve the teachers in their own learning and to use the same training model for each of the three levels: kindergarten–grade 2, grades 3–4, and grades 5-6.

The CFC Director of Teacher Training provided the Cambodian Ministry of Education syllabus and the "Table of Self-Assessment of the Implementation of Child Friendly School Programs at Primary Schools" for the trainers' reference when developing the subject content. The deliverables of the programme were for the CFC teachers to effectively teach a selection of lessons from the teaching programme to their pupils using local resources and to help teachers acquire the confidence to act as model teachers for their colleagues in school. The April and June workshops consisted of three days of training for each year level. Each workshop lasted six hours each day.

The aims of the programme were to convey how children think, act and feel at different ages and stages of learning and to equip the teachers with the necessary understandings and pedagogical skills to nurture their pupils holistically in terms of physical, intellectual and emotional and social growth. The programme was predicated on a constructivist approach to teaching and learning – one in which learners develop increased competency if they are actively involved in constructing their own knowledge about the world, and interacting with one another to exchange and compare ideas.

The content of the training material comprised a set of developmentally appropriate lessons for teachers to use at all three year levels. The specific subject areas covered were language, self and social skills, and science (including health and hygiene) for both the April and June workshops with numeracy also being included for June. These lessons were based on the themes "I'm Special" and "Water." The lessons provided blueprints for the teachers to develop their own lessons for future use with their pupils. They included specific instructional objectives and procedures, pupil and consolidation activities and resource lists. The NIE trainers modeled the pedagogical skills necessary during the workshops and then discussed some of the theoretical constructs underlying such practices using slides to scaffold the teachers' understanding. CFC provided the necessary resources to support implementation of the lessons in classrooms.

Cascading of the Training

A total of 94 teachers participated in the trainings. Many innovative ideas were introduced to the teachers. The training resulted in considerable changes in classrooms, teaching strategies, and family and community practices. Following the workshops, the CFC Director of Teacher Training and CFC Mentor teachers set-up in hygiene corners in every classroom. These corners consist of a personal cup tooth brush, soap, and hand towel for every student. Daily hygiene routines were put in place.

As a result of the training, there has been a significant improvement of health and hygiene in all CFC schools. The teachers improved their pedagogy through the implementation of interactive strategies and small group learning. Hygiene lessons have been offered in the community. In one local village, mothers and small children were given instruction on teeth brushing and hand washing. Adaptations of the training have been offered at the preschool level. Selected images document professional development activities (Figures 2, 3, 4, and 5).

Figure 2. Teacher learning about brushing teeth

Figure 3. Child practising brushing teeth

Figure 4. Teacher demonstrating hand washing

Figure 5. Children practising hand washing

At the local village preschool, mothers and small children have received instruction on brushing teeth and hand washing. Parents have visited the Teacher's Resource Center to learn from the preschool coordinator. The preschool coordinator has also adapted the lessons learned during the April training for education purposes in the preschool. This cascading effect is powerful amongst the parents of the village. Currently, 20 mothers attend this preschool where the emphasis is on health and hygiene

Evidence of Transferable Learning

On an informal visit to one school at the beginning of June, 2009, a kindergarten teacher had prepared an innovative model of a germ. During the April workshops teachers were shown how to make a "germ" using a sock puppet. This kindergarten teacher had adapted this for her junior students by making a flannel puppet depicting a "germ". She had also made models of a germ using recycled water bottles. This teacher was asked to share her innovative ideas with her kindergarten team at a subsequent weekly team meeting.

A one month follow-up questionnaire was presented to twelve teachers who had participated in the training. The teachers were very positive about the training. They conveyed that the training increased their personal knowledge about health and hygiene. They viewed the topic as particularly relevant area for the students due to very poor home hygiene conditions.

One teacher wrote: *I enjoyed learning about Health and Hygiene most. Before I knew little about this subject, and now I know a lot more, and I can teach my children more about this topic.*

Although the training achieved its primary aims, some challenges remain. The level of Cambodian teachers' professional knowledge is very low. It required much reflection, intense planning, preparation and reviewing by both CFC and NIE to deliver a workshop that met the teachers' needs. Very few teaching resources are available to teachers. The trainers therefore had to think creatively and to plan lessons with the minimal resources available. Language was a barrier since the trainers did not speak Khmer. Certain educational terms are difficult to translate and meanings were lost in translation. Much repetition and reinforcement was needed to ensure that new learning was understood and would be implemented in the schools.

A key component of the training was that the Director of Teacher Training was able to follow-up and reinforce new learning in the classrooms on a daily basis. Accountability and evaluation of new learning was essential to the success of the programme. However, it was found that the transfer of learning to new content areas or new situations was difficult for these Cambodian teachers, because they take learning at a very literal level. When asked to present a lesson for evaluation they were cautious about planning anything which deviated from the original plan. Interactive, "hands- on" learning and children working in groups are new concepts for them. Assimilating such concepts will be a slow process and will require a lot of reinforcement in further training sessions. It was recognized that for such sessions to be effective, the same pedagogical understandings will need to be repeated but used in different curriculum content areas.

The positive effects that have come about as a result of this training in terms of teacher motivation are far reaching. The teachers who participated in the programmme are keen to take on the new ideas and practices introduced to them. It is important to harness their enthusiasm, build on their confidence and to continue to support them in developing new pedagogical skills. It is a challenge we are all committed to in the future.

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To be or not to be: Shifting motivations in Chinese secondary school English teachers' career narratives

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Abstract

As English is now promoted as an academic subject in primary and secondary schools, creating an enormous demand for qualified English teachers in China, there is a need to understand English teachers¡¦ motivation and commitment to the teaching career. In this paper, I report on a life history study of twelve teachers who taught in schools in Chinese hinterland areas so as to understand why they first joined and then left the teaching profession. Through interpreting their professional experiences, I came to understand their ambiguous attitudes towards the teaching profession and their fascination with the English language. Initially, many of them were unwilling to become teachers but were attracted by the teacher education programmes to learn more English. Many of them became more committed to teaching after they had positive professional experiences. However, their sense of satisfaction and achievement were undermined by the challenges that they had to cope with as well as an awareness that they were unable to sustain their professional competence. In order to retain such teachers in the profession, there is a need for teacher educators and educational administrators to work out strategies to support teachers¡¦ demand for linguistic and professional improvement in remote rural areas on the Chinese mainland.

Northeast Tohoku by Southwest USA: Language/content instruction in higher education

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Abstract
The local problem of how to effectively implement content courses in a nonnative language has a global solution; the universities of Asia and the United States have much to gain through a greater awareness how identity shapes the stakeholders in nonnative language content education. By presenting historical and contemporary lessons from specific locals cases in the Southwest United States, this presentation provides avenues for developing better English content instruction in local contexts in Asia.

Introduction
Myths and mistaken beliefs about language and education abound. Here are just a few expressed by university students in Northeast Asia:

> *When students explain something which is related to study [at the university], it is better to use the technical term in English.*

> *Students speaking two languages poorly is caused by the so limited knowledge that they have in each language that they are unable to translate one to another.*

> *Students should wait to learn English because the amount of space for each knowledge is limited.*

Many universities across Asia are struggling with the role and scope of offering content classes in English. From Hanyang University in Korea to Akita International University in Japan, Northeast Asian universities are offering varying amounts and qualities of content courses (e.g. economics, mathematics, history, etc.) in English. Some mandate that teachers must teach a certain number of courses in English, regardless of the students' and professors' English proficiency; others offer all content courses in English with the tremendous teaching and learning assistance resources that this entails. Still others, like the Songdo Global University Campus seek to bring universities from around the world to one location. This local problem of how to effectively implement content courses in a nonnative language has a global solution; the universities of Asia and the United States have much to gain through a greater awareness of the rewards and difficulties of nonnative language content education in the southwest of the United States. The experience of nonnative language content courses in the southwestern United States point to *identity* as a key ingredient in the successful implementation of these programs. While identity may at first seem rather innocuous as the economic pressure to implement nonnative language content courses increase. The lessons of nonnative content instruction in the Southwest United States reemphasize the importance of identity for students, professors, and the community. The respect for native languages, the efficacy of professors, and the utility/inutility of English all rely on identity to develop specific goals and proficiency that makes language content instruction effective.

I will examine the present situation in Northeast Asia and compare it to the present and historical sitution in the Southwest United States. I start with some hesitancy since any comparison of people and place is always problematic, but I proceed with some confidence since these two areas are linked by a unique set of linguistic and social circumstances. One important area to consider in the Southwest United States is Louisiana, where Spanish, French, and English have performed a delicate dance of langauge change and shift over the past 250 years. The other principal area of investigation is Texas where Spanish and English have pushed and pulled for dominance. In Northeast Asia, I will principally examine institutions in Japan and Korea. Higher education institutions in these countries, while by no means having a monopoly on educational innovation, have made important changes that respresent a future direction of worldwide education. This study details the commonalities and differences in the Asian and American experiments in foreign-language content instruction. Through a

study of the identity issues that learning in a second language has had in the Southwestern United States, this study presents a view of the prospective difficulties and solutions for the future of English content education in Northeast Asia.

The terms identity and nonnative language content instruction should be carefully defined. The identity that I discuss and advocate in this paper is not a an essentialized pre-existing notion, rather it is a social process that results from negotiation in society. Language plays a large role in this construction, and I will end this paper by suggesting how the stakeholders in education can usefully and comfortably integrate native and nonnative language. I use the term nonnative (English) language content instruction to describe courses such as history or microeconomics that are taught in a language that is not native to students. This type of teaching is inherently a form of immersion education which is a type of bilingual instruction. In Northeast Asia, this language content instruction is usually English content instruction where English is the medium for the teaching of a subject. This type of instruction is especially prominent in graduate schools and business and engineering-oriented universities where more than twenty Japanese universities offer English content courses, if not also English content degrees. A better name for this would perhaps be 'content instruction in English' reflecting that the purpose is to teach the content in this latter case while 'English content instruction' places the emphasis on learning English. This distinction raises an essential question: Is the purpose of the course to learn a type of English used by a certain domain, or is the purpose to learn the domain through the expression of English? This difference is key because it determines how the stakeholders should act when the content and pedagogy of the course conflict. Without resolving this difference, how is the administration to know which way is best, or how should the professors structure the course? The purpose of these courses is often not established by the teachers, students, and institutions, so the goals, and hence, the terms of the debate are ambiguous. I try to clarify the de facto status of these courses and provide some solutions to make the course better fulfill the goals of all the stakeholders.

Brief History of English Content Instruction
Historically, universities in Asia are relatively new to the Western university system. The first Western-type universities began in Japan in the late 1880's (Cummings and Amano, 1977). After the World War II, English instruction gained prominence as the America-Japan connection was strengthened by the occupation. This is especially true among the foreign universities in Japan. As opposed to the Phillipines and Singapore in Southeast Asia, Korea and Japan in Northeast Asia did not have an extensive colonization period by English-speaking countries. Their colonization is of a much more subtle form where voluntarily, or perhaps through subtle pressure, English influences crept into their lives forming what Krucha (1997) calls the 'Expanding Circle' of English.

As the higher educational system evolves in Japan and Korea the utility of English proficiency has been recognized as significantly important, an English as a foreign language (EFL) model could no longer handle the proficiency required to achieve the desired level of English. Japan recently instituted English courses in elementary schools as a way to improve English proficiency, and the creep of English into the universities is another example of how the English as a foreign language model has crept into becoming English as a second language (ESL). Such ESL systems are fine, but to be able to use English in professional fields, a new level of specificity for domain and audience was needed; English content instruction was needed. Content courses in English provide the specific knowledge of discourses required to converse within a profession. Essentially providing the type of study abroad experience that students have been seeking for some time. This English content instruction advances the learners' knowledge in both language and content. The implementation of English content instruction brings significant challenges that should not be overlooked primarily: the goals of the program, the target English variety, measuring progress, and maintaining qualified instructors. In fact, few universities consider the full ramifications of beginning English content instruction.

English content instruction often takes the form of professors teaching a course in English that they would traditionally teach in the students' native language. Often the professors were trained in a language other than English and so, perhaps, this is the first time to integrate their linguistic and occupational competencies. For the students, this experience is also their first time learning both the content and the language of instruction for this domain. For the administration, this arrangement means that they can use their existing resources to appeal to a larger audience of study abroad students and claim some higher level in international rankings.

Fortunately, the issues in English content instruction are not unique in history, and other situations have dealt with these issues in the past. Bilingual and immersion programs at the primary and secondary level have a primary emphasis on balance and identity. The Southwest United States has had a number of historical and contemporary movements to provide content instruction in a nonnative language. The United States is also dealing with how to incorporate Spanish content instruction in its unversities. The history lessons of the Southwest United States point to specific issues that must be avoided in order to have respectful identity development.

The Southwestern United States
English in the Southwest United States is a collection of dialects, principally Southern White English, Rural African-American English, Creole English, and Cajun English. While these dialects do not play prominently in this analysis, it is important to remember that the languages spoken and the langauges learned in education are by no means monolithic.

Lipski (2008) details the varieties of Spanish in the United States, their origins, and adaptions. The Southwest United States has always been a dynamic mix of English and Spanish, but considering these langauges as unified wholes would tell only part of the story. Each variety of Spanish and English in the United States has struggled with its identity and continuity. In the Southwest United States under investigation in this work Spanish from the Islenos, the Brule, Mexican, and New Mexican origins all play roles. In addition to this push-and-pull of varieties of Spanish and English, the dance of French and English is a long and storied history (Connor 2006, Leumas 2009).

Louisiana's (churches) switch in English Education
Beginning with English instruction in the 1800's, the state of Louisiana used English content instruction when French and Spanish were the native languages of the populace. Based on archival research at Louisiana State University, English instruction in Louisiana was originally an endeavor for elite schools. Much like a modern model of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), letters from prominent Louisiana families reveal English learning in order to be more cultured and to travel abroad.

 This EFL model is similar to most instruction of languages with small numbers of speakers. Economic incentives exist, but lacking proficiency does not hinder common educational or occupational advancement. At this point in identity development, English is little more than a game or fantasy for those inclined to languages, having little to no impact on professional life.

However economic reasons soon changed the situation. The best examples of how this worked is to examine the responses of the closest thing to a modern transnational company at the time, the Catholic and Protestant churches. Global interactions and trade are one of the prime motivators for proficiently learning a new language at this ESL stage. Language at this stage is no longer a leisure or a pleasure, and the audience is now known. Under an EFL environment, you could never be sure who is your target or what should you be learning. Is learning literature better than business correspondance? In contrast, at this new transnational environment your target is known and fixed. Their language needs are no longer distant concepts; they are specific known goals. Returning to the Louisiana situation, each of these churches found themselves unable to meet the needs of the new English-speaking immigration to Louisiana from Ireland. In business terms, they were not able to serve new markets and old markets were changing. In the same way, Northeast Asia is feeling the increased economic incentive to be fluent in English. The new tasks range from mundane BPO tasks to engineering design and include educational and occupational immigration and connecting with nonnaitve English-dominant countries.

The transnational (ecclisial) response at the time (1800's) was to import English speakers to perform the task while sending priests for on-the-job English immersion and increased lessons at the university. This turn very much parallels the increased demand in study abroad and English proficiency requirements in Asia universities. Also it explains contemporary programs to import English speakers as liaisons in business and education. So, at this point the language variety and social context is known and the transnational entities have adopted the strategies of importation and increased training. This is the situation in Northeast Asia over the past decade as more training is required in English and more

native speakers from abroad (or, more commonly, highly proficient nationals from postings abroad) are brought to meet the demand.

Finally, the last stage is occurring as we speak in Northeast Asia, in the late 1890's the Louisiana bishop (transnational executive) would not allow anymore priests to come to Louisiana who did not have English proficiency. In the same way, English proficiency is reaching a point in Asia that business and education simply cannot be done without adequate English proficiency. To meet this demand, universities are offering content courses in English that combine the insight of a known domain and audience. English content instruction is the natural response to language shift in the same manner that the language shift affected the churches in Louisiana.

Equally importantly to the process of shift is the reaction to the shift. As the switch to English became necessitated, this stage is where there was the most pushback from the priests who were required to learn it. The intial (EFL) stage was simply open to those with inclinations to learn languages. The second (ESL) stage included importation and increased requirements that created some resentment. The final (English content instruction) stage of requiring proficiency had profound impacts. Asian universities are in the second stage and the resentment of the final stage is beginning to show.

The Louisiana pushback was carried out on both a personal and community level. Some priests refused to switch languages or continued to carryout work in their own language (Leumas 2009). Some whole communities pushed back if the education was not in their native language, such as the Spanish Brule community. This resistance is as an immergence of self-awareness in the language community brought about because the "threat" of another language.

Texas's resurgence of non/native language content instruction
Later English content instruction was implemented for Spanish speakers in a variety of bilingual models in states from Texas to California. Presently the United States is struggling with the legacies of these historical implementations and the identity issues that the students and teachers must negotiate. Many bilingual education models were attempted in this area, in order of the amount of respect for the native language: heritage, early-exit bilingual instruction, late-exit bilingual instruction, and dual language immersion. While these models primarily have an implementation in primary and secondary schools, some attempts in higher education are also noted. Examining these various implementations of bilingual education, the primary variable is how much respect the implementation gives to language and identity. So the idea of bilingual education in the historical Southwest United States revolves around identity as much as methodology.

Recently higher education has an extra twist, the Southwest United States is working to define the role of Spanish content instruction for native Spanish speakers at the university level and progressing on the implementation of English content instruction that respects the heritage of indigenous speakers such as the Navajo and Cherokee nations. That is, just as Japan and Korea are introducing English content classes, the Southwest United States is introducing Spanish content classes and to a very limited extent indigenous language content classes. These present issues parallel the situation in some areas of Japan and Korea but are especially pertinent in countries with a more profound English link such as the Philippines and Singapore.

The US is gradually coming to terms with its Spanish langauge instruction that supports those with Spanish backgrounds at their current level, instead of at the beginner level. Spanish for Spanish speakers is an example of the type of programs available at the university level. These programs have recently extended to the degree level with the creation of a Bachelor of Business Administration that is conducted entirely in Spanish and accessible across the country. This assessibility is in contrast to most Spanish content programs that are intensely regionally focused. Examining these programs from a country-wide perspective, the programs are miniscule. Examining them from a internal view that values the local identity, and the impact is clear. Language dynamics are always intensely local and must be viewed from inside.

Northeast Asia
These historical implementations parallel the language identity and usage issues currently occurring with the implementation of English content courses in Japanese and Korean Universities. Specifically

how does the university respect the native language of its professors and students while recognizing the utility, and at times inutility, of English instruction?

Current interviews with Northeast Asian students have shown distress of not developing their native language ability. Among these students, the myth persists that any time devoted to English diminishes the knowledge of native language, as if bilingualism is a zero-sum game where no knowledge transfer is impossible. This language ideology is prevalent in the debate over instituting English, among students, parents, teachers, and even professors.

With this background in mind, how does identity affect the implementation of English content courses? Professors are found to have some pushback against presenting their courses in English often creating de facto bilingual education models. They use the native language to explain difficult concepts or to go over routine administrative tasks while reserving English for content aspects. This routine is noted not only for native speakers but also for nonnative speakers.

Uniting the experiences to move forward
An imperative exists for the implementation of specific goals for native and target languages. Before embarking on the implementation of English content instruction, institutions must decide the purpose of such implementation. At Akita, the guiding principles are to use English as a tool in internationalization.   Thus, the identity of the institution stays Japanese with a distinctive international flavor. In Hanyang the principle to improve English fluency. A distinct difference where one institution focuses on changing to a international flavor while the other keeps an Asian identity while advocating a simple language proficiency goal. The Songdo Global University Campus is on the other extreme from Hanyang where total internationalization is the goal. So, here are three examples of implementation: internationalization rooted in culture, language targets within the national framework, and complete internationalization. Each presents challenges to the identity of the professors and the learners. While complete internationalization may seem the most threatening, and indeed has drawn the most ire from professors, with complaints about location and culture, even simple language targets are a threat to identity if the goals are not explicitly stated. The parallel of this issue is the implemention of bilingual programs in the US where immersion programs that benefit native speakers are less threatening than dual language immsersion which is less threatening than one-way bilingual programs.

Once the explicit goal of the content instruction is set, the next step is settling the professor issue. The native speakers of the target language are indeed the language experts, but the nonnative speakers are the cultural examples. The native speakers can set the language goal, but the nonnative speakers set the culture goal. If the nonnative speakers are uninhibated and comfortable in their level of proficiency, they can be role-models for the students. Comfort in nonnativeness.

Realizing the goals of the program and settling the professors in their roles rely on a foundation of identity. By presenting historical and contemporary lessons from the specific locals cases of the Southwest United States, this presentation provides avenues for developing better English content instruction in local contexts in Asia.

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Readers Theatre: Dramatising environment issues for oral skills development

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Abstract

Readers Theatre was introduced to a class of Japanese students studying intermediate-level English in an international university in Japan. The aim of the study is to investigate **whether Readers Theatre enhances the oral skills of Japanese students as they negotiate an environmental issue in English.** In my presentation, I will demonstrate how Readers Theatre is implemented in class and the comments by students will be analysed and discussed during the presentation.

Introduction to Readers Theatre

Readers Theatre ((hereafter, RT) is an oral presentation of a story using scripts by two or more readers**.** Routman (1991:68) defines RT as "creating a script from a narrative text and performing it for an audience. Readers first read a story and then transform it into a script involving several characters. The script can then be performed with a minimum of preparation, props or scenery. Unlike traditional theater, RT emphasizes mainly on oral expression of the part. It involves learners in understanding their world, creating their own scripts, reading aloud, performing with a purpose, and bringing enjoyment to both themselves and their audiences. In general, there are five basic characteristics of RT:

(a) There is selective and limited use of scenery and costumes

(b) Voices, retrained gestures and facial expressions project the mood

(c) A narrator usually describes the setting, action, character or mood

(d) The reader uses a physical script

(e) There is a close relationship between the performer and audience (Shanklin and Rhodes :1989).

RT is easy to implement in class because it does not require full costume, stage sets and memorisation of scripts. To implement RT in the classroom**, r**eaders first read a story, and then make selective and analytical choices in transforming the story into a script through social negotiation. The readers then formulate, practise and refine their interpretations, and finally perform for an audience, reading aloud from hand-held scripts.

Drama and oral language development

One of the main concerns in L2 acquisition is how to provide students with "real-life" language experience. Felton et al (1988) observe that drama provides opportunities to use language for a wider range of purposes than compared to language use in the traditional classroom. They believe that compared to the informational talk in a typical lesson, there is a higher incidence of interactional and expressive talk when drama activity is included in the classroom. While the interactional talk focuses on people rather than things, expressive talk focuses on feeling and thinking. Needlands (1992) proposes that if the teacher and students are able to use drama to create roles and situations, there will be a greater variety of different contexts for talk. Maley and Duff (1978**)** also support the use of drama for language development as he feels that involving students in the negotiation and construction of drama provides them with allows students to link the language they are learning with the world around them. Wilkinson (1988:12) suggests that experiential drama aid language development in the following ways:

greater use of language for a wide variety of purposes

more frequent opportunity for otherwise rarely used expressed language greater use of abstract thinking and language evolving from expressive language greater understanding of language as a powerful tool enabling its user to "act upon" rather than "be acted upon."

Jordan and Harrell (2000:74) recognise RT as an effective drama activity for providing authentic speech practice especially in teaching reading fluency (rate, accuracy, phrasing, pitch, stress and expressiveness) as well as comprehension to emergent readers. They suggest that "involving students with enjoyable and exciting active reading procedures provide the key to fluency and higher levels of

comprehension gain, through a natural process of repeated readings and interactive transactions with language." Rosen and Koziol, Jr (1990) examined the relationship of drama activities to the improvement of oral communication skills, knowledge, comprehension, and attitudes. Their study showed that drama had a great influence on oral communication skills. Berlinger (2000:1) recognising the benefits of scripted dialogues in encouraging English expressions states that scripts have long been employed in ESL instruction because they permit students to actively acquire the vocabulary, idioms, grammar and syntax of English speech. As they involve all aspects of language, scripts that are rehearsed in class can offer students a dynamic encounter that comes closest to real communication. However, Kao (1994) identifies three common negative attitudes towards drama in the L2 classroom:
(a) Drama activities as "party time" or "easy-pass course"
(b) Students' sceptical view and distrust of drama
(c) Students with low self-esteem or poor language proficiency levels became discouraged by their active and confident peers in their struggle to learn.
Wagner (1998) states that although drama has been instrumental in expanding the range of registers and styles among language students, new studies are necessary to describe more fully the structure of drama teaching to determine which teacher strategies and interactions are critical to oral language development. The objective of this study is to investigate whether RT improve the oral skills of Japanese students as they negotiate environmental issues in English.

The Study
RT was introduced to EFL Japanese students studying Intermediate English in an international university in Japan.In Intermediate English 1, students study how English is used to communicate ideas about various global issues. The course content is organized around a broad global issues theme focusing on environmental issues. The class consisted of twenty around the ages of 18-20. The average TOEFL score of students is about 450.

Reasons for using RT in the classroom

Japanese EFL learners generally experienced difficulty in reading and understanding the prescribed environmental reading passages. There were too many new words for them to handle. As a result, many learners could not appreciate the topics in the reading passages. Students also felt that the text did not allow them much opportunity to practise their spoken English in class. The attention to details and analysis of word usage gradually led students to become slow, passive and dictionary dependent learners. RT was introduced to motivate EFL learners to appreciate expository text as well as generating interest in discussing environmental issues.

Implementation of RT in class

A reading passage on the Kyoto Protocol (see appendix) was first given to students. Vocabulary was pre-taught. After that, students read the passage individually and discussed their responses to the topic. After students had gained sufficient background knowledge of the topic, they were put in various groups of three or four. They were then given the task of writing a script on the topic, guided by a problem-based scenario:

Problem Scenario
Kyoto is well known for its historical sites and cultural centers in Japan. However, the city council wants to 'modernise' the city but needs to develop a new environmentally friendly power station. There are several groups in Kyoto (city council, developers, residents, environmentalist, entrepreneurs, historical society and farmers) which may agree or disagree with the plan to build a power station. Suppose you belong to one of the groups. How would your voice your arguments to support or oppose the plan?
Students were told to write a script (at least 1 page and involve at least 4 groups) to portray the different groups and show the main arguments and all possible responses to the construction of the power station: *city council, developers, residents, environmentalist, entrepreneurs, historical society and farmer*. Students were told that they should follow the problem scenario for writing the script. After students had finished writing the scripts, they read and rehearsed their roles. When they were ready to perform their scripts, teacher recorded their performance in a tape recorder. (Note : The

implementation of the RT activity requires two to three teaching periods depending on the language proficiency of students.)

Data Collection
In an attempt to investigate whether RT improves the oral skills of Japanese students as they negotiate environmental issues in English, data were collected from a questionnaire survey of learners' reaction towards the use of RT. The survey questions were designed to explicitly elicit students' opinion and comments on the use of RT.

Results
The results of the survey showed that a majority of students in the class enjoyed the RT activity and commented positively about their experiences:

Student 1
I enjoyed his activity because speaking English is so interesting for me. But sometimes it is difficult for me to express my ideas in English. So I need a lot of times to practice speaking English. That is why this activity is important for me.

Student 2
I enjoyed this activity because I could write the script by myself and also act. I think its good for us to improve our English skills like writing or speaking. We have to practice the pronunciation more, so this activity is good. If I have an opportunity to try this activity again, I want to speak more clearly. I had a very good time.

Student 3
This activity was very interesting for me because I could understand what my friend thinks about the environment. We became more friendly to each other after the lesson. I think English class should be like this. I want to use English to communicate with my friends from now.

Student 4
I find it difficult to speak about environmental issues because it is difficult for me to use English in my daily conversation. I want to improve my speaking skills!

However, several students maintained a sceptical view and distrust of drama (Kao:1994). Two or three students feel that the activity is good but acting out the script was not interesting as they feel that everybody merely read the script. They would prefer to perform without reading the script. In addition, students with lower language proficiency levels tend to be passive during the negotiation of scripts.

Discussion
On the whole, RT is able to develop the Japanese students' spoken English as they engage in negotiation of environmental issues in class. Students are keen to use English as they work on the scripts based on the environmental problem scenario. A great deal of spoken English on the environmental discussion was generated as students make multiple negotiations to decide what lines to keep, where to edit and revise, and how lines should be said to show the main arguments and all possible responses to the construction of the power station. As students negotiate their script, they engage in different language use functions such as asking and answering questions, solving problems, expressing their opinions, arguing, persuading (Kao, 1994). They also learn to experiment with vocabulary, register and speech patterns as they take on different roles (Wager, 1998). As a result, they gain tremendous confidence in using spoken English. In the process of script negotiation, students are also challenged to use language in new and creative ways. As students collaborate to produce a script, they also take ownership of their own learning and are intrinsically involved in developing dialogue to ensure that a script is produced. RT provides richness and energy in the classroom because students are experientially involved in performing a piece of literature on an environment issue. Through dramatising the environmental issue, students realise that the same environmental problems and situations could also happen in their hometown or country. As a result, they become engaged and develop a sense of investment in the lesson because they are not only merely performing an academic assignment but also engage in problem-solving tasks that could surface in real life. It is also energising

for the teacher as they watch students read, interpret and perform the problem scenario, knowing that students are holistically involved in the process of learning environmental issues.

Observation by Teacher

Although several students were not active during the script negotiation, in general, RT generated students' interests in appreciating text on environmental issues. Previously, a majority of students were not able to discuss environmental issues in English due to insufficient vocabulary and a lack of background information on environmental issues. But through RT, students were able to explore roles, ideas and situations pertaining to environmental issues. They learn to manipulate language in order to activate prior knowledge on environmental issues. Through the script negotiations, individual student could express freely their views and opinions on the construction of the power station, and this further allows other group members to share their ideas and attitudes on the topic. The negotiation of meaning pushes students to practise the target language as much as possible. In addition, students' vocabulary on environmental issues was reinforced through the negotiations of script (Kao:1994). A lot of discussions were observed in class as students were keen to express their views on the pros and cons of building a power station in Kyoto. The class became more energised as students voiced their opinions on the various problems that could result from the construction of the power station in Kyoto.

Conclusion

Except for several students, a majority of students have positive response in using RT to discuss issues on the environment. At the same time, RT also helps them to experience the satisfaction of writing to share ideas with interested readers on environmental problems and issues. However, there can be limitations to using RT in class, particularly if students have no familiarity with theatre as a genre, or they may not have the linguistically ability to produce their own scripts. In the case of Japanese EFL learners, who have just been immersed in a totally English-speaking environment, getting them to write scripts was a rather tedious task. The teacher has to proofread and edit their scripts several times before they were ready to perform. Some degree of initial inhibition and resistance to acting was encountered. However, despite these limitations, RT has the potential to become an innovative teaching approach to motivate intermediate and advanced Japanese EFL learners to discuss environmental issues in English.

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APPENDIX: **Japan and The Kyoto Protocol (in-class reading)**

1   The Kyoto Protocol is now a part of the United Nations Framework
2   Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and is intended to cut global
3   emissions of greenhouse gases. When Japan played host to the signing of the
4   Kyoto Accord in 1997, the symbolism seemed apt since Japanese people saw
5   themselves as global environmental leaders.

6   Eight years later, however, Japan is finding it difficult to comply with the
7   greenhouse-gas limits of the Kyoto Protocol. As the treaty took effect in
8   2005, the hosts found themselves in the same internal battles that have
9   affected other countries on the Kyoto issue: disputes over taxes, spending,
10 government rules and corporate behaviour. As the homeland of the Kyoto
11 Accord, Japan was expected to become a model for other countries,
12 environmentalists say. Instead, its greenhouse-gas emissions have increased
13 greatly in recent years.

14 Rather than placing tough limits on its domestic industries, Japan is planning
15 to meet its Kyoto obligations with more practical steps, including the
16 purchase of emission credits from China or Russia. Under the Kyoto Accord,
17 Japan pledged that by 2012, it would reduce its greenhouse-gas emissions to
18 6 percent below its 1990 level. However, the latest government reports show
19 Japan's emissions were already 8 percent above the 1990 level in 2003, and
20 forecasts suggest that the country will not come close to achieving its 2012
21 goals.

22 In response, the government has been forced to revise its official plan. The
23 latest effort -- expected to be approved by Japan's cabinet in May 2005 --
24 seeks to meet its Kyoto pledge with a combination of emission cuts, new
25 forests and the purchase of emission credits.

26 "We're very disappointed by the plan," said Yurika Ayukawa, climate-change
27 officer at the Japan office of World Wildlife Fund. "At least 1.6 percent of
28 the reduction, and maybe more, will be bought from credits from the carbon
29 market. This means that the government already admits its failure to meet the
30 Kyoto target with domestic reductions. They don't want to introduce any new
31 policies to bring Japan's emissions to a downward trend. This is a failure of
32 domestic climate policy and we're very regretful about it."
33
    Another Japanese environmentalist, Mie Asaoko, was in the conference room
34 in Kyoto in 1997 when the Accord was signed, and she remembers the
35 excitement in the room. "I thought it was a historic moment," she said. "But
36 we've made less progress than I expected. If we can't meet our 2012 target, it
37 will be a disgrace. It will be a failure for Japan and for the Kyoto Accord,
38 and it will affect the whole world. Japan should be an international leader."
39
40

Reading retrieved and adapted by L. Guishard from http://www.ccchina.gov.cn/english/source/ab/ab2005042904.htm
(Word Count: 434

Voices of the Unheard

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Abstract

Since Medgyes' principle thesis in his 1994 work, many studies have shown that both native and non-native speakers are equally effective instructors (Braine 1999; Kamhi-Stein 2004; Llurda 2005). In the past decade in particular, researchers have delineated the complexity surrounding the NNEST-NEST dichotomy, and many have warned of the danger in reducing the complexity of the issue (Cook 1998; Duff and Uchida, 1999). Nevertheless, it is generally understood that learners prefer native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). However, as Mahboob (2004) indicates, this issue needs to be explored further. This study puts the learners at the center, and attempts to examine the learners' preferences for and perceptions of their teachers in the Japanese context.

In the first study, a 3-item questionnaire was given to 161 first-year students enrolled in Japanese universities. The questionnaire asked them to express their preference for NNESTs, NESTs, or no preference and to describe what respective advantages they thought NNESTs and NESTs had as language teachers. Results showed that while learners could identify areas of perceived respective strengths, students at lower level proficiency overwhelmingly preferred NESTs, whereas students who were at a higher proficiency level and had exposure to both NNESTs and NESTs overwhelmingly expressed no preference. In the follow-up study, a similar 3-item questionnaire was given to180 high-proficiency level students at the beginning and end of their first year's term at a Japanese university in which they would receive instruction from both NNESTs and NESTs. Preliminary results along with exit interviews show that the learners again could identify respective strengths, but as a whole they experienced a major shift from preferring NESTs to expressing no preference.

This presentation will briefly summarize previous research regarding the NNEST/NEST issue, explain the questionnaire responses of the two small studies, summarize the interview results, and discuss the implications.

Keywords: NNEST, NEST, Preferences, Perceptions

Improving "international understanding" in and beyond English Language Teaching

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Abstract

This paper explores the issue of fostering "international understanding" in English Language Teaching (ELT), and discusses the need of building links between the teaching of English and other subjects, such as history and geography, in order to develop students' balanced worldviews.

The growth of second language (L2) users of English has started to change the central orientation of ELT in many countries where English has traditionally been learnt as a foreign language (EFL), including Japan. In these countries, English is now taught as an "international" language (EIL) rather than as a "foreign" language: a language for communication between people from different lingua-cultural backgrounds. Teaching EIL has brought about a new objective in ELT: to foster students' appreciation of people from different cultures, or international understanding, through teaching EIL.

Japan is one of the countries where fostering international understanding through EIL is advocated as a principal aim of ELT. However, in this country, what students learn as EIL is, in practice, the English used by native speakers of traditional varieties of English (NSs) (e.g. American and British English), whereas they have little opportunity to learn about the essential international aspect of EIL, i.e. its L2 users themselves. As a result of the reduced and partial representation of EIL that they receive, students' worldviews tend to be biased. They see NSs as the most important members of the international community and have a diminished view of its L2 users.

Considering this situation, some scholars argue that informing students of the very existence of L2 users would help to improve their biased understanding of EIL, resulting in balanced worldviews. However, there have been few studies that investigate whether teaching about L2 users in traditional EFL countries actually helps students develop more balanced understanding of the world, and thus, we do not yet know the extent to which such instruction is effective in these national contexts.

In this paper, I take Japan as a typical country where ELT assumes a responsibility to foster students' international understanding through EIL. Focusing on university students in Tokyo who participated in a course dealing with L2 users, I discuss my finding that teaching about L2 users in ELT is not, on its own, sufficient to develop an impartial international understanding. Based on this finding, I argue that what is needed is curriculum change; in particular, the building of links between the teaching of ELT and subjects such as history and geography, in order to encourage more truly global worldviews.

Keywords: English Language Teaching, English as an International Language, international understanding, second language users, curriculum change

Contesting the Culture of the Doctoral Degree

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Abstract

This paper explores candidates' experiences of the culture of three doctoral research degrees in the School of education, RMIT University. The research design was underpinned by Bourdieu's theory of practice and three meta-themes were developed: tensions between and within the field; challenges to autonomous principles; and the importance of habitus and cultural capital in doctoral study. Five recommendations were proposed, aimed at producing a vibrant doctoral learning community with a deeper understanding of candidates' issues.

Introduction and context

This paper outlines an exploration of candidates' experiences of the culture of three doctoral research degrees in the School of Education, RMIT University: the Doctor of Philosophy by thesis, the Doctor of Philosophy by project and the Doctor of Education. RMIT is a university of technology with a focus on 'real world' research. Until recently, the School of Education had two doctoral degrees: the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) and the Doctor of Education (EdD). The PhD in this School can currently be studied either by the traditional[1] mode of a thesis or by project. At RMIT, the PhD (thesis) consists of a single research study completed under supervision, the outcome of which is a thesis. It differs from the EdD in that the latter had a smaller research element which was preceded by four one-semester coursework units. The EdD has now been disbanded. The PhD by project is relatively new to the discipline of education, being offered in the School for the first time in 2000. It consists of research that is usually completed in the candidate's workplace, and a durable record of the project which includes an exegesis. Candidates are also examined orally.

The focus of the EdD and the PhD (project) is clearly on professional or work practice. EdD candidates undertake 'studies and professional development in depth in a significant part of a field of professional activity' (RMIT, 2008, p. 14). However, for PhD (project) candidates, the link to the workplace is usually more entrenched: the aim is to produce change and a tangible outcome in the workplace by using action learning or research approaches within the framework of a research project (RMIT, n.d.).

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[1] While Pearson's (2005) point that there is an 'uncritical acceptance of there being a "traditional" PhD' (p. 123) is taken, 'traditional' as used here merely describes the PhD by thesis with research methodology being the only coursework involved, which is common to Schools and Faculties of Education, among others.

The literature on doctoral degrees and candidature

Increasingly, candidates are seeing the value of the research degree not as a passport to an academic position, but to engage at a high level with the professions and industry; Boud and Tennant (2006) argue that universities are now being seen as 'producing workers for the knowledge economy' (p. 294) and that the new focus on learning in the workplace has led to doctoral education reforms.

There has been much research showing the particular issues of postgraduate research candidates (Barnacle & Usher, 2003; Conrad & Chipperfield, 2004; Harman, 2002; McAlpine & Norton, 2006; Pearson & Ford, 1997). Attrition problems, for instance, have been shown to be multifaceted (Evans, 2002; Golde & Dore, 2001; Lovitts, 2001). Latona and Browne (2001) sum these up by pointing to three broad factors: science-based candidates, who are often supported within a team and have a sense of belonging, are more likely to complete; individual supervisory factors, including having a clear understanding of relevant roles and responsibilities, have the capacity to impede or assist progress; and the individual characteristics of candidates, for instance, those who have a prior Honours degree are more likely to do well.

Supervision practices have also been well-researched. Much of this literature relates to the tension between 'the irreconcilable poles of pupil and independent researcher' (Frankland, 1999, p. 9). For instance, although Sinclair (2004) found that a direct interventionalist approach taught the competencies needed for successful completion, this functionalist approach was found to be too narrow by Lee (2008). In her study, other approaches such as critical thinking, enculturation into the disciplinary community, emancipation and developing a quality relationship were more important.

However, there is little research available on identifying how doctoral candidates themselves perceive the culture of doctoral study. This is particularly true of doctoral study outside of the 'traditional' PhD, and especially from the perspective of a comparative study of candidates' experiences of three doctoral degrees in one School. What is needed is a study that looks to understand the candidates' emotions, and their 'bodily dispositions' and 'practical consciousness' (Bourdieu, 1990) of their habits and activities within the particular cultures of each of the three programs.

Aims and research design

This research aimed to answer the question: How do candidates perceive the respective cultures of traditional, practice-based and professional doctoral education? To answer this question, semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with six candidates from each of the PhD (thesis) and PhD (project) programs and five EdD candidates, along with two supervisors from each program. All participants were from RMIT's School of Education and candidates were either current (in their final year) or had submitted within the previous year. Participants were allocated a pseudonym and identified with the type of doctoral program and identification as candidate (C) or supervisor (S) in brackets, for example: Sally (project, C); Tina (thesis, S). To allow analysis of candidates' experiences and the doctoral structures within which their practice resides through one critical lens, the research design was underpinned by Bourdieu's theory of practice (Bourdieu, 1977, 1990).

Bourdieu's key concepts are habitus, field and capital. Habitus is a general disposition that develops through life by adjusting to the various fields, producing a cultural trajectory in the individual. Conversely, it also influences life outcomes because the changes are biased in favour of our past

experiences, limiting the possibilities to those viable for the social context of that person. The field is a site of struggle for power between the agents who inhabit it. By power, Bourdieu means those who have the defining capital and who determine membership in that particular field. Bourdieu (1993) points out that educational institutions privilege particular social capital (strategic networks) and cultural capital that students bring with them, and that institutions 'endorse and normalize particular types of knowledge, ways of speaking, styles, meanings, dispositions and worldviews' (Margolis, Soldatenko, Acker, & Gair, 2001, p. 13).

Summary of results

The case study data revealed an ambivalence regarding the types of cultural and social capital appropriate for doctoral candidates not aiming to work in an academic environment where these are in conflict with the workplace. Three meta-themes were developed: tensions between and within the field; challenges to autonomous principles; and the importance of habitus and cultural capital in doctoral study. These are now discussed.

Tensions between and within the fields

Fields and sub-fields can be seen as sites of continuous struggle. Agents with a greater amount of the types of capital valued by the field will occupy higher positions. It can be argued that in the broader field of doctoral study, the capitals most valued are cultural and social capital. Assumptions can also be made that supervisors will have more capital than candidates, particularly when these capitals are of a symbolic nature, with the relevant prestige attached. Further, supervisors themselves will have varying amounts of these capitals relative to other supervisors. Those who are professors or associate professors, for instance, or those who have long-established and valued practices, command significantly more capital than others. In other words, power rests with the dominant agents.

This has ramifications for practice when those who become dominant in sub-fields are not those with the power in the larger field. While Bourdieu (1988) spoke of academia generally as being contested territory, with agents struggling to 'determine the conditions and the criteria of legitimate membership and legitimate hierarchy' (p. 11), more specifically in this study, tensions are seen within a sub-field in demise, within a relatively new sub-field struggling to establish itself, and between the fields of academia and the workplace.

The lack of coursework choice in the latter stages of the EdD effectively robbed candidates of what McWilliam et al. (2002) argue can be a useful transition point into the rigour of doctoral research. The effects on EdD candidates were profound and produced lasting trauma. For some candidates interviewed, three or four years had passed since they had completed their coursework units, yet they still felt disenfranchised: *It's like I'm lost in the Sahara and there are no directions [...] I've never felt so unsafe – like, I'm on a trapeze and there's no safety nets anywhere* (Lyn, EdD, C); *It's like being a kite – you're buffeted around in different directions* (Alison, EdD, C). While some found the coursework a useful way to build contacts with lecturers and other candidates and thus were able to build some social capital in the field, this was negated by the administration problems and frustration felt in spending valuable time studying courses in which they had no interest.

The tensions here spring from competing values between an autonomous field focused on those who possess scientific, 'scholastic capital' and a heteronomous field of those possessing the administration power of 'academic capital' (Bourdieu, 1988). Universities are businesses and there is

need for them to rationalise their spending. In this context it is important to remember that the boundaries of fields and sub-fields are fluid and as fields converge with each other, social space becomes layered. In the case of the EdD program, the numbers of candidates fell. This left those within the EdD sub-field with the scholastic capital, who still saw the educational value of the program, powerless against and dominated by agents within the broader doctoral field of the School, who possessed sufficient academic capital (who were in turn, of course, powerless to act on a lack of Government funding). Thus the sub-field, no longer recognised as viable, disappeared, leaving no-one with sufficient scholastic cultural capital to plan for the program's demise and ensure the candidates were not disadvantaged.

New and developing sub-fields also show tensions within and between those and other fields. As outlined above, for a program to survive there must be a critical mass of agents with sufficient cultural and symbolic capital who believe in the program. However, comments by some supervisors show an undercurrent of unease about the PhD (project). Tina (S, thesis), for instance, expressed concern at an instrumentality and lack of rigour in the PhD (project). Another supervisor was made aware of a very senior staff member's disparaging remarks about the program. Further, during the period of this research, several agents with substantial levels of symbolic and cultural capital in the PhD (project) sub-field left the School, with the result that supervisors of other programs have now begun to supervise candidates in this program. There is a danger if too many agents with the required amount of capital in that sub-field are replaced by other agents who might show little acceptance of its worth (lacking the required 'illusio').The PhD (project) sub-field could find itself in a precarious situation if there are insufficient 'game players' with enough symbolic capital within the broader School doctoral field who believe in the 'game'. The fluid boundaries and converging fields produce a very real danger of the sub-field collapsing or being reconceptualised.

Confusion within the PhD (project) is also seen regarding various aspects of the program, particularly regarding the exegesis. It seems there are no clear guidelines for candidates or supervisors in terms of defining principles; that is, what is acceptable or valued content and structure. Although both supervisors interviewed did not see this as a problem (except for the low word limit), candidates with supervisors both inside and outside of the School of Education reported a sense of bewilderment because their supervisors seemed also to lack any concrete advice. The two supervisors from this sub-field also pointed to the exegesis as problematic. Although for Paul (project, S) this was more to do with his students lacking appropriate academic writing style, with Pam (project, S), it was more related to the structure of the program. She identified a number of her candidates as having difficulty in identifying what content belongs in the exegesis, compared to the artifact. It seems that the PhD (project) subfield has not established a doxic praxis (the accepted way of thinking and acting in the field), although with some supervisors from other programs questioning the legitimacy of the PhD (project) and others finding difficulty negotiating a path, it is important that it actually become orthodoxic: in other words, the elements, parameters, scholarship and values of the sub-field need to be discussed and agreed to by the key agents.

Other tensions identified in this study have been resolved with a change in field. Two candidates, for instance, whose research was cross-disciplinary and who were in dispute with their original supervisors in the School of Education were provided with supervisors from other schools. In each case, as the candidates' research plans were accepted by their new supervisors, there was a palpable increase in the candidates' level of capital as they felt accepted in their respective new 'games'. In each case their previous workplaces were more aligned to the new fields and their habitus' undoubtedly enabled them to have a better 'feel for the game' in these fields.

Conflict between the fields of the workplace and the university are also seen. Some candidates' habitus, for instance, was more appropriate to their workplace. For instance, Lyn (EdD, C) had a very senior position in a large corporate workplace and was embodied by a substantial amount of cultural and symbolic capital there. However, as she attempted to 'play the game' in the doctoral

field, her lack of recognised capital in that field, shown, for instance, in her inappropriate business-style dot-pointed writing, put her in a dominated position, causing a considerable amount of distress.

Further tensions between the university and the workplace are possible in the PhD (project). These include the difficulty for the candidate in dealing with conflict in the workplace following implementation of the project and the risk of the candidate losing his/her job before the research is completed. Although neither of these was reported by the candidate respondents, Paul (project, S) identified them as issues that have occurred with candidates he has supervised. The former produces a dilemma for the candidate. To see the true value of the research in terms of both an academic and a practical achievement (and perhaps to gain some cultural capital), it must be implemented; however, the workplace field is the enduring field for the candidate and the degree to which there is an increase in cultural capital as a result of the research depends upon how the research is received. There are also potential intellectual property issues whenever research is located and perhaps sponsored by a workplace, while still part of a university doctoral degree. Although the issues were resolved, two PhD (project) candidates experienced some degree of unease, one, Boris (project), felt the need for his industry manager to acknowledge ownership of the research to Boris. There are similarities here of a more global issue of the power relations between Government regulations and requirements pressuring universities to address uniform processes and standards and the candidates' need for a more responsive doctoral program aligned with his or her workplace. The irony here, of course, is that the Government itself has indicated a need for more workplace research. Universities are caught in the middle.

Challenges to autonomous principles:

Autonomous principles are seen to be challenged both in terms of fields and pedagogy. For instance, the general autonomous field of doctoral study with its underpinning values derived from the field itself is challenged by the heteronomous field of Government regulations regarding submission time. While the Government seemingly (mis)understands doctoral candidates to be young, male and studying science, this view does not allow for doctoral candidates valued in Schools and Faculties of Education such as women and those who are working and maintaining part-time study. Completion rates are now performance indicators for university faculties and schools and tied to funding. Similarly, heteronomous intrusions into the general field of doctoral study, for instance, the Government focus on the 'products' of research such as generic or employment-related skills and research output for institutions, conspire against the 'processes' of research and the researchers' engagement with these.

There are also challenges to autonomous principles of dialogical pedagogy, which includes an over-emphasis on the master/apprenticeship model of supervision (Moriarty, Danaher & Danaher, 2008). Paul (project, S), for instance, strongly argues for team supervision over what he perceives to be sub-standard master/apprenticeship practices with their power imbalances and lack of accountability. He argues that in the PhD (project) it is not possible to be an 'expert' in each workplace. However, as he points out, group supervision does not fit within the performance requirements. While the master/apprenticeship model with its clear lines of accountability and responsibility is appealing for heteronomous interests, the candidate is always dependent, 'affirming an asymmetrical power relationship' between candidate and supervisor, and confirming what for many candidates is 'an almost instinctive sense of being an impostor, somebody who is yet to show that s/he really is entitled to a position within the field of knowledge production that research constitutes' (Moriarty, Danaher, & Danaher, 2008, p. 438).

However, this needs to be tempered with the understanding that not all candidates appreciate a dialogical approach from their supervisor. In the present study, for instance, Trang (thesis, C) construed the egalitarian approach from her supervisor as over-familiarity, finding it to be disturbing.

She preferred an approach where she understood her supervisor to be the master. This is echoed by Moriarty, Danaher and Danaher (2008), who point out that some candidates from a Confucian heritage based on authority and deference 'might find dialogical pedagogy so unsettling as to be ultimately destructive' (p. 439). Once again, the importance of habitus is shown, which is now discussed along with cultural capital.

The importance of habitus and cultural capital in doctoral study:

Two assumptions can be made with regard to doctoral candidates' habitus and cultural capital. First is that previous university study, even at Bachelors or coursework Masters level, will have provided candidates with cultural capital appropriate to the doctoral field and that the amount of cultural capital they present with will be incorporated within a habitus geared towards postgraduate study, thus assisting them in their doctoral studies. The second assumption is that they are aiming to build on their cultural capital by gaining legitimate membership of the 'doctoral club'. These assumptions were tested in this study and found not to be true for all candidates. They came with unequal amounts of cultural capital and varying habitus, varying in their ability to succeed in an educational research practice of which most have little prior experience. Further, for some, the capital gained from the credential was secondary to personal and professional development.

Habitus is an important element in Bourdieu's theory. It is an organising principle for actions, norms of behaviour, attitudes and perceptions, and as such, carries the cultural capital that individuals acquire through early socialisation. Because it influences positions and position-takings in fields, it is a defining element in an individual's success or lack of success in various fields in which they find themselves. It is the habitus that enables some candidates to have a 'feel for the game' of doctoral study (although there were few of those in this study), other candidates to persevere against difficulties and ultimately reach success, and others to struggle painfully until they decide to withdraw.

Mills (2008) argues for the habitus' 'transformative potential' (p. 79). Along with her fellow researcher (Mills & Gale, 2002), she identifies two types of habitus: reproductive, in which individuals accept their social status and constraints; and transformative where they have the ability to change and improvise. A reproductive habitus was clearly seen in some candidates. Lyn (EdD, C), for instance, despite not having been allocated a supervisor for many months, accepted it as the norm. Despite her high-level managerial position, she still has an unshakable belief that things do not ever work out in her life outside of work. The administration staff seemed to feel there were no problems because she did not complain, which then became an act of symbolic violence, thus further perpetuating Lyn's belief that things do not work out. Evidence of a transformative habitus is also seen in candidates. Personal growth was a key factor with candidates in most programs. Boris (project, C), for instance felt that while his research topic was important to the community, the personal development he felt he was gaining was *vitally important* to him personally. Similarly, when Sally (project, C) was determined to understand difficult concepts in her research methodology unit, she found a perseverance she did not believe she had before. Having 'dropped out' of many activities she had previously found difficult, this new-found determination has seen her through some very difficult times in her doctoral studies. Knowing when to constrain a habitus is also useful. Although Helen (thesis, C) is predisposed to discuss her research because she understood how much she learned by being able to articulate elements, she keenly felt her inability to discuss her studies in her school workplace. She understood clearly that not only was the PhD not valued as cultural capital in that field, but also to mention it would have had the reverse effect.

In attempting to show an assumed mass of cultural capital, Julie (thesis, C) owned up to being a 'confessed snob', denigrating the EdD in comparison with the PhD (thesis, C). With a history of doing particularly well in her research Masters degree and a habitus clearly aligned with doctoral

studies, she saw the value of the PhD only if it was difficult to accomplish. Both Boris (project) and Lyn (EdD, C) also commanded a great deal of cultural and social capital, but in the fields of their workplace, not the university. However, each showed a different habitus, with Boris showing determination to somehow bring academic capital into his workplace, whereas Lyn, despite her high-powered corporate position found her work-perfect habitus with natural, high level social and oral communication skills to be of little use in doctoral studies.

Some candidates felt that there was an expectation by their supervisors that candidates come with sufficient capital to enable them to function fully in doctoral study. Where this attitude was apparent to candidates it affected them in varying ways. Both Lyn (EdD, C) and Jennie (EdD, C) felt such a lack of understanding that it rendered them powerless to ask their supervisors questions because they felt it would reflect badly on them. A somewhat different reaction was Sunee's (thesis, C) inability to ask questions because she did not know what questions to ask. As discussed earlier, the lack of any sense of learning culture left very little chance for candidates to develop cultural capital even as they neared the end of their trajectory. Being largely isolated meant they had little conception of the field as a whole, much less their program sub-field. Many candidates from all programs called on their social capital and found it easier to discuss their issues with a 'critical friend' who was successful in this field or to ask another expert, which showed a disposition for finding alternatives, arguably a useful trait in doctoral study.

Candidates who work, particularly those working full-time in senior positions and studying part-time, clearly have a habitus geared toward success in their careers, which may be different to that required for doctoral study. They also have often built up large amounts of cultural, social and symbolic capital in their workplaces. They attempt to 'play the game' in the doctoral field, but entering the game implies an acceptance of the rules, both explicit and implicit, of the game. Players with the required habitus and cultural capital, such as those in this study who have a close cultural relation to the academic field, possess a 'feel' for the game which brings with it the practical ability to perform. Those who lack the recognised capital in this field find themselves in a dominated position, and if also working, can find it difficult and confusing to develop their habitus in the required ways.

Conversely, those who are studying full-time and not working, particularly those who study on campus and have regular contact with supervisors and other research candidates, are in a better position to develop a habitus suited to the research environment. If there is a collective habitus of successful doctoral candidates it would seem to include motivation bolstered by personal and family pride coupled with a determination to succeed coming from a perspective of having something to prove.

A new look at supervisor pedagogy

The clear message in terms of supervisor pedagogy is that all stakeholders need to be aware that teaching at a skills level is a necessary but insufficient strategy to move candidates through their trajectory to becoming full members of the doctoral field. While there needs to be a pedagogical focus in the supervisor/candidate relationship, it needs to be understood as being more than merely teaching research and academic writing skills. Candidates need to be acculturated into the field of research – into the ways of thinking, doing and reflecting, in order for their habitus to become transformed so they can increase their level of cultural capital.

Supervisors also need to be reminded of the power imbalance between themselves and their candidates. Because most candidates in this study were employed practitioners, often in high-level

positions, and often older than their supervisors, there is evidence that even when supervisors attempt an egalitarian pedagogical and social space with their candidates, some candidates are very aware of their own lack of cultural and symbolic power – a recognition that in all social spaces are subject to the influence of power. There must be some scaffolding to not only build the candidates' knowledge of the rules of the game, but to gradually induct them so their research knowledge becomes second nature to them; that is, to develop their habitus by imbuing it with cultural capital valued in the field of doctoral study.

This is more likely to happen when candidates feel they are part of a learning community where they can share their learning with others – with other research candidates and other lecturers and supervisors. This needs to be done formally, through, for instance orientation sessions in which candidates learn the explicit 'rules of the game', and watching and giving regular presentations at School research conferences (which is currently the case) where candidates can identify the expected standard. However, just as important is to provide ongoing opportunities for informal meetings where candidates can gradually get a 'sense' of the game. In this situation it might be possible to transform their habitus and develop cultural capital, gradually learning to 'walk the walk and talk the talk'.

However, there may still be an issue in terms of candidates in practice-based doctoral programs such as the PhD (project). Being inducted into and immersed within the academic environment may produce contradictions in candidates who do not wish to remain part of this field. Although they need to be seen (at least by supervisors in the final stages and their examiners) as having developed some degree of cultural capital in their topic area within the doctoral field, some are clearly attempting to build capital in their workplace as well. It is interesting that in 'playing the game', candidates have presupposed an 'illusio' (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 76), believing in and accepting the value of doctoral studies, despite not wishing to remain part of the major field within which the doctoral studies sub-field is part.

Conclusions and recommendations

There is clearly a problem inherent in emerging sub-fields that challenge traditional modes of research. These larger issues will only be resolved when those with the symbolic and cultural power in this broader field of power are willing to engage in the ideologies and possibilities of this new sub-field. The PhD (project) exists because of Government demands for industry-relevant programs. However, sub-fields cannot be developed within a broader field with the expectation that all activity will fit neatly into the original field. This requires a change of attitude, expectations and regulation changes from those with substantial amounts of cultural capital in the broader field, that is, those who write the 'rules of the game' at government and university levels and those who are likely to be called on to examine candidates.

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are made:

- Develop a set of best-practice principles or guidelines for supervisory practice within each of the School's doctoral programs, and provide professional development related to this to all supervisors in the School.
- Provide on-line and face-to-face opportunities for candidates to participate in networks or clusters with other candidates and supervisors to allow candidates to develop social and cultural capital.

- Explore alternative supervision practices as a way of developing learning communities**.** These could include a mix of individual and group sessions where supervisors bring groups of their candidates together on a regular basis.
- Develop a supervisor pedagogy aimed at habitus transformation. Although the habitus is difficult to change and does not change quickly, it is important that candidates with a habitus likely to constrain rather than enable success in a research project are exposed to pedagogical strategies aimed at attempting to develop it. This would need to include work on candidate identity as a researcher.
- Ensure supervisors and learning support staff develop awareness of the effects of relative amounts and types of cultural capital in candidates.

It is clear that the fields of academia and the workplace will continue to develop strong ties with each other, but it is important to understand the tensions between the fields and the potential effects of these on doctoral candidates. Bourdieu (1977) argues that it is necessary 'to abandon all theories which explicitly or implicitly treat practice as a mechanical reaction, directly determined by the antecedent conditions and entirely reducible to the mechanical functioning of pre-established assemblies "model" or "roles"' (p. 73). Far from a mechanical reaction, insights from the data in the present study reveal the emotionally-charged process of succeeding as a doctoral candidate, with the on-going struggle to balance feelings of despair and inadequacy with a dogged determination to succeed.

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Supporting locally to participate globally: Lessons learned from NNES international doctoral students' overseas academic experiences

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Abstract

International graduate students are key players in facilitating cross-cultural communication and providing research productivity and leadership across national boundaries (Nettles & Millett, 2006; Tardy, 2004; Zimmerman, 1995). However, in the international research community where English is the common language, nonnative-English-speaking (NNES) international students' academic endeavor has often been examined through emphasis on their linguistic, social, and cultural challenges (Angelova & Rizantseva, 1999; Cho, 2004; Deem & Brehony, 2000; Morita, 2004; Schneider & Fujishima, 1995; Tardy, 2005). Especially for those studying in English-speaking countries, alternative views to the challenge-oriented analysis and possible diversity in students' learning experiences are seldom presented in previous literature. Thus, the simplified and largely negative depiction of NNES international students has often masked the students' heterogeneous needs to succeed in their overseas academic pursuits.

With a goal to enrich our understanding of NNES international doctoral students' experiences overseas, this study used interviews and shadowing observations to examine three NNES students' learning trajectories in three graduate programs at a U.S. graduate school. Through the lenses of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1977 & 1991), and learning investment (Norton Peirce, 1995), the study situated the students' experiences at the nexus of multiple personal and contextual factors, including family backgrounds, academic resources, future aspirations, and the culture and practices of each disciplinary community. The findings demonstrated that the NNES international students underwent a selective process of learning and made strategic use of their resources to position themselves favorably amongst their peers. Moreover, despite their shared label of NNES and international, their experiences were individualized by their different histories, resources, learning objectives, and the disciplinary contexts. On the other hand, the findings showed that prior to their overseas study, the students often did not receive sufficient guidance in preparing for the issues and academic demands they were about to face in their host communities. Furthermore, their host communities (including the community members) were not always aware of the NNES international students' diverse needs or ready to scaffold them to reach their learning goals.

In acknowledging the critical roles NNES international graduate students play in the international academic community, this study offers pedagogical implications based on the findings: It urges higher education institutes in international students' home as well as host countries to offer tailored and genre-specific support 1) to foster students' aspirations and academic competence in different skill areas before their academic quests, and 2) to attend to their learning objectives and needs during their overseas study. Detailed discussion of implications will be offered at the presentation and audience will be invited to participate in the discussion.
keywords = communities of practice, cultural capital, academic investment, Nonnative-English-Speaking international graduate students

Consolidating Doctoral Degrees along Functional, Rather than Disciplinary Boundaries

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Abstract

Doctoral degrees are currently typically awarded along disciplinary boundaries. For example, a person can earn a doctoral degree in economics, or psychology, or physics, to name a few disciplines. Such practice has resulted in the proliferation of many types of doctoral degrees.

The author suggests that doctoral degrees be awarded along functional instead of disciplinary boundaries. The functional areas could consist of the following – a few more could be identified and added later:

- Leadership
- Management
- Philanthropy
- Practice
- Research
- Service
- Teaching

As an example, a doctoral degree that is offered in leadership in engineering could be listed as Ph.D. (Leadership – Engineering).

The author will discuss some of the advantages of consolidating doctoral degrees along functional rather than disciplinary boundaries.

Benefits and prerequisites of collaborative and cooperative leadership: A case study of a teacher education program

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Abstract

Written by a team of three women who have collectively and cooperatively co-directed a teacher education internship program in Southern California since 2003, this article narrates the origins of their unorthodox leadership structure and chronicles what they perceive to be the benefits of shared leadership. Also discussed is the group's belief that creating an effective co-leadership team takes far more than arbitrarily assigning co-titles to a group of individuals. It necessitates a number of prerequisites, including the members of the team holding the belief that shared decision making is advantageous and being equally committed to the same vision. This reflection is admittedly idiosyncratic and ethnographic in nature. The authors do not purport that their insights are universal in their applicability. Instead, the authors are presenting their experiences with and understanding of collaborative and cooperative leadership for heuristic consideration.

Introduction

Collectively and cooperatively we have been co-directing a teacher education internship program in Southern California for nearly seven years (since 2003) This article first narrates the origins of our unorthodox co-structure. Next we highlight the indicators that suggest the program has thrived under our leadership. Believing that the success of the department largely stems from our co-leadership structure, we then chronicle what we feel are the benefits of our collaborative and cooperative leadership. In doing so, we argue that effective shared leadership needs to be purposeful. As key prerequisites, we feel members of the team need to hold the core belief that shared decision making is highly advantageous and need to be equally committed to the same vision. The article concludes with a series of yet-to-be answered questions that stem naturally from this understanding of shared leadership: *What happens when a member of the shared leadership team needs to leave? What are the challenges associated with such a transition, and how can a team prepare for this inevitable reality?*

Historical context: The origin of our leadership structure

In 2003, nearly seven years ago, the three of us collectively assumed the responsibility of our graduate university's teacher education program. The circumstances related to our ascent to leadership were a bit unprecedented and the result of an institutional crisis. There was an unexpected and sudden void of leadership in our teacher education department. Without forewarning and in a matter of days, our supervisor and mentor stepped down from her position of director and returned to the faculty. Knowing that our department is of vital importance to the financial stability of the School of Educational Studies (SES) and, hence, tacitly knowing that if Teacher Education faltered, so would SES, the core SES faculty called an emergency meeting and looked us in the eye. They asked, *"Can you handle Teacher Education? Can you provide leadership, at least on an interim basis? Do you have the wherewithal to provide the stability we need?"*

Their candor likely reflected the cut-to-the-chase talk that often happens in crisis situations but also the soundness of the preexisting relationships the three of us had with the group. After all, we were known entities. Lisa Loop had been involved in Teacher Education for 17 years and was the Assistant Director. With a background in accounting, she knew the ins and outs of the department's budgets, grants, and fellowships better than anyone. She also had an exhaustive institutional memory of teacher credentialing in the State of California. We sometimes would joke that Loop could be awoken in the middle of the night, asked how the State mandates of the 1980s were different than those of 2000, and she could explain the nuances (coherently) without a moment's hesitation. Dr. Anita Quintanar had a background in K-12 schools in California, starting first as a Kindergarten teacher and finishing as a principal responsible for opening a school. While earning her doctorate from SES, she had done various projects for Teacher Education, including directing a highly successful career ladder grant that supported teacher's aides in their quest to obtain a Bachelor's degree and then subsequently a California teaching credential and MA in Education. Like Quintanar, Dr. DeLacy Ganley had earned

her doctorate from SES. While pursuing her doctorate, she had done some work in Teacher Education but had also been a Teaching Assistant and Research Assistant for a number of SES's core faculty. Her background was in teaching English and working with non-native speakers of English, both domestically and abroad. Given their co-terminus faculty status, Quintanar and Ganley were already attending the monthly SES Faculty meetings as colleagues. Loop was also an integral part of these faculty meetings as the Assistant Director of Teacher Education.

Loop, Quintanar and Ganley were no strangers to each other. Because our supervisor and mentor had simultaneously been the Director of Teacher Education *and* the Dean of SES *and* was a productive faculty member, she had been incredibly busy and the day-in, day-out running of Teacher Education was already largely our responsibility. Since 2002 (a year prior to this crisis), the three of us had been working elbow-to-elbow full time and had, as one of our first projects as a team, written a massive document to show how our program was aligned to new State mandates for teacher preparation (Senate Bill 2042). At this time, as noted above, Loop was the Assistant Director and, as an administrator, kept all the parts of the Teacher Education machine moving. She handled the accounting aspects of the office, kept the pulse of student enrollment and recruitment, managed financial aid, and coordinated the nine-person office staff. In 2002, Ganley and Quintanar had long formal titles: Director of Research & Advancement and, respectively, Director of Student Programs & School Relations. Combined, they were the academic leads of the department, responsible for stewarding the university-based coursework and the program's clinical components. Immediately upon joining forces, the two worked together to revamp the program's curriculum and refocus the program's anchor assignment, an ethnographic narrative project that served as the candidates' MA theses.

Given our already successful working relationship and our understanding of the department's idiosyncrasies, when the core SES faculty asked us if we could "(wo)man" the ship as a team, the answer was a quick yes. Accordingly, from the beginning, our leadership was conceived as being non-hierarchical. We were all, collectively and cooperatively, assuming the responsibilities of the directorship while still maintaining our previous, subordinate positions.[1] Our base salary remained the same for our Director positions, and we all were given a small stipend for assuming the Co-Directorship. The stipend was admittedly minuscule: we evenly split the 2/9 stipend that our former supervisor was given for the administrative work associated with the position. As such, our promotion didn't cost the department any additional funds. For each of us, the compensation annually came out to be approximately what an adjunct faculty member would earn to teach a single course. That we didn't advocate for greater compensation commensurate with the increased work and responsibility largely reflects the fact that everything was happening so fast and that we thought our leadership would be short-term, perhaps as short as three months.

Immediately upon hearing that we accepted the challenge, three core (seasoned and highly respected) SES faculty members volunteered to act as an advisory group. Their advocacy of us was palpable and appreciated. They made sure that the successes of our department were known by others, and, in many senses, their formal support helped to legitimize us and our unorthodox structure.

When the department's new leadership structure was presented to the University, Human Resources raised a red flag. HR asked, *"Who is ultimately in charge?"* That the metaphorical buck stopped with all three of us was deemed problematic, and it was determined that Loop would, in name, be the Interim Director but that the leadership was, in fact, collectively shared. Suggesting understanding that the department was co-led, most if not everybody within Teacher Education and SES now referred to us collectively by our new "nickname," a short-cut acronym that represented the friendly nature of our collective partnership: LADs (Lisa, Anita, and DeLacy).[2]

At a LADs meeting about a year after the formation of the team, Loop pointed out that it was ridiculous that she officially held the title of Interim Director given that the directorship was so clearly shared among the three of us. The title, she said, felt disingenuous. At this time (approximately 2004) the internal decision was made that we would refer to ourselves simply as the Co-Directors of Teacher Education and in the process remove any semantic hierarchy. Although we started using this new designation, the title change wasn't yet "registered" with HR.

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[1] As such, Ganley is now both a Co-Director of Teacher Education *and* the Director of Curriculum & Research; Quintanar is now a Co-Director *and* the Director of Faculty Development & School Relations; and Loop is now a Co-Director *and* the Director of Administration & Advancement.

[2] Emails are often sent to the three of us and start with "Dear LADs…" In meetings colleagues will say, "What do the LADs have to say about this issue?" And across our own calendars will be "LADs Lunch" or "LADs meeting." Abbreviating to "LADs" is so much easier than saying "Lisa, Anita and DeLacy."

Then, in 2005, approximately two years after the crisis that brought about our co-directorship, the core SES faculty unanimously voted (and the Provost agreed) to lift the provisional status of our leadership arrangement. In truth, we hadn't been operating as if our leadership was in any way temporary; we were too enthusiastic about what we were doing and too busy with the work. No external chatter about being provisional ever pulled our focus, and there hadn't, for example, been discussion about a search for a permanent director or any publicizing of the position. Our enrollments were strong and all indicators suggested that Teacher Education was thriving under our care.

It is also likely that having consistent leadership in Teacher Education provided a sense of solace and stability to the School as a whole. SES's own leadership was in flux. Reflecting the School's practice of anointing deans by looking around the table of core SES faculty and seeing whom among themselves was willing to "sacrifice" for the administrative duty, the School had had four deans in four years time. The weakness of this practice was becoming increasingly evident (as fewer and fewer members of the faculty were able or willing to step up to the plate), and there was more and more talk about needing to look outside our own walls for a fulltime dean.[3]

Currently our structure is now somewhat normalized. We have been leading collectively and cooperatively now for seven years. No longer are we incessantly being asked, *"Which one of you should I email about "X"?"* Internally people now seem to understand that budgetary and administrative questions are best handled by Loop and questions related to curriculum, student concerns and/or academic issues are best fielded by Quintanar and Ganley. Perhaps most vital, however, is that within the institution there is now the understanding that anytime a question is posed to any one of us that the question or issue is in turn shared with the others. Understanding the high degree to which we communicate with one another seems to lessen people's anxiety about making sure their initial message is sent to the proper recipient.

The remainder of this article uses our experience with collaborative and cooperative leadership to address what we feel are the benefits of such a structure and the non-negotiable attributes of our effective team. Admittedly, this reflection is idiosyncratic and ethnographic in nature. We do not purport that our insights are universal in their applicability. Instead, we are presenting our experiences with and understanding of collaborative and cooperative leadership for heuristic consideration.

The benefits of leading collaboratively & cooperatively

There are a number of indicators that the department has thrived under our leadership:

- Steady enrollments. While other internship-based teacher education programs in Southern California are reporting that their enrollments have severely declined (some even needing to close shop) because of the depressed economic situation, we have been able to maintain our enrollments around 100 interns per cohort.
- Significant increase in the cash contribution to the School. When comparing the cash contributions of the department in the 2001-2002 school year (just prior to our assuming leadership) to the contributions made in the 2008-2009 school year, Teacher Education has increased its cash contribution to the School by 42.9%.
- Securing of grant funds. In the last five years, we have secured over $5 million in grants from the federal government, the state and private foundations.

Besides there being indicators of institutional strength, we can also report personal fulfillment in our jobs: we have a shared sense of responsibility; feel like we can take risks and be innovative; feel like our efforts are worthwhile and, hence, feel accomplished; and enjoy our work environment and like the people with whom we work.

We believe that the success of the department stems in large part from our leadership arrangement. Stated differently, we don't think our department would be doing so well if it weren't being led collectively and collaboratively and that our program's success speaks to the strength of such a leadership structure. When compared to a leadership structure with one person at the helm, our structure has provided our department with greater stability; better and more innovative decision making; and more efficiency and effectiveness in the implementation of ideas. To illustrate this, consider the transformation of the program's pre-teaching experience.

At the time we accepted the directorship, we recognized that we were most concerned about the part of the program with which we had the least control: the pre-teaching experience. The pre-teaching experience is in the very first part of our program (during Phase 1, the "pre-internship" phase).

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[3] This era was also a time of change for our University as we had a new-to-the-institution president who came on board in July 2005. His arrival created a stir almost immediately, and he would resign from his post just four years later in 2009.

It involves our candidates working at school sites under the tutelage of experienced teachers. The goal is for the veteran teacher to provide mentorship and support in order to develop the candidate's effectiveness and overall readiness to assume the responsibilities of his/her own classroom (which happens in Phase 2 of our program, the "internship" phase). In their pre-teaching settings, candidates assume greater and greater responsibility until they are able to teach independently. At the end of the experience, the candidate must be deemed competent enough to be a fully responsible, fully paid teacher of record in his/her own classroom under intensive university support. With this designation made, the candidate can advance to Phase 2 of the program (the "internship" phase).[4]

When we assumed leadership, our candidates' pre-teaching placements were determined by our district partners. We would contact a wide number of school districts and ask if they would be willing to host a few of our candidates. District administration would then select the specific "Cooperating Teachers" to whom we'd pay a small stipend. More times than not, we were grossly unsatisfied with the lack of quality experiences our candidates were having. Although some of the district-selected Cooperating Teachers were stellar, many were not. Sometimes we had the sense that our candidates were being placed in a particular classroom to augment an ineffective teacher instead of to learn from an expert. At times our candidates were being viewed as gofers to make copies or run errands, and in other instances they were handed the keys on the first day and the Cooperating Teacher was never seen again. There was insufficient quality control. We had no influence over which classrooms our candidates were being placed and scarce influence over the Cooperating Teachers. The result: We were dissatisfied with how the pre-internship experience was serving our candidates. How we dealt with this predicament illustrates the benefits of our leadership structure.

We believe that three heads are better than one. As such, when there is a decision to be made or a problem to be solved, we talk about the issue collectively, looking at the situation from different angles, pitching different perspectives and solutions. We each bring our unique expertise to the table to answer a plethora of questions. First we discuss the problem or situation itself: *What are the systemic factors at play that brought about this problem? Is it akin to anything we've seen before? What other problems are related to this issue?* Then we start circling in on different solutions, scrutinizing various possibilities: *What does research say? How is this in line with our values and mission? What have we done in the past? What is the out-of-the-box solution we aren't yet thinking of? What solution best serves the people involved? Are there financial implications?*

We keep asking questions of each other and postulating answers, whittling away at the issue. This process necessitates having genuine respect for each other's thinking, skills, and perspectives. Most typically, a solution is proposed and then somebody else takes that idea and elevates it. The solution keeps evolving, and with every iteration the idea comes closer and closer to the mark. The final solution, once hit, no longer "belongs" to any one of us individually and is typically immediately recognizable as "it."

In the case of the pre-internship experience, we went around and around. Eventually we articulated what we wanted: less variability, greater quality, and more control. We wanted to better align the work the candidates were doing at their pre-teaching sites to their university coursework. We wanted the mentoring teachers to be the best in our area schools and to provide a visual embodiment of our program's vision in action. We realized that if we could be in a defined relationship to a core group of teachers, selecting, training, and supervising them for a number of years, that we would have the desired influence over the pre-teaching experience. As such, we decided we needed to convince a select number of districts to allow us to build our own relationship with a core group of their teachers who would, during the pre-teaching experience, be simultaneously employed by the district and us. The idea was that we would work with these "CGU Master Teachers" on a long term basis, providing them with significant professional development and compensation (which besides an honorarium included the opportunity to take a class which could be applied to a doctorate in Education at Claremont Graduate University). With this goal identified, Loop looked at the budget and determined, with some adjustments and reallocations, that the plan was financially feasible.

Now that we had a goal, we needed to make it all happen. This would be no small undertaking. We didn't want yet another cohort to have the old, flawed pre-teaching experience. This meant that we had to get district buy-in immediately. We'd need to pitch the idea to our district friends and work with them to vet the project with Superintendents, Boards of Trustees, teacher Unions, and department heads. We'd need to interview, select and train the Master Teachers and process their contractual agreements…and we would need to do this in a matter of a few months. We were under a

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[4] During Phase 2 (aka: "the internship phase") our candidates are deemed highly qualified under No Child Left Behind and are in their own classes as the named teacher of record. They coached in their classrooms by our faculty and attend classes with us at the University on Saturdays.

time-crunch. Having three of us, though, allowed us to accomplish the job at hand faster and more efficiently. We could do as a team what no single entity could.

In October we called together friends from the school districts with whom we have some of our closest relations and whom we meet with every several months. The group mostly consisted of Human Resource personnel, instructional leaders, teachers and principals. We shared with them our idea, and immediately friends from four districts said they were excited. Each of us then partnered with the friends from a different district, looking at how the program could be custom-fit to each district's own situation. In this way, we extended the circle of our shared leadership to include our district partners. From them we elicited ideas and worked together to create a win-win situation.

By having each of us meet with a different district, discussions advanced quickly in triple-time. We were dividing up the workload (and hence could metaphorically be in more than one place at the same time). Vital was that each of us individually carried ultimate authority and credibility. District leaders knew that each of us had the power to negotiate and problem solve and could make on-the-spot agreements to adjust to the idiosyncratic context of a particular district. Decisions didn't need to be postponed because they needed approval from a "higher up." By "dividing and conquering," we could be nimble and responsive and, as such, we were able to get the needed district buy-in within the constricted timeframe. Some, particularly our colleagues who know how slow-moving districts can be, marvel at this accomplishment in and of itself.

When it came time to interview and select the Master Teachers, we again played to our structure's strength. We converged upon a district, each of us holding interviews in a different room with a separate group of perspective Master Teachers. In one district alone we collectively interviewed 60 teachers in 2 days. Three days later we had a team of Master Teachers in place, ready to start their training that next weekend. This could not have been possible if we weren't working as a collective and cooperative team. We simply could not have covered so much ground.

In 2008 the first group of our candidates had the new pre-teaching program. The benefit was immediately evident. Our faculty and Master Teachers were talking to one another so now when a literacy strategy was discussed at the University there was the likelihood that the Master Teacher was modeling it at the school site. The result: alliance between the clinical and the theoretical and, accordingly, greater candidate understanding. The faculty who coached the candidates in their internship jobs (during Phase 2 of our program) reported that the cohort was much more ready for the challenges of being the teacher of record. And, the number of candidates-in-crisis was down. Interestingly, the benefits weren't just to our own candidates. The Master Teachers were reporting that the experience invigorated them, and district leaders were saying their best teachers had jumped their game to an even higher level after being a CGU Master Teacher. One district also reported the arrangement benefited their pupils, saying that academic test scores were far higher in the classrooms hosting our pre-teaching candidates.

From hindsight, this new approach to the pre-teaching experience seems obviously sensible but it was groundbreaking, not just for us but also for our district partners. We had been handling the pre-teaching this same way for over twenty-five years. Our new approach simply did not follow status quo; it was deemed innovative and now some peer institutions are considering following suit.   Perhaps we have also set a new standard by which to measure university/school district relations and collaborative efforts.

Quintanar often says that everybody has a blind spot because one can only independently see three walls. To see the fourth wall behind, one needs a partner. With three of us on sentry, we ensure that we have a 360° view. Furthermore, each of us brings a unique perspective to help understand the situation. Accordingly, because there is shared responsibility, we are more aware of and responsive to the situation at hand and, as a result of our increased vantage and the information it yields and because each has different skill sets and perspectives, we are able to make better decisions. As such, we really believe the sum of our collective effort is far strong than the sum of our individual parts.

We also believe that our structure not only lets us set better goals and gives us the ability to implement these goals more effectively but that it also leads to greater stability for the program in part because a change of leadership isn't as likely. Prior to our leadership, there had been a history of crisis and subsequent leadership change. The typical modus operandi was for a single director to oversee all aspects of the department, for personnel to get overwhelmed, for the program to go into a tailspin, and for a change in leadership to ultimately occur. Typically directors didn't last more than 5 years.

Under our care, the program is doing well and none of us is feeling overwhelmed. When we start to feel stressed, we have sufficient power to rethink our needs and resources. Together we shoulder the challenges and stresses that come hand-in-hand with being responsible for any program of our size and quality. Our structure has also allowed us to accommodate "life's happenings" with less

impact to the program: we've weathered deaths and one director was able to step out for two different six-week maternity leaves.

Our staff and faculty agree that our leadership structure is advantageous. When asked to anonymously comment upon a shared leadership structure, we received the following feedback:

- "[Such a structure] works well. The structure allows those needing assistance the ability to discuss the issue/problem with those who specialize or have experience in a certain area."
- "I think [such a structure] is good because it brings more strength to the team and the work is divided. Also [it is] easy to bounce off of and feed on each other's ideas…There is always someone to talk to if you have a question, concern or need help with something."
- "[It is] fabulous – I see the best of all of them. Their talents seem to be featured. Each of their creative sides is recognized, and they model incredible respect and cooperation…"
- [It is] fantastic! They make an excellent trio. They work together to meet the needs of the program…The advantages are that they can divide responsibilities so they can focus primarily in these areas and do them well. They still contribute in all areas, but their strengths are evident."
- "It works well when all…are interested and driven to achieve [the] same results as stated in philosophy. It helps that each has a different background/area of strength so together they meld the ideology, philosophy, and practicality…Three heads are better at problem solving and keeping program <u>balanced</u>. In any problem, on any given day, someone is there at CGU to help."
- "I believe this is the best structure I have seen in my career. Having three people with each having their own special expertise in a specific area of the program is better than having one persona and a watered down expertise on each of the three areas of the program…The advantages are that each has a certain responsibility of the program and as such can put all your efforts in that area. As they say "three heads are better than one." Each of you is very dedicated to the overall success of the program. As each of you performs your duties and responsibilities to the best of your abilities, when it comes together it is like sweet music. It is obvious that it is working as we still have a high number of students in the program. I am sure that higher management sees this. As they say, "if it isn't broken, why fix it?" I see how great the three of you work together and that is because the goal of the three of you is to make the program the best possible. Keep up the great work."
- "I feel the advantages of this structure are: 1. More ideas because there are three different views and vantage points; it gives issues and decisions that seem to be cut and dry a new life with new ideas. 2. More flexibility. Because there are three different directors, there is always someone to fill a hole when emergencies/life comes up. 3. More calmness and resources. With the three directors there is an ability to split responsibilities; therefore all decisions and responsibilities do not sit with one person and most of the time we are able to deal with a dilemma when it occurs."

When pushed to articulate a drawback associated with shared leadership, most noted that a lot of time needs to be devoted to communication (i.e., that shared leadership was time intensive), and dialogue is necessary to be on the same page.

The prerequisites of leading collaboratively & cooperatively

Although the benefits of such a leadership structure are varied, creating an effective team involves much more than simply assembling a group and giving them co-titles. We believe the "magic" doesn't happen serendipitously. Obviously, the members of the team need to share the fundamental belief that the group can accomplish more collectively than could the members individually. Additionally, there needs to be a genuine respect for each other's expertise, skills, perspectives, and talents. Likewise, each member must have transparent and effective communication skills; be gracious and patient; and have the self confidence to celebrate collective accomplishments while relinquishing the need for personal glory. Perhaps, though, the most critical prerequisite is having a common vision.

We feel that a commitment to a common vision (and passion for that vision) is absolutely key. There needs to be crystalline agreement regarding the overarching direction of where the team wants to go. There will be (and should be) debates about how best to get to this destination, but the end-goal in and of itself cannot be something that isn't clearly, unanimously and vigorously endorsed. The manifestation of this vision has to be "the calling" of each individual.

We are united in our belief that teachers can (and should) be transformational figures in the lives of their students, that it is what teachers do (or conversely don't do) that determines the academic success of a student. We resonate with hopeful data that show that teachers can cultivate stellar academic success among poor, non-white, non-native speakers of English. We believe that variables like poverty and language fluency are challenges but not barriers that legitimize a student's failure or that justify teachers lowering their expectations. We believe that such variables can and need to be addressed via well-informed, explicit and purposeful instruction. As such, we seek to prepare teachers who believe it is a myth that certain kids "can't do it," to prepare teachers who strive and are able to cultivate academic success in all, including the most disadvantaged, marginalized, and disenfranchised. The endorsement of these ideas is, for us, unwavering. We don't quibble over this vision and instead focus on how to align our decisions and actions to this vision. We feel that because we are in total agreement of the end goal, our efforts are more productive and focused.

We also find that being united in our vision makes our involvement with each other energizing. Each feels as if our own individual calling is being advanced because we are surrounded by each other, by kindred spirits. Stated differently, our commitment is nurtured in each others' care. We find that because we are united in our calling and committed, our work together is often in a state of what Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi would call flow (Csikszentmihalyi; 1997; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009). We feel as if our efforts, time, and energy together is advancing our own individual cause (which is also the collective cause) and as such is not tiring nor burdensome. And although we ourselves call our routine convenings "LADs meetings," the term "meeting" really isn't applicable because they don't feel akin to the stale standard meetings typical in most organizations. Instead, our work is rejuvenating, invigorating and self-propelling.

Being energized by each other and our collective endeavors is fundamentally important because the process of sustainable collaborative and cooperative leadership isn't "efficient" or quick in terms of time. It necessitates an extreme degree of communication and group sense-making. We continually meet, continually dialogue. If we didn't look forward to our interactions with the team or were depleted by them, these frequent interactions would be overly taxing and eventually avoided. But, in our case, nobody comes to the table begrudgingly or feeling like they are impatient to get to their "real work" – because the meeting at hand is the real work. To be clear: None of us love meetings for meeting's sake. But when we get together, the time goes by quickly and enjoyably, and we part company feeling productive, accomplished. Because of this, there is the needed willingness to devote time to the process. The long and short of it is: Effective collaboration takes time but the results are worth it.

Lastly, because we all have a common vision that simultaneously corresponds to our own individual calling, our work ethic is equally strong. We are all outcome driven individuals and are willing to do what it takes to get the desired results. Having a similar work ethic is likely a fundamental prerequisite to shared leadership because it keeps tit-for-tat comparisons and resentment at bay. Knowing the degree to which each of us works tirelessly for the good of the department and the advancement of our mission, none of us thinks of another as a "slacker" who isn't carrying her share of the load. In truth, it is more typical that we try to remind each other to maintain a sensible pace and a balanced life in order to prevent exhaustion and burnout (thus illustrating yet another prerequisite: genuine care for the members of the team).

Conclusion

In summary, we feel that there are a number of benefits to collaborative and cooperative leadership but that crafting an effective team doesn't happen by chance. There are a number of prerequisites, including members holding the belief that shared decision making is advantageous and being equally committed to the same vision. Accordingly, effective collaborative and cooperative leadership takes far more than the arbitrary giving of co-titles to a group of individuals. Given this understanding, a number of questions naturally arise: *What happens when a member of a shared leadership team needs to leave? Should the team try to find a new member or reconfigure its current model (i.e., a trio now becomes a duo)? Either way, what are the challenges associated with this type of transition, and how can a team prepare for this inevitable reality?* These are relevant questions for our particular team. How we address the inevitable temporariness of our trio will need to be chronicled in a future publication.

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Working to Prepare School Leaders: Implications for Universities and Schools

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Introduction

In May of 2008, the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE), which regulates the K-12 public schools, and the Illinois Board of Higher Education (IBHE) which regulates the public and private universities in Illinois initiated a process to revise the universities' preparation programs for building level principals across the state. These state agencies were reacting to two separate issues when the decision was made to begin the revision process. First, they were addressing the Levine Report (2005) which criticized principal preparation programs, nationally, for having inadequate curricula, low admissions and graduation standards, faculty disconnected from the K-12 schools, and insufficient quality control. Second, ISBE and IBHE were reacting to the fact that in fiscal year 2007, 2402 principal level administrative endorsements were issued in a state that had just over 400 administrative openings at the principalship level (ISBE, 2008). These agencies also touted the need to shift the emphasis of these administrative preparation programs from a management approach to more of a leadership approach.

A task force was initiated, which subsequently met several times over the next year, to propose improvements and revisions in the principal preparation programs across the state. There are currently thirty-two public and private institutions of higher education which operate principal preparation programs in Illinois. Many of these institutions were represented at the inaugural meeting of the task force which was held on May 29 and May 30, 2008 in Bloomington, Illinois. Other participants included teachers and public school administrators, Regional Superintendents of Education, representatives of the two major Illinois teachers unions, the Illinois Education Association (IEA) and the Illinois Federation of Teachers (IFT), and representatives of the Illinois Principals Association (IPA) and the Illinois Association of School Administrators (IASA), which represents superintendents in Illinois. The participants in the first task force meeting were greeted by both the Superintendent of the Illinois State Board of Education and the Director of the Illinois Board of Higher Education. It could certainly be stated, with authority, that the major leadership in Illinois education was represented at the first meeting convened by IBHE and ISBE.

The first two day meeting was utilized to establish the rationale and to lay the groundwork for the future work of the task force, which operated under the title of "Working Together to Prepare School Leaders." An historical background was given by Dr. Steve Tozer, from the University of Illinois at Chicago. He outlined the findings of a report released in August of 2006 by the Commission on School Leader Preparation in Illinois Colleges and Universities entitled, *School Leader Preparation: A Blueprint for Change* (2006). This Commission submitted its report to the Illinois Board of Higher Education. The Illinois Board of Higher Education joined forces with the Illinois State Board of Education and the Governor's office to initiate a joint resolution in the Illinois General Assembly. This resolution created a task force charged with moving the *Blueprint* agenda forward. This task force, entitled "The Illinois School Leader Task Force" was chaired by Dr. Tozer and met six times between October of 2007 and January of 2008. When this task force submitted its report to the Illinois General Assembly in February of 2008, the report contained three major recommendations:

1. State policies must set high standards for school leader certification that align principal preparation, early career mentoring, ongoing professional development, and master principal recognition with those standards, so that by 2013 all new principal preparation would be

taking place through programs approved under these new standards (Report to General Assembly, 2008, p. 7).

2. Formal partnerships must be established between school districts and principal preparation programs affiliated with state-accredited institutions to support principal preparation and development (Report to General Assembly, 2008, p. 8).

3. Refocused principal preparation programs must demonstrate that they develop and rigorously assess in aspiring principals *the capacities that are most likely to improve student learning in PreK-12 schools.* These capacities should (a) form the heart of the new Illinois School Leadership Standards previously recommended and (b) reflect the vision of school leadership identified in the Illinois Distinguished Program (Report to General Assembly, 2008, 8).

The "Working Together to Prepare School Leaders" task force, addressed in this paper, was formulated to address the recommendations to the General Assembly and to flesh out the skeleton developed by the previous task force.

National Reform Efforts

Unlike many other countries, the United States does not have a federal system of education. While the United States Department of Education can exert some influence over state departments of education through funding, federal dollars typically account for less than ten percent of most school districts' budgets. The federal government can also influence the various states through legislation, such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Overall, however, the individual states are in charge of their respective educational systems.

Illinois was not the first state to address the issue of principal reform programs and other states have been concurrently reviewing their programs in the same time frame as Illinois. During the initial May 2008 meeting of the new task force, participants were given information regarding the reform of principalship preparation programs in Alabama and Iowa. The principal preparation reform movement in Alabama began in November of 2004 when Governor Bob Riley and State Superintendent Joseph B. Morton convened a Governor's Congress on School Leadership in Montgomery. Over one hundred selected delegates represented K-12 education, higher education, State Department of Education, foundations and agencies, professional associations, business, and other community leaders (Alabama Instructional University Redesign, 2008, p.3.) It was determined that rather than just competing a series of courses, candidates for the principalship would need to complete a program that addressed all of the Alabama Standards for Instructional Leaders.

The hard work on this process began in earnest in September of 2006 when all thirteen Alabama principal preparation institutions were invited to participate in a two-day training based on lessons learned from redesign efforts conducted in other states. This training was conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB). The SREB is a nonprofit, theoretically nonpartisan organization that helps government and education leaders in its sixteen members states work together to advance education and to improve the social and economic life of the region. SREB is governed by a board that consists of the governor of each member state and four gubernatorial appointees, including at least one state legislator and one educator. SREB is supported by appropriations from its member states and by funds from foundations and state and federal agencies (SREB, 2009). It was determined that through collaborative K-12 university partnerships, all universities in Alabama should work with local school districts to redesign their instructional leadership programs to address new state requirements. Four institutions, designated lead institutions, were to submit their revised programs for approval in 2008 and the remainder were to submit their programs for approval in 2009.

Reform of principal preparation programs in Iowa began in 1999 with the development and adoption of the Iowa Standards for School Leaders (ISSL), an adaptation of the ISLLC standards (Hackman & Wanat, 2007, p.8). All Iowa programs interested in certifying principals had to submit proposals to the Iowa Department of Education which met the new Iowa requirements. This proved to be a very rigorous process. According to Hackman and Wanat (2007):

> Nine applications were submitted in May 2003: seven proposals from higher education institutions currently offering approved programs, one new proposal from a higher education

institution, and one new proposal from a state professional organization. One higher education institution currently offering an approved program did not submit an application, thereby terminating its program. The national panel reviewed programs through multiple program drafts and meetings with program faculty. By August 2003, they had recommended five programs to the Iowa Department of Education for approval: four from universities and one from an in-state professional organization. The four unsuccessful applicants were provided an opportunity to withdraw their submissions rather than to have their programs officially denied; all four elected to withdraw their applications (p.9).

Armed with this backdrop of information from two other states, the new Illinois task force began the process of developing recommended changes in the requirements for principal preparation programs in the state. Illinois differs from both Alabama and Iowa in terms of population. Not only are there many more students and schools in Illinois than in the other two states, but Illinois also had thirty-two principal preparation programs at the beginning of this process, which was more than triple the number of programs in Iowa and nearly triple the number of programs in Alabama.

Illinois Revision Process

After the introductory meeting held in May 2008 in Bloomington, Illinois, the facilitators asked for volunteers that would be willing to continue working on the revision process in subsequent meetings. A core group of individuals agreed to continue serving as members of the new task force and subsequently met another half dozen times over the ensuing summer and the next academic year. All meetings were held in Bloomington, Illinois, which was centrally located in the state.

In order to better manage this major revision effort, it was decided to distribute the work among five distinct subcommittees. Each of the following five subcommittees was co-chaired by a public university representative and a private university representative:

1. New Structure for Leadership Certification & Endorsements.
2. School/University Partnerships & Selection Process.
3. School Leadership Standards.
4. Residencies & Internships.
5. Assessments of Candidates & Graduates.

All of the ten co-chairs of the subcommittees were members of the Illinois Council of Professors of Educational Administration (ICPEA). Many other subcommittee members were also ICPEA members. The ICPEA, an affiliate of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), is a collegial group of educational administration professors which meets quarterly to work on the betterment of educational administration programs throughout Illinois. The group works cooperatively on a variety of topics. The ICPEA positioned itself to play a critical role in the redesign of the principal preparation standards.

The thirty-two principal preparation programs in Illinois are very disparate in nature. In 2008, the enrollment in these programs ranged from a low of four students in one program to a high of 1063 in another (ISBE, 2008). Perhaps ironically, the three universities with the largest enrollments were small private universities. While a few universities offered their programs primarily online, a significant majority still offered traditional face-to-face programs. Other universities offered a combination of face-to-face instruction and blended coursework, which included both online and face-to-face instruction. A clear trend in principal preparation programs has been the move to off campus cohort or satellite programs. There has also been a move to an increasing percentage of online and blended instruction. Both the off campus courses and the online instruction have been seen as ways of attracting graduate students in an increasingly competitive market in Illinois. In order to staff the increased number of off campus sites, in particular, many universities have moved to an increased use of adjunct professors in their principal preparation programs.

The various subcommittees also had non-ICPEA members. The two major Illinois teacher unions were represented as well as the Illinois Principals Association, the Illinois Association of School Administrators, and at least two Regional Superintendents of Schools. The director of the Illinois Education Research Council, an independent research group located at Southern Illinois University Edwardsville was involved, as were members of Illinois State Action for Education Leadership Project

(SAELP), funded by the Wallace Foundation for the purpose of identifying and implementing recommendations to strengthen education leadership potential throughout the state. Illinois SAELP is housed at Illinois State University. During all of the half-dozen work sessions, each of the five subcommittees typically had eight to a dozen individuals actively involved in the work effort. In addition to the subcommittee members, ISBE and IBHE staff circulated among the five groups and acted as ex officio subcommittee members. The typical process for task force work involved working in independent groups for several hours, and then returning to a plenary session to share the subcommittee work products with the entire group. There were often modifications made in the respective subcommittee work products as a result of the plenary sessions. Periodically, throughout the process, ISBE and IBHE staff would communicate with the various subcommittee co-chairs between task force meetings and modifications would be made in the subcommittee work products. However, these proposed changes were subsequently sent to all task force members for comment and input. A somewhat unique strategy employed by the ISBE and IBHE was to bring in constituent groups, after the task force had done its work, to critique the proposed principal preparation changes and to give input regarding the recommendations. One of the most active constituent groups was the group representing students with special needs. This group was successful in inserting a number of items regarding dealing with special needs students.

During the summer of 2009, the ISBE and IBHE leadership held a number of informational meetings across Illinois to share the recommended changes with interested parties. The ISBE and IBHE leadership continued to receive input and recommended changes and modifications from the participants in the regional meetings. The agendae of these meetings were all based upon a PowerPoint document included on the ISBE website. The link to this document was as follows: http://www.illinoisschoolleader.org/documents/PrincipalPreparationLT7-8-09.ppt .

Major Illinois Modifications Recommended

Some of the recommended changes for Illinois principal preparation programs proved to be fairly noncontroversial. For example, it was recommended that principal certification should be expanded to cover Pre-Kindergarten through grade twelve, rather than K-12. Many Illinois public schools now house both pre-kindergarten at risk programs as well as special education programs for three to five year olds. It was also recommended that a component currently housed outside of principal preparation programs, now offered as a two-day workshop entitled "Introduction to Evaluation of Certified Staff" be incorporated into new principal preparation programs. There was also a decision to incorporate the five major strands of the Illinois Principal Association's "Distinguished Principal Program" (IPA, 2009) into the new requirements. These five strands are listed below:

1. Creating and Living the Mission, Vision, and Beliefs.
2. Leading and Managing Changes.
3. Developing Deep Knowledge About Teaching and Learning.
4. Building and Maintaining Collaborative Relationships.
5. Building and Sustaining Accountability Systems.

Another area in which it proved to be fairly easy to achieve consensus was the number of years of teaching experience needed before a candidate could be granted principal certification. Virtually all task force members believed that the existing requirement of two years' teaching experience was totally inadequate. This requirement enabled beginning first year teachers to immediately enroll in principal preparation programs and complete their programs with only two years of teaching experience. Not only did this enable candidates with little experiential background and little to offer to class discussions to enter graduate programs, it also led to very inexperienced individuals receiving their administrative certification. Task force members believed that as long as all programs were held to the same standards, then the number of teaching years required prior to certification should be increased. The primary discussion revolved around whether the minimum required should be four years, or five. Four years of teaching experience was ultimately selected.

Other recommended changes proved to be much more controversial and generated hours of conversation and discussion among the task force members. Some of these were structural, in terms of the delivery models to be employed by the state's principal preparation programs. One issue addressed by task force members was that of online instruction. It was determined that 51% of the program,

exclusive of field experiences, clinical experiences, and the residency experience, must be conducted in a face-to-face fashion. In other words, over half of the coursework would need to be offered in a face-to-face fashion. During the discussion phase, some task force members argued for a larger percent of face-to-face instruction, but the group compromised at 51%. Another area of initial disagreement was whether programs should meet the Educational Leadership Constituents Council (ELCC) Standards or the new 2008 Interstate School Leader Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards. This was essentially an issue between those institutions which were members of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and those which were not members. NCATE member institutions were aligned with the ELCC standards. Requiring these institutions to align their principal preparation programs with the ISLCC Standards would essentially require Illinois NCATE member institutions to operate under two similar, yet separate sets of standards. Ultimately, it was determined that the ISLLC Standards would be better aligned with the needs of principal preparation programs, so the ISLLC Standards were recommended by the task force.

Another delivery-oriented issue addressed by the task force dealt with staffing levels for the state's principal preparation programs. Previously, the levels of staffing and the faculty status and qualifications of instructors had been left to the respective institutions. This area would change radically under the proposed guidelines developed by the task force. Somewhat in reaction to lightly staffed programs enrolling large numbers of candidates, the task force recommended the following guidelines in terms of staffing (ISBE, 2009, p.15):

- There must be a minimum of two full-time (as defined by the institution's faculty handbook) faculty dedicated to the program for the first 50 candidates and the institution must add one full-time additional faculty member for each additional 25 candidates.
- The total faculty must be based upon the number of principal preparation program completers.
- No more than one-third of candidate experience with the curricular program can be taught by any one instructor (excludes clinical experiences).
- No more than one-third of the program can be taught by adjunct faculty.
- University field supervisors must hold the equivalent endorsement to that which candidates are seeking (general administrative or principalship).
- Adjunct faculty must be engaged in the program.

These new recommended requirements would require substantial changes in those programs relying heavily upon adjunct professors and those programs delivering a majority of their programs with one or two instructors.

In another change, which was implemented after outside groups were brought in to the process, ISBE and IBHE recommended that universities needed to strengthen content understanding in their programs by increasing their foci upon school law, special education law, use of technology for administration, teaching and learning, social emotional learning standards, and bullying and school safety. Additionally, universities were encouraged to include instruction on a three-tier instruction and intervention model, commonly called Response to Intervention (RTI) in the United States. This model is used primarily with students with special learning needs. In a very bold move, ISBE and IBHE went on to require the following components in all coursework:

- PK-12 focus,
- Focus on all students (special education, bilingual education, and E.S.L.), and
- Working collaboratively, building teams to focus on instruction, curriculum, assessments, and district needs for school improvement (ISBE, 2009, p.11).

New principal preparation programs would also have to include formal partnerships with one or more public school districts. While universities may have previously been involved in partnerships with particular school districts, the newly required formal partnerships would be much more rigorously defined than in the past. Other entities, beyond the university and the public school district could be subsequently added to the partnership. Partnerships must now have written agreements, sometimes called memoranda of understanding, with focus upon collaboration to design programs, internships, candidate selection, etc. Historically, much of this type of work was primarily completed by the higher education institution, with public school input coming later. Now, the public schools must be truly involved from the beginning of the process.

Candidate selection would also become much more rigorous under the new system. Students would only be admitted to a principal preparation program after a face-to-face interview with program faculty members. In another major change, candidates would need to submit a comprehensive portfolio, demonstrating their competence in the following eight areas:

1. Commitment to supporting all students to achieve high levels of learning.
2. Accomplished classroom instruction.
3. Significant leadership roles in the past.
4. Strong communication skills (oral and written).
5. Analytic abilities and dispositions needed to collect and analyze data for school improvement.
6. Demonstrated respect for family and community.
7. Strong interpersonal skills.
8. Demonstrated knowledge about curriculum and instructional practices (ISBE, 2009, pp. 16-19).

Obviously, it may prove difficult for some inexperienced teachers to meet all eight of the portfolio requirements listed above.

The area of change with the most impact upon students, principal mentors, and perhaps universities would involve modifications in the nature of the internship. Historically, a vast majority of principal candidates in Illinois have come from the ranks of full-time teachers. Thus, the internship has usually proven to be problematic in terms of length and quality. Interns have found it necessary to gain their experience working with mentor principals before and after school, during their planning periods and during school breaks. Most Illinois universities have required interns to acquire between 150 and 300 clock hours, typically spread over one or two semesters. Many programs have also required a varying level of other clinical experiences, often imbedded in program coursework. University supervisors would typically visit each intern, in the field, between one and four times (Personal communication, ICPEA meeting discussion, 2007). It has not been unusual for universities to require interns to address either ELCC or ISLLC standards during their internships.

The proposed new standards would thrust all university principal preparation programs into a totally new universe. There would be a variety of multiple field experiences spread across the program connected to courses. These accumulated hours could not be counted toward the internship year. The actual internship would be spread over a 12 month period and would include a minimum of four weeks of full-time residency experience. Each of those four weeks would consist of a minimum of five consecutive days and the weeks may or may not be consecutive. An additional minimum of 200 clinical hours would be required throughout the 12 month internship year. Principal candidates would need experiences working with all levels of teachers, including pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, elementary, and secondary, as well as all levels of special education teachers. Candidates would also be required to be involved in the hiring, evaluation, and supervision of special education teachers during their internships. Principal candidates would be required to have experiences working with schools with cultural and economic diversity, pre-school through high school students, and parents, school boards and community partners. Other requirements would include three summative assessments, four face-to-face meetings on site for the university supervisor, and three seminars to bring candidates back together during the internship year. No university supervisor would be allowed to work with more than 36 interns during any one year period, and the assessment process would be very prescribed by ISBE and IBHE.

Discussion of Implications

Many of the changes proposed as a result of the principal preparation revision process in Illinois make theoretical and educational sense. The move to expand the training and certification to include pre-school education is very logical, since many Illinois principals already have pre-school and early childhood special education programs in their buildings. This trend is likely to continue in Illinois, as well as in other states. It is also difficult to argue with the move to require four years of successful teaching experience before allowing an educator to receive certification as a school principal. Educationally, expanding the required experience level made sense, and politically, it was not an issue if all programs were to be held to the same standard in this area.

The proposed requirements regarding staffing levels and structures among principal preparation programs generated a considerable amount of discussion throughout the process. A number of issues were addressed in this area. Two of the most prominent were thoughts regarding actual staffing levels and discussions regarding the use of adjunct professors. There was ultimately consensus that a minimal level of staffing was necessary in order to provide candidates with a diversity of opinion and experience in their programs. No matter how excellent a particular professor might happen to be, having one or two professors deliver an entire program was not considered pedagogically sound in this type of program. The requirement that no more than one-third of the coursework could be taught by any one individual was an attempt to establish a baseline, or floor, in this regard. In terms of adjuncts, there was strong sentiment that adjunct professors add richness to principal preparation programs. Most of these individuals have traditionally been current or former practitioners and often share first hand knowledge with the principal candidates. However, there is also a need for a sound theoretical basis in principal preparation programs. The balance of two-thirds permanent staff and one-third adjuncts was the compromise reached by the group. The requirement for adjuncts to become fully engaged in the program was a reaction to past experiences in which adjuncts were employed to teach and were sent forth with little direction and little contact with the university program. There is little doubt that the staffing levels and adjunct guidelines will have a major impact upon the smallest principal preparation programs across the state.

The requirement for partnerships between the universities and the public schools is also very logical in the theoretical sense. While many universities have been involved in partnerships with school districts, some even operating under formal memoranda of understanding, few have allowed the degree of public school input called for in the newly proposed guidelines. Not only is it likely that some university programs will chafe at the degree of public school involvement called for, but it is also likely that this involvement may prove to become a tremendous time commitment on the part of public school personnel.

Finally, there can be little doubt that the greatest impact on candidates and public schools would be the new internship requirements. These new requirements would place a significant workload on the mentoring principals in the public schools. The required activities are so specific that it many be impossible to address all of them, even in a year. In some cases, it seems that the interns would be usurping the role normally played by the principal. While admirable, the goals on diversity may prove to be virtually impossible to meet in some geographic locations. It would also be very unlikely that any one principal could mentor more than one candidate in a twelve month period. This could have the impact of denying the opportunity for some candidates to engage in their internships in a timely fashion.

In conclusion, Illinois is a very political state. It will be instructive to see whether any interest groups are able to successfully lobby against parts or all of this reform package when it reaches the Illinois General Assembly. It the event that it does become law, it will be interesting to determine whether the new process will reduce the number of candidates being prepared by the various programs and whether the quality of the principal candidates improves over time.

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Managing education in rural Myanmar:
Local solutions towards national goals

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Topic: Education management
Word count: 4,978 words

Abstract

In Myanmar, a high value is traditionally placed on education, and at the time of independence, it boasted one of the highest literacy rates in Asia. Today, though net enrolment rates are estimated at 99% at primary level, and 43% at secondary level, the quality of education has been constantly declining. Obsolete teaching methods and materials, a curriculum ill-adapted to local learning needs, and poorly trained teachers, are some of the factors which lead to only 69.9% of children who begin primary school actually reach the final grade (UNICEF 2005)[5].

One of the six national goals devised by the Myanmar Ministry of Education is for all children to complete basic education. In remote areas, access to education can remain highly problematic: some rural schools do not have any teachers, or the school may be too far away for a child to walk. The Ministry of Education also emphasizes improving the quality of education, strengthening education management, and ensuring the provision of early childhood and non-formal education. However, schools and communities are generally not provided any means or resources to reach these goals. Though the government seeks to retain control over education, its own under-investment in social services means that communities are searching for alternatives.

The alternatives to state-run education include private and religious schools, whether secular, monastic, Christian or Muslim. Non-government initiatives for education have reached a high degree of popularity, especially as many Myanmar youth feel that the national education system does not prepare them adequately for the world of work[6]. This paper presents a case study in four rural communities of Shan state, Myanmar, where Aide et Action (AEA) developed a non-formal education program in the form of village libraries. AEA's strategy for working in Myanmar is to partner with a local organization, as well as to engage civil society actors from the communities for the management of the village libraries.

The case studies in the paper show how, with sufficient external support, local level stakeholders can devise strategies among themselves, using their own resources and contributing their time voluntarily, to ensure the provision of education in their village. Local solutions are defined for reaching the goals set by the Ministry of Education. With community actors being responsible for the organization of their village library, the latter becomes better adapted to local learning needs and on the path to sustainability. As village chiefs, students' parents, and village elders discuss the management of the village libraries, processes of civil society development and democratization are gradually entrenched.

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I. The initiative to raise the quality of education in Shan state

A deteriorating state education

Education is traditionally highly valued in Myanmar. Nicolo Manucci, a Venetian who travelled in Burma around 1700 A.D. described the country as "a kingdom governed by the pen, for not a single person can go from one village to another without a paper or writing"[7]. In the late 1940s and 1950s, Myanmar boasted one of the highest literacy rates in its own language across Asia. This was largely due to the monastic schools that had always played, and continue to play, a major role in educating the poorer sections of society. Today, Myanmar retains a very high literacy rate, with 89.9 per cent of adults and 94.5 per cent of youth considered literate in 2007[8]. There are 11 years of primary and secondary education, which culminate in the matriculation examination.

Myanmar has been under military dictatorship since 1962. In 1988, demonstrations in which students played a key role shook the country. For the first time, the junta was challenged. The '88 Generation Students Group encouraged people to write to the government describing their everyday problems, including lack of access to education and inflation. These demonstrations were violently repressed. In September 2007, following the Saffron Revolution, several teachers and students were imprisoned, and educational institutions were shut down, including monastic schools and universities[9].

Today, the military rulers seek to retain control of education, and see schools and universities are seen as nests of dissent. At the same time, education and aid experts are increasingly alarmed by the deterioration of the quality and accessibility of state education in Myanmar, especially in rural areas.

In 2001, education expenditure only represented 1.3% of the Gross Domestic Product, and 18.1% of total government expenditure[10]. Experts estimate that these rates remain similar today. Rampant corruption, an impoverished population, and armed conflict in some ethnic minority areas also contribute to the deterioration of state education. Many parents see their children growing up far less knowledgeable than they.

The current curriculum, introduced in 1998, is overloaded with factual knowledge that lends itself to rote learning. The joy of learning is stifled from the outset of a child's life.

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[10] ibid

Brief overview of challenges facing education in Myanmar

- Gap between urban and rural areas, including lack of teachers in rural areas
- 'Hidden' costs related to schooling: school uniforms, textbooks, meals, corruption of teachers, etc. School admissions fees have been reported to cost 2,500 kyat for primary school, which is far beyond the means of many families.
- Low rate of survival to last grade in primary school: in 2004, 67.8% for boys and 72.1% for girls[1]
- Lack of infrastructure, including access roads and roofs
- Lack of basic teaching and learning materials
- Poor training of teachers
- Outdated curricula and schoolbooks
- Obsolete classroom practices do not allow for analytical, creative thinking or free discussion.
- Repetitive teaching methods, teacher-centred

Realizing the right to education in Myanmar

What alternatives to state education are available in Myanmar? Since the opening up of the economy in the late 1980s, the emerging middle class are increasingly enrolling their children in private schools[11]. Away from the cities, ethnic minority groups are also involved in the provision of education. In Loi Talang, Shan State, the opposition Shan State Army – South (SSA-S) provides education to over 1,000 children in areas under their control[12]. Religious institutions, mainly Buddhist but also Christian and Muslim, retain a strong connection to education. Finally, local and international non-government organizations (NGOs) play a strong role in education in Myanmar. Aide et Action (AEA), international NGO specialized in education, in one of them.

Education is a major lever for development. AEA considers the right to education as a fundamental right, necessary to the realization of all other rights, including economic, cultural and social rights, and political and civic rights. This position is supported by General Comment No. 13 of the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights:

> Education is both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realizing other human rights. As an empowerment right, education is the primary vehicle by which economically and socially marginalized adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities.[13]

In Myanmar, the government is extremely suspicious of all educational activities conducted by non-state actors. For this reason, AEA has focused on non-formal education. Village libraries, or community learning centres, can be an effective non-formal education means. For direct implementation of the project, AEA opted to partner with a local non-government organization, the Rural Development Society (RDS). RDS has been working for the development of Shan state since 1993. It is well connected and respected in the area. This factor was fundamental to a smooth collaboration with communities and village chiefs, from establishing trusting relationships to being able to resolve problems jointly. AEA's strategy is to engage civil society actors in the education sector

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[11] Marie Lall (2007), "Evolving Education in Myanmar: the interplay of business, state and the community" in *Dictatorship, Decline and Disorder,* Myanmar/Burma Conference, Australian National University, accessed July 2009 http://epress.anu.edu.au/myanmar02/pdf/whole_book.pdf
[12] Shan Herald Agency for News (2007) "Driven from their homes" 13 December 2007, www.shanland.org
[13] Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1999) "The right to education (Art.13) General Comments", E/C.12/1999/10, accessed September 2009, http://www.unhchr.ch/tbs/doc.nsf/0/ae1a0b126d068e868025683c003c8b3b?Opendocument

through its projects. This can be seen as a starting point for gradually transforming Myanmar's authoritarian political culture. At the same time, AEA is building the capacity of RDS in resource mobilization and monitoring.

II. National goals, local solutions

Based on the Dakar Education for All (EFA) framework for Global Action and the Millennium Development Goals, Myanmar formulated the following six national EFA goals in 2002[14]:
- Ensuring that significant progress is achieved so that all school-age children have access to and complete free and compulsory Basic Education of good quality by 2010
- Improving all aspects of the quality of Basic Education: teachers, education personnel and curriculum
- Achieving significant improvement in the levels of functional literacy and continuing education for all by 2015
- Ensuring that the learning needs of young people and adults are met through Non-Formal Education, Life Skills and preventive education programs
- Expanding and improving Early childhood care and education
- Strengthening education management and educational management information system

These goals are in line with the 30-Year Long-term Basic Education Development Plan developed by the Myanmar Ministry of Education.

To face these national goals, communities are often left to their own means. In many rural areas, the government education system is non-existent. Where it exists, it is not sufficiently equipped to provide quality education. There may be a school building, but no teacher. Village libraries were built and opened between 2006 and 2008 in four communities of Shan state: Myinka, Thit Hla, La Maing Kyin and Inn Khaung. The communities are all characterized by their remoteness. In terms of access to information and technology, they are completely disconnected from the rest of the world.
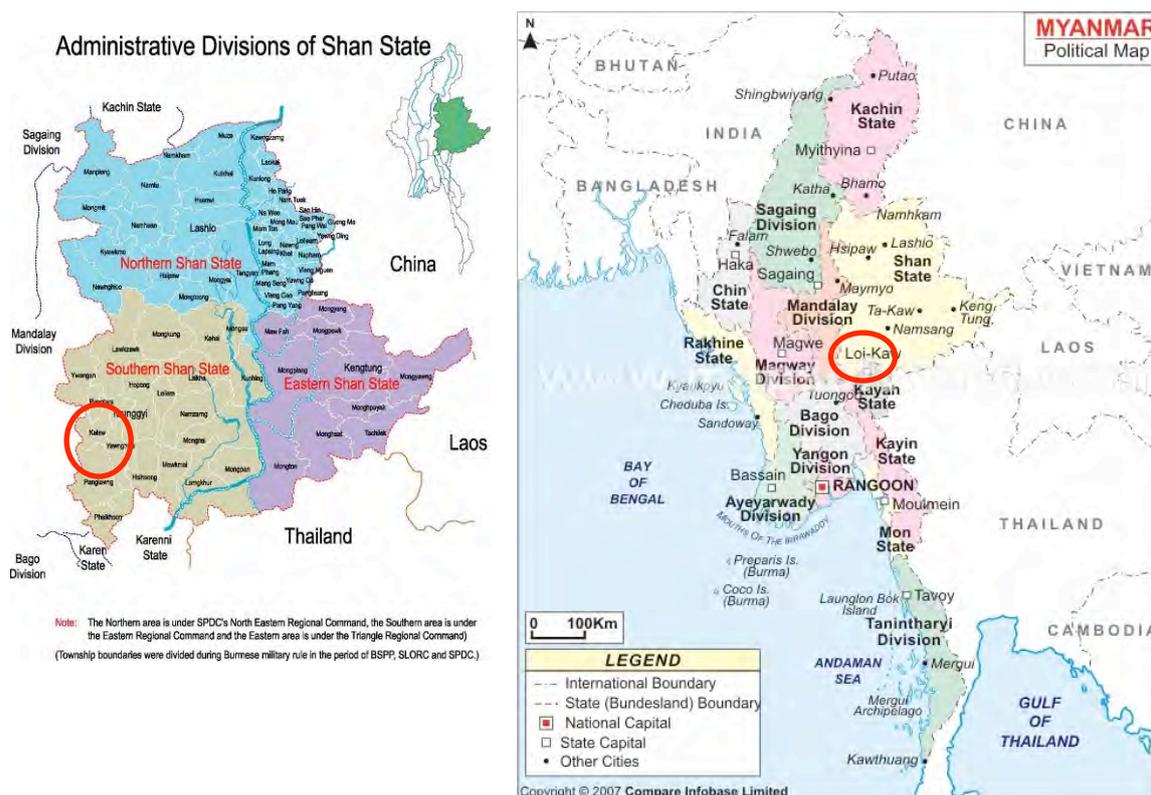
[14] UNESCO (2007) Myanmar EFA Mid-Term Assessment, accessed July 2009, http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Myanmar/Myanmar_EFA_MDA.pdf

Map of Myanmar and Shan state

The village libraries are multifunctional learning centres, intended to promote learning through reading and play, communication among children, communication between children and adults, interaction between different ethnic groups, to preserve minority cultures and also to act as an incentive for children to attend school.

In the four villages where a village library was built, the state education cannot be considered to cover minimum societal needs. The next section looks at these four communities, and showcases how each community has identified and engineered its own local solutions to provide education for all.

Myinka village: a village library to address local needs

Villagers building Myinka library

Myinka is a village of approximately 125 families situated near Kalaw, in southern Shan state. Average family size is 5 persons. Income averages at 90,000 Kyats (90 USD) per month, and there is approximately 1 buffalo per 2 households. Most villagers grow rice for family consumption. The sudden drop in the market prices of ginger and garlic, traditionally grown in Myinka, has led farmers to diversify their crops to other fruits and vegetables to sell on the market. The majority of farmers do not use any systematized irrigation system, therefore weather conditions permeate their lives.

In Myinka, school exists only up to grade 4. Good students may continue their studies in the nearby school in Kalaw. Myinka village library was set up in 2006 on a land parcel donated by one villager. Village men and women contributed their labour to the construction of the library. As the library takes shape in their own hands, villagers develop a sense of ownership. This is a key factor to ensure the sustainability of the library. The willingness of the villagers to participate to the maintenance of the village library today is linked to this sense of ownership.

Each library supported by RDS and AEA engineers its own management system. This depends, among other factors, on the village's economic and demographic situation. In Myinka, the library committee has decided that only adults can borrow books, and they must pay. Children are free to consult books within the library. All Myinka families contribute an equal sum towards supporting the library. The village librarian is from the local community. With the village library committee, she decides on new books to purchase according to the library users' learning needs.

Library books are on a variety of topics, including health, hygiene and agriculture. Books on traditional medicine, such as herbal remedies to cure malaria, are very popular. Guides to pesticides, fertilizers, and new farming technologies are requested by farmers. Popular novels include the stories by the Burmese author Thein Phe Myint (1914-1978). Through reading, children improve their knowledge, spelling and reading skills. Oftentimes, the village library becomes quite crowded from the number of children rushing in after school!

Some new land has recently been donated for a library extension. Plans are also underway to set up electricity in the village. The villagers have split themselves into two groups, poor and middle income. According to their group, families will contribute two instalments each for setting up electricity. The

village library's opening hours will then be extended until 9 pm. This will be especially helpful for adults who work in the fields until sunset.

Voices from Myanmar: Lin Aung's family

Ling Aung and his family

Lin Aung is married and has one daughter aged 2. He and his wife are expecting their second child. Their main livelihood is generated from cultivating cauliflower, tomatoes, and eggplant. The income fluctuates with market prices and weather conditions. Recently, heavy rain and flooding caused nearly half of the village crops to b entirely lost. Both Lin Aung's parents come from Myinka village. He considers that his life is easier than his parents' was. Now there is now to the market towns. He can take a 'public transport' motorized vehicle to sell his products, while his parents would walk down muddy paths for hours.

Ling Aung's family recognizes the importance of education. Ling Aung is particularly interested in improving his knowledge of chemistry, including pesticide use. He has found such information in the village library, and has read nearly all the other books too! As the eldest among her siblings, his wife dropped out of school early to look after her younger brothers and sisters. The library resources help her maintain her basic literacy skills. Ling Aung hopes that his daughter will pursue her learning as far as possible, including going to Kalaw town to pursue schooling beyond grade 4.

Thit Hla village: non formal education to support an isolated primary school

Memory game in Thit Hla library

Thit Hla village is situated on the mountain tops of southern Shan state. There is no road to access the village; several hours of walking are needed to reach the nearest town. A primary school building was recently renovated in Thit Hla with support from RDS and AEA.

The school principal shared that they hardly ever receive any visit from the local authorities. She has no expectations for any support from the government, neither in the education sector, nor in health nor agriculture. Teachers use the village library to borrow teaching and learning materials. Educational management is entirely taken over by the community: children clean the school and fetch the water. Parents are mobilized when something needs repairing.

The village library is managed by monks from the nearby monastery. They run the library everyday from 8.30am to 11am, and from 1pm to 3.30pm. Once a year, they collect 2,000 Kyats (2 USD) from each family to purchase new books, including exercise books for the schoolchildren. Thus children from the poorest families, who cannot afford the school supplies, are able to acquire the learning materials like their classmates. Religious leaders act as leaders in reinforcing the education of the young, and also pass on values and principles of moral or social nature.

During the summer break, Pa-O language classes are organized to support children's knowledge of their own native language. A voluntary villager teaches these classes. The village library is rich in resources to preserve the Pa-O culture and tradition. These Pa-O language books have been donated by generous villagers and the nearby monastery.

Voices from Myanmar: Hnin Si, Librarian training officer of RDS

In the library

Hnin Si is a project officer with the Rural Development Society, partner of AEA in this project. She began working as a librarian, and became the librarian training officer in 2008. On two occasions, Hnin Si received training in Cambodia from the local non-government organization Sipar (Soutien à l'Initiative Privée pour la Reconstruction) Sipar is a partner of AEA in Cambodia since 2004. Their collaboration has led to more than 30 village libraries throughout the country. As an expert in village libraries, Sipar provided trainings to future librarians and trainers such as Hnin Si.

Each librarian receives a three-day training as foundation. Hnin Si teaches the librarians the basics of library management, book labelling, classification, and book borrowing systems. The importance and role of the librarians are explained. Depending on the librarian's educational level, further trainings may be necessary, for example on animating library activities. Such activities include reading groups or drawing sessions. During its visit to RDS in Myanmar, Sipar provided many more advices such as for building the wooden bookshelves, maintaining hygiene and security in the library, drawing daily timetables during busy times such as summer holidays, etc.

La Maing Kyin village: the Village Library Committee, a model for civil society development?

Village committee members in La Maing Kyin

After the first year of the library existence, AEA and RDS stop financially supporting the librarian's salary. The community must then devise a system for supporting this cost, and for the purchase of new books. In La Maing Kying village, families contribute 200 Kyats (0.20 USD) per month towards the village library. This system has been agreed upon collectively by the community.

The library committee is formed through a democratic process: a meeting is called, and those who attend are invited to elect the committee. Six people form the committee including one woman, the librarian. Committee members do not receive any financial compensation for their work. They are responsible for overseeing the affairs and accounts of the library. They also ensure that the resources are adapted to the learning needs of the library users. Monthly meetings are open to all. This participative mode of management increases the effectiveness of the library. As administrators and leaders, members of the committee can act as real agents of change.

One issue observed is the lack of women in the committee. Committee members justify this imbalance by saying that more men volunteer to be elected in the committee. Women can give their opinion during committee meetings. However, the committee is committed to increasing the number of women among them. Community organisation actions often shed light on the role of women. For instance, many women seek books on maternal and postnatal health, and it is usually women who transmit this request to the committee.

AEA and RDS facilitate exchange of skills and networking between the village libraries. Experience exchanges are organised for the librarians, enabling them to pool their knowledge and ideas. Members of the different village libraries committees share views on anticipated political, social, and economic changes, and how these will impact the provision of education. The village library committee can be considered an example of civil society in action: "Civil society refers to the arena of uncoerced collective action around shared interests, purposes and values"[15]. Due to the discursive procedures of decision-making and the horizontal networks engaged, it can be assumed that such organisations may generate democratic values.

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[15] London School of Economics (2008) "What is civil society?", accessed July 2009, www.lse.ac.uk/collections/CCS/what_is_civil_society.htm

Voices from Myanmar: Ma Pupya, young drop-out

Ma Pupya in the library

According to the librarian, the library enables children to enjoy learning. As Myanmar's formal education system is characterized by rote learning, the library in contrast offers educational games and colourful learning materials. Almost all literate villagers use the library. For some children, the village library is the only source of learning.

Ma Pupya is 14 years old. She comes to the library every late afternoon. Her favourite activity in the library is reading books especially short stories. She dropped out of school last year, after finishing grade 8. Though she enjoyed studying, she must help her parents who grow cauliflower and cabbage. Before the library was set up, she would just go straight home from the fields and help her mother with the house chores. But now, her parents are happy to see her go read instead. And when they have time, they come to the library too!

Inn Khaung village: involving the local authorities

Children immersed in the joy of reading

For education to be successful in promoting sustainable development, particular roles and responsibilities devolve to a number of groups at different levels: local, national and international. At each level, stakeholders may be part of government, civil society and non-governmental organisations, or in the private sector.

RDS and AeA maintain cordial relationships with township level authorities in Myanmar. They tolerate the NGOs' activities and, at times, show willingness to participate. At the district and national levels, there is no relationship or official recognition of activities from the Ministry of Education. In Myanmar, education is mainly under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The educational policy is to provide basic education equated with livelihood and within the reach of all. The administration process throughout the education sectors is centralized.[16]

According to UNESCO, governmental bodies have a key role in policy-making, promoting public campaigns and consultations, the production of educational and informational materials, and the mobilisation of resources[17]. The provision of education by governmental bodies must also be equitable, i.e. not favouring certain groups. However, the work of the Myanmar Ministry of Education is not monitored nor is it accountable to the citizenry.

Field experiences clearly point to the inequalities in access to quality education. A village may be advantaged in receiving government support for welfare and services provision just thanks to its location. There are three army camps in the Inn Khaung village area. This explains the interest of government officials in the Inn Khaung village library. Army officers are among the users of the library.

The township authority allocated the plot of land for building the library and provided their encouragement. Officers from the Department of Social Communication have distributed reading materials to be added on the shelves. These books and journals constitute political tools for the military regime, teaching readers the 'right' way to think and behave.

The village library committee has learned to negotiate with government officials to receive support in the education area. In 2010, non-formal education classes will be set up in Inn Khaung library for approximately 90 illiterate or semi-literate villagers. Classes will be in the evening when field work is finished. An educated elder is the volunteer teacher. The township

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Voices from Myanmar: U Aung Tun, Department of Social Welfare

The Department of Social Welfare is under the Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement. U Aung Tun works for the Department of Social Welfare, at township level in Shan state:

"The library works well and is much appreciated in this village. For community leaders, it makes a difference when people are educated. Youth can come learn something here, rather than fouling around in the fields. For me, this library helps to close the gate of the jail. It is also useful for civic education. So now we are thinking of improvements to the library environment. For example we will add a fence to separate from the road and some trees for shade outside.

Before the library, there were two bookshops in the surrounding areas, where borrowing a book cost 200 Kyat (0.2 USD) per day. The village library fee is 50 Kyat (0.05 USD) to borrow a book. The impact of this library on formal education is greater than we expected. School enrolment has increased: last year, 24 students completed the final year of high school. This year, there are 30 students. Many of the available books are related to the curriculum, the students take turn to borrow them. While in the past knowledge could be sought only from textbooks, now more references are at hand."

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[16] Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO), About SEAMEO Member Countries: Myanmar, accessed July 2009, www.seameo.org/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=65&Itemid=88
[17] UNESCO 2009 "Education: Stakeholders" http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=23304&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

III. Conclusion: from local to global solutions

Involving the key stakeholders of education

Non-formal education through village libraries presents the kind of adaptability needed in rural areas of Myanmar. Villagers can access learning and reading materials in their own time, according to their interests.

AEA and RDS developed a broad framework for management of the village libraries. This framework enabled responsible, participative leadership by the villagers. After one year of operation, the community takes full control of resource mobilization, planning and management of the village library. The early involvement of local actors in the village libraries is fundamental to their sustainability.

The 2007 Mid-term EFA Assessment for Myanmar noted that in early childhood care and development, it is local communities that generate most of the necessary resources[18]. The experiences documented in this article show that this is the case even for basic education.

Civil society actors are able to fill in some of the gaps left by the state education system. However, it is clear that civil society cannot be expected to provide a full-scale substitute to a functioning state education system. The outcome of a child's education depends on the relationship between the parents and the teacher in the wider context of the community and nation.

Three main recommendations emerge from this paper:

- Collaborative relationships between teachers, government officials, and civil society leaders must be built to improve access to quality education. International donors and NGOs should develop strategies that allow local stakeholders to connect to one another, in order to pool resources and skills.
- It is necessary for international NGOs and donors to engage civil society actors in the field of education. This means that NGOs and international donors must be flexible as civil society actors often find it difficult to comply with complex donor guidelines. Civil society participation should strengthen community organisation and empowerment.
- The national education system should be open to a flexible curriculum based on local contexts. Local level education systems should play more active parts in the elaboration of programs closely adapted to local needs. When seasonal cropping time is reached, school terms can be arranged so that a rural family can make full use of the manpower without having their child drop out.

But what is the added-value of the involvement of international actors in education in Myanmar, in contrast to national actors? In what way does the involvement of an international NGO lead to global solutions? Can local problems be really addressed without global strategies?

Beyond local solutions? Looking forward

In 1991, Myanmar signed the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, of which article 28 states that education shall be free[19]. This international commitment gives NGOs a strong argument for holding the government accountable for the provision of free education. Institutionalisation of certain strategies and activities at the national level allows a guarantee of their sustainability. For example, the institutionalisation of Library Committees could ascertain their future existence, and open up avenues for their financial sustainability using state resources.

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[18] UNESCO (2007) EFA Mid-Term Assessment Myanmar, p.31
http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Myanmar/Myanmar_EFA_MDA.pdf
[19] Unicef (2009) Convention on the Rights of the Child, http://www.unicef.org/crc/, Accessed September 2009.

As an international NGO, AEA has the international network and presence to connect local organizations for collaboration and mutual benefit. In this project, AEA coordinated the sharing of expertise between Sipar and RDS. AEA organized a mission of Sipar to Myanmar and trainings for RDS staff in Cambodia. Possible future areas for involvement by AeA include connecting RDS with other NGOs specialized in other areas, such as agriculture and other livelihood-supporting activities.

In the politically difficult context of Myanmar, NGOs can play a vital role as a bridge between donors and beneficiary communities. Most importantly, in countries where higher education is inaccessible to a majority of the population, international NGOs can engage in capacity-building and training of local NGOs, such as RDS, government staff, and the general population.

International actors also have a fundamental role in disseminating information and lessons learnt from the field. In this regard, AEA plans to take stock of best practices in promoting gender equity for the development of gender-balanced Library Committees in Myanmar. There is also a need to see how the village library committee can mobilize parents around access to education, especially in the case of dropped-out children. Finally, the next step in the project involves consolidating the network of libraries for book exchange with other libraries in Shan state.

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Leadership and partnership of PTA: A Hong Kong case

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Abstract

As teachers, we always consider ourselves professionals, because we underwent training, and obtained diplomas and attended refresher courses every now and then. However, applying what we learned in teachers' training courses to classrooms and school work is a challenge. For one thing, we learned well how to work out a lesson plan, how to handle unruly students, but never did we learn how to conduct an assembly, how to carry out administrative work, and how to work with parents. Our profession also depends a lot on other bodies working with us, the community, past students association, to name but a few. An important element in a child's education is the parents.   Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA) have been around for more than a century; its functions changed over the year. PTA has become a partner in education; some schools even include PTA members in the school management. Although it began as an American model, PTA around the world has plenty of local colours, owing to a country's cultures and emphasis its government places on education. This paper explores the changes in PTA function, and how this partnership can further promote learning in Hong Kong, where both parents work and leave education to the school and tutorial schools. It begins by examining the activities conducted or co-conducted by PTAs in four schools in Hong Kong. It continues to discuss how parents' profile enhances or impairs the work PTA is doing in the school. Finally, it proposes areas which PTAs should reinforce, in order to strengthen the partnership in education.

University speed-dating for mature-age students: 21st century processes of engagement and learning in higher education

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Abstract

Most mature age students in Australia return to university after a major transition in their lives. This paper will reflect on recent research that has identified that mature age students present with pre-existing competing priorities when entering higher education which can then create greater complexity when attempting to integrate university study into their lives.

Introduction

Successfully integrating family, work and other personal commitments with studying has been referred to by students as a juggling or balancing act, one that has the potential to create more stress during this life transition. This means that mature age students often cannot socialise and network on-campus, they are too busy with academic tasks, but that doesn't mean they don't want to socialise or network. Research internationally supports the notion that making connections into university life, either by means of academic support services or the creation of social networks, has a positive impact on the university experience and on academic outcomes. Peer mentoring programs can provide immense assistance to mature age students and provide insight into academic life and learning which can take an entire undergraduate course for some to master.

New La Trobe University mentoring programs have used a version of 'speed dating' at lunch-time and evening events to allow mentors to connect to current mature age students and to 'jump start' a networking and support process that is being used to enhance high education learning and graduate career development. Engaging with mature age students means addressing their learning, social and career needs by facilitating learning activities outside of the lecture theatre and classroom. 21st century peer mentoring and peer tutoring is currently being trialled in various Australian universities and has implications locally, regionally and globally for the challenge of educating adults across the age and cultural spectrums. By facilitating programs that connect students with students using new technologies and new processes, higher education institutions can be applicable to all age groups and be relevant locally, regionally, nationally and globally.

A research project conducted in 2008-2009 explored how mature age individuals interacted with higher education programs at La Trobe University, Bendigo as a way of managing various transitions in their lives. In total ten staff including Social Work lecturers and staff from Student Support Services were invited to discuss issues that they felt face mature age individuals in this regional area, both in applying and successfully completing their chosen course. The interviews were of an informal nature and university staff were encouraged to talk from their own experiences of teaching mature age individuals. A survey via email was sent to all mature age individuals enrolled within the School of Social Work and Policy. They were asked to make general comments about the positive and negative aspects of being a mature age individual at the Bendigo Campus, twelve responses were returned.

In February 2009, mentors were recruited for a mature age mentor program for first year students within the Social Work course at Bendigo. An interesting development was that the Nursing Mentoring Program for mature age students and the Oral Health/Dentistry Mentoring Program for students from non-English speaking backgrounds wanted to join this research project because the coordinators believed that their mentors would benefit from the philosophy and direction of a mature age oriented program. Eighteen Social Work mentors, twelve Nursing mentors and ten Oral Health/Dentistry mentors attended mentor training in March 2009. Following this training, each discipline then organised their own framework for connecting mentors with mentees. A week following the mentor training, a session of 'mentor speed dating' was held for social work students; 17 mentors and 14 mentees attended. This was a popular and successful way of introducing mentors to mentees.

Context

The regional community context of Australian society is significant with census data highlighting emerging trends in regional communities involving significant social change (ABS: 2007). The more recent redistribution of Australia's regional population via internal and international migration *reflects a highly mobile population*

responding to a range of triggers including employment opportunities, housing costs and lifestyle preferences. These trends… suggest some major challenges for policy and service provision in regional education and employment (Mission Australia: 2006: 11). Currently there are immigration programs targeting humanitarian entrants for resettlement in regional and rural Australia. Skilled migrants can fill skill shortages and there are opportunities for guest workers to come to Australia to fulfil specific employment contracts in regional and/or rural communities (Broadbent, Cacciattolo & Carpenter: 2006; ICEPA: 2006).

The experiences of social inclusion and exclusion by individuals residing in a range of Australian communities are influenced by a variety of compounding factors. This includes mobility and migration experiences, population demographics, the history of specific communities, government social and economic policies, local, state and federal political environments. Most of the students participating in this research project had been searching for and creating a sense of 'place' and 'community', a sense of belonging to somewhere outside the realm of pre-existing familial and cultural experiences. This search for something 'other than' appears to be a function of age-related life transitions, no longer satisfied or dependent on the same social connections that have sustained them in the past; they have been seeking some meaning to their individual lives rather than solely that of financial gain or familial stability.

Communities in regional Victoria where 16% of the population have been born overseas are significantly less diverse than Melbourne, where 36% of the population are born overseas (DVC: 2006). Issues of cultural and social marginalization motivate many people, especially newly-arrived migrants to choose to reside within the greater social diversity of urban areas. However, in recent years a number of regional municipalities in Victoria, and around Australia, have actively welcomed more diverse groups into their communities for a range of economic and social reasons.

Higher education and mature age adult transitions

Defining 'mature age' within the context of higher education is one dilemma faced, with current research indicating that mature age refers to any individual aged 21 or over and/or who enter education from a variety of pathways other than the traditional school leaver pool (Stone: 2008; Kenny, McLennan, Nankervis, Kidd, Connell and Buykx: 2007; Cullity: 2006; Richardson: 1994). The major themes consistently reported in current literature were about the motivations and challenges that mature age individuals face in entering education, how the personal, societal and economic commitments and obligations appear to impact on an individuals overall success, and how learning processes and cultures impact on successful transition and what attempts education institutions have made to improve transition and integration of individuals within student life (Stone: 2008; Kenny, McLennan, Nankervis, Kidd, Connell and Buykx: 2007; O'Shea: 2007; Stone: 2000; Fulmer & Jenkins: 1992).

Rendon (1994) as cited in O'Shea (2007) comments that there now appears to be a 'tapestry of differentiation' among first year individuals, and it is this variation between and through different individual cohorts that makes truly understanding the mature age individual trajectory difficult. This can create difficulties in making generalisations about this group, as most studies on mature age individuals, considered differing demographics which either excluded or included several different variables. The difficulty in finding literature on specific individual groups suggests that future research should be based on 'particular individual cohorts rather than generic groupings' (O'Shea: 2007).

Stone (2008, p. 269) identified that there appears to be some sort of 'catalyst for action, some event that had occurred which then led, directly or indirectly, to the decision to study.' McGivney (2006, p. 85) circumstantiates this notion and suggests that a variety of reasons prompt adult learners to consider education, including factors such as the need to deal with an immediate situation or crisis in their life (life transition, illness, redundancy, bereavement, divorce). O'Shea (2007) identifies in her research on females who were the first in their family to study that the decision to study, was related to some sort of recent catalyst which was both personal and work related.

Kenny et al (2007, p.13) however, identified a major reason that prompted mature age individuals within nursing to return to study *is the desire to expand their education as a means of enhancing career/employment options*. Whilst this may be true for a large proportion of mature age individuals, Harper and Kember (1986) as cited in Richardson (1994) believe that in particular, older mature age individuals might be more likely to be studying out of interest or for pleasure rather than for vocational reasons. Motivation to study and motivational factors were considered higher in mature age individuals. Kenny et al (2007, p.18) states that as a group, they appear to have a strong commitment to study' and that motivation is intrinsic within them.

Extensive research has been carried out on the issues or challenges that mature age individuals face which differentiates them from the traditional school leaver group (Stone: 2008; Dawson: 2007; Kenny, McLennan, Nankervis, Kidd, Connell & Buykx: 2007; O'Shea: 2007; Trott: 2007; Cullity: 2006; Stone: 2000; Scott, Burns

& Cooney: 1996; Fulmer & Jenkins: 1992). The major challenges for mature age individuals in regional and rural communities included family responsibilities whether to a child or other family members, financial and work commitments and an overall lack of time to successfully balance these competing commitments in their lives.

Cullity (2006) believes that it is the personal, social, attitudinal, educational, cultural, vocational and financial circumstances that can impact on beliefs about academic study. Stone (2008, p.275) identified the major challenges experienced by mature age individuals in her study as that of *financial struggles; lack of time; difficulties with organising and prioritising; dealing with changes in relationships with partners and children; and balancing the needs of study with the needs of family, home, partners and children.* Reat reported that mature age adult lives have a very different focus, that is, a balancing act between academic, economic and domestic responsibilities (Reat: 2002, as cited in Kenny, McLennan, Nankervis, Kidd, Connell and Buykx. 2007, p. 20).

Trott's (2007) research on recognising the expectations of mature age individuals commented that *adult learners are rarely in a position to remove themselves from their day-to-day work and family commitments to immerse themselves in an on-going campus existence* (2007, p. 53.). Lack of time has been identified as a major contributing factor that impacts an individual's decision to discontinue study and comments such as this are of particular importance when studying the impact of learning procedures and culture and what part this plays in the successful transition of mature age individuals to education.

Interestingly, the motivational factors that propel individuals into education can have both constructive and/or detrimental repercussions. The possibility of increased economic stability appears to play a determining role in some individual's decision to return to study. However increased economic instability, due to reduced working capacity and the expenses studying creates, can influence an individual decision to discontinue (Bexley: 2008; Kenny, McLennan, Nankervis, Kidd, Connell & Buykx: 2007). Bexley (2008) identified that 40% of individuals surveyed considered finances were an important reason in an individual considering deferring or discontinuing study.

Kenny et al (2007, p. 21) identified that most mature age individuals were *unprepared for the time and financial commitments that undertaking further study will require of them.* They identified that along with family responsibility, financial stress did play a major role in a mature age individual's decision to discontinue study. Furthermore, Kenny et al (2007) identified after extensive research on financial constraints that mature age individuals with children are seen to be more financially vulnerable, having more complex financial problems.

Evident in several research studies was the impact that gender plays and how this influences belief about study. Scott, Burns and Cooney (1996) explored the reasons why female mature age individuals with children discontinued study. In particular females in this study expressed that the greater responsibility for domestic and child rearing work played a substantial role in their decision to discontinue study, this in part had to do with in built cultural expectations of the traditional roles of mothering and motherhood.

Also worth noting is that there appears to be a strong link between lower socio-economic class and a persons beliefs or ideals about what were appropriate gender roles in the literature. These cultural expectations did not always support furthering educational opportunities for women (Cullity: 2006; Scott, Burns & Cooney: 1996; Fulmer & Jenkins: 1992). Cullity (2006) and Fulmer and Jenkins (1992) reinforce this in saying that the poor self-concept developed and held especially by women in their research, found that it was derived from a mixture of social and cultural reasons which includes within it perceived priorities of women which reflect gender, class and ethnicity.

Initially mature age individuals can have significant fears and place unrealistic expectations on themselves in regard to commencing study. O'Shea (2007) identified that commencing education studies can initiate feelings of anxiety, unfamiliarity and self doubt in individuals. Others have commented that the most common anxieties identified was that of self doubt, fear of repeated failure; or exposure to ridicule, alongside feeling overwhelmed and intimidated during this transition process (Stone: 2008; McGivney: 2006; Cullity, 2007).

Bolam and Dodgson (2003) comment on past research which indicates that individuals felt unprepared for assignments and admitted feeling that they lacked basic study skills necessary. Martins and Anthony (2007, p. 58) comment on the 'impostor syndrome' that most mature age individuals feel when commencing education, which likely stems from a general lack of confidence in their ability to succeed. When exploring what impact learning processes and culture have on transition, fears that individuals present with can also be compounded by the discourse and jargon that sometimes is often used in academic institutions. Cullity (2007, p. 2) identified that *the unexplained use of academic language can disengage individuals from the learning process.* This can then lead to a very real gap in the almost assumed requirements and expectations that faculty staff have and the interpretations or assumptions individuals make of those expectations (Street: 1996, as cited in Cullity: 2006).

Furthermore, in exploring studies that identified the entry of individuals through alternative entry programs it was found that simply assimilating individuals into education can reinforce the 'dominant/elite culture' often associated within higher educational circles. However, utilising programs that gradually immerse individuals into academic culture can increase their overall academic capacity to succeed (Cullity: 2007). By gradually increasing an individuals understanding of the literary and academic skills required can promote academic confidence which in turns assists the development of deeper learning strategies that need to be fostered successfully in adult education (Cullity: 2006). Not understanding what is required or how to achieve what is required, coupled with individuals feeling insecure in approaching teachers or lecturers, only compounds fears that are present when commencing study.

There has been an increasing focus within literature on the significance and benefits of successfully engaging mature age individuals through the transition process in adult education. Heirdsfield, Walker and Walsh (2007) comment that establishing social networks is clearly important in individual transition, how individuals make the successful transition to university life has been studied extensively by Tinto (Erskine: 2000). In fact, Tinto (1993) as cited in Erskine (2000: p. 44) commented that individuals who integrate into university tend to stay, while those who are not integrated tend to withdraw, and his conceptual model is the most widely recognised and reported in research. In exploring his work, he has synthesised research on individual departure, emphasising the role of the institution and social/academic integration of individuals attributes, skills and dispositions and the institutions academic and social systems and found that individual's departures were mainly related to isolation and incongruence. Of particular note from Tinto's 1987 investigations was that when individuals feel a sense of belonging and acceptance they are much more likely to make the effort required to continue studying (Tinto: 1987, as cited in Stone: 2000).

Experiences of mature age higher education students and staff

The majority of staff and students in this project, talked about the various struggles that mature age student's face both initially and throughout their studies. Attempting to successfully integrate family, work and other personal commitments with studying was referred to as a juggling or balancing act by most and one that had the potential to create more stress during this life transition. Contributing factors were described in terms of personal, financial, domestic, societal and other work related obligations. One staff member commented that it was *all the complexities that go with trying to integrate family, study, work.* Similarity half of the staff interviewed expressed that they themselves struggled with this dilemma and also mentioned that *finding the time and having to juggle study on top of everything else* was a hindering factor in their own experience. Half of the students surveyed reported analogous thoughts to that of staff. One student spoke about the difficulties; *combining study with work and family commitments; this was very difficult at times, especially around childcare arrangements. I had to find time to study and felt that I was neglecting my family at times. It was difficult finding an even balance between study, work, and family. I had little time to unwind myself'* .

However, only two staff identified other complexities that these students present with when entering higher education and the impact that this can have on their ability to successfully assimilate into university study. One staff member commented that *major life disruptions can lead people here.* Another staff member made similar comments and felt that often students returned to study due to personal crises in their lives such as unemployment, divorce or change in health status and so 'bring baggage' alongside often other personal expectations they may have in regard to study. Comparatively, three students identified additional emotional stressors as a significant factor that impacted upon their journey through university.

Both staff and students made the observation that mature age students in general, entered university with higher expectations and a greater commitment toward studying. Staff spoke about the fact that mature age students were more willing to participate in conversation and generally displayed higher motivational and commitment levels toward subjects. One student made comment on this and stated that mature age students *in general had higher expectations of both themselves and the university.* Interestingly, staff identified fear and lack of confidence as factors that might prevent students from applying to university, but fear was not ranked high as a contributing dynamic from the students who responded.

Creating connections once enrolled was seen as an essential component of successfully integrating into university culture. Half of the staff interviewed felt that students who utilised academic skills support and student support services were more likely to successfully integrate and go onto succeed within the first year. Likewise several students attributed their own success partly from acquiring skills and knowledge gained from accessing such resources. Furthermore, the majority of staff felt that students who had a sense of connection to the university community remained enrolled and went on to successfully complete courses. Both staff and student identified that the *issue of connectedness* was a contributing factor in their own personal journey as a mature age student. The majority of both staff and students stated that *making new friends* and *increasing their own personal support networks* were positive aspects of their university experience. One staff member when

commenting on his own experience referred to the support of other mature age students as providing *a sense of comradely.* Just under half of the staff acknowledged that a student's life experience brought a greater sense of 'richness' into the classroom dynamic and others agreed that mature age students were often more 'conceptual' in how they then applied this academically.

Overwhelming most students spoke about the significance of their own prior life experience and how they were able to relate this into coursework. One student made comment that; *these experiences also enabled additional insight and understanding when tackling social work issues.* Another student mentioned that; *I remember on many occasions the younger students not being aware of certain life experiences and learning from the older students....such as childhood development, pregnancy, parenting and experience in the workforce, organisations and team work and managerialism.*

Conclusions

Australian higher education reforms of recent decades have led to an expansion in the number of higher education institutions that service populations living within so-called 'rust belt' areas of major cities and urban sprawl suburbs. This has been occurring alongside the growth of multi-sector adult education institutions and the expansion of Australian higher education programs and services into most Asian countries. The new Rudd Labor Government has released the Bradley Report on Higher Education Reforms (DEEWR: 2008) which has recommended a package of reforms regarding new national targets for educational attainment, more comprehensive individual support, higher quality accreditation and systems management within institutions and specifically, greater funding in regional and rural areas.

Direct recruitment of individual mature age adults, specifically those from rural communities, and individuals from diverse backgrounds and abilities is an issue for all higher education institutions. Mature age individuals often want answers to complex questions with regard to part-time study options, timetables, key support services, flexibility and academic support services. The information they require about these issues is often more detailed than currently provided and appointing key academic staff to act as contact points via email and telephone for mature age individuals during the initial application timeframe can make a significant difference to whether an individual applies for entry into a course. A key conclusion is that higher education institutions need to commission significant research about the information and processes that can and do encourage mature age individuals to engage with the process of entry into a university course.

The literature undoubtedly states that life and education transitions are significant issues for mature age individuals and especially so for those living in rural and regional communities. Most Australian higher education institutions and La Trobe University in particular, do not provide comprehensive transition support for mature age individuals accessing university. Programs such as summer school academic skills workshops and pre-entry counselling services could make all the difference to the self-confidence and skill base of mature age individuals wanting to access university courses, at both regional and urban campuses. These types of programs are common place in the community college sector of the U.S.A. (Tinto: 1993). Mentoring can be provided as a key resource for prospective mature age individuals with current students able to act as mentors in the intervening period between applying to gain access to a university course and beginning their first semester, a period of time when life and education transitions become key issues for mature age individuals.

One of the key outcomes of the mentoring program outlined in this paper was to provide broad based learning support to new mature age university students around the resources that are available on campus. These resources include the equality and diversity officers, academic skills staff, counselling services and library liaison staff. The feedback given during the follow-up mentor-mentee sessions was that information given by mentors about accessing academic skills and student counselling services was invaluable to the first year experiences of Social Work, Nursing and Dental/Oral Health students. Academic skills and counselling staff related that that during semester 1, 2009 more first year students were accessing services than ever before, meaning that mentoring for mature aged students advantaged both the students and the support staff. Student support staff were more fully informed of the common first year experiences.

One of the main purposes of mentoring for first year mature age students was to develop a more effective way of developing social networks for these students who often do not spend much time on campus outside of attending lectures and tutorials. Connecting students via a Faculty facilitated 'speed-dating' type process resulted in students quickly connecting to current students in their own discipline. Facilitating specific events where individuals are encouraged to 'chat' with each other in an informal manner, with food provided encourages social networking. La Trobe University is now utilising this model to develop peer mentoring programs for first year students, mature age students and graduate students. These and other types of transition and social networking programs will make universities relevant to diverse groups in Australian society, fulfilling a policy and social agenda that goes back to the 1970's.

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New Trends in Continuing Higher Education:

Who Attends the Privatized Executive Master's Programs and Why?

The Israeli Case

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Abstract

The recent marketing of public universities due to budgetary cuts has resulted, among other things, in the opening of unsubsidized executive master's programs in a variety of fields. Such programs were recognized by Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) as an essential part of 'academic capitalism', or the market and market-like conduct of universities in the neo-liberal economy. These programs replace traditional frameworks of adult continuing education in the universities, since they are considered more attractive and profitable. Indeed, they have been criticized as "the celebrated cash cows of academe" (Gould, 2003). The common notion is that students of the new master's programs usually originate from established social classes, and that they join such programs while working merely to receive their master's degrees quickly in order to advance themselves in their work careers. However, these conventions have not yet been empirically tested, and therefore the contribution of the new privatized master's programs to the labor force remains unclear.

In order to address this issue we concentrate on the Israeli case. Two public universities in Israel situated in the geographical center, thus close to potential clientele, pioneered the move toward privatized executive master's programs in the early 2000s: Tel Aviv University, and the religious Bar-Ilan University. We concentrate on Tel Aviv University, which has opened until now16 such executive programs, mainly in the social sciences and humanities. These programs come in addition to more traditional privatized professional master's programs, such as the Executive MBA. The students of these new programs enroll in one-year studies, for two days a week, pay at least twice the subsidized tuition, and constitute over a quarter of the total master's degree recipients on a yearly basis.

Our survey consisted on the students in seven executive programs which run parallel to the same or similar regular master's programs which require two years of study. The survey is based on questionnaires administered in 2006 to 254 students of the executive programs and 178 first year students of the parallel regular programs.

We first compare the social and demographic background of the students in the two program types. The comparison, aimed at the issue of who attends the executive programs, is based on the students' gender (55% of the executive students are male vs. 37% of the regular master's students), age (the mean age of the executive students is 36 vs. 31 in the regular ones), region of residence (37% of the executive students are from the Tel Aviv metropolitan area versus 53% of the regular students), religiosity, ethnicity (Jews vs. Arabs and Ashkenazi vs. Mizrachi Jews), parental education, undergraduate studies in universities vs. independent colleges, occupational prestige, income level, and managerial position (46% of the executive students, vs. 25% of the regular ones, supervise 4 or more people in their work position).

A logit regression of program type on all these variables shows that students of the executive programs are older, and indeed have higher income and occupational prestige, but they also originate from more traditional families and tend to have their undergraduate studies completed in the less prestigious independent colleges rather than in the universities. These last findings point to the fact that despite their presently higher occupational status they tend to originate from lower social backgrounds than the regular master's students. This is also indicated by the bivariate comparison of parental education – a significantly lower percentage of either or both parents of the executive students have academic education in comparison to parents of the regular students – 22 vs. 38 percents.

Is it possible, then, that the executive students tend to consist of adults who went on working after graduation as they could not afford to devote the time to full-scale graduate studies offered by the regular master's programs? This possibility can be further explored by comparing the study motivations of the two groups of students. As earlier said, the conventional wisdom is that the executive students are only interested in advancing their professional careers by obtaining an 'easy' master's degree. We compared the study motivations of the two groups by their answers to thirteen 5-point attitudinal items regarding the influence of various factors on their decision to continue their graduate studies. A principal component analysis revealed three independent factors, listed in order of importance (i.e., item variance explanation): social-normative (major items: "the norm is to get a master's degree"; "my colleagues at work have higher degrees", and "to gain status and prestige"); professional (major items: "to improve my chances in the labor market"; "to advance in my work" and "to raise my wages"); and personal development (major items: "to develop myself" and "to study a subject that interests me").

Comparing the distribution of scores of the two study groups on the three motivational factors we found no significant differences between the executive and regular students. In other words, the executive students are not merely degree seeking individuals who wish to advance their careers, but rather students who, similarly to the

regular graduate students, maintain a balance among social, professional and personal interests in pursuing their studies. Indeed, Tel Aviv University has recently recognized that potential, and now allows excellent students of the executive programs to go on with their Ph.D. studies.

   In conclusion, our study clearly indicates that the privatized executive programs are not simply attended by rich and affluent executives who can afford the tuition. Their clientele consists of older middle-range executives who could not afford the regular study schedule. They tend to originate from lower status families than the regular students, yet they have similar motivations for graduate studies. Such programs may indeed be criticized from various respects, especially the creation of double standards for identical or similar master's degrees within the same institution (Yogev, 2009), but not from the viewpoint of their clientele. By initiating such programs the university has actually expanded the educational opportunities for lower-status groups which advanced themselves through work, and can now afford to re-enter the university to complete their graduate studies. Therefore, the new trend of privatized master's programs may have, in the long run, a significant positive effect on the educational qualifications of the mid-range executive labor force.

Preparing for future professional work: The development of university students' work expectations during their student years

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Abstract

The relationship between university-level higher education and professional working life varies across both national higher education systems and fields of study. Higher eduction systems tend to have disciplines or study programmes that do not prepare students for professional expertise that can be clearly defined in advance. In the Humanities, Social Sciences and Economics, for example, students frequently orientate themselves towards broad-spectrum careers that are open for a variety of working possibilities. How do such students conceptualize their future professional identity? How does their understanding of their prospective work develop during their student years?

University students' expectations of their future professional work has been recently investigated in a number of international studies (e.g. Reid et al. 2008; Abrandt Dahlgren et al. 2006, 2008). However, the development of students' perceptions in parallel with their studies has not yet been explored. The aim of this paper is to examine the formation and possible changes of the expectations of the students whose future line of work cannot be foreseen. The study focuses on Finnish students of Speech Communication who, after receiving their masters' degree, work in a variety of communication professions within education, business, administration, politics, and cultural life. In all, 34 students were interviewed once a year during their four to six years of studentship. The data comprise 162 follow-up in-depth interviews which were analyzed qualitatively.

The results indicate that in their first year the students contemplate their future work in terms of a repertoire of explicit occupational titles. They cherish the diversity of career possibilities. However, typically in their third year they start to express concerns about their future competence in working life, or they even fall into a minor or major crisis about their future. In their fourth year they begin to feel responsible for finding their own special way into the world of work. Finally, in their fourth or fifth year they grow to become aware of their individual expertice. When characterizing their growth process they report having been backed by their off-campus work practice and/or the study courses that have close connections with working life. However, the students differ considerably from one another: some are insecure about their future potential from the beginning of their studies and stay that way, some gradually gain confidence in their employment opportunit
ies, while others feel confident of their success from their first year on. The results are discussed from such perspectives as curriculum contents and structure, partnership of study programmes and working life, and student counseling.

Keywords: higher education, university students, professional work, working life

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'Whether the hen or the egg came first…':
integrating work-based learning and Personal Development Planning within the UK foundation degree curriculum

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Abstract

This paper sets out to explore some issues of graduate 'employability'. Central to the discussion is the local problem of integrating Personal Development Planning and work-based learning within foundation degrees in the United Kingdom. 'Joined up' thinking and curriculum change are required if students are to be prepared for lifelong learning and working in a world of uncertainty and change. This is a challenge confronting universities worldwide.

> *'We live in a world where change is exponential and we are helping to prepare students for jobs that don't yet exist, using technologies that have not yet been invented, in order to solve problems that we don't know are problems yet'.*
>
> *(Kumar, 2007: xi)*

Introduction: a local problem?

This paper sets out to explore the integration, or otherwise, of Personal Development Planning (PDP) and work-based learning in foundation degrees in the United Kingdom (UK).   That is the on the micro level. On the macro level, the problem becomes how to maximise the 'employability' skills of students so that they can both articulate and transfer higher level learning into (or further into) an increasingly globalised marketplace.

> 'Graduates are in demand across the economy and those with strong employability skills are more likely to succeed in finding employment in an increasingly competitive jobs market. Universities must do more to ensure students acquire the generic transferable skills they will need in their future career…alongside the core academic content of university courses. The teaching of these skills should not be viewed as a discretionary 'add-on' – they are vital to enable graduates to apply their degree skills to the workplace'. (CBI, 2009: 26).

This may challenge practices in the academy, 'HE has a preoccupation with a knowledge and skills agenda while ignoring the fact that what increasingly matters is what people do with that knowledge and skills' (Barnett and Coate 2005)

Within the supercomplex world of twenty-first century higher education there are many types of interface between higher learning and the workplace. The experiences gained from activities which integrate learning in a classroom with learning in a workplace contribute significantly to advancing students' academic, professional and personal development, and thus their 'employability' skills.   In 2006, a major UK government report on the state of the nation's skills was released (Leitch, 2006). It did not immediately paint an encouraging picture,

> 'Our nation's skills are not world class and we run the risk that this will undermine the UK's long-term prosperity. Productivity continues to trail many of our main international comparators. Despite recent progress, the UK has serious social disparities with high levels of child poverty, poor employment rates for the disadvantaged, regional disparities and relatively high income inequality. Improving our skill levels can address all of these problems'.
>
> (Ibid: 8)

This suggests a paradox that there is an increasing number of graduates in Britain as well as an increasing skills deficit.

The British higher education system expanded suddenly and exponentially between the end of the 1980s and the middle of the 1990s, taking it in the space of a very few years from an elite to a mass system (Trow, 1974). The age participation rate of young people in full-time undergraduate education suddenly doubled to over 30% and the size of the total student population increased by more than a half. By the late 1990s the participation figure had risen to around 39%, similar to 2009, despite the much-publicised New Labour target of 50% of 18 – 30 year olds in first-time higher education by the year 2010. A government cap on student numbers in summer 2009 has effectively halted domestic expansion of full-time higher education for the present, despite the unprecedented numbers applying for places this year. A plentiful supply of higher education students is coupled with a low attrition rate of around 13%. A large number of graduates are therefore annually entering an increasingly changing, competitive and globalising employment market.

Recent research by the Confederation of British Industry (CBI, 2009) confirms some of these challenges specifically in relation to higher education. While there is an over-supply of graduates emerging from UK universities, employers are still voicing concerns ranging from levels of basic skills and a lack of transferable and 'employability' skills, to the lack of priority given to 'real' work experience. The CBI has demanded once more that universities do more to ensure that students have the necessary skills required for the workplace and that they are able to articulate and demonstrate these skills. The CBI also calls for universities to prioritise work experience in undergraduate programmes.

There is therefore an immediate problem to address in preparing students for jobs that do exist. What about preparing students for jobs that do not yet exist? As Kumar (2007) clarifies,

> 'In short, we have a responsibility to prepare our students for a lifetime of uncertainty, change, challenge and emergent or self-created opportunity…preparing our students for a lifetime of working, learning and living in uncertain and unpredictable worlds that have yet to be revealed is perhaps one of the greatest responsibilities and challenges confronting universities all over the world'. (ibid: xi)

In England, the appropriate blending of Personal Development Planning (PDP) with work-based based learning within foundation degrees offers one illustration of a possible solution to part of this problem. Which is the hen and which is the egg or does it actually matter which comes first?

'Wicked problems'?: Personal Development Planning (PDP), foundation degrees and work-based learning

Initially it is necessary to view the problem within the UK higher education context. The University of Bedfordshire, a medium-sized university some thirty miles north-west of London, has extensive experience of developing degree programmes that meet the needs of employment and the local economy. Complementary to this, the University has built an acknowledged reputation for supporting the personal and career development of its students. In 2005, the University was awarded substantial government funding to extend this work throughout the undergraduate curriculum and to establish a Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning, the Bridges CETL. The CETL aims to bridge student learning and the world beyond university, providing smoother transitions into life beyond undergraduate study and into the global workplace. The CETL has spearheaded work in varying aspects of linking higher education with the workplace, including the development of innovative new business and management learning spaces and linking e-portfolios between university and employers. Ways of working with employers to provide more flexible and relevant work-based or placement learning opportunities are currently in progress and much work has been undertaken with work-focused foundation degrees.

Personal Development Planning (PDP)

The introduction in 2000 of Personal Development Planning (PDP) to the higher education sector was a recommendation of the Dearing Report (Dearing, 1997). This was designed to assist students in articulating and evidencing the acquired skills, abilities and competencies they claim to have developed during higher education. PDP should help students prepare for an increasingly complex and uncertain world,

> 'The implementation of PDP is a 'wicked problem'. By that I mean the problem or challenge continually emerges from all the technical, informational, social and cultural complexity that characterizes teaching and learning' (Jackson, 2007, xiii)

Some twelve years after the Dearing report, the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) now defines PDP as a,

> 'structured and supported process undertaken by a learner to reflect upon their own learning, performance and/or achievement and to plan for their personal, educational and career development. It is an inclusive process, open to all learners, in all HE provision settings, and at all levels' (QAA, 2009: 2).

and further suggests that

> 'Effective PDP improves the capacity of individuals to review, plan and take responsibility for their own learning and to understand what and how they learn. PDP helps learners articulate their learning and the achievements and outcomes of HE more explicitly, and supports the concept that learning is a lifelong and life-wide activity'. (ibid)

PDP is therefore a framework for learning through reflection and action. Reflective learning is a key component of PDP, designed to promote deep rather than surface learning. The development of reflective abilities are integral to work-based learning, as is the planning and monitoring of personal objectives and achievements. PDP should therefore be preparatory to and complementary with various processes of work-based learning, particularly where that learning is negotiated and has to be constructed.

Foundation degrees

Foundation degrees, also launched in 2000, were like PDP a direct result of the Dearing report. Modelled on associate degrees in the USA, foundation degrees were the first new type of higher education qualification to be introduced in the United Kingdom for over a quarter of a century. There are now some 100,000 students undertaking foundation degrees in the UK. Like associate degrees, foundation degrees are 'short-cycle' awards and have both an exit qualification and transfer function. However, unlike their American counterparts, foundation degrees are equivalent to two-thirds of a bachelor degree in England. They also have certain key characteristics that differentiate them from traditional bachelor degrees and from the long-standing vocationally-orientated Higher National qualifications. They must: involve employer partners in the design, delivery, assessment and review of the programmes; ensure provision of designated progression directly onto the final year of a bachelor programme; include work-based learning as mandatory.

In the last seven years, the University of Bedfordshire, like many other UK institutions, has seen a significant period of expansion and development in its foundation degree provision, mostly run in partnership with local colleges, organisations and employers. Initially hard practical experience of developing foundation degrees was that the engagement of employers in the design and delivery of these work-based programmes is the most challenging area, but also the one of the factors most likely to lead to successful development and delivery. Imprecise articulation of needs, poor understanding of each other's expectations and time-pressures are perceived as the main barriers to developing effective work-based programmes. Traditional boundaries of lecture-room and workplace are challenged. The challenge now is more to ensure that within foundation degrees, work-based learning is genuinely central and that work-based learning curricula are fir for purpose, providing appropriate learning opportunities both for the individual and the organisation.

Work-based learning

Work-based learning is essentially 'a set of relationships between the two fundamental human processes of working and learning' (Evans, 2009: 4), a fusion of personal, professional and organisational development. The various processes embedded within PDP should therefore be an integral part of any learning derived from the workplace. However, too often PDP and work-based learning are viewed as discrete areas of activity (Corkill, 2006) and sometimes also as areas of activity separated from the core academic business of higher education (Costley and Armsby, 2008).

As PDP and foundation degrees both date from 2000, work-based learning easily came first. As Garnett et al (2009) remind us, learning from work is very far from being a new concept, as it started to become more formalised from the middle ages where professions such as law and medicine began developing skills in practice and then took that learning into the academy. New recruits were thus inculcated both into the profession itself and to its corpus of professional knowledge. Subsequently similar models of working and learning were adopted by the healthcare, teaching and engineering professions and were also translated more widely into patterns of apprentice education. Workplace-located continuous professional development (CPD) gathered momentum in the later part of the twentieth century, often as professional-body prescribed education for post-qualification professionals. Other forms of work-based learning started to emerge at around the same time, including qualifications based on the concept of work-based learning as a field of study in its own right. Learning opportunities in the workplace have therefore been available for a long time, but they have not always been recognised, accredited or exploited with the same frequency as today.

As Costley (2000) identifies, the term 'work-based learning' has become ubiquitous and is often used rhetorically, along with a cluster of other concepts such as 'employability', 'lifelong learning,' and 'flexible learning'. The processes of combining work and learning are now characterised by a maze of terminology, contested definitions and confused understanding. In the UK alone there are anecdotally over three hundred definitions of workplace-derived learning in use. Two of the most helpful are,

> '(work-based learning is) a learning process which focuses on University level critical thinking upon work (paid or unpaid) in order to facilitate the recognition, acquisition and application of individual and collective knowledge, skills, and abilities, to achieve specific outcomes of significance to the learner, their work and the University' (Garnett, 2004, in Garnett et al, 2009: 4).

and the simpler 'learning for, through and at work' (Seagraves et al, 1996) or a variation 'learning for, in and through the workplace' (Evans, 2006:3). However defined, ultimately all learning experiences located in the workplace, whether good or bad, provide the means to relate theoretical learning to real experiences and should aid the processes of articulating and contextualising the learning drawn from these activities. Workplace experiences allow students to contextualise the problems of operating in the complex environment of a workplace and students should therefore gain a depth of understanding of the world of work which simply cannot be equalled within the confines of an academic classroom.

However well defined work-based learning and PDP may be, by 2005 anecdotal evidence was suggesting that in some programmes PDP seems to exist in isolation without contributing to the underpinning skills and competencies required for effective work-based learning. In other areas, work-based learning seemed to be masquerading as PDP and had little connection to either a workplace or the reflective processes also inherent in work-based learning.

Historical research: integrating PDP and work-based learning

To try to provide more than anecdotal evidence, in 2005/6 research was carried out by the University of

Bedfordshire to investigate the connections between PDP and work-based learning, in this case specifically within foundation degrees (Corkill, 2006). Several interesting anomalies were discovered. It was confirmed that there was considerable confusion as to what constituted 'work-based learning' within higher education in general and foundation degrees in particular; there was further lack of clarity as to the nature of PDP as a set of processes rather than as a product and there was further confusion still when the two combined or were even substituted for each other. In 2009/10 it is still instructive to take a brief historical look at this research as surprisingly little has been written in the interim to supersede this study. However, it is now better regarded as an instrumental case study, where the actual case is now secondary but helps develop understanding and knowledge of a wider problem.

The sample size for the 2005/6 research was forty-nine programmes located in a random selection of seven different university systems, and atypically of the foundation degree provision across England as a whole, 92% were full-time programmes and 8% part-time. None of the programmes was 100% workplace based, which in the elapsed years would be much more prevalent. Many programmes included a discrete work-placement and others offered work-related learning such as a simulated work experience. Although the subject of the study was clearly foundation degrees, the relevance to a broader undergraduate curriculum is evident..

Work-based learning is intended to be central to foundation degrees. The first problem in 2005/6, as now, was to identify what course designers and deliverers understood by 'work-based learning' and how this was made central to the programme. One third (33%) of the selected programmes contained at least 20% identifiable work-based learning activity or had work-based assessments firmly embedded throughout (*Figure 1*, WBL column). Just under

Figure 1: the work/learning relationship in the Foundation degree sample

WP_WS_WRL_WBL_None_ Discrete work placement;

no negotiated outcomes; no employer engagement with assessment; possibly no direct linkage with programme	***Work simulation****: all work related activity takes place in-house without external employer involvement*	***Work- related activities*** *taking place from an in-house base such as group projects, live briefs delivered in-house*	***Work-based learning*** *taking place as a negotiated activity located within a workplace; employer involvement with assessment*	*No direct work-related or work-based activity taking place*

Key to Figure 1

one third (31%) of programmes contained 20% or more of work-related rather than workplace based activity. A further 11% programmes contained 20% or more of work simulation, mostly located in in-house professional training facilities (*Figure 1*, WS column). Neither the work-related nor simulated learning activities contained negotiated or student centred learning. The work placements (*Figure 1*, WP column) similarly resembled traditional work experience placements rather than work-based learning opportunities. 11% of programmes (*Figure 1*) contained no overt work -related or -based learning for example in some computer networking courses where commercial vendor certification was substituted for work-based learning activity.

The diversity of interpretation of work-based activity was also reflected in the correlation of employer engagement to the various programmes. As already referred to above, there were no employer-led (EL) foundation degrees in this sample and although 29% of programmes included employer contribution to assessment, this was exclusively to formative methods of assessment. Employer engagement (*Figure 2)* with the design and delivery of programmes was surprisingly low for qualifications where there is a Quality Assurance precept covering this area.

The sample was then analysed for the inclusion of PDP within the programmes (*Figure 3*), but the research did not disaggregate between PDP as process or as product. 100% of the

Figure 2: employer engagement with and contribution to Foundation degree sample

programmes did include PDP in some format, ranging from discrete credit bearing provision to isolated one page reports attached to some assignments at the other.

Figure 3: Provision of Personal Development Planning (PDP)
within the foundation degree sample

The final and central piece of the analysis process was to look at ways in which there was a correlation between PDP and work-based learning. This analysis was flawed in the light of the findings illustrated in *Figure 1*, as only one third of programmes were found to contain some form of work-based rather than work related learning. The

Figure 4: the relationship between PDP and work related activity in the foundation degree
sample

percentages illustrated in *Figure 4* therefore warrant scrutiny. *Figure 4* shows the correlation between PDP and various types of work-based activity. Of the programmes classified as work-based in *Figure 1*, 25% had both PDP and work-based learning embedded throughout the curriculum. A further 30% which had discrete and credit bearing provision genuinely used PDP, particularly at Level 4, to help prepare students for work-based learning. The remaining 45% of programmes classified as work-based learning did not overtly connect with PDP. In a strange twist, it was also found that 14% of programmes included PDP as a mechanism to prepare students for work-based learning activity but did not then deliver the activity itself. It was also found that in 9% of programmes PDP was used as a substitute for work-based learning.

The findings presented here are from a relatively small-scale piece of research which might not be representative of foundation degrees as a whole. However, no nationwide piece of research is, to date, complete in this area. The conclusions from this research may be summarised as confusion and missed opportunity. Confusion arises essentially from a lack of understanding about work-based learning, and this permeates this piece of research. The lack of linking of PDP processes to work-based learning probably also stems from a similar lack of clarity, including how PDP has any meaningful relation to 'real' work-based learning.

Clarity: is there really a problem?

Since 2000 there has been a national policy in place designed to ensure that students engage with PDP and there is still a growing awareness of the value of PDP as a tool to support and promote 'flexible', 'lifelong' and work-based learning. Not only does PDP promote a pro-active self-directed approach to learning but it helps to develop the skills of reflection and critical thinking fundamental for the Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) or Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL), the starting points for many work-based learning programmes.

Problems arise however when, for a variety of reasons, the synergy between PDP and work-based learning processes are not realised or articulated. If PDP is regarded as simply a product, for example a means by which a 'progress file' repository is compiled or it is regarded as a completed act, 'we have "done" PDP in Assignment 2' there is little chance of this harmonising meaningfully with any construction of work-based learning,

> 'When I helped develop PDP policy in 1999 I believed that it had the potential to put students as self-regulating independent learners at the heart of the higher education enterprise. The reality has been that PDP processes often emphasise the instrumental features of action planning, record keeping and reflection on action and performance, while other important features of self-regulated learning are often implicit and happen by default rather than by design'. (Jackson in: Kumar, 2007: xi)

Similarly if work-based learning itself is conceived as a stand-alone placement or activity uninterested with the curriculum as a whole or where the workplace activity is perceived as paramount and not the learning being drawn from it, then it is not possible to begin to realise any transferability. PDP provides a framework that fosters the development of reflective practice and action planning. Work-based learning is grounded in reflective practice and the developing of 'meta-learning', learning to learn. The synergy between PDP and work-based learning is therefore crucial because ultimately they are complementary tools. They should work together to enable learners to recognise and articulate what they have learned, what they need to work on and how this can be used as the basis for assessment and an ongoing cycle of personal and professional development, potentially of benefit both to themselves and an employer.

Addressing the problem: one solution?

The work of the Centre of Excellence for Teaching and Learning (CETL) at the University of Bedfordshire has ensured that the needs of 'joined up thinking' in terms of developing graduates for the future workplace are kept at the forefront. The University has acknowledged the challenges of enhancing students' personal and career development, 'employability' skills. In 2007, the University developed a revised curriculum model, *Curriculum Review for 2008* (*CRe8*) (Atlay, 2007), based on embedding principles of PDP throughout the undergraduate curriculum. *CRe8*, while signalling a shift away from individual programme components towards a more holistic view of curricula as a whole entity, presents both challenge and opportunity to some of the University's workplace based activities. If the 'final learning experience is more than just the sum of the various parts' (ibid, p.2) this does present a requirement that all workplace learning activities are suitably integrated, scaffolded and assessed within curricula.

Underlying *CRe8* is a student-centred process for personalised development, *SOARing to Success* (Kumar, 2007). The *SOAR* model provides more of a student-focussed lens through which to view the personal development elements of *CRe8,* the latter being largely developed for staff to use both for and with students. There is considerable synergy between the *SOAR* model and the various cycles contributory to understanding work-based learning. Likewise, there are reciprocal processes between work-based learning and many elements of *CRe8*. The multiple concepts and processes of using *CRe8* and *SOAR* together to facilitate learning therefore complement all types of learning activity located within the workplace.

As the national developments of both PDP and foundation degrees in the UK have been systematic and policy-driven, so the drivers for real curriculum change within the University have also had to be policy driven and to encompass a whole-university focus. Eexperience has shown that you cannot seek to influence students if you cannot first influence the staff that engage with the students on a daily basis. Staff in all curriculum areas have had to be committed to the idea that developing 'employability' skills is key, and that the heart of this lies in well-developed communication skills, considered primarily as a 'curriculum' not a 'support' issue.

Both the institution and individual staff have had to accept that even within the confines of a mass higher education system there is a need to respond to individual learners' needs. Ultimately this can only be done by locating responsibility for development with the students' themselves. This in turn presents a challenge for ways in which subjects are traditionally delivered. Experience has shown that curricula based on PDP processes, and which emphasise the 'personalisation' of learning, need to be counter-balanced by activities which address the social nature of learning and social responsibilities.

The 'personalisation' that is at the heart of PDP and evidenced in other trends within the sector (e-portfolios, Web 2.0 applications) needs to be balanced by a consideration of 'socialisation' issues. The learning environment (physical, virtual, real or simulated workplace) has a significant impact on what is learned and how it is learned, and also has a significant impact on the psychology of the learning process. These are complexities which affect both staff and students.

Conclusions: global challenges?

The conclusions to be drawn from this brief exploration are in themselves 'supercomplex'. On a local level we could be doing much more within the higher education curriculum to ensure that students acquire the best possible university level education, while at the same time being able to develop the necessary 'transferable' skills to aid them (and employers) in the workplace. The introduction of the *Curriculum Review for 2008*, *CRe8*, at the University of Bedfordshire demonstrates just one way in which measures can be introduced cross-curricula to aid this process. The integration, or not, of PDP with work-based learning within foundation degrees again serves simply as one illustration of an area where the synergies between learning processes are not being exploited to the full. By having less of a preoccupation with an isolated knowledge and skills agenda (Barnett and Coate, 2005) and more of a concern with how new knowledge can be created and applied, 'employability' skills of students could be further enhanced to assist them in facing the demands of sustainable employment in the global workplace. This would serve to address the concerns of employers,

> 'Employers rank employability skills…as the most important factor…although these skills have traditionally been given low priority in many degree courses'.
>
> (CBI, 2009: 29)

In the UK, a large proportion of employers believe that universities must do much more than at present to prioritise work experience and placements in undergraduate programmes (CBI, 2009: 30). The value of well-constructed learning in the workplace must be fully recognised as an equal if different type of higher learning. This may present challenges to the traditional values of the academy and to the sanctity of subject specific knowledge, but it is increasingly important to both students and employers,

> 'Employers are … clear about the value-added benefit to students who have gained work experience by the time they graduate. More than half (54%) list it as one of the most important factors they look for when recruiting graduates. Work experience helps sharpen students' focus on the importance of employability skills and gives them the chance to develop these in a practical context' (CBI, 2009: 29)

The conclusions identified in the 2006 research (Corkill, 2006) were summarised under two headings – confusion and missed opportunity. The lack of linking of PDP processes, as opposed to products, with work-based learning probably also stems from confusion – a double piece of confusion: uncertainty as to what PDP really entails and also confusion as to how this has any meaningful relation to constructing work-based learning. Were research to be carried out in 2009/10 among a similar sample, it would be interesting to speculate what might have changed. The understanding of work-based learning may well have moved on in the interim, and certainly a new Quality Assurance Agency Code of practice has been introduced to take account of such advances (QAA, 2007).

To ensure that higher education does have 'joined up thinking' and where appropriate, can make the necessary changes to the undergraduate curriculum, does call for a 'step-change' in thinking (Leitch, 2006). Perhaps it does not matter whether the hen or the egg comes first, as long as they effectively work together to produce the desired result.

> 'Preparing our students for a lifetime of working, learning and living in uncertain and unpredictable worlds that have yet to be revealed is perhaps one of the greatest responsibilities and challenges confronting universities all over the world' (Kumar, 2007: xi)

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 Mestrius Plutarchus, born 46AD
 from Barnett, 2000.
 Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) 2007/8 data
 Jackson, 2007, xiii
 The University of Bedfordshire was founded in August 2006 following the merger of the former
University of Luton with the Bedford campus of De Montfort University

 HYPERLINK "http://www.beds.ac.uk/bridgescetl/" http://www.beds.ac.uk/bridgescetl/
 HE – Higher Education
 Foundation degrees are part of the higher education system in England, Wales and Northern Ireland
only, with some differences in transfer arrangements within Northern Ireland. Scotland operates a
different system of higher education which currently only exceptionally includes foundation degrees.
 Bachelor degrees in England, Wales and Northern Ireland are given a credit value of 360 credits:
foundation degrees carry a value of 240 credits (respectively 180 and 120 European credits under the
Bologna agreement)
 Unpublished research data, fdf (Foundation Degree Forward), 2009
 Level 4 represents the first level of study for a bachelors degree. In a full-time award, it would
normally be equivalent to the first year.
 HYPERLINK "http://www.beds.ac.uk/aboutus/tandl/curriculum/CRe8"
http://www.beds.ac.uk/aboutus/tandl/curriculum/CRe8
 HYPERLINK "http://www.beds.ac.uk/aboutus/tandl/curriculum/structures/cre8/soar-summary.doc"
http://www.beds.ac.uk/aboutus/tandl/curriculum/structures/cre8/soar-summary.doc

"Soft" policy implementation in the curriculum reform:

What are teachers' perceptions?[1]

Paper presented at The Asian Conference on Education, 24-25 October, 2009

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Abstract

The use of "soft" methods is a new approach to curriculum and implementation in Hong Kong where schools and teachers are supposed to take more responsibility for student learning when they are given flexible measures of support and coordination. Carried with a character of non-binding, "soft" policy is designed for multilevel systems of governance where there is relative autonomy at different levels of collective decision-making. The present study explored how "soft" policy has been realized in the recent large-scale curriculum reform in Hong Kong, in particular, how school teachers perceived these "soft" methods in their school contexts.

Introduction

"Soft" policy is a new concept that emerged from the field of studies in international law and international relations. Researchers in education have borrowed the concept to analyse government policies on the implementation of curriculum reforms. In a practical sense, "soft" policy is used to govern multi-level systems with a view to attaining considerable outcomes of the set policy. With major changes in the education system and curriculum in Asian countries during the new era, the new concept of "soft" policy has found a place for implementation aiming for better chances of success.

The use of "soft" policy has become the major trend of policy implementation in Hong Kong where the education system has shifted dramatically since the change of sovereignty from Britain to China in 1997. This shift has been accompanied by a major change in the school curriculum, the so called "Learning to Learn" reform (Curriculum Development Council, 2001). The shift was provoked by the government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) pursuing policies to align education with the needs of a "knowledge based" economy. Under the current policy, various

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[1] The research reported here was funded as a Competitive Earmarked Research Grant by the Research Grants Council of Hong Kong. The views expressed here are those of the author and not the funding body. This paper is based on work-in-progress and should not be referenced or cited without the author's permission.

kinds of resources, termed as "soft" measures", are allocated to the schools and teachers from the central government for implementation of the new curriculum at school and classroom levels.   In contrast to the past, where "hard" policy was the major policy used, these "soft" measures certainly have an important impact on schools and teachers.

The present study aims to discover the "soft" measures used by the government in the "Learning to learn" reform, and find out how these "soft" measures" are perceived by teachers.

The use of "hard" and "soft" policy in the curriculum reform

Traditionally, research on implementation policy models has analyzed educational innovation as either "top-down" or "bottom-up" (Sabatier, 1986). Neither of these approaches, however, is wholly adequate for understanding the implementation process. Recently policy has been conceptualized as "hard" and "soft" and this has implications for the way implementation issues are viewed.

Drawing from the fields of international law or international relations (Abbott & Snidal, 2000) and the policy analysis in relation to European Union Policy (Ahonen, 2001; Torenvlied & Akkerman, 2004), "hard" and "soft" policy approaches are now commonly used to consider multi-level systems of governance.   "Hard" policy refers to the use of legal structures to enforce compliance, and carries the threat of sanctions such as directives and regulations. "Soft" policy, on the other hand, denotes the use of non-binding instruments like guidelines, informational devices or voluntary agreements, and there are no enforcement or compliance mechanisms (Cini, 2001; Torenvlied & Akkerman, 2004). "Soft" policies are one of the distinctive features of policy implementation where there are multiple layers of collective decision making, and are considered as efficient means to coordinate policies across these multiple layers.

The application of "hard" and "soft" concepts to analyze current curriculum reform is relatively new, but has received attention in the field.   Chan, Kennedy and Fok (2008a) contended that "hard" and "soft" policy implementations were closely related to their respective educational contexts:

In the real context, the adoption of "hard" and "soft" policy depends on the nature of the structures of the system and the contextual factors of the society as well. For example, in the case of Hong Kong where the colonial regime utilized top-down bureaucratic structures, "hard" policy" fitted well. On the other hand, an increasingly complex, decentralized and open system suggests that "soft" policy would be a better option.   (Chan, Kennedy & Fok, 2008a, p.137)

However, the shift from "hard" to "soft" policy in the real implementation seemed difficult for the policy makers and implementers.   The most significant factor for implementation is the frontline teachers who are assumed to take an active role in the new curriculum reform by flexibly using allocated funds for effective teaching and learning.   However, teachers' roles were expected to be passive during the colonial period when "hard" policy was implemented (Chan, Kennedy & Chan, 2008a). Without filling the transitional gap from "hard" to "soft" policy by providing relevant contexts for teachers' professional participation in the curriculum reforms, the sudden shift of policy from "hard" to "soft" in a relatively short span of time has been in fact quite difficult.   The difficulties for "soft" policy were noted in a study on teachers' perception of "soft" policy by Chan, Kennedy and Fok (2008b).   It was found in the study that "soft" policy was ill perceived by the front line teachers. School teachers perceived that they had no choice but to implement changes according to the centralized reform, or their schools would be penalized by having a bad public image of refusing to innovate. This would in turn influence parental choice, and eventually the schools could experience decreased student enrolment and a consequent cut in government funding.   Similarly, studies by Fok, Kennedy and Chan (2005, 2008) revealed that "soft" policy formulated by the government was negatively perceived as "hard" policy by the teachers.   The results of the studies reflected that there was a gap between the perceptions of school personnel and the government, revealing an underestimation of the government policy in use.

The "soft" methods and classifications

It is of interest for investigators to search what and how "soft" policy is used in the government context. Ahonen (2001) argued that there has been no systematic analysis of 'soft' methods.   He tried to fill this gap by proposing three different methods of 'soft' policy making: namely, "regulative", "redistributive" and "allocative". These characteristically different methods are used in various processes generating effects from "stronger" to "weaker" (2001, p.2). A summary of this typology, with some adaptations, is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Ahonen's typology of soft policy-making methods with adaptations

Method of 'soft' policy making	Communication Process	Approximate strength of each method/process		
		Stronger	*Intermediate*	*Weaker*
Regulative (conveys agreements that will affect users)	*Structural*	Soft law is institutionalised	Institutionalised standardisation, some benchmarking and evaluation mechanisms	Recommendations are institutionalised
	Two-way	*	Standards Some evaluations	Charters
	One-way	Soft law	General guidelines Some benchmarks Reference indicators, other indicators Some evaluations	Recommendations
Redistributive (targets users to influence and persuade)	*Structural*	Binding accreditation mechanisms	Some accreditation and benchmarking mechanisms Institutionalised expert exchange	*
	Two-way	Some accreditations	Some accreditations; Some benchmarks; Expert exchange	*
	One-way	Some accreditations; Incentives to the recipients to share information	Some benchmarks; Scoreboards, league tables; Unilateral secondment of experts	*
Allocative (increases the quality and quantity of information available)	*Structural*	*	Framework programming of activities; Observatories; Some international organisations;	Information networks with contact points; Information gateways

			Advisory committees and working groups	
	Two-way	*	Interest group dialogue; Consultation of Stakeholders; Work of advisory committees and working groups; Work of consortia in framework programmes	Peer reviews; Citizen dialogue; Information Exchange; Conferences, seminars, colloquia, round tables, symposia etc
	One-way	Incentives given by subsidies for recipients to acquire or generate information	Monitoring Observatory activities Certain types of; applied research; Programmed research, development, education and training	Self-evaluations; Dissemination activities; Unilateral acquisition of information

(Based on Ahonen, 2001, pp 4-5)

The typology is useful for analyzing the current situation of the large-scale curriculum reform operating in Hong Kong since 2001. Compared with the education reforms adopted in previous decades, the present government has now provided much more substantial support for reform (Education Commission, 2002, 2003, 2004). These substantial supports, termed as "measures and resources," significantly differ from the previous government's top-down policy. The Commission states clearly that a new policy has been employed in the reform, in particular to address local school contexts and offer support to local needs as far as possible (Curriculum Development Council, 2001, p. 99).

"We are especially aware of the concerns of teachers about the know-how to carry out the reforms and the workload which this will involve. Instead of the top-down linear model of "syllabus-teacher-training-inspection" used in the past, we recommend the following measures

and resources, which are flexible and diverse enough to suit the different needs of teachers and the varying contexts of schools." (Curriculum Development Council, 2001, p.99)

In essence, the "measures and support" provided to schools and teachers are stipulated in various coordination units at different levels of the system.

⇨ Systematic and community level – curriculum guides, examination reforms, curriculum bank, textbook review, learning and teaching resources, local and international consultancies, dissemination strategies and networks.

⇨ School level – on-site school-based support, collaborative research and development projects, library development, dissemination strategies and networks, partnership amongst all parties.

⇨ Teacher level – professional development programmes for teachers and principals, on-site school-based support, creation of time and space for teachers, dissemination strategies and networks.

⇨ Student level – making use of the "space" of learning.

(Curriculum Development Council, 2001, p.99)

Of these supports and resources provided to the schools, some are redistributive, i.e. to influence target users through distribution of information, while some are allocative, i.e. to increase the quality and quantity of information available (Ahonen, 2001, p.5). Kennedy, Chan and Fok (2006) used Ahonen's typology to analyze the "measures" provided by the Hong Kong Government according to the nature and strength of the 'soft' policy instruments as shown in the following table.

Table 2: 'Soft' methods used in the "*Learning to learn*" reform

'Soft' methods	Variety of 'soft' methods	Structural / one-way/ two-way	stronger	Inter-mediate	Weaker
Re-distributive	● Curriculum guides	Structural	✓		
	● Curriculum bank of authentic exemplars	one-way		✓	
	● Textbooks	Structural	✓		
	● Develop Learning and teaching materials (guidebooks, multi-media packages, CD ROM curriculum planners.	one-way		✓	

Allocative	● All concerned parties will collaborate with tertiary institutions to disseminate good practices	two-way		✓	
	● Seed projects	one-way			✓
	● Professional development programmes for teachers and principals	two-way			✓
	● Examples of strategies to support library development	one-way			✓
	● On-site advice to help schools to develop school-based curriculum	two-way			✓
	● Creating time and space for teachers, e.g. Capacity Enhancement Grant	one-way			✓
	● Dissemination and networking – e.g. learning communities, sharing experiences through REOs, etc.	two-way			✓
	● Experts are invited to give advice.	one-way		✓	

Source: Kennedy, Chan and Fok (2006), p.13-14

The "measures and support" provided to schools through "soft" methods is the current trend of the government policy to motivate schools and teachers in active participation for attaining the common goals of the reform.   In reality, what are these measures and supports in schools and how are they perceived by the teachers?

Methodology

This study is part of a large-scale research project entitled "Curriculum reform as 'soft' policy implementation: Theorizing curriculum reform processes and understanding curriculum as text".   The research aim of the present study is to investigate how policy implementation processes are conceptualized and activated from local perspectives using the new theoretical

framework drawn from the larger research project.   In particular, this study focuses on the following questions:

1. What are the measures and support allocated to schools by the government

   through "soft" methods?
2. How do teachers perceive these "soft" methods?

A broad range of qualitative methods was used to collect data, including interviews and documentary analysis. This range of research methods was necessary in order to triangulate and verify data from different sources.   The qualitative data were managed and analyzed by a data management tool, N-vivo.

Three local primary schools participated in the study.   Their participation was initiated by sending invitation letters to the schools.   Team researchers then visited the participating schools and conducted semi-structured interviews in the school contexts.   From each participating school, two school policy makers and two front line teachers participated in the interviews, making up a total of 12 interviews in this study.   The interviews were based on an interview guide, and each interview lasted approximately 45 to 60 minutes.   The interview data were then transcribed and the transcriptions were sent to the interviewees for checking and confirmation.   The transcribed data were then coded and analyzed.

Table 3: Backgrounds of the three primary schools and teachers in the study

School / mode of subsidy	Location of school	Teacher interviewed	Background of teacher
School S / government subsidized	New Territories	Miss Au	Department head of English, subject teacher of English & Religious Studies.
		Miss Chan	Subject teacher of Chinese, Physical Education and Mathematics
School T / government subsidized	Hong Kong Island	Miss Yu	Department head and subject teacher of Chinese
		Miss Cheung	Department head and subject teacher of English
School L / government subsidized	Kowloon Peninsula	Mr. Leung	School librarian, Department head and subject teacher of Mathematics
		Miss Chow	Subject teacher of English and

			Visual Art

Findings and discussions

It was stated in the reform documents that the government would provide local schools with various measures and support (e.g. Curriculum Development Council, 2001). It is interesting to examine what these real measures and support are in the school contexts and how these measures and support are perceived by the teachers. From the interview data, the following themes emerged:

1. "Many reforms in our schools are derived from the government documents"
    Since the large-scale curriculum reform was launched in schools, the principals and teachers have continuously adopted different kinds and scales of innovations in their schools. These school innovations were actually drawn from major government documents such as "Learning to learn" (Curriculum Development Council, 2001,) including the four key tasks as mentioned in the documents; i.e. Moral and Civic Education, Reading to Learn, Project Learning and Using Information Technology. These initiatives stated in the government documents were followed closely by the schools in their adoption of various school-based curriculum changes.

    "Firstly we have to follow the instructions from the central government about curriculum innovations. Whenever there is something new from the EMB (Education & Manpower Bureau), we have to follow up the change in our school (Miss Au, School S, interview)

    Although schools were free to choose their own innovations that best suited their own school contexts, schools seldom followed their own way in adopting initiatives that were not mentioned in the central government document. In terms of resources, schools would often be allocated funds for trying out the new innovations in alignment with the central documents. Extra funding was therefore a strategy of the central policy used for attracting local schools to innovate and move towards the major goals of the centralized reform. Indeed, the government documents served as the "redistributive soft method," with a strong to intermediate effect designed to coordinate changes at school levels.

2. "There is not much information for us regarding how many resources we have and how this is allocated"
    While the schools received various resources and funds from the central government, the allocation of resources to internal units of the school was decided by the principals and middle-management. Front line teachers usually did not know where the resources came from, and what constituted the principles of allocation of these resources within the school.

"Usually the school administrators, i.e. the principal and the school management team made the decision for the school-based innovations. Sometimes there is influence from the school supervisors for decision making as well. After the decision has been made, the principal will put these ideas into concrete plans and then discuss with the teaching staff during staff meetings." (Miss Chan, School S, interview)

From decision making to concrete planning of school-based innovations, front line teachers did not receive any information about the situation of school decisions, the rationales for innovations and principles for allocating resources to certain changes in the schools. The teachers did not have a comprehensive view of what and how the school innovations would be supported. They only knew they would receive resources from time to time, and would then work on the assigned school innovations with the allocated resources.

3. "We do not know what it really means in the curriculum guidelines"

Although there were plenty of government documents for schools' reference, teachers did not know how to put them into practice. To the teachers, these documents seemed abstract and theoretical. Moreover, teachers felt that these documents were tedious, and they had no interest in reading through the contents.

"I think that "Learning to learn" (government reform document) is quite abstract and difficult to put into real practice. Although there are some examples given in the Curriculum Guides, there are still a lot of gaps to be filled by the teachers if it is to be adopted." (Miss Cheung, School T, interview).

On the whole, teachers did not consider the government documents as helpful to their work. Moreover, teachers were confused when the government documents were translated differently by various government officials.

4. "Direct money resources allocated to the subject departments help facilitating teaching and learning"

Teachers welcomed resources that they could flexibly use to enrich classroom teaching and learning. Some schools would directly allocate certain amounts of money to different subject departments of the schools. In this way, teachers could purchase teaching aids needed for various teaching activities without going through tedious application procedures. In practice, schools would ask the subject departments to set a yearly budget for the activities planned for that year. If the budget was approved, the departments would use the money to spend on planned activities and the claimed money would be reimbursed based on documentary evidence.

"There is budget for yearly planning in each subject department. Normally the school management can provide us the budgeted money for our yearly planning. For me, the money is quite okay for conducting the planned activities." (Miss Yu, School T, interview)

Other than that, one of the government purposes concerning the allocated resources to schools was to "create more time and space" for teachers. Schools normally used the funding to employ more staff to reduce teachers' loads. In general, teachers welcomed these measures and supports, although they did not exactly know which category of the government funding was in use.

5. "Support from external organization or personnel is often helpful"

Teachers were usually positive toward external organizations or personnel that helped facilitate classroom teaching and learning. In general, this external help came from expertise needed by the schools, such as native speakers of English and Putonghua (Mandarin) for creating suitable language context in the classrooms.

"We have employed two teaching assistants for Putonghua (Mandarin) teaching since last year. They are native speakers (in Putonghua / Mandarin) and usually co-teach with the Chinese language teachers. They also help to organize interest groups for students to learn Putonghua." (Miss Yu, School T, interview).

6. "Seminars and workshops might be helpful"

Teachers found the centralized organized seminars and workshops fairly helpful for understanding the initiatives of the reform. Compared to reading the tedious government reform documents, teachers preferred attending these seminars and workshops for obtaining a quick understanding of the centralized theme from the officials in a relatively short period of time. Other than that, teachers did not find these one-off seminars and workshops personally useful. They preferred more in-depth seminars and workshops that were organized into a series.

"I think that the one-off kind of workshops or seminars cannot help much. It will certainly be better if these seminars and workshops can be organized in series." (Mr Leung, School L, interview).

7. "School-University partnership is helpful"

Teachers seemed to have positive attitudes towards the school-university partnerships organized in their schools. They perceived that the scheme had provided them with the opportunities for in-service professional development.

"Last year we had tutors from the local university to help us. They asked us about the most difficult parts of mathematics teaching. Then we worked together (on the problems) in preparing

lessons, observing each other's lessons and discussing after lessons. (Mr. Leung, School L, interview)

If teachers could benefit from school-university partners in teaching, they would certainly welcome this help from the scheme.

8.   "On-site school-based support might be helpful"
Sometimes schools would receive on-site school-based support from the central

"Last year the EMB (Education and Manpower Bureau) officials offered help to us on the new initiative of "project learning" launched in our school. They introduced an expert in "project learning" to us and then we worked together. During that period they came regularly to observe our work and students' work." (Miss Yu, School T, interview)

Usually teachers welcomed the on-site school support, but were uncomfortable in working together with the government officials, which they perceived as possible surveillance from the government.

9.   "We survive by keeping these school innovations rolling"
Although teachers welcomed most of the measures and support from the government, they were negative towards the extra work accompanying these resources and support. Strictly speaking, teachers saw they had to spend more time and energy on these allocated resources once they received them. Although teachers seemed to be reluctant to accept the resources and support, they and the school they were serving were required to take on the innovations suggested by the central reform. In order to survive, teachers had to use these measures and support to keep the innovations rolling in their schools. The dilemma was that the more allocated funds that teachers received, the more effort they had to make.

"To a certain extent, teachers are burdened. Maybe they feel that the work is necessary and yet they also feel that the work is extra for them. We would like to ask – why do we have to work so hard in addition to our normal teaching?" (Miss Au, School S, interview)

Since 1997 when the new government of Hong Kong came to rule, their use of "soft" policy to motivate schools to innovate their curriculum has obviously been an important move. Generally speaking, it is a good policy implementation for promoting the adoption of such large-scale and complex curriculum reform in schools. No doubt the government has played an important role in initiating and coordinating the work of various organizations at different levels through a range of

"soft" measures and support offered to schools and the community in large.   To the schools and teachers, however, these supports were not entirely helpful.

According to Ahonen's (2001) classification of 'soft' methods, the methods used by the Hong Kong Government varied from "regulative soft methods" to "redistributive soft methods" and "allocative soft methods".   The "regulative soft methods" included those measures on evaluations of student and school achievements with preset indicators.   In general, schools perceived that the evaluation results would have implications for future development of the schools; e.g. downsizing of classes or chartering of the school.   On the other hand, "redistributive soft methods" and "allocative soft methods" were largely used in the form of dissemination materials through government guidelines, textbooks, exemplars, as well as various kinds of resources and support available to the schools and teachers.   These methods were mostly welcomed by the teachers and seemed helpful to classroom teaching and learning.   Particularly, teachers welcomed methods that were most practical to their classrooms, especially those in the category of "allocative soft methods".   On the other hand, teachers seemed to be reluctant to receive these "allocative" sources of support as they were burdened with innovations in their schools.

On the whole, the various "soft" methods employed by the government have driven the schools and teachers to work towards the goals of the curriculum reform. However, the government should also be alert to the teachers' workloads and morale at work.   In most cases, teachers were burdened because their schools aimed to implement every innovation as stated in the reform, and they had to keep up with all the initiatives started in their schools.   If the effectiveness of schools were to be judged by the number of innovations taken, then the "soft methods" would not be considered as good policy for implementation.

Conclusion

This study has shown that the "soft" policy implemented by the government of Hong Kong has initiated curriculum reform and driven teachers' work in local schools.   Since teachers have felt much burdened by taking care of the various innovations adopted in their schools, the policy seems to have brought frustration to the teachers.   It is time for the government to examine the various conditions and contexts that the schools and teachers are now facing, and reconsider how these "soft methods" can be tailored so as to safeguard the successful implementation of the policy.

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Gender differences in the dissolution and loss of key relationships

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ABSTRACT

A sample of 200 at risk Chamorro adolescents were surveyed with the Family Crisis Scale to measure the prevalence of loss in the past year. This at risk group had significantly higher frequencies when compared with a non conflicted sample. The conflicted males and females both shared the same top 3 categories of loss. A case is made for understanding how threats to the coherence of the family and embedded sorrow influence conflicted developmental paths.

INTRODUCTION

Alyssa Rheingold's landmark study (2004) initiated the inquiry into the prevalence of loss experienced by adolescents on the mainland, United States. Her sample of 4,000 adolescents produced baseline frequencies of loss in this age group with the accompanying observation that "there is very little understanding about the impact loss has on adolescent development" (p. 2).

The inquiry into adolescent loss in this region of the world, the Marianas and Micronesian Islands, was systematically initiated by a series of studies generated several years ago by Kane (2005), Kane and De Oro (2006), Kane and Garrido (2007) and Biggin and Kane (2009). These studies not only looked at the patterns of loss in specific sub samples of adolescents and young adults on the island of Guam but likewise attempted to respond to Rheingold's (2004) query into the vagaries of loss on the adolescent's psychological development.

In this study, aspects of Kane and Garrido's (2006) sample of "at risk" adolescents displaying oppositional and conduct disordered traits were surveyed with the Family Crisis Scale (Kane, 2005) to reveal the most frequent categories of loss and attachment traumas experienced in the previous year. While the categories of loss were the same for both males and females the frequencies of loss were not in the same order.

Implications of these results are discussed following an overview of the recent relevant literature in this region and a description of the Family Crisis Scale.

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

While Rheingold's (2004) position held that very little is understood regarding the relationship of loss and adolescent development on the mainland it is clear that prior to 2006, there were no similar studies conducted in this region of the world.

In (2006), Kane and De Oro examined persistence patterns of non traditional high school dropouts attempts at securing a high school diploma at Guam Community College. Using the Family Crisis Scale each of the 60 respondents were able to identify a pattern of losses they experienced in the previous year and to "rank order" all 9 items of loss from the scale. Their participation resulted in the Chamorro Family Crisis Scale and led DeOro and Kane (2007) to provide these "at risk" learners opportunities to scaffold successful coping responses to loss in the past year to present attempts at handling adult responsibilities to secure their diplomas. The Chamorro Family Crisis Scale likewise demonstrated differences when compared to the mainland Family Crisis Scale with "a move has occurred but not all family members included" – representing deployment for military families on Guam, and "a terminal illness/injury of a family member" – representing anticipatory grief preceding death of a loved one. Both of these indicators were ranked higher or, more serious for Chamorros when compared with the mainland Family Crisis Scale ranking.

Kane and Garrido (2007) surveyed 200 "at risk" adolescents at an alternative middle and high school on the island of Guam. This "at risk" group had displayed a pattern of oppositional and/or conduct disordered behaviors in the past year which resulted in their referral to this alternative program.

Their study was the first attempt to replicate Rheingold's (2004) study in this region of the world and provided data in response to her research questions which included the following:

- What percentage of adolescents experienced the death of family member in the previous year?
- What percentage of adolescents experienced the death of a friend in the previous year?
- What percentage of adolescents reported both family and friend deaths in previous year?

They likewise added Rheingold's recommendations to glean an understanding of the "closeness" of the lost relationship and whether the loss was sudden or expected. Their results indicated that overall, the "at risk" adolescents experiences of loss on Guam exceeded the mainland adolescent's experience of loss, with Guam females demonstrating higher levels of stress in response to the death of a friend when compared to their male peers.

Following up on these results Garrido and Kane (2008) likewise went ahead to promote a death curriculum for "at risk" adolescents in alternative settings and prompted the suggestion that the notion of embedded sorrow be considered and included in the composition of variables to account for the development of oppositional and conduct disorders for adolescents in this region.

The construct of embedded sorrow was furthered developed by Kane (2009) in an paper entitled "Mariana's Lament" to portray disruptions in the Chamorro family structure in the past 60 years to argue that oppositional/conduct patterns be viewed as short term developmental occurrences with questionable reliability in predicting later adult antisocial behavioral patterns. In this paper unique Chamorro structures of the family and culture to include the elevation of the female in the Catholic context and matrilineal lines of honor and respect are portrayed as mitigating factors on the expected progression of conduct to antisocial behaviors for these troubled youths on Guam.

Most recently (2009) Biggin and Kane studied young adults at the University of Guam to examine the pattern of losses they experienced in the previous year. While the patterns of loss were not as elevated as Garrido and Kane's (2006) conflicted sample these university students frequencies of loss still exceed Rheingold's (20004) mainland sample.

Altogether it is becoming clearer that adolescents and young adults on Guam, conflicted or not, are likely to experience elevated patterns of loss in their lives. Another study in progress includes an examination of the efficacy of the frequency of attachment traumas and loss as a sufficient and reliable variable identifying a path leading to conduct and antisocial behaviors.

The following section focuses on the Family Crisis Scale (Kane, 2005) which was used to collect data to compare both conflicted and non-conflicted samples. For the conflicted sample, gender difference was investigated as well as the ranking of the most frequent losses identified by the males and females in the previous year.

THE CURRENT STUDY: ATTACHMENT TRAUMA AND FAMILY CRISIS

1.   The Family Crisis

Scale (FCS) was modeled after the Holmes-Rahe Social Readjustment scale which appeared in the Journal of Psychosomatic Research, (1967). While the Holmes-Rahe scale contains 43 stress generating variables, the (FCS) is comprised of only those stressors that occur within the context of the family and consequently has 9 items. A modified version of the (FCS) is shown below:

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                          The Family Crisis Scale                              │
│                                                                               │
│   1.   Family moved – all family members moved together                       │
│                                                                               │
│   2.    Someone in the family has worry, concern, problem creating            │
│         psychological distress                                                 │
│                                                                               │
│   3.   Someone in the family left for a while – temporary separation of       │
│        family member –  deployment, job opportunity, going to college         │
│                                                                               │
│   4.   Family member loses job or status at work – change in socio-economic   │
│        status – threat to financial stability                                  │
│                                                                               │
│   5.   Threatening illness / injury to family member – but  will recover      │
│                                                                               │
│   6.   Terminal illness / injury which will result in death to immediate and  │
│        extended family member                                                  │
│                                                                               │
│   7.   Threatened dissolution of the family – threats of divorce, separation, │
│        abandonment.  Also indicates chronic conflict, sometimes violence and  │
│        unharmonious atmosphere                                                 │
│                                                                               │
│   8.   Separation – divorce – abandonment occurs sometimes including both     │
│        geographical and emotional distancing                                   │
│                                                                               │
│   9.   Death of family member                                                  │
│                                                                               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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The items in the (FCS) are likewise considered attachment traumas because, regardless of their ranking for severity, they all represent an interruption in the quality of the bond or the actual dissolution or loss of the family bond itself.

The FCS was administered to 200 conflicted adolescents at an alternative middle and high school on the island of Guam. and 150 non-conflicted adolescents in the Guam public schools. To determine any significant differences between the conflicted and non-conflicted groups, an independent t-test was used. The table below and the graph that follows it show where the significant differences occurred.

Table 1: Differences between Conflicted and Non-conflicted Samples

No.	Item Description	Mean	t-value	Sig.
1	Family movement	C: 08.30 N: 04.13	4.33	.000*
2	Psychological distress in a family member	C: 25.30 N: 15.84	4.08	.000*
3	Someone in the family left for a while	C: 12.76 N: 09.86	1.91	.057
4	Threat to financial stability	C: 23.97 N: 08.77	6.78	.000*
5a	Threatening illness to immediate family member	C: 17.23 N: 13.07	1.62	.107
5b	Threatening illness to extended family member	C: 25.22 N: 22.53	0.96	.338
6a	Terminal illness / injury to immediate family member	C; 09.12 N: 02.66	3.63	.000*

6b	Terminal illness / injury to extended family member	C: 17.44 N: 08.21	3.84	.000*
7	Threatened dissolution of the family	C: 22.30 N:15.05	2.42	.016**
8a	Separation, divorce, abandonment in the immediate family	C: 15.87 N: 06.90	3.36	.001*
8b	Separation, divorce, abandonment in the extended family	C: 11.76 N: 08.40	1.40	.163
9a	Death in the immediate family	C: 06.83 N: 02.60	2.41	.017**
9b	Death in the extended family	C: 43.93 N: 31.41	3.87	.000*
9c	Death of a friend	C: 14.62 N: 09.37	2.85	.005*

*p<.01   **p<.05
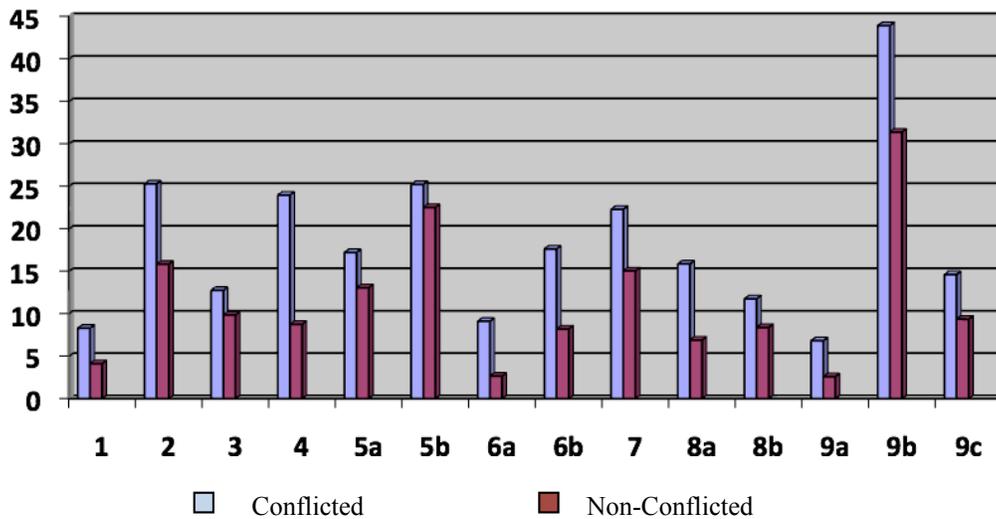
Figure 2: Means of the Conflicted and Non-conflicted Samples

The significant differences between the conflicted and non-conflicted samples are found in items 1, 2, 4, 6a, 6b. 7, 8a, 9a, 9b and 9c. The three items with large differences are item 4 (threat to financial stability) with mean difference of 15.2, 9b (death in the extended family) with a mean difference of 12.52, and item 2 (psychological distress in the family) with mean difference of 9.46.

Since there more incidents of crisis reported by the conflicted group, the study focused on the gender difference in this group. There were 144 males and 56 females representing the following ethnic groups on Guam - 80% Chamorro, 18% Filipino, 1.5% Micronesian and 0.5% other ethnicity. The data collected from these respondents were subjected to an independent t-test to determine significant gender differences. Of the nine items of the FCS, only two obtained significant t values – item 7 and item 8.

Item 7 had a t value of 2.91, p<.005. This significant t value is attributed to the means of male (18.46) and female (33.15). Item 7 refers to the threatened dissolution of the family, such as threats of divorce, separation, abandonment. Item 7 also indicates chronic conflict, sometimes violence and unharmonious atmosphere in the family. The females in this study had more traumatic experiences of threatened family dissolution and consequently more emotionally affected than their male counterpart.

Item 8 obtained a significant t value of 2.48, p<.016. This is due to the large difference in the means of male (12.15) and female (25.50). Item 8 is very much related to item 7. In item 8 a break in relationship occurs due to separation, divorce and abandonment resulting in geographical and emotional distancing of family members. Both item 7 (threatened family dissolution) and item 8 (actual separation of family members) are traumatizing events that may lead to psychological morbidity in the future.

Figure 3 below shows the difference between the conflicted males and females in this study.
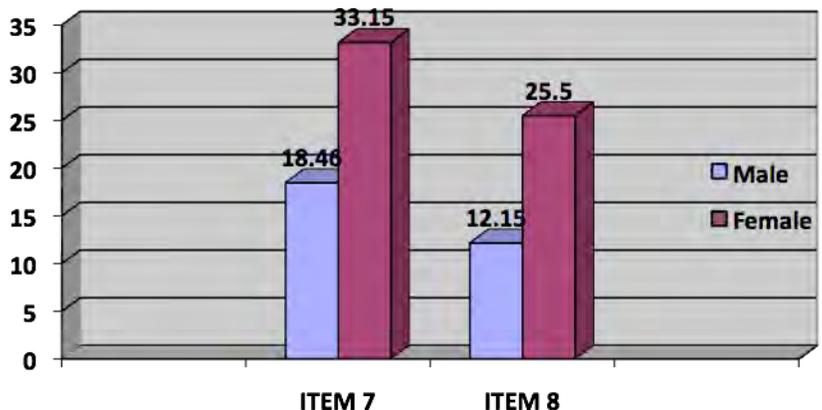
Figure 3: Means of Males and Females in the Significant Items

Although males and females in this study differed significantly in items 7 and 8, the most frequent categories of loss experienced in the previous year did not include items 7 and 8. While the categories of loss were the same for both males and females the frequencies of loss were not in the same order. The table that follows shows this.

Table 2: Frequency of Occurrence in the Different Categories of Loss

Gender	1	2	3	4	5a	5b	6a	6b	7	8a	8b	9a	9b	9c
M	62	91	72	83	51	76	23	53	48	28	31	14	107	59
F	23	28	19	72	17	23	11	13	25	17	9	8	36	22

Male	Female
1st – 9b (Death of extended family member)	1st – 4 (Loss of financial stability)
2nd – 2 (Psychological distress)	2nd - 9b (Death of extended family member)
3rd - 4 (Loss of financial stability)	3rd – 2 (Psychological distress)

Both males and females had items 2, 4 and 9b as the most frequently occurring events of loss in their lives. Of these top three items, item 9: Death of a family member (extended family member for 9b) was the most frequent event that happened among the male respondents. This item was second in frequency of occurrence among females. Item 4 for females was the most frequently occurring event. This was third among the males. The item refers to loss of status experienced by the family members which are manifested in such forms as loss of job, demotion, change in socio-economic standing and threat to family well being due to loss of financial stability. Item 2 was second for males and third for females in terms of frequency of losses. In this item, the family member experiences a developmental obstacle, anxiety, depression, identity conflict, developmental issues and psychological stress.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study has been to measure the exposure of loss and attachment traumas in a sample of adolescent youth from the island of Guam. The participants were predominantly Chamorro. The Chamorro ethnic heritage is comprised of a mixture of Micronesian, Filipino, Hispanic and Asian lines. Rheingold's et al. (2004) study was used as a template to compare cross cultural patterns of family loss and attachment traumas between western adolescents on the mainland, United States with these Pacific Island youths on the island of Guam. The current study also investigated stress and patterns of loss between a conflicted Chamorro group identified as having oppositional and conduct characteristics with a comparable sample of non conflicted Chamorro adolescents showing no evidence of a history of disruptive behaviors.

Overall the exposure of loss and attachment traumas experienced by the Chamorro conflicted group greatly exceeded the prevalence of loss experienced by mainland adolescents in the states. And closer inspection to the patterns of loss, attachment traumas and stress levels of the Chamorro sample revealed that the categories of loss from the Family Crisis Scale that were frequently experienced were identical for conflicted males and females. They included death of an extended family member, change in financial security of one or both parents and one or more family members experiences significant personal problem (worry, anxiety, depression) but not in the same order.

And in keeping with the troubling nature of the conflicted group, when compared with their non-conflicted peers they demonstrated more frequencies of loss and attachment traumas in the previous year. Ten of 14 loss indicators were significant in favor of the conflicted group. Of these 10, three obtained large mean differences. They were family death, financial insecurity and a family member struggles with a personal worry. They were the same loss indicators experienced more often by conflicted males and females. These three losses or attachment traumas represent a) "death" – loss of the relationship and loss of love, b) "financial" – loss of family competency to maintain material security and c) "personal worries of family member" – loss of relationship. Likewise these losses and traumas are beyond the control of the adolescent. There is nothing or very little he/she can do to restore or repair the loss of love and the relationship that death brings, or the livelihood of family prosperity or the resolution of a family member's personal dilemma. These are beyond the adolescent's grasp, his/her means and the level of his/her cognitive capacity to organize a fruitful plan for resolution.

And along with these three key loss indicators in the past year, when these troubled youth are compared with their non conflicted peers on the remaining (FCS) variables, they have likewise experienced significantly higher frequencies of:

    #1 : The family moves
    #6a: Terminal illness / injury immediate family member
    #6b: Terminal illness / injury extended family member
    #7 : Threatened dissolution of the family
    #8a: Separation, divorce, abandonment
    #9a: Death in the immediate family
    #9c: Death of a friend

And, while a comparison with non conflicted adolescents regarding Family Crisis Scale losses revealed significant differences on 10 of 14 loss indicators, female sensitivity to the threat of family dissolution by separation or divorce and/or the direct experience of the dissolution contrasted their over representation when compared to their male "at risk" peers. Suggestions as to why this may be so were summarized by Kane and Garrido (2006):

> "In a study conducted by Petersen and White (1991), results indicated that females are more strongly
> affected than boys in terms of negative family affectivity. For example females reported higher
> levels of stress in response to a divorce between their parents. According to these researchers female
> vulnerability to negative family affectivity might be explained by the fact that:
>
> • "females are raised with a heightened sensitivity to family life" (p.8),
> • "puberty driven emotional changes occur earlier for females and with greater impact when compared to
>   males" (p. 8), and that

- "there is a decline in the affective relationship between females and parents during early adolescence particularly with father" (p. 8) which places them at a higher psychological risk." (p.3)

What is becoming clearer is that conflicted adolescents in this region of the world share a pattern of similar losses and attachment traumas. While loss is the experience of the death of family member, attachment traumas in this study are defined by the seven remaining items on the FCS. All seven of these experiences represent threats of potential family loss to varying degrees until the loss, (FCS) items 6 and 9, is experienced itself.

The compounded effects of attachment traumas vis a vis, the loss of control, loss of the relationship, loss of competency and love all within the family context are viewed as a another complicating overlay of debilitating stressors on an already considerably compromised adolescent.

Altogether and in conclusion this study has attempted to demonstrate the connection between family loss and the development of oppositional and conduct disorders and in so doing has begun to shed light on Rheingold's (2004) query into the impact loss may have on adolescent development.

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Enhancing the first-year student learning experience through quality improvement of courses

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Abstract

The importance of the first-year experience has gained considerable attention in recent years in light of the growing evidence from studies in Australia and overseas showing a link between student engagement and retention. This research, combined with evidence of increasing student disengagement and a high level of attrition during the first-year, highlights the need for a planned and integrated approach to the design of the first-year curriculum. Such an approach provides for transition to university study, acknowledges the diversity of the first-year cohort and makes no assumptions about the "digital literacy" of the students. Despite significant research in this area however, there remains a recognised need for an integrated approach to course development and strategies for improving the quality of courses designed to enhance the first-year learning experience. This paper describes an Australian Learning and Teaching Council funded project involving the development of an online tool that provides a comprehensive approach to peer review and supports academics in the development of first-year curriculum materials. The web-based peer review system harnesses the collective wisdom of academics through communal processes involving reflective practice and the sharing of resources and exemplars. In exposing their work to such scholarly appraisal academics can also have their work affirmed and use this as evidence when seeking promotion or teaching awards.

Analyzing the International Students' Attitudes toward Online Learning

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify international students' attitudes toward online learning at the university. The sample population consisted of international students who had enrolled in at least one online course in Spring and Summer 2008 semesters at the university. In this study, the research questions addressed various subjects, and a questionnaire was used as a survey instrument to collect data from international students at the university. The researcher designed the instrument, which comprised two parts. Part I gauged students' attitudes toward online learning while Part II was related to students' demographic status. Five research questions will guide the study's objective: Does the demographic status of international students affect their participation in online courses? Do online courses satisfy international students' expectations? Do international students experience difficulties in understanding the information in online courses? Why do international students enroll in online courses? Do online courses fulfill international students' academic needs? The data revealed that there were significant relationships among students' reported attitudes and demographic variables which were gender, nationality, college, and age. Based on the results, the university has somewhat satisfied the international students who enrolled in online courses. However, while most of the international students reported neutral or negative opinions about the question item of whether or not they have enough options for online course enrollment, there is definitely room for improvement in the number and types of courses available. Future research should consider international students who did not enroll in online courses. Their general perception of or attitudes toward online instruction and why they did not enroll in online courses should be evaluated. In addition, the international students' residential status could be part of demographic variable as well.

**The Effects of Online Instruction by Co-operative Learning Activities on
Case Study of Law and Ethics in Information Technology Lessons**

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Abstract

This research aimed to construct and find the efficiency of online instruction with cooperative learning on internet network by comparing the effectiveness between pre-test and post-test online instruction cooperative learning. Also studied for students' satisfaction by using cooperative learning. The sample groups were composed of 3 universities students as follows; First group was 43 bachelor degree students (3^{rd} year students) from King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi.   The secondth group was 44 (1^{st} year students) from Naraesuan University and the third group was 25 (1^{st} year students) from Silpakorn University. The total numbers were 112 students. These groups were divided into 14 sub groups and each group was composed of 8 students; 3 persons from King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, 3 persons from Naraesuan University and 2 persons from Silpakorn University, respectively. The result of research showed that the efficiency of online instruction package got the value of E_1/E_2 equal to 80.22/84.22. The achievement by using pre-test and post-test from the activities of studying online instruction cooperative learning were found the statistical significance of 0.01. The sampling groups online instruction satisfaction with cooperative learning were rather at a high level.

Keywords : Cooperative Learning / Online Instruction / Law and Ethics In Information Technology Lessons

Background and Research Significance

In everyday life of each individual, new knowledge is the product of transferring old knowledge for the most part because no learning in our life is purely new. It must be based on more or less previous materials. According to the principles in education, instruction, curriculum and learning experiences in educational institutes, the curriculum developers and instructors hope that the learners can apply such knowledge in their daily life.

At present, the instruction is not suitable enough for learning and transferring old knowledge. The traditional approach for instruction is still based on the instructor at the center. Learners have only little roles in learning. Some learners neither understand nor have enough courage to ask the instructors or friends. This results in no motivation in learning. Therefore, a new instructional approach is needed so that learners can learn and meet all learning objectives of the course. The approach in which learners can express their opinions and have participation in learning activities in classroom is called Co-operative Learning.

Co-operative learning is a way that encourages students to learn in a co-operative manner. There will be activities which focus on the relationship among the group members according to the role of each student in such group. The characteristics of the co-operative learning are that all learners in a group will understand such topic equally and they will help one another to learn, to do assignments and finish them in time. The learners depend on one another in a positive way. That is to say, all learners realize that the success of an individual depends on the success of another in the group. Therefore, everybody must help, support and encourage one another. They will learn the skills to live in groups and do according to their responsibilities and roles. They can analyze the work done by group and improve the work to gain more effectiveness. The instructional approach which can be applied to achieve co-operative learning is problem-based learning [1].

The researchers recognized the importance of "Laws and Related Ethical Conducts about Information Technology" which played many important roles such as in education. The development of any media and any

instructional media must be based on ethical conducts during work and social ethics. This is to meet the demands of the enterprises where they need graduates who can design and create works in creative and lawful manners.

According to the principles and reasons cited above, the researchers decided to study and develop co-operative learning through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology. This was a co-operative learning through internet network where learners were not in the same place. This research was a joint project from 3 institutes as follow: (a) The Department of Educational Communications and Technology, Faculty of Industrial Education and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, (b) The Department of Educational Technology and Communications, Faculty of Education, Naresuan University, (c) the Department of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education, Silpakorn University.

Research Objectives
1. To develop and find out the quality of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology
2. To find out the effectiveness of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology
3. To study the learning achievement of learners who learn the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology
4. To study the learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology.

Population and Sampling Group
The population in this research consisted of all undergraduates from 3 institutes (the Department of Educational Technology and Communications) which participated in this project. There were 43 third year students in the first semester of the academic year 2008 from King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, 44 first year students in the first semester of the academic year 2008 from Naresuan University, 25 first year students in the first semester of the academic year 2008. The total population was 112 persons.

Research Methodology
The research methodology to find out the quality and the effectiveness of the lesson, the learning achievement of the learners and the learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology was done with the whole population. The students were divided into groups of 8 students. In each group there were 3 students from King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, 3 students from Naresuan University and 2 students from Silpakorn University. There were 14 groups of 8 students. The research steps were as follow:

1. Instructors from 3 universities contacted one another to meet and do the activities on the designated time.

2. The researchers introduced the developed learning management system to the sampling group so that they understood how to use the developed learning management correctly. The learning method was clearly defined to the sampling group so that they learned in the planned order.

3. After introducing the basic direction, the researchers let the sampling group register and apply online to log in the learning management system through internet network entitled "Laws and Related Ethical Conducts about Information Technology".

4. Pre-test was done by the sampling group of 112 persons. The test was in a choice format. The score from this pre-test would be used to find out the learning achievement of the learners.

5. The sampling group studied the lesson through internet network entitled "Laws and Related Ethical Conducts about Information Technology"

6. After the sampling group had studied in the planned order, the researchers let the sampling group do the post-test to find out the learning achievement of the learners.

7. After the sampling group had done the post-test, the researchers let them fill in the questionnaire on the learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology.

Research Results

According to the research results from the development of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology, it could be concluded as follows:

KMUTT   Silpakorn University   Naraesuan University

Screenshots of the Online Lesson
        The quality of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology as evaluated by experts in multimedia quality was highly suitable on average (EMBED Equation.3 =4.30, SD = 0.45) and the quality as evaluated by experts in contents was, in accordance with IOC, 0.89 on average.

Items	Number of students	Total Score	Scores Obtained	Effectiveness
Sum of test scores during learning from Part 1-3 (E_1)	30	30	722	80.22
Posttest score (E_2)	30	30	758	84.22

The effectiveness of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology was 80.22/84.22, higher than the criteria set at 80/80.

Score	N	EMBED Equation.3	S.D.	**EMBED Equation.3**	**EMBED Equation.3**
Pretest	112	12.91	3.15	24.41**	0.000
Posttest	112	23.76	4.45		

**$p<.01$

As for the learning achievement of learners, it was found that the learning achievement of learners who learned the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology after learning was higher than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.01.

Items	Mean	S.D.	*Meaning*
Learning Management	3.81	0.41	High
Media inside the website to be used in instructional activities	3.77	0.42	High
Benefits from learning the co-operative lesson through internet network	4.02	0.47	High
Total Mean	3.84	0.68	High

The learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology was highly satisfied or 3.84 on average.

Research Discussions

The development of the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology shows that the quality of the lesson passed the hypothesis in that it was not less than the criteria set at 80/80. The learning achievement after learning was higher than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.01. The learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network was at high level. This means that the developed lesson was of quality and could increase learning achievement.

According to the research results, the development of the co-operative lesson through internet network entitled "A Case Study of Laws and Related Ethical Conducts about Information Technology" shows that it passed the hypothesis criteria. This complies with the research by Seksun Saisisod [2] who studied the effectiveness of the internet-based instruction for Rajabhat University. It was found that the effectiveness of webpage lesson through internet on information technology for management (E_1/E_2) was 84.44/82, higher than the criteria set at 80/80. The learning achievement of learners after learning the lesson through webpage was higher than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05.

According to the learning achievement of learners after learning the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology, the learning achievement of learners after learning was higher than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.01 because learners learned the co-operative lesson which was multimedia. There were texts, still images, animations for presentation and learning activities for cooperation. The learners could meet new friends and have fun. They were excited because new friends from other institutes came to participate in the instruction. There was collaboration in terms of sharing opinions. Each learner participated in sharing viewpoints and making decisions. The learners, therefore, understood the contents from the group. When the test was done individually, the learning achievement was higher. This was in accordance with the research by Suangsuda Parnsakul [3] who conducted the presentation of learning through creative problem solving inside organization on internet network. The objective was to study the learning forms used in co-operative learning which encouraged the personnel to use creative problem solving skills, create the creative learning forms used in co-operative learning in organization on internet network. The research results revealed that there were 5 steps for creative problem solving skills as follow: searching the truth, searching the problems, searching the ideas, searching the answers and searching the acceptable answers. The experiment results revealed that the sampling group had higher learning achievement for creative problem solving process after learning than the one before learning at the level of statistical significance of 0.05.

The learners' satisfaction towards the co-operative lesson through internet network: a case study of laws and related ethical conducts about information technology was at high level. The researchers used online lesson and co-operative learning to develop the online lesson, resulting in learners being satisfied with the lesson. They were satisfied

with the benefits derived from the co-operative learning through internet network the most because the lesson was interesting and it allowed learners to share opinions and help one another. Therefore, the learners were satisfied. Another related research work was by Jarunee Maneekul [4] who conducted the application of online lesson to support the skills in information technology and communications of graduate students in the field of Teaching English, Faculty of Education, Chiang Mai University. The results revealed that the students who learned the online lesson through internet were highly satisfied with the instruction through internet network.

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MOOCO-PLUS: A Case Study for Technology-assisted Secondary School Field Study

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Abstract

This paper described a system developed under mobile network, which aimed to facilitate the effectiveness and efficiency in situated learning from both student and teacher aspects. Experiments were carried out to determine how the system can be successfully applied in education. Surveys and feedback were collected from the subjects, while analysis showed the importance in motivating students, lightening teachers' loading in managing and sharing both during and after activity. Further feature enhancements were also evaluated.

Keywords: mobile learning, excursion, situated learning, secondary education

Introduction

Topics of technology-assisted learning have been studied by a number of initiatives worldwide. Governments in Asian region also supported technological teaching by proposing official policies, for instance, Hong Kong government started to encourage information technology (IT) in education from 1998 (Education Bureau,1998) and China planned to generalize IT instruction between five to ten years from 2001 (CERN, 2002). The rapid growth and increasing penetration of mobile technology and hi-speed network (CNNIC, 2009; OFTA, 2009) also enabled the enthusiasm of studies in mobile instruction and learning.

Studies on mobile learning advantages (Cortez et al., 2004; Grasso & Roselli, 2005) and shortcomings (Wang & Higgins, 2005) were discussed for years. Supporters proposed theoretical approaches (Frohberg et al., 2009; Lai et al., 2005) and experimental case-studies on how teaching effectiveness and efficiency could be enhanced by mobile technology. Mobile learning in situated learning (Holzinger et al., 2005; Lai et al., 2005; Tan & Liu, 2004) was one of the common topics since the activity-based learning, including out-door learning experiences, fit well with the characteristic of mobile technology.

Most of the systems proposed or implemented focus on building up networked depositories for learning materials (Liu et al., 2003; Milrad et al., 2005; Mitchell & Race, 2005), or interfaces for quizzes or exercises (Houser & Thornton, 2005; Jung, 2005). Evaluations of those studies always concentrated on students' learning (Lai et al., 2005; Tan & Liu, 2004), but the instruction enhancement and teachers' aptitude to the mobile technology were seldom discussed. Other side-development criteria should also be considered, such as the issues of functional integration into the existing teaching system, usability,

compatibility and computational power of various mobile devices, and even the coverage of wireless network in the desired deployment region.

Situated learning weighted on the participation in "authentic activity", followed with coaching and scaffolding from teachers, to let students learn through experiencing (Shen, 2008). Studies could be found under the area of evaluating learning effectiveness by mobile technology in experiential or situated learning process (Lai et al., 2005; Tan & Liu, 2004). Teachers' aptitude towards mobile technology was also discussed by Chao (2005) in a survey evaluation.

This paper described a prototype system, which was developing under the MObile Online COmmunity - Portable Learning Utility Solution (MOOCO-PLUS). MOOCO-PLUS was an applied research project developed and collaborated between the university and industrial entities. This system aimed to integrate past experiences in mobile learning with increased flexibility and applicability to fit the requirements of both teacher and student in instruction and learning.

This paper evaluated how the system favored both student and teacher by an experiment, and determined criteria for successful and globally applicable solution for mobile learning. Future development and feature enhancements were also discussed.

MOOCO-PLUS Platform

Traditional field-trip required students to carry stationery like paper and pencil, while digital camera and video recorder were becoming more important in the activities to record the data in multimedia format. When handling those various kinds of tools, students were easily distracted from the main learning purpose.

The advancing of computer technology allows teachers nowadays to prepare their learning materials and exercises much more easily. However, they still needed to design the layout of material, print the hard copies and distribute the copies to students manually. If teachers wanted to avoid plagiarism, they even had to prepare a few versions of exercise. Different from traditional classroom teaching, teachers also needed to give much more non-teaching efforts in out-door activities, such as managing students under the field environment, safety consideration and handling the logistics. As a result, they always seek for tools in order to lighten their instructional loading during the activities.

Furthermore, as coaching and assistance from teacher were important during the authentic activity, instant monitoring and communication were preferred, while in remote area, keeping in contact with every student and tracking their learning progress were difficult.

After activities, teachers might wish to discuss with students as soon as possible to consolidate, evaluate and share what they had learnt. However, time consumption in data collection and coordination resulted in discussion delayed for days or weeks.

MOOCO-PLUS prototype system considered the above problems to provide a solution that facilitates both teaching and learning by integrating multimedia functions in mobile phone to replace traditional stationery, simplifying the preparation of instructional materials, allowing central monitoring and communication with students, and automating the tedious data summarization process.

The basic components of the MOOCO-PLUS system were demonstrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Basic components and setup of
MOOCO-PLUS platform

Students' mobile clients and teachers' laptop were connected to the mobile wireless router to access the web server through 2.5G, 3G or Wi-Fi. If the system aimed to deploy in developed regions where the coverage of hi-speed network was comprehensive and the cost of connection is affordable, users could directly connect their mobile devices to server through wireless channel.

Students used the mobile phones, having the mobile client programme (written in J2ME) installed, to receive, record and upload data in different formats (Figure 2), while teachers could create assignment, generate report, send instant message and monitor students' status through a web interface (Figure 3). Moreover, to avoid plagiarism, the system allowed teachers to build up a question bank for each assignment, and randomly assigned a specific number of questions to student.

(a)   (b)

(c)

Figure 2: (a) Receiving question in mobile client
(b) Recording data in image format
(c) Receiving instant message

Figure 3: Web interface of MOOCO-PLUS

Case-study

The case-study was carried out in April of 2009 on a field-study. The activity, consisting of a group of fifteen secondary school students, aimed to look at the residential pollution on river. Teachers set out several open- and closed-ended questions on the web server aiming to remind students keeping their eyes open to the key issues of investigation. Introduction of using MOOCO-PLUS mobile client programme was given to students prior to the field trip. The client programme was installed in each of the sample smart phones running Windows Mobile Professional 6.1 with touch-screen and without keypad. The smart phones replaced traditional stationery and digital camera to record all key observations according to the guidance downloaded from the web-server (Figure 4). Submissions from students were collected and the summary report was automatically generated for discussion on the same day (Figure 5).

Figure 4: Recording the observations
according to teacher guidance

Figure 5: Discussion after the activity

The subject group of fifteen students consisted of nine boys and six girls aging from twelve to fourteen led by one teacher. Two sets of survey were distributed to students and teacher looking for their responses on the effect of mobile technology on learning and instruction respectively. Nearly all students showed their positive attitude in mobile-assisted learning, in which most of them thought the mobile application could increase their learning interest and effectiveness, and they were expecting for higher involvement of mobile technology in future. Throughout the whole activity, students agreed that MOOCO-PLUS assisted in providing a more convenient and multimedia-rich manner to handle the information than the traditional way. However, they also expressed that the performance of the programme was below their expectation and they needed to wait for response after clicked a button. In the future, they expected that the programme could improve its performance and new functions supporting audio and video recording could be added.

From the instruction aspect, the teacher appreciated the instant interaction between teacher and students, which helped to notice the students who were falling behind and the instant response helped to monitor the learning progress and encourage critical thinking of students. Moreover, the teacher emphasized that familiarity in mobile phone operation of youngsters could stimulate the initiation of learning if using the phone as a learning tool. The new tool also encouraged students, who did not have good presentation skill, to participate the learning activities as they only need to write short sentences or record data in multimedia format. The confidence of students in learning could thus be improved and their observational skill could also be increased. However, the teacher also pointed out that the other built-in features on mobile phone might distract them to other entertainment functions, which might affect the learning process. He suggested that the developer could block the entertainment functions on the phone during the learning activities. While considering the efficiency of delivering

instruction, the teacher thought that the instant response and report generation were essential along with the original data collection method. At the same time, data and results could be shared among different groups of student, which encouraged discussion and peer-review. Last but not least, the teacher showed positive attitude to further involvement of the system in future learning activities, and hoped the prototype system could enhance by allowing the questions to be import from text file like WORD document in order to facilitate their preparation process while moving towards the application of mobile technology.

Results and Discussion

The main purpose of an education tool is to enhance learning effectiveness, while technological product is further expected to increase the efficiency in manipulating the instruction and motivating the learning interest of students.

Ritchie and Hoffman (1996) proposed instruction of learning should be a purposeful interaction to increase learner's knowledge or skills in a specific, pre-determined fashion. Thus, the interactions between user-to-machine and user-to-user together with a clear learning objective were important for every mobile learning tool development.

On the other hand, a good teaching-assisting tool, especially for mobile technology, needed to have its unique value (Soloways et al., 2001). For instance, it was not supposed to use the mobile phone in classroom for dropping note or doing quiz while using paper and pencil instead was more convenient.

Deployment of service was another problem where availability and the cost of wireless connection varied in regions. In the developed regions like Korea, Japan and Hong Kong, 3G wireless network was easily accessible and the cost of connection was relatively low, while the same technology was just announced in China.

Teachers' technical knowledge and their willingness to adopt mobile technology were also the major elements for popularize the mobile learning, while their attitude depends on the ease of use and the effect of tool on their workload and instruction process.

MOOCO-PLUS provided platform interface in simple and user-friendly fashion to increase students' learning interest. The platform also valued the interaction between teacher and student by equipped with instant messaging service. In order to provide a more convenient and effective learning atmosphere to students, the system turned mobile phone into an integrated tool to replace pencil, paper and other digital recording devices. To deal with the deployment difficulty where hi-speed wireless network was not available in remote area like those in China, the system allowed user to set a portable server in a laptop while using device of mobile wireless router to setup a local area network (LAN) and build up communication channels with the mobile clients.

From users' feedback, students showed their interest and positive attitude to the system as it increased their learning interest. Teachers also expressed their willingness to use the system in the future as it helped to automate and simplify the instruction preparation process. They also appreciated the data collection function that favored the post-activity session with the students.

Conclusions and Improvements

This paper proposed a case study using a prototype system of MOOCO-PLUS platform for teaching under situated learning environment. The overall feedback was enthusiastic, in which both teachers and students validated the value of the platform. Students thought that the system helped to improve the

learning effectiveness and increased their learning interest, while teachers felt that the system was easy to pick up with high applicability and really helped to lighten their workload and enhanced their instruction efficiency, especially for post-activity discussion session. The paper also discussed the criteria and necessary considerations for deploying a mobile learning system successfully.

As the prototype system was still under development, the performance was not optimized and some functions were not available yet, such as audio and video transmission, and question importation from text file. In the future, the platform will conduct more tests with local schools and collect user requirements for function and performance improvement. Evaluation on learning effectiveness of mobile instruction and learning under different types of activity will also be conducted.

Acknowledgements

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MALAYSIAN INTERACTIVE COURSEWARE: AN ANALYSIS OF INTERFACE DESIGN DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

A large quantity of interactive courseware has been developed in Malaysia, but a recent review has found that its uptake has been limited due to some reasons. In particular, the interface design quality was claimed as one of the key reason for this lack which is not appropriately designed in terms of quality of learning experiences. With this issue in mind, this research study reviews the current interactive courseware development process by defining a quality of interface design in order to enhance the learning experiences through a contextual document analysis and face to face in-depth interviews. This preliminary analysis revealed outcomes with some general misconceptions and the challenges faces by the developers apparently in relation to the current development process of interface design in Malaysia. These outcomes are expected will contribute to the improvement of interface design quality and courseware development, appropriately can enhance the interactive learning experience.

KEYWORDS: Interface design, Courseware development, Learning experiences

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the past two decades, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and multimedia-based learning have come to play an important role in classrooms. It is widely accepted that computer software and the internet have great potential for making the teaching and learning process more assessable, fun and interesting (Segers, 2002; Gauss & Urbas, 2003). Therefore, computers and interactive educational products are being used worldwide in educational institutions to motivate students to learn meaningfully and encourage them to be active participants in the learning process.

As researchers worldwide have become increasingly aware of the impact of interactive courseware on learning experiences, there has been ongoing debate about its effectiveness in improving the quality of learning in primary education (for example Baharuddin et al., 2006; Fresen, 2005; Wagner & Kozma, 2005; Cantoni, Cellario & Porta, 2004; CHEA, 2002; Meyer, 2002; Clark, 2001). These researchers

have found that a broad range of factors, from availability and accessibility of the technology to the quality of the interface and interaction design in interactive courseware, affect the quality of learning experiences. In particular, it has been reported that poor interface design performance and lack of interactivity can diminish learning experiences (Rhee, Moon, & Choe, 2006).

In Malaysia, the Ministry of Education has adopted multimedia-based learning for an education reformation entitled *Smart School Project*. Since 1998, this pilot project has set out to improve Malaysian Primary and Secondary students' learning attitudes and achievements and to enhance teachers' performance by the end of 2020 (MOE, 2006). As a result of the project, thousand interactive coursewares has been developed in key learning domains, such as Bahasa Melayu (Malay language), Mathematics, Science and English, and distributed across numerous Malaysian schools.

Accordingly, the implementation of the interactive courseware provided was evaluated in various aspects by the Malaysian government from 2003 to 2008, such as looking on student performances and teachers preferences towards the courseware and the availability of the courseware itself. However, up to the recent report of this evaluation and researchers' reviews, the courseware provided has not been effectively used in schools and was under-utilised by teachers and students (MOE, 2008; MDC, 2007) due to several factors contributed.

For that reason, it was pointed out that much of this interactive courseware has been developed without deeply considering the various of interactions between students and the courseware, between students and teachers, and between students and students and there are a vital issues regarding the quality of interface design (MOE, 2006; MOE, 2006b; MOE, 2004; Puteh, 2004; Norhayati & Siew, 2004). In fact, most of them further claimed that lack of courseware uptake has resulted including the fact that the presentation forms of the courseware content are also problematic in terms of encouraging students to use them and this courseware also lacks interactive features in terms of multimedia presentations. This fact also has contributed to the students' poor attention status (Rohana, 2006; Baharuddin et all, 2006).

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Interactive courseware should motivate students to learn and encourage them to participate actively. Towards the goal, interface design should facilitate user's interaction and enhance user's experiences and thus will contribute to quality learning and teaching. However, as discussed above, it has been reported that much of the interactive courseware of the *Smart School Project* in Malaysia fails to achieve quality learning experiences for students and teachers during the execution stage. One of the key reasons is relating to the impoverishment of interface design which does not properly accommodate students' and teachers' needs and their interactions with the functions (MOE, 2008; MDC, 2007; Kamariah, 2006).

As such, from the preliminary review, most of the interface design within these interactive courseware's are designed exclusively by the developer appointed by the government and assume can

be used effectively by all students, but it was shown that often the developers are not realized the courseware's that have been developed by them are inaccessible by the end users. Within this context, this research is presuming that there is some disintegrate in the current development process of an effective interface design happened between the developer and the end-users involved (teachers and students) in order to produce an effective interface design that can accommodate the end user need and facilitating the quality learning experience.

Thus, focusing on the interface design of the existing Malaysian interactive courseware in the *Smart School Project*, this research will investigating and assessing how actually this interface design of the existing Malaysian interactive courseware for *Smart School Project* has been developed by the current developers and to what extend the Malaysian developers understand the important of interface design in the courseware development process. 2 guiding research questions have been identified in this investigation. The study will undertake to explore the questions:

(1)   What are the common developments processes of interface designs that have been endorsed by the Malaysian Ministry of Education and have been implemented by the developers in the current development of interactive courseware for *Smart School Project*?

(2)   What are the relationships between the main stakeholders: government, developers, teachers and students, in designing and producing the interface design of the existing interactive science courseware of the *Smart School Project?*

METHODOLOGY

A principal goal of this study is to examine the current development process of the existing interactive courseware of the Malaysian *Smart School Project* .In order to gain an understanding on how the existing Malaysian *Smart School* interactive courseware had been developed and how the developers really developed the interface design of the existing courseware, a formal contextual analysis and a face to face interviews had been conducted.

A field visits to the Ministry of Education had been conducted by gathering of existing government guidelines and others government report documents that related to this study. The guidelines that have been provided to developers by the Malaysian Ministry of Education and others document then were reviewed and analyzed.

Face to face interviews had been conducted with the selected courseware developers those involved with the development of the current existing Malaysian *Smart School* interactive courseware. 20 developers of interactive courseware were approached by phone and email in early April 2009 from Australia. The information letters and consent forms then were emailed to them in order to get their agreement. After a week, only 10 developers agreed to be research participants. A fieldwork in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia was then carried out in May 2009 at developers' offices.

In this research study, face-to-face interviews have been conducted through open-ended questions and the use of standardized procedures, so that every participant will be asked the same questions in the same way. The interview focused on:

1. The involvement of the developers in the development of the interactive courseware
2. The development process of the existing interactive courseware

All of these face-to-face interviews were recorded by a digital video recorder with permission of the interviewees. Following this, all the interviews' audio data had been transcribed and analysed.

PRELIMENARY FINDINGS

Based on the data gathered from contextual analysis and ten different developers that were interviewed, to date, the preliminary analysis has been revealed some interesting outcomes. Firstly, this preliminary analysis verified that the Malaysian Ministry of Education are provided a comprehensive flow-chart of the development processes in the guidelines that must be followed by each developers. Fig. 1 shows this process, which begins with the development of lesson mapping, followed by the development of a storyboard, then preparation of multimedia content and multimedia technical area. Then, potential courseware will go through beta testing in order to achieve the final look of the product, ready to deliver and be implemented by the school. Most of these stages however must get an approval from the Malaysian Ministry of Education team.
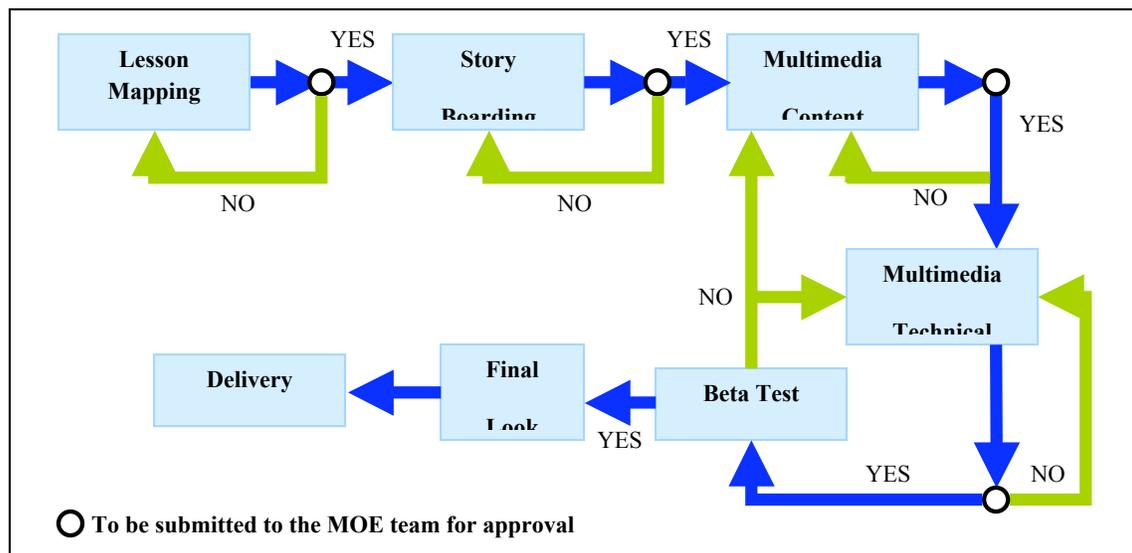
Fig. 1: Production Flow of Malaysian interactive courseware

Secondly, the preliminary analysis of the face to face interviews also shown that the current development process implemented by the developers is very similar to the generic classic waterfall model of educational courseware development that recognized in the international literature and shown in Fig. 2 below.

1

REQUIREMENT AND PLANNING

Understand scope of work to be done, the cost, schedule and tasks to be accomplished

2

ANALYSIS

Define the target user and determine an appropriate medium delivery

3

DESIGN

Storyboarding, Prototype and Media creation

4

DEVELOPMENT

Authoring and integrating of media element into a whole package and alpha testing

Perfection of the courseware

5

EVALUATION

Getting Content Approval from government

6

DELIVERY AND FEEDBACK

Final product implementation and installation

Fig. 2: The common development process implemented currently by the developers in Malaysia

From figure 2, it revealed that most of the developers (production team) begin their development process by undertaking detailed and careful planning. According to most of them, the planning phase includes:

1. Details of a development work schedule,
2. Tasks to be accomplished by the development teams and
3. Scope of work to be done by the team

During this planning stage also, commonly, the project manager will considers some factors such as the capability of the team, the budget constraints and completing the task within the time given. After completing careful logistical planning, development continues with the analysis phase.

Relating to the analysis phases, according to the Galitz (2002), there are 2 types of analysis should be conducted before the design process begins: a user needs analysis and a requirement analysis. However, in Malaysia, based on the data gathered, most of the project managers mentioned that their development teams only conduct a comprehensive requirement analysis of the tender document and standard guidelines from the Ministry. The analysis is just focusing on the specific media requirements

and instructional specifications identified in the Ministry's guidelines. Therefore they frequently will gather most of the relevant information from the existing printed textbooks and other relevant sources in order to achieve the requirements of these specifications.

The developers also were asked some questions relating to interface design requirements to ascertain whether their requirement and analysis phase provided a deep understanding of the user. In response to this question, it became clear that not one of the developers conducted a user need analysis before beginning the design process. As one of the project managers stated,

"If you conduct a needs analysis with the users, it will take more time. It is not easy to get permission from the school principal to enter their school. It will involve more additional work and will take you several months to get permission even though they are in the same ministry. Therefore, our concern is more to complete the process of the courseware development as early as we can, so that we can move on to another project." (Developer 3)

Another project manager also raised time constraints in response to a question about a user needs analysis,

"So far, we haven't yet conducted a user needs analysis with the students. This is because we are familiar with the Ministry project. We also don't have time to concentrate on that because we are not only taking a job from the government. At the same time we also have to complete other jobs." (Developer 1)

Another project manager argued that it was unnecessary, stating that:

"We are the developers of interactive courseware so we should know the basic requirements of the courseware. So I don't think we need to do user needs analysis". (Developer 2)

From this it was shown clearly that the current developers are not devoting enough thought to the importance of a user needs analysis in their development process. Surely, the users are the reason for producing an interactive product and so should be part of the development process (Shneiderman, 1998). However, the developers appear more interested in efficiencies. This can be read as the pursuit of making profits rather than providing good quality of courseware.

However, limitations on the time given were also been identified as a problem. One participant responded:

"According to the contract given, the period of time to complete the courseware is one year. But then, if you can see, it is not a one year project. In actual conditions we just have only 8 to 9 months to finish the project. So, we have to speed up." (Developer 3)

Another response that verifies the pressures of the limited time given, is,

"Some of the tasks we need to outsource if our team is otherwise occupied. The reason is we need to complete the MOE project commonly within 8 to 9 months. Frequently we will outsource the most complicated tasks that take a longer time to finish." (Developer 1)

The developer respondents also reported that they only conducted product testing within their own production team. This testing is performed to make sure that the interactive courseware has been developed according to the specifications and that it meets the requirements acknowledged in the tender document. They also said that this testing is primarily to perfect the functionality of the interactive courseware and also to identify the bugs. As stated by one of the project managers,

"When the lesson is completely designed, in house testing will be conducted by a team leader from different departments. Usually during this process we will make sure that all the functions are working properly. For example, if the voice said "this is a ball" the arrow must be pointed to the ball not other things."

(Developer 1)

This was supported by another response:

"We conduct product testing but only among our team in order to determine the weak points of the courseware and we shall modify it before sending it to the Ministry. Generally, this testing is more focused on evaluation of the courseware functionality." (Developer 3)

This preliminary analysis confirmed that the current practices of developers for the interactive courseware of the *Smart School Project* closely follows the production flow that is recommended by the Malaysian Ministry of Education in the guidelines. However, when discussing the problems faced in the overall process of development, most developers highly agreed that they are having some difficulties with this current production flow due to the oversight of the ministry. As one project manager summarized:

"There are lots of opinions, lots of reviews, and lots of contradictions in the process of completing this interactive courseware. Actually, the authorization of decisions, especially on interface design, is in the MOE hands, not ours." (Developer 4)

Recently, interactive courseware has emerged as an instructional technology with the potential to overcome limitations of traditional media and provide the prospect of learning environments with strong visual and interactive elements. Apparently, the important challenge for the Malaysian developers interviewed is how to provide high quality interface design while reducing the courseware development cost and time consumption. In this regard, most of the participants (7 out of 10 developers) claimed that is harder for them to provide a good quality product because the authority for time allowance and approval belongs to the ministry.

Indeed, the Ministry of Education requires interactive courseware must present particular aspects of cultural and moral values that can be guided by criteria in the curriculum. For instance, the design of a particular characteristic of interface such as layout, images, buttons, and colours must signify or reflect Malaysian looks without having any bias regarding ethnicity or religion. This is because of the diversity of a complex mixture of multicultural society in Malaysia. As such, visual symbolism for the 3 mains Malaysian ethnic groups (Malay, Indian and Chinese) must be considered.

CONCLUSION

From this preliminary analysis, it can be concluded that currently, many Malaysian developers assume that developing an interactive courseware is just a simple task. Additionally, developing quality educational applications also requires understandings of the interactive learning concepts by the team production. However, in this preliminary analysis it is revealed that many developers team lacking on this understanding where most of them depended on their previous experience only, rather than researching pedagogical approaches.

Moreover, it's was revealed that the level of the developers' involvement with the end- user in the design process of the interactive courseware is very limited because they do not conduct a comprehensive user needs analysis before begin the design process. As an effectives used of interactive courseware is the main factor that can contribute to the effective learning experiences, developers clearly need to be more aware of it from the user's point of view. While, successful development process by considering the user needs and experiences will result on effective courseware usage.

Concerning the implementation of production flow and development process that should be followed by them based on the guideline provided, this preliminary analysis shows that the challenges' faces by the developer is how to provide high quality courseware while reducing the development cost and time consumption. This has required them to take their own initiative in order to fulfil the requirements. It should be highlighted in the future research.

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Potential Problems of Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET) in Off-shore Campuses in Southeast and East Asia and Suggestions

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Abstract

This paper consists of 3 parts. In the first part, 5 problems of SET are discussed. These are biases due to SET (which refer to problems due to online surveys, equivalency of SET questionnaires, cognitive biases, and formative vs. summative uses of SETs); biases due to courses; biases due to students; biases due to teachers; and issues with feedback. In Part 2, problems that may be peculiar to off-shore campuses in East and Southeast Asia are discussed. These are; surface learners/teachers vs. deep learners/teachers; the validity of the questionnaires; curriculum and assessment tasks; and closing the feedback loop. In Part 3, suggestions are provided to weather these problems.
Keywords: Student evaluations of teaching, off-shore campuses, (South)East Asia.

FOR ORAL PRESENTATION

- The ideas expressed in this paper are *those of the author. Please contact the author for your comments by* ulas@teori.org -

Potential Problems of Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET) in Off-shore Campuses in Southeast and East Asia, and Suggestions

Student evaluations of teaching has a growing significance as they are increasingly used for personnel decisions (Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering & Brill, 2007). SETs are commonly used for improving courses and teaching, appraisals of the teachers and accountability purposes (Kember, Leung & Kwan, 2002). For some, it is the magic wand that will automatically improve teaching. In the meantime off-shore campuses mushroom in Southeast and East Asia, and SET are widely used in these campuses accompanied with problems due to SET and others due to the nature of the off-shore education services. The first part reviews the research on the problems due to SET, the second part reflects on the problems that may be peculiar to off-shore campuses in Southeast and East Asia and the final part provides some suggestions.

I) Problems of SET[1]

Worthington (2002) lists 4 possible sources of bias in SET:
1) Factors related to the administration of SET.
2) Factors related to the course such as difficulty and workload.
3) Factors related to students such as age, interest in the course and expected grade.
4) Factors related to the teacher such as experience, appearance, gender etc.

It is not sufficient to have no bias in SET. In the ideal cases where no biases involved, how student feedback is used by teachers makes a difference. If teachers don't use feedback in an appropriate way, a non-biased survey will be of no avail. Thus the use of feedback is considered to be the fifth factor below.

1) Biases Due to SET

There are 4 biases due to SET. They are; problems due to online surveys, equivalency of SET questionnaires, cognitive biases, and formative vs. summative uses of SETs.

a) Problems Due to Online Surveys

A plethora of studies focused on the advantages and disadvantages of online surveys. One of the main reasons for a move from classroom surveys to online surveys is the fact that costs of printing, collecting, scanning, administration etc. are reduced by online surveys (Barkhi & Williams, in press; Dommeyer et al, 2004; Watt et al, 2002).
Classroom surveys have usually high participation rates compared to web-based surveys (Barkhi & Williams, in press; Dommeyer et al, 2004; Nulty, 2008; Symbaluk & Howell, in press; Watt et al, 2002). Nulty (2008) reviews various studies where the response rate for the latter is 30 odd% less than that of the former. The former is more representative since web-based survey participants have either very negative ('I hate my teacher') or very positive ('I admire my teacher') views (Symbaluk & Howell, in press). Thus, Nulty (2008) discusses the possibility that the online survey respondent characteristics may be different compared to nonrespondent characteristics, which will bias the data. Then the data may not be considered to be representative. This problem is independent of the low response rate. It corresponds to sampling bias. Furthermore, online surveys may be filled by the students who don't attend the classes (Dommeyer et al, 2002).

Dommeyer et al (2004) and Venette, Sellnow & McIntyre (in press) found no differences in student ratings of instruction with regard to the mode of response (ie online survey vs. traditional classroom survey). However, Venette, Sellnow & McIntyre (in press) found that students provided longer responses to open-ended commentary questions in online mode. It may be due to the fact that students would feel more anonymous in online surveys or that the traditional social barriers are removed in online responding as much as the flaming effect in internet use (Barkhi & Williams, in press). Consistent with this explanation, Barkhi & Williams (in press) found that more extreme comments came out by computer-mediated evaluations compared to classroom surveys confirming Symbaluk & Howell (in press). Diverging from Venette, Sellnow & McIntyre (in press) which found no difference in negativity and positivity of responses on online surveys, Barkhi & Williams (in press) found that on average, the course and the teacher received lower ratings on online surveys compared to classroom surveys, though the effect disappeared when course and teacher variables are statistically controlled. However, Barkhi & Williams (in press) also found that extremely negative evaluations are common on online survey and extremely positive evaluations are common in classroom surveys. Students who are not satisfied by the course are more likely to respond online (Barkhi & Williams, in press).

To boost online response rates, Dommeyer et al (2004) suggests grade incentives, but they may not be feasible since it will take more time to process extra marks.
Nulty (2008) lists the three most common ways to increase response rates for online surveys:

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[1] In this paper the terms 'evaluation' and 'rating' are used interchangeably for practical purposes although "[a]n 'evaluation' implies a conclusion based on some direct definitive measure, whereas a 'rating' connotes data susceptible to interpretation" (Otto et al, 2008, p.365).

(1) repeat reminder emails to non-respondents (students);
(2) repeat reminder emails to survey owners (academics);
(3) incentives to students in the form of prizes for respondents awarded through a lottery (Nulty, 2008, p.303).

Nulty (2008) makes a list of other suggestions that emerge out of the review of previous research. Though the majority of these suggestions are implemented by default in the current settings such as brief questionnaires rather than long ones, and anonymity, one out of these is significant: "Persuade respondents that their responses will be used" (Nulty, 2008, p.305). However, this suggestion applies to any mode of survey. The students should be convinced that "their opinions do matter" (Spencer & Schmelkin, 2002, p.406) to boost the participation to SETs. Chen & Hoshower (2003) finds that contributing to the improvement of teaching and course are the main motivators for students' participation to SET. Students are more motivated if they are convinced that their responses will be used for improvement (Chen & Hoshower, 2003). Thus rather than behavioral motivators such as extra marks or prizes, cognitive motivators should be employed to make SET meaningful for students.

b) Equivalency of SET Questionnaires

Various SET questionnaires are used in different countries and in different universities in a single country. Some questionnaires include 5 items whereas others include more than 30 items.[2] Short questionnaires take less time, but they are less valid as the phenomena they are supposed to measure are inherently multidimensional. SET questionnaires are used to measure teaching quality or teaching effectiveness, but they may tap different dimensions. As a result, one should be cautious in interpreting the findings discussed in this paper. A comparative study is necessary where different SET questionnaires are administered to a local student population to check the consistency of the results.

c) Cognitive Biases

According to Barkhi & Williams (in press), the following cognitive biases may be involved in student ratings: Hindsight bias, confirmation bias, self-serving bias, recency bias and serial position bias. It seems that the latter three are the most relevant ones for a study of student ratings: Students attribute success to themselves and failure to teachers and other external factors (self-serving bias); since the recent events are more salient in human memory, students may be biased towards recall of recent weeks of the semester (recency bias) and the responses are affected by the order through which the questions are asked (serial position bias). Yorke (in press) adds 'acquiescence bias' or 'yea-saying' which involves the tendency of the respondents towards affirming answers. Yorke (in press) also mentions 'primacy effect' as positive items such as 'strongly agree' runs from left to right which means they are always read earlier than negative items. However Yorke (in press) could not find any evidence for ordering effect and acquiescence bias in his empirical study. Thirdly, 'indifference bias' refers to respondents' tendency to choose the mid value (ie 3 over 5-point Likert scale) or only one value in a uniform manner (ie 2 for all questions) (Yorke, in press). Indifference bias in the second sense is assumed to be eliminated by the use of negative items along with positive items, though it is not always eliminated.

As a further potential cognitive bias, Yorke (in press) discusses the mid-point in Likert scales. It may have three senses for respondents: It may refer to their true neutrality or ambivalence or non-applicability. Alternatively, forced choice items can be used (ie 4 items by removing the mid-point) but then this may cause a higher level of error since the respondents are not provided with the opportunity to be neutral or ambivalent (Yorke, in press).

More studies need to be conducted on these cognitive biases.

d) Formative vs. Summative Uses of SETs

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[2] For examples of various SET questionnaires one can check Barkhi & Williams, in press; Cohen, 2005; Kember, Leung & Kwan, 2002; Macalpine, 2001; Neumann, 2000; Ogier, 2005; Shevlin et al, 2000; Venette, Sellnow & McIntyre, in press; Worthington, 2002.

One problem that stains student ratings is the fact that the evaluation process is summative, ie it is at the end of the process. Barkhi & Williams (in press) suggests that by utilizing the ease of administration of online surveys, the feedback process can be made continuous throughout the semester so that the teachers can improve their teaching quality based on more frequent feedback.

Nulty (2008) states that a response by even a single respondent is relevant to improve the teaching quality; however, teaching evaluation surveys are increasingly used for summative purposes and for performance evaluation which is untenable as the sampling requirements are not met in many of the surveys.

Since SETs are usually done at the end of the semester and the end of the semester is too late to improve the course based on student feedback, Spencer & Schmelkin (2002) suggests that SETs need to be complemented by mid-semester student feedback to boost the teaching quality.

To sum up, the disadvantages of online surveys, the equivalency of the SET questionnaires, cognitive biases and formative vs. summative uses of SET data should be addressed to obtain more valid and reliable SET results.

2) Biases Due to Courses

Using RateMyProfessor.com (RMP) data, Felton et al (2008) finds a positive relationship between course easiness and teacher's attractiveness, and course quality ratings. The second link demonstrates that halo effect operates in course evaluations. If students think that a teacher is attractive and course is easy, they rate the course as a high quality course (Felton et al, 2008). Bowling (2008) finds that easiness of the course is associated with favorable ratings in course experience surveys in low-ranked schools while the positive correlation is relatively lower for high-ranked ones. In both schools, the same correlation is observed at different levels. In other words, the easier the course, more favorable are the ratings. Bowling (2008) attributes this difference to the fact that students at high-ranked schools are more motivated to learn more, and thus easiness is not a very significant criteria for their evaluations of a course or a teacher. Likewise, Davison & Price (2009) and Felton, Mitchell & Stinson (2004)
found that high ratings are positively related to easiness on RMP data. In other words, professors teaching easy courses with low course load are rated highly positively (Davison & Rice, 2009).

A simple measure of easiness is the failure rates. In evaluating the teaching performance, failure rates should be considered to adjust the high ratings for easy courses and low ratings for difficult courses.

3) Biases Due to Students

Senior and junior students rate the courses and teachers more positively compared to sophomores and freshman students (Barkhi & Williams, in press). Students with higher GPAs tend to rate their teachers more favorably (Betoret & Tomas, 2003; Chen & Hoshower, 2003). Worthington (2002) found that students who expect a higher grade rated their teacher more favorably. Finally, students are more likely to rate their professors when they want to complain about them (Davison & Rice, 2009). To minimize the biases due to students, SET should include questions asking expected grade and current GPA. These questions are already part of some SETs (eg Worthington, 2002).

4) Biases Due to Teachers

Felton, Mitchell & Stinson (2004) finds that teachers who are considered to be attractive are rated more favorably. Though this finding is based on RMP data, it casts doubt on reliability of SETs as they may be subject to similar halo effects. Based on this finding, it may be inferred that elderly teachers are more likely to be rated less favorably.

Using RMP data, Symbaluk & Howell (in press) found that Teaching-Award winners receive higher ratings compared to Research-Award winners, although the latter still receives positive ratings. While this result may be trivially true, it points out a trade-off between teaching orientation and research orientation that is common in many higher education settings.

Ogier (2005) finds that teachers who are non-native speakers of English receive lower ratings for overall satisfaction with the course. This may lead to a halo effect for teachers who are native speakers of English. Furthermore, ESL students ie students coming from non-English speaking backgrounds (non-ESB) rate non-ESB teachers far lower compared to ESB students (Ogier, 2005). Finally, non-ESB students are found to rate their teachers more favorably in general (Worthington, 2002).

Shevlin et al (2000) finds that SET responses are largely affected by teacher's personal attributes such as charisma. Furthermore;

> [t]here is a high correlation between the ratings produced by students taking different course units taught by the same teacher, but little or no relationship between the ratings given by students taking the same course unit taught by different teachers. This suggests that students' evaluations are a function of the person teaching the course unit rather than the particular unit being taught (Richardson, 2005, p.389).

Whilst student evaluations provide a significant source of feedback for the university, it may have detrimental consequences. To boost the ratings, the teachers may be inclined towards lenient marking, as high grades will likely lead to higher student ratings (Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering & Brill, 2007). Even worse may come out:

> If, for example, the student ratings reflect instructor charisma, sense of humor, grading leniency or entertainment value rather than learning, then instructors will be motivated to achieve something not in the interest of higher education (Otto et al, 2008, p.356).

Teachers who receive high ratings see SET as highly valid (Nasser & Fresko, 2002). "Instructors support course evaluation when it flatters them and oppose it when they are criticised" (Nasser & Fresko, 2002, p.197). Thus SET reproduces itself even if it may not be efficient. This point involves teachers' self-serving biases. They may falsely think that mastery of the subject guarantees quality teaching. In the lines of the attribution theories, just as psychologically healthy students attribute their failure to external and unstable factors such as effort and teachers; teachers may attribute students' failure to lazy or 'dumb' students, although in some cases, students' failure may be due to teachers' failure.

Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering & Brill (2007) confirmed that SET scores were not a measure of learning outcomes. In other words, high scores on SET do not show whether students learned the topics or not. Learning outcomes explained the variances in grades more than SET ratings. Thus, Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering & Brill (2007) suggests the use of learning measures along with SET in evaluating teaching effectiveness.

5) Issues with Feedback

Improvement in quality of teaching depends on how teachers receive, interpret and utilize SET responses (Ballantyne, Borthwick & Packer, 2000). Although students are not the only stakeholders in SET, the literature is flooded by research on students' perceptions and characteristics only. One exception is Shao, Anderson & Newsome (2007) in which a large sample of university administrators (deans and heads) are asked to rate the current state of 'evaluating teaching effectiveness'. In another exception, Hendry, Lyon & Henderson-Smart (2007) investigated teachers' perceptions of SET, whether they used them to boost teaching quality, and in what ways they did this, such as improving the slides, decreasing the number of topics covered in the course, reducing the theoretical parts, encouraging a higher level of participation etc.[3]

Seeing the drop of SET ratings for 3 departments throughout years, Kember, Leung & Kwan (2002) questions the quality of teaching in their university. They provide 5 possible explanations for this downward trend that are not mutually exclusive:
- A stable plateau is reached in the ratings. Kember, Leung & Kwan (2002) thinks that evidence for this explanation is insufficient.
- The use of feedback data is ineffective. This is a likely possibility.
- Incentives to use feedback data are lacking. This is another likely possibility. The majority of teachers feel that good teaching is not sufficiently rewarded.

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[3] A third exception is Ballantyne, Borthwick & Packer (2000) where parallel items are used for students and teachers.

- Appraisal function of SETs crowds out its formative function. SET is considered to be an instrument for contracts and tenure rather than improving courses.
- Metric problems with SET lead to instability in ratings.

The last 4 points provide ways to improve SET results, though they don't automatically guarantee an improvement in teaching quality: Refined ways of collecting quality feedback need to be implemented; incentives should be used to encourage the use of student feedback by teachers; formative and summative functions of SET should be addressed in two different questionnaires if possible; and SETs should be revised for higher levels of validity and reliability.

II) Problems That May Be Peculiar to Off-shore Campuses in East and Southeast Asia

Four major problems are observed in off-shore campuses in East and Southeast Asia. These are the problem of surface learners/teachers vs. deep learners/teachers, the validity of the questionnaires, curriculum and assessment tasks, and closing the feedback loop.

1) Surface Learners/Teachers vs. Deep Learners/Teachers

A neglected factor in student evaluations is students' expectations for the course (Fisher & Miller, 2007). These expectations are more or less forged by education prior to tertiary level. Leung (2001) identifies 6 dichotomies that characterize mathematics education in East Asia, to some extent:
- 'Product vs. process': East Asian focus is the product of problem solving rather than the process of solving it.
- 'Rote learning vs. meaningful learning': The former is dominant over East Asia.
- 'Studying hard vs. pleasurable learning': Studying hard is highly appreciated in East Asia.
- 'Extrinsic vs. intrinsic motivations': East Asian students are more extrinsically motivated eg by exams.
- 'Whole class teaching vs. individualized learning': Whole class teaching is preferred in East Asia.
- 'Subject matter vs. Pedagogy': Mastery of the subject is considered to be sufficient to teach a topic in East Asian context following the traditional transmission model of teaching whereby teachers as authorities transmit their knowledge; and fill students' minds with their knowledge.

Almost all the students of off-shore campuses in East and Southeast Asia are Asian. As a result, they may come with different expectations of education which would be in clash with the teaching model underlying international universities. Following the dichotomies above, Asian students may expect to receive education where product, rote learning, studying hard, extrinsic motivation, whole class teaching and teacher as a high authority figure are valued which are squarely opposite to the notion of international education. A teacher who prefer the second pole of the dichotomies (ie process, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation, individualized learning, and pedagogy)[4] may be rated lower on SET. In this vein, two points on Macalpine (2001)'s list of problems with use of SET are particularly applicable to off-shore campuses in Asia:
    - Some students may dislike being required to think rather than memorise by rote;
    - Some students may dislike being expected to answer questions orally (in their second   language), in class, rather than sitting passively (Macalpine, 2001, p.565).

Supposing that Asian students are harboring the first poles of the six dichotomies, the teacher and course which would get the highest ratings on SET would have the following properties:
- Guaranteeing passing marks by rote learning.
- Whole class teaching rather than asking questions individually.
- No innovative teaching as it would individualize the process.
- Multiple choice tests rather than essay-type exams.
- Written exams rather than oral exams.
- Sample questions to prepare for the final exam.

These characterize surface learners as opposed to deep learners. Surface learners which are common in East Asia may pull surface teachers as a magnet. Both deep learners and deep teachers would suffer. Surface learners will rate surface teachers more favorably within the current SET system. In this context, Lyon & Hendry (2002) finds

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[4] The dichotomy of studying hard vs. pleasurable learning does not fit the situation well. It has to be elaborated further.

that Course Experience Survey widely used in Australia is based on a traditional education model and does not fit a problem-based education model. Thus SETs should be revised to embrace innovative education models.

Keeping in mind that SET results may be biased due to different conceptions of learning and effective teaching held by students (Hendry, Lyon & Henderson-Smart, 2007), SET questionnaires should be revised to detect these conceptions. To identify students' expectations, a formative expectations questionnaire is necessary. Secondly, as the use of multiple choice tests that are known to discourage deep learning (Struyven, Dochy & Janssens, 2005) furthers surface learning in international universities of Asia, essay type exams and alternative assessment methods that are known to encourage deep learning (Struyven, Dochy & Janssens, 2005) need to be promoted.[5] Finally, SET system should be clear on how rewarding of surface teaching/learning would be avoided. SET questionnaires which are based on the transmission model of teaching should be revised to cover alternative teaching methods.

On the other hand, Ballantyne, Borthwick & Packer (2000) finds that in general, teachers focus more on improving student learning, whereas students focus more on assessment. Therefore, the distinction of surface learner/teacher vs. deep learner/teacher and other issues discussed in this section may not be specific to Asia. More studies are necessary to compare expectations of Asian and non-Asian students.

2) The Validity of the Questionnaires

SET questionnaires are always validated in the central hub, but then they are used in off-shore campuses as well. They may not be valid for off-shore campus student bodies. Thus formal validation of the questionnaires in peripheral hubs is necessary.[6]

A second issue related to the first one would be the selection of SET questionnaire(s) for use. An option is having more than one SET questionnaire that would be valid in different campuses. A second option is using a single SET questionnaire that would be validated in all campuses. A third option is using a single questionnaire validated in all campuses along with a second SET questionnaire that will serve the local educational issues and needs. By this option, extra questions can be added for off-shore campuses such as satisfaction with the coordination across the off-shore campus and the central hub.

A third issue will be the language of SET. The reception of the SET questionnaire by off-shore campus students would be different, since it is in their second language. It is more likely to receive genuine feedback in their native language rather than English. Thus, off-shore campus students may be allowed to answer SET questionnaire in their native language. Although this will increase the administrative costs, it will worth the effort, as this may be another reason for low response rates on online surveys in offshore campuses.

3) Curriculum and Assessment Tasks

Assessment tasks prepared in the central hub may not fit the offshore campus. For one thing, the questions may be ethnocentric. Paralleling the issue of the validity of SET questionnaires across campuses, three options emerge:
1) Using all the materials and assessment tasks used in the central hub without considering any local feasibility problems.
2) Using materials and assessment tasks that are developed in various campuses.[7]
3) Using both central hub's national materials and assessment tasks along with materials and assessment tasks that will fit the local needs of the off-shore campus.

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[5] Multiple choice tests are preferred since they are less time-consuming to administer and mark. However even a superficial cost-benefit analysis will show that the pedagogical costs of them weigh heavier than their benefits.
[6] An example is Byrne & Flood (2003) where CEQ (an Australian questionnaire) is validated for Ireland.
[7] This requires the switch of central hub to these internationalized materials and assessment tasks, rather than following its national materials and assessment tasks.

Where these problems are not addressed, student satisfaction will be reflected as low ratings for the teacher who will be a scapegoat in that case. Students would provide lower ratings not because the course has low quality, but the rapport between the central hub and offshore campuses is asymmetric or central hub is not sensitive to the local needs. These problems are intermingled with the issue of standardization whereby the off-shore campus students receive identical diplomas with central hub students.

4) Closing the Feedback Loop

Although it is easy to see SET's invasion of tertiary education as the injection of the Costumer Satisfaction Model into universities, the comparison is misleading. Customers will not be satisfied with a low-quality product. If the product does not come out as it is advertised, this won't make the customers happy. However, students may be satisfied with low-quality education as they may prefer to study less and guarantee a passing mark without effort. This problem is aggravating in off-shore campuses since the teachers may be a toast between the students and the central hub's administrative structure. Spencer & Schmelkin (2002) suggests that teachers' and administrators' evaluation of SET process should be carried to the equation for a further improvement of teaching. In the off-shore context, SET should be accompanied with teachers' and administrators' evaluation of teaching/learning, central hub coordination and off-shore administration. By covering all stakeholders, more genuine feedback will be collected.

III) Suggestions

Shao, Anderson & Newsome (2007) lists the following items that can be used for evaluating teaching effectiveness: Current in field, student evaluation scores, student written comments, Chair's evaluation, Teaching Awards, peer's evaluations, intellectual contributions, Teaching Portfolio, classroom visits, Dean's evaluation, class assignments, use of technology, alumni feedback, colleagues' opinions, grade distribution, course notebooks, course level (grad/undergrad), course type (required/elective), class enrolment, drop rate (Shao, Anderson & Newsome, 2007, p.361). None of them will be reliable to evaluate teaching performance by their own. A teacher may hold current knowledge in field, but this does not mean s/he has an appropriate pedagogical approach. Student evaluation scores and student written comments may be biased as discussed in previous parts. Dean's and Chair's evaluation may be misleading, as s/he may not have direct experience of the teacher's performance. The range of Teaching Awards is quite narrow as the recipients are just a few, and the jury may be subjective if clear guidelines and transparency are not the norm. Peer's evaluation may be subjective as much as self-ratings. Intellectual contributions are difficult to measure. Classroom visits are very useful; however they may not be representative of the teaching performance, compared to all the classes throughout the semester.[8] Class assignments, course notebooks, course level and course type, class enrolment and drop rate will not provide much information without the use of other methods. Finally, an evaluation of use of technology may lead to technology fetishism where technology would be deified at the expense of knowledge and skills. To weather the deficiencies of SETs, Macalpine (2001) suggests a combination of SETs, in-class peer evaluations and teaching portfolios. He states that deficiencies of the three will be balanced by the use of them together.

A major avenue to boost teaching quality is to improve SET methods. In this vein, Huxham et al (2008) compares the results of student ratings based on questionnaire, with ratings by other methods such as focus groups, student diaries, and rapid feedback.[9] Whilst the qualitative responses to course experience questionnaire highly overlapped with those by other methods, students considered the latter as time-consuming and too demanding. However, focus groups were favored for a deeper level of reflection on the course. Furthermore, some students also questioned the reliability of the course experience surveys (Huxham et al, 2008). Huxham et al (2008) stresses the significance of qualitative responses for formative evaluation ie to improve teaching, and that of quantitative responses for summative evaluation ie for managerial decisions.

In this paper, 5 problems of SET are discussed. These are
1) Biases due to SET which refer to
      a) Problems due to online surveys

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[8] Macalpine (2001) discusses the problems with class observations.
[9] Rapid feedback refers to 3 general open-ended questions to be completed in 5 minutes.

         b) Equivalency of SET questionnaires
         c) Cognitive biases
         d) Formative vs. summative uses of SETs
2) Biases Due to Courses
3) Biases Due to Students
4) Biases Due to Teachers
5) Issues with Feedback

For Problem 1(a), incentives to boost response rates are necessary. In cases where they don't work, a cautious interpretation of the results is a must. The results should be considered with regard to the limitations imposed by low response rates (Barkhi & Williams, in press).[10]

For Problem 1(b), more studies should be conducted to ensure that different questionnaires of SET tap the same dimensions of teaching performance.

For Problem 1(c), more research is needed as the relevant studies are a scarcity.

For Problem 1(d), the formative and summative uses of SETs should be demarcated. To serve this purpose, two different SET questionnaires may be used. The formative questionnaire may cover qualitative responses while summative questionnaire may cover both qualitative and quantitative responses to double-check each other, following the suggestion by Huxham et al (2008).

For Problem 2, course easiness should be checked. This can be checked by failure rates. A simple formula can be used to adjust the high ratings of easy courses and low ratings of difficult courses based on failure rates.

For Problem 3, expected grade and current GPA can be asked in SET questionnaires.

Due to Problem 4, the following issues should be kept in mind while evaluating teaching performances:
- Teachers who are considered to be less attractive are rated less favorably.
- Elderly teachers are rated less favorably.
- Teachers who are not native speakers of English are rated less favorably.
Finally, the university should take measures against the abuse of SET where teaching quality is compromised to please the students in a move towards a boost of SET results.

Lastly, to address Problem 5, incentives should be provided for teachers so that they can use the feedback to improve the teaching quality.[11] Two papers worth mention in this regard are the following: Chen & Hoshower (2003) suggests that course syllabus may contain brief information about how SET results are used to improve the course. This will increase the perceived value of SET through the eyes of students as well as teachers (Chen & Hoshower, 2003). Secondly, Ballantyne, Borthwick & Packer (2000) reports the development of booklets on main issues such as interactive teaching strategies, teaching for learning, evaluating the quality of teaching etc based on SET responses and teachers' perceptions. This simple and brilliant idea can be applied in off-shore campuses as well.

In Part 2, problems that may be peculiar to off-shore campuses in East and Southeast Asia are discussed. These are:
1) Surface Learners/Teachers vs. Deep Learners/Teachers
2) The Validity of the Questionnaires
3) Curriculum and Assessment Tasks
4) Closing the Feedback Loop

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[10] What level of response rate would be sufficient for the validity of the student ratings? Nulty (2008) provides a very useful table to answer this question –assuming that the respondents are randomly selected. However, convenience sampling rather than random sampling is used in course evaluation surveys (Nulty, 2008). Nevertheless, the table is useful since it sets the higher standard for the response rates. For instance, by a liberal statistical standard, 14 (48%) responses are required out of a class of 30 students while 29 responses (96%) are necessary by a stringent standard. As the class size increases, required response rates decrease. Eg for a class size of 2000, which is highly unlikely, 1% response rate is plausible under a liberal standard.
[11] The distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation applies to teachers as well.

As to Problem 1, students' perceptions and teachers' perceptions may be different as shown by Ballantyne, Borthwick & Packer (2000). Therefore expectations of students and teachers should be clarified on the first week. The university should ensure that surface teachers will not be rewarded due to high SET results that do not reflect the teaching quality.

For Problem 2, cross-validation studies are necessary, whereas parallel decisions need to be taken for the cross-campus use of curriculum and assessment tasks developed in the central hub to manage Problem 3.

As to Problem 4, to close the loop, Betoret & Tomas (2003) lets teachers to evaluate their students by parallel items such as 'the students are (the teacher is) motivated' etc. Not only teachers, but all the stakeholders of off-shore education services should be part of the evaluation loop to improve the teaching quality.[12]

This paper makes practical suggestions whilst proposing new research topics for researchers. These suggestions should be tested by practice, and these tests will definitely lead to newer research topics.

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[12] However, it should be kept in mind that SET poses ethical challenges as the managerial access to and the publicization of the results involve questions on confidentiality and violation of privacy (McCormack, 2005). McCormack (2005) lists the following ethical values relevant to SET: Autonomy and justice, respect for students' opinions, anonymity and confidentiality, and privacy.

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Prompt Feedback: Expectations of Students and Faculty

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Introduction

Web-based or online learning environments have become commonplace in higher education and enrollment in online courses continues to grow (Allen & Seaman, 2008). Attitudes and priorities associated with pedagogy and andragogy have moved toward online teaching and learning. Traditional face-to-face classroom experiences continue while technology allows us to educate students at a distance through the use of completely online and hybrid courses -- offering a combination face-to-face and online learning environments. Classes may be also be conducted through synchronous, two way interactive video conferencing systems, synchronous and asynchronous online learning environments, or combinations of synchronous and asynchronous instruction.

Interaction with students plays an important role in learning. Interaction among students and between students and instructor is associated with students' satisfaction with distance learning and online learning in particular (Kim & Moore, 2005; Sanders & Hirschbuhl, 2007; Stein, Wanstreet, Calvin, Overtoom & Wheaton, 2005). Interaction between the course instructor and students has also been shown to have significant effects on learning outcomes (Chen, 2001; Chen & Willits, 1998; Gorsky & Caspi, 2005; Lemley, Sudweeks, Howell, Laws & Sawyer, 2007).

The seven principles for good practice in undergraduate education were initially published in 1987 and appear to have withstood the test of time as they have been discussed in terms of how they might be deployed using newer technology (Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996). These principles have also been employed in the evaluation of online courses (Graham, Cagiltay, Lim, Craner & Duffy, 2001, Ohio Learning Network).

One of the seven principles for good practice in undergraduate education is to give prompt feedback (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Though prompt feedback appears to be important (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Dennen & Darabi, 2007; Gaytan & McEwen, 2007; Lewis & Abdul-Hamid, 2006), a review of the literature did not produce any research indicating what amount of time is considered prompt in response to student communications and feedback on various assessments and assignments, so the authors began researching these expectations (Sanders, Mikanowicz, Chang & Sellaro, 2008).

The purpose of this study is to assess student and faculty expectations regarding the timeliness of communication and feedback regarding course assignments (papers, quizzes, tests and presentations) in regular courses that employ regularly scheduled meeting times (such as a traditional face to face course which meets every Monday) and Web-based courses without regularly scheduled meeting times (online classes without a regularly scheduled meeting time). The review of the literature as well as observations by the authors led to the formation of the following research questions:

1. Do students and faculty members have different expectations as to what constitutes prompt feedback on assignments and faculty members' responses to students' communications?
2. Do the response time expectations of students for feedback on assignments and replies to communications differ according to the course schedule (regular vs. Web-based courses)?
3. Is it possible to identify the response time expectations of students and faculty members for providing prompt feedback on assignments and replies to student communications?

Methods

A survey designed by the authors was used to obtain demographic information and estimates of the amount of time that participants perceived to be a prompt response to various communications and prompt feedback on assignments common to regular and Web-based courses. In 2008, after receiving approval from the University

Human Subjects Research Committee, this exploratory study was conducted at a Midwestern university. In summer 2007, the survey instrument was pilot tested by faculty and both undergraduate and graduate students who completed their degrees prior to the end of the summer term. The authors then revised the survey as needed for clarification. Eighty-five faculty members and 389 students volunteered to respond to our survey during the spring semester of 2008. Data was collected without participant identifiers through the use of an online survey service and also through a printed version of the instrument that was distributed in selected undergraduate and graduate courses.

Instrument

Two versions of the survey instrument were constructed – one for administration to faculty members and another version for student participants. The faculty survey consisted of three demographic items and a total of eighteen items requesting that faculty participants estimate the range of time that they perceive provides a prompt response to students' communications and prompt feedback on assignments to students in courses with and without scheduled class meetings. The student version of this online survey instrument was similar to that given to the faculty members. The survey provided to the student participants consisted of four demographic items and eighteen items requesting that student participants estimate the amount of time that they perceive provides a prompt response from faculty members to communications and provides prompt feedback on various assignments in classes with and without scheduled class meetings.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics were obtained and the Chi-square test of homogeneity and the Sign test analysis were conducted to provide exploratory data and to answer the research questions associated with this investigation.

Results

Responses were received from 85 faculty members and 386 students. Three student responses were not analyzed due to incomplete information. Some participants failed to complete all of the survey items. Student participants consisted of 342 (89%) undergraduate and 44 (11%) graduate students. Thirty-nine (48%) of the faculty participants were male. The majority of student participants 213 (55%) were female. One hundred and fifty-two (39%) students reported having taken at least one Web-based course and 22 (26%) faculty members reported having taught at least one Web-based course.

Table 1 compares the response distributions between faculty and student. For courses with regularly scheduled meeting times, the majority of the faculty (92%) and students (91%) responded that they preferred a response to students' emails within two days, 55% of faculty members preferred responding to student's emails in 1 to 2 days and 63% of the students preferred that their instructors respond to their email in 1 to 2 days. Among them, 37% of the faculty and 28% of the students preferred an immediate response to students' email. There was no significant difference in the overall response distributions between faculty and students for response time to email. The preference in responding to student's phone calls is similar to responding to students' emails. The results for responding to emails and phone calls in Web-based courses were similar to those in regular courses. Significant differences (p-value<0.01) were found for response time to Quiz, 1 page writing, 2-4 pages writing, and 5-9 pages writing for regular courses. For Web-based courses, significance was found in "No more than 5 sort essay items" and writing assignments consisting of 1 page, 2-4 pages and 5-9 pages. More students preferred to see the response to their quiz within 2 days. In general, more students preferred shorter waiting time for feedback than did faculty participants.

Table 2 shows that, when comparing Web-based and regular courses, students expected shorter waiting time for responses from emails (p-value<.05) in the Web-based course than in the regular course. The same results (p-

value<0.01) were observed for quiz, No more than 5 sort essay items, 1 page, 2-4 pages, 5-9 pages, and 10 or more pages writing assignments.

Table 3 shows the age effect on the perception of response time from students. The only significant difference was on response for emails in the Web-based course. Students between 31 to 40 years of age were more likely (79%) to prefer receiving responses to their emails in 1-2 days (p-value = 0.04) in the Web-based course. There were no significant differences in response preference distributions between different age groups from all other questions for both regular and Web-based courses.

Discussion

The limitations to this study that the reader needs to consider in reviewing the results include that the sample was one of convenience, so the results from this study cannot be generalized to other groups of students and faculty teaching and learning in other situations. The sample was obtained from courses at a single academic institution. Additional relationships may have been identified with a sample including multiple colleges and universities. The researchers did not account for student and faculty workload which may affect students' and faculty members' expectations of prompt feedback. Additional research is necessary to determine if there is a relationship between workload and the amount of time which students and faculty members consider appropriate when providing prompt feedback. Another factor that may play a role in how quickly one provides feedback on various assignments is the type of feedback provided. For example it takes less time to simply put a score on a paper than it does to provide meaningful comments. The type or quality of feedback provided to students was not addressed in this investigation and future investigations into this topic might wish to consider this variable.

There were statistically significant results in the differences between the feedback expectations of faculty and students who participated in this study. So for this investigation, the answer to our first research question is that students and faculty members do have different expectations as to what constitutes prompt feedback on assignments such as written assignments between one and nine pages and objective quizzes and assessments which include up to five short essay items. Generally speaking where there are differences in the feedback expectations, more of the student participants in this study perceived prompt feedback as being provided in less time than did the faculty participants. These results differ from those of an earlier investigation by the authors in which no significant difference was noted between the feedback expectations of faculty and students (Sanders, Mikanowicz, Chang & Sellaro, 2008). The difference may be due to the larger number of participants in this study resulting in an increased ability of the statistical tests to detect differences, or may reflect actual differences in the participants' perceptions. The descriptive statistics suggest that on average faculty participants in this study do not have different response time expectations for replying to student email and phone communications.

The results of the sign test suggest that more students feel that feedback should be provided sooner for objective quizzes, No more than 5 sort essay items, and writing assignments in Web-based courses than in regular courses which answers the second research question. More students also prefer faster response to email in the Web-based courses as compared to regular courses. These results agree with those reported in an earlier investigation (Sanders, Mikanowicz, Chang & Sellaro, 2008). These differences in students' response time expectations suggest that faculty members may need to reply to communications and provide feedback quicker on assignments when teaching Web-based courses to meet student's perceptions of prompt feedback. Failing to do this may lead to dissatisfaction for some students whose expectations for prompt communication and feedback are not met in Web-based classes. Faculty may find it useful to share their expectations regarding communication with students and providing feedback on various assignments up front perhaps as guidelines in the course syllabus. For example faculty may wish to tell students that they can usually expect a response to email within two days, or that while objective quizzes, in a Web-based course, may be scored and feedback provided immediately on completion, feedback on instructor graded writing assignments will generally be available within a week of submission.

In answering the third research question, this study has identified the most common response time expectations of students and faculty members for providing prompt feedback on assignments and replies to student communications for the participants in this investigation. Understanding these expectations is important and will be of great value to instructional designers, those providing training for faculty and students and faculty members engaged in education in regular, or Web-based learning environments.

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Table 1: Faculty | Student Prompt Response Percentages Distribution.

	Immediately	1 – 2 days	3 – 7 days	8 – 14 days	More than 14 days
Regular Course					
Email	37% | 28%	**55%** | **63%**	8% | 9%	0% | 0%	0% | 0%
Phone	34% | 37%	**57%** | **59%**	9% | 4%	0% | 0%	0% | 0%
Quiz **	4% | 15%	45% | **50%**	**46%** | 34%	5% | 1%	0% | 0%
No more than 5 short essay items	3% | 11%	34% | 38%	**53%** | **45%**	10% | 6%	0% | 0%
1 page writing ***	1% | 7%	14% | 40%	**65%** | **46%**	18% | 7%	1% | 0%
2 - 4 pages writing **	1% | 5%	5% | 20%	**68%** | **60%**	22% | 15%	3% | 1%
5 - 9 pages writing **	1% | 5%	4% | 10%	29% | **39%**	**61%** | 36%	5% | 9%
10 or more pages writing	1% | 3%	0% | 7%	21% | 20%	**51%** | **44%**	26% | 25%
Presentation	17% | 15%	27% | 36%	**49%** | **39%**	7% | 9%	0% | 1%
Web-based Course					
Email	30% | 39%	**58%** | **53%**	12% | 8%	0% | 1%	0% | 0%
Phone	29% | 38%	**59%** | **55%**	12% | 7%	0% | 1%	0% | 0%
Quiz	13% | 18%	**52%** | **59%**	34% | 22%	0% | 1%	0% | 0%
No more than 5 short essay items *	3% | 12%	38% | **48%**	**53%** | 36%	6% | 4%	0% | 0%
1 page writing ***	2% | 1%	27% | **49%**	**64%** | 38%	8% | 2%	0% | 0%
2 - 4 pages writing **	2% | 6%	19% | 30%	**59%** | **54%**	17% | 9%	3% | 0%
5 - 9 pages writing *	2% | 4%	3% | 15%	42% | **45%**	**48%** | 33%	5% | 4%
10 or more pages writing	1% | 5%	0% | 9%	29% | 25%	**52%** | **44%**	18% | 17%
Presentation	17% | 13%	31% | **39%**	**42%** | 37%	8% | 8%	2% | 2%

Modes in each distribution are boldfaced.
* Indicates statistical significance at 5% level; ** Indicates statistical significance at 1% level;
*** Indicates statistical significance at 0.5% level.

Table 2. Sign Test for Students' Comparison Between Regular and Web-based Courses.

	Less	More	The Same	
Email	84	47	243	*
Phone	42	52	281	
Quiz	101	54	220	***
No more than 5 short essay items	104	52	216	***
1 page writing	115	39	219	***
2 - 4 pages writing	109	41	223	***
5 - 9 pages writing	96	44	232	***
10 or more pages writing	94	22	255	***
Presentation	66	62	244	

* Indicates statistical significance at 5% level; ** Indicates statistical significance at 1% level;
*** Indicates statistical significance at 0.5% level.
"Less" means that the day range responded to for Web-based course was less than the day range responded for regular course. "More" means the day range responded to Web-based course was greater than the day range responded for regular course. The Same means that the subject responded the same day range for both Web-based and regular course on similar survey item.

Table 3. The Affect of Students' Age Differences on Perception of Prompt Response.

	30 or Below		31 to 40		Above 40	
	Mode	Percentage	Mode	Percentage	Mode	Percentage
Regular Course						
Email	1 – 2 Days	62%	1 – 2 Days	69%	1 – 2 Days	73%
Phone	1 – 2 Days	57%	1 – 2 Days	72%	1 – 2 Days	59%
Quiz	1 – 2 Days	51%	3 – 7 Days	48%	1 – 2 Days	55%
No more than 5 short essay items	3 – 7 Days	44%	3 – 7 Days	52%	3 – 7 Days	50%
1 page writing	3 – 7 Days	46%	3 – 7 Days	59%	3 – 7 Days	41%
2 - 4 pages writing	3 – 7 Days	59%	3 – 7 Days	72%	3 – 7 Days	55%
5 - 9 pages writing	3 – 7 Days	39%	3 – 7 Days	45%	3 – 7 Days	45%
10 or more pages writing	8 – 14 Days	42%	8 – 14 Days	55%	8 – 14 Days	45%
Presentation	3 – 7 Days	39%	3 – 7 Days	45%	3 – 7 Days	32%
Web-based Course						
Email *	1 – 2 Days	50%	1 – 2 Days	79%	1 – 2 Days	52%
Phone	1 – 2 Days	54%	1 – 2 Days	64%	1 – 2 Days	67%
Quiz	1 – 2 Days	59%	1 – 2 Days	61%	1 – 2 Days	62%
No more than 5 short essay items	1 – 2 Days	47%	1 – 2 Days	54%	1 – 2 Days	48%
1 page writing	1 – 2 Days	51%	3 – 7 Days	50%	1 – 2 Days	43%
2 - 4 pages writing	3 – 7 Days	56%	3 – 7 Days	61%	3 – 7 Days	48%
5 - 9 pages writing	3 – 7 Days	45%	3 – 7 Days	43%	3 – 7 Days	43%
10 or more pages writing	8 – 14 Days	42%	8 – 14 Days	61%	8 – 14 Days	38%
Presentation	1 – 2 Days	40%	3 – 7 Days	54%	3 – 7 Days	33%[†]

* Indicates statistical significance at 5% level.
[†] "1 – 2 days" and "3 – 7 days" were both at 33%.

Both Local and Global: a Case of International Distance Learning.

Sonia Mycak (University of Sydney) and Yasuo Nishizawa (Gifu University)

There is a growing need, both in Australian and Japanese universities, to internationalise curricula and student experience. Established forms of international exchange between universities normally require students to travel abroad for a significant period of time. International distance learning, however, offers a unique possibility: it can provide domestic students with an accessible international experience. In this sense, distance learning can impart a global educational experience at a local level.

In this presentation we will report on an international distance learning relationship which has been established between the University of Sydney, Australia, and Gifu University, Japan. Since 2002, the Faculty of Arts at the University of Sydney and Gifu University's Faculty of Education have participated in a lecture exchange programme through which live lectures are transmitted through web-based video conferencing. Lectures on Australian studies are transmitted from the University of Sydney; lectures on Japanese language, linguistics and culture are transmitted from Gifu University. The Australian and Japanese students enjoy specialist teaching in a cross-cultural learning environment.

This programme is a teaching and learning initiative, which we believe is the only one of its kind. Indeed, the National Institute of Multimedia Education (NIME), a Japanese government agency dedicated to research and development in e-learning/distance education in the tertiary sector, has reported that the current relationship between Gifu and Sydney universities is the only institution-to-institution programme of distance learning between a Japanese and an overseas university ("Current Status and Challenges of International Activities Using ICT in Japanese 4-year Colleges and Universities: Results of the Survey conducted in 2004" NIME Research Report 15, 2006). We therefore hope it will be of interest to conference participants to hear us outline how the programme was established, the ways in which it has developed, and plans for future growth.

Part 1: Designing the Foundation for International Distance Learning by Yasuo Nishizawa

While both the style and the content of international distance learning could, and perhaps should, embrace a whole set of their various combinations, we should be constantly aware that much depends upon the progress and innovations in the field of technology. Until quite recently, for example, we had to be dependent on ISDN and the use of eight telephone lines for a live communication of both image and sound, paying 80,000~90,000 yen per hour of connection. It was only in 2003 that Gifu University succeeded in connecting into Sydney University using Internet Protocol, reducing the cost almost to zero for communication itself. Now we are living in a new era: we are ready to concentrate much of our energy on the creation of a new system, a kind of platform for international distance learning.

In order to decide in which direction we should be heading for a further development of international distance learning, however, we must first examine, in some detail, what we already have and then decide which particular style or form of distance learning truly possesses the power of transforming higher education in the world.

Broadly speaking, we have three different technical categories by which we can classify the possible forms of international distance learning:

A. *Lectures delivered to individual learners by on- demand system*
With this style of learning, the lectures are not alive: the students will have no chance of asking questions and getting the answers from beyond the screen, because they are only recorded ones. Its merit for the students is that they can attend the lectures at home at any time of the day and as often as they want. Discussions between the lecturers and the students are possible only through the Internet.

B. *Live lectures for classes*
By combining the Internet and the TV conferencing system, lectures can be live or two-directional. Lectures could be very much alive, inspiring and even thrilling for both lecturers and students by allowing some time for heated questions and answers.

C. *Eclectic lectures*
With a series of lectures, A and B can be combined into a patchwork of lectures. The ratio of the combination could be changed according to the contents or the aims of each module of lectures.

Now let us try to classify the contents, in combination with proper styles in learning, that are prevalent in today's international distance learning. They would also seem to fall into three categories:

X. *A live exchange among students*
This type of learning is not a lecture but a kind discussion, often designed and conducted by the students but within the time frame pre-arranged by the teaching staffs of two universities. This type of learning could hardly occupy a regular place within the curriculum of any university. It would only be a sort of ultra-curriculum activity or an event.

Y. *An omnibus lectures delivered by a loosely organized lecturers*
This type of learning is possible in combination with any of the three technical categories (A, B and C) discussed above. This learning could easily occupy a part of a regular university curriculum. But it has its own limitations: since it usually consists of more than four or five lecturers of considerably different disciplines, the course as a whole would rarely be on an advanced level.

Z. *A course of lectures given by one lecturer*
This type of learning is similar to the traditional face-to-face lectures and it is highly likely to a most orthodox and most powerful type of learning because it could aim at any level of learning, from the lowest to the highest, and it could cover all sorts of studies while technically all three categories can be applied.

The effectiveness of the type X and the type Y is almost self evident. The unique good point of the type X consists in imbuing the students with a thrilling interest in a possible cultural exchange by any two groups of students living thousands of miles away from each other and in making them design the whole shape of discussion so that it would be a truly lively one. The type Y, on the other hand, craves an active participation on the part of the teaching staff seeking cooperative universities overseas. Its success very much depends upon a clever choice of topic too so that a band of famous lecturers could play their respective parts.

As for the type Z, no successful case has yet been reported in Japan so far as I know. A partial success of the type Z, however, was shown in the lecture exchange program which was signed and started in 2004 by the two institutions: Gifu University and the University of Sydney, based upon a " modular lecture-exchange system". On March 2nd, 2004, the Faculty of Arts of the University of Sydney and the Faculty of Education of Gifu University exchanged a memorandum concerning the lecture exchange program through distance learning systems, agreeing to exchange lectures with each other when they were judged to be worthy of being incorporated into an existing course the other party as part of its regular curriculum.

This lecture exchange program proved to be successful for years to come. The majority of the students who took part in this program could enjoy the benefit of its unique experience. Both teaching staffs and technical staffs cooperated with each other. Thus at least one teaching staff, teaching Japanese at the University of Sydney, kept receiving lectures on Japanese language or Japanese culture from Gifu University and at least one teaching staff, teaching English, kept receiving lectures on Australian multiculturalism from the University of Sydney.

But how are we to estimate this program in relation to the future of our international distance learning? Before that, however, we should be examining the exact nature of the program by asking such questions as "Who started it?", "What was the aim?", "How is it progressing now?"

In April, 2002, I was working as a member of a newly organized team at the Faculty of Education for a joint project between Gifu University and Gifu Prefectural Government. Our mission was to do a joint research on international distance learning by finding a willing and cooperative university outside of Japan, possibly one in Australia because of the short time difference with Japan.

Our final aim was to introduce at least one course of lectures from a university abroad, via Gifu University, to the International Network University of Consortium run by Gifu Prefectural Government. It had 17 local participant universities and colleges in Gifu area, including Gifu University. The aim and mission of the Consortium was to enhance the educational quality of the local area.

In early September of 2002, I sent an email to Dr Sonia Mycak of Sydney University, although a complete stranger, who promptly replied the next day saying she would be visiting Nagoya soon and would like to visit Gifu University to see us. Almost immediately she had consulted about our proposal with the head of English department, who supported our project and arranged a meeting of negotiation between the delegate members of Gifu University and those of the University of Sydney one month later.

After several meetings and several trial lecture transmissions, I decided to ask 1~3 of Dr Mycak's lectures to be sent from Sydney to be incorporated into my new course of lectures entitled *Cross Cultural Communication* which was to be opened in October in 2004.

I was expected to offer this course to the curriculum of the Consortium. And I acted accordingly, making one course available upon registration for every student belonging to the 17 local universities and colleges of Gifu prefecture. This was repeated until 2006, when I retired from Gifu University.

In March, 2008, Dr Sonia Mycak suddenly decided to seek the possibility of expanding international distance learning into the whole of Tokai Area: consisting of four prefectures: Aichi, Gifu, Mie and Shizuoka. Her wish was to deliver a series of 15 lectures to the same class beyond the seas in the style Z of live international distance learning.

I also had a dream of my own to establish a network of participant universities, starting with the Tokai Area. When Dr Sonia Mycak applied to Australia Japan Foundation toward the end of March for subsidy, she asked me to work together as an adviser. So we decided to work together. Toward the end of July she had come to Japan and saw the president of Gifu University. She explained to him about her plan. Then he showed some interest in it and even suggested to make use of the Consortium.

I had sent emails to several major universities in the Tokai Area, including Aichi University of Education, Aichi Prefectural University, Nagoya City University, Mie University and Shizuoka University. They were not against our plan. But they said they could not participate for several reasons.

It became clear, however, that one of the most serious problems was the cost. Not the cost of communication but the cost of several other things can not be ignored. For example, an academic labor of developing and delivering a whole series of lectures must be duly paid. And the cost for the work of technicians and the cost for the use of facilities should also be added in the bill.

What I would like to propose here is to set up a system which would ensure, for all supportive universities and colleges throughout the world, a kind of mutually beneficial service much like the one that exists between Gifu University and the University of Sydney, being specialized in international distance learning.

International distance learning, with its effective worldwide system of its own, should be a basic educational infrastructure for the world, based upon mutual responsibility and supported by mutual understanding.

But how are we to establish such a system? Is it not just a dream?

A prototype of that kind may be found in Gifu Station Course of English, a course of English open for the students of the 17 universities that belong to the Consortium. Imitating what I have done for three years from 2004, Associate Professor Tatsumi and Professor Hirota have offered one of the English courses for a trial course of international distance learning in which students, registering for the course, can choose to attend either the station class or the campus class.

This course, by the way, is again a product of collaboration between Gifu University and the University of Sydney. Only this time we are offering a class, consisting of local university students and citizens, an entire course, a series of 15 live lectures, sent from Australia. The main contents are the history of immigration in Australia and the historical and social background of multiculturalism.

An interesting point is that Gifu University decided to pay a high cost. If it should succeed as a regular course of lectures, from which registered students can get academic credits, it will be a historical success, and may trigger a series of similar attempts. Yet it may take several years or more for this project to get full recognition on the part of the citizens and students.

A profoundly significant message for all the universities in the world, however, will be that any lecturer of any university, including most famous or greatest professors, would be available even to a far off university simply by applying for a certain course of lectures that would be absolutely necessary to maintain its high level of education.

One big problem, of course, is the language barrier. English is an ideal common language for international distance learning because it is most widely used in the academic world. But every lecturer will have to make an utmost effort to speak clearly and distinctly and at a more or less slow pace when they speak to the students whose first language is not English, although there will always be a certain number of lecturers speaking in their own mother tongues, such as a Japanese lecturer speaking to foreign students majoring in Japanese.

Another big problem is the high cost to pay for the work of the lecturers and the technical supporters as well as for the facilities. Only a very rich university will be able to pay the cost by itself annually. But a network of universities could share the expenses and have the lectures sent to their campuses at a time, which is technically possible.

A truly global solution for these problems, however, rests on a mutually beneficial system supported by all the participant universities forming a network with rules.

One thing we should be doing, at an earlier stage of development, is to establish a rule that any university that offers a course of lectures to any participant university will obtain the right to get one course of lectures of its own choosing from one of the participant universities. Repeated international transference of money would be troublesome for any university, but a mutually beneficial system will effectively and drastically reduce the trouble.

Another thing participant institutions should be doing, at a little later stage of development, would be to exchange their academic information which tells about the academic career, with a list of selected publications, of every lecturer belonging to the participant institutions. Thus every participant institution will be provided, probably in a thick book, with basic academic data of information, which is absolutely necessary for any institution to search suitable lecturers when it decided to reorganize or improve its curriculum.

Part 2: The case of international distance learning in Sydney and Gifu universities by Sonia Mycak

The international distance learning project involves the exchange of lectures between the Faculty of Education of Gifu University and the University of Sydney's Faculty of Arts. Live lectures are transmitted through audio-visual links. From October 2002 and throughout 2003, trial lecture transmissions were conducted using both ISDN (Integrated Services Digital Network) dial-up circuits and IP (Internet Protocol) links. The latter proved to be both effective and cost-efficient. In March of 2004 an agreement was formally concluded between Gifu University's Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Arts at the University of Sydney for the continuing provision of such lectures. Each year lectures on Japanese language, linguistics and culture have been transmitted from Gifu University and incorporated into Japanese studies courses for Sydney University students. Lectures in Australian studies have been transmitted from the University of Sydney to Gifu University and incorporated into existing courses in cross-cultural communication and English as a foreign language.

This lecture exchange between Gifu and Sydney universities has been reported on in Gifu University publications and academic journals (for example, "An approach to international distance education through a module-exchange system" by Aoyagi, T., Imai, A., Ema, S., Kato, N., Kobayashi, K., Nishizawa, Y., Hirota, N., Matsubara, M., Yamada, T., and Mycak, S. published in the *Journal of Multimedia Aided Education Research* Vol 3, No 1, 2006, pages 9-18).

The project has generated considerable media interest, particularly in Japan. The inaugural trial lecture transmission from Gifu University to the University of Sydney was reported in the national newspaper, the *Australian* (13/11/2002). The formal signing of an agreement between the two universities was reported in Japanese television news broadcasts Japan Broadcasting Corporation (NHK) Gifu and Gifu BC, and in four Japanese newspapers: *Asahi* and *Yomiuri* (nation-wide), *Chunichi News* (regional), and *Gifu News* (local). The lectures transmitted from the University of Sydney have received press coverage in Japan, on television (*Rabu Rabu Waido Today* [11/1/05] and in newspapers: *Gifu News* (12/12/02); *Chunichi News* (12/11/02); *Chunichi News* (12/1/05); *Gifu News* (12/1/05); and *Yomiuri* (1/2/06).

My role within this project has been to coordinate the University of Sydney's involvement and develop and deliver lectures for transmission to Gifu University. It is from this perspective that I would like to discuss my experiences of teaching Japanese university students using this particular form of distance learning.

The content of my classes may best be classified as 'Australian Studies'. The broad aim is to introduce Japanese students to the history, society and culture of Australia. As the settlement of Australia includes the original Indigenous people, the arrival of the British in 1788, post-war immigrants from Europe, and more recently people from Asia, Africa, the Middle East and the Pacific, my lectures present the development of Australian society and culture from the perspective of Australia's British colonial history, Aboriginal Australia, and the history of immigration and the development of multiculturalism.

The objective is to learn about Australia from the perspective of multiculturalism and the cultural diversity of Australian society. The intention is for students to develop an understanding of how Australia has developed from a British colony settled in 1788 to one of the most multicultural countries in the world. We also explore the relationship between Australia and Japan.

While Australia is of particular interest to Japan given our strong trade and strengthening security relationships, multiculturalism is now increasingly relevant to Japan. Immigration and the settlement of foreign residents is one of the most critical issues facing contemporary Japan. This has been evident in recent debate within government and political circles about whether to implement greater levels of immigration as a response to a decreasing and ageing population. This question is most pressing for those in the Tokai area of Japan (to which Gifu prefecture belongs), as these municipalities have the highest number of foreign residents (due to employment in local manufacturing industries). The scholarly focus upon multiculturalism within my classes, together with special attention to the Australia-Japan relationship,

is intended to increase the Japanese students' understanding of cultural diversity as an increasingly shared interest with Australia.

My overall objective is to provide a positive educational experience through which Japanese university students will develop a basic although well-grounded understanding of Australian history, culture and society. It is hoped that as a result the students will be better equipped should they wish to pursue connections with Australia in their own fields of endeavour and throughout their own professional careers. In this sense, the ultimate purpose of this project is to deepen links between Japan and Australia.

Participating in this international distance learning project has required my developing specific teaching/learning materials: writing lectures and selecting accompanying textual and audio-visual material. The teaching/learning materials have been tailored specifically for a cohort of Japanese students. Rather than reproducing existing Australian studies material aimed at students in Australia, I have developed new materials for tertiary students who are non-native users of English, and have little or no prior knowledge of Australian history, culture and society. This also entails drawing upon cross-cultural pedagogical strategies and adapting them specifically to an Australia-Japan context.

Perhaps the most pressing pedagogical issue is the differing level of English language proficiency within student cohorts. The students of Gifu University are not native speakers of English, and even within the one group there can be varying levels of English language ability. The challenge is how to make the material accessible and comprehensible, given the language of instruction is English. In preparing and presenting the material, I try to use clear and concise language that would be easy to understand. I repeat the most important points two or three ways, using a different sentence structure each time. I avoid the use of jargon or figurative speech. In short, I need to use language that is not complicated, even when talking about quite complex concepts and ideas.

I employ a number of teaching methods, as I endeavour to incorporate key skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Depending on the number of classes I give, to some extent the students experience a variety of learning styles. Most often my classes open with a conventional 'talk and chalk' lecture, supported by a written copy. As I speak, the students can follow using their own printed text. At times I stop and direct the students to annotate their copy. Audio-visual material plays a very important role in both reinforcing the lecture material and introducing new subject matter. At times the students undertake responsibility for their own learning, as they are expected to complete a small research or assessment task outside of class. Active questioning is encouraged during class-time, and students also take up the invitation to email comments and questions following each class.

There are varying levels of student participation, depending upon the objective of the lesson. The more conventional lectures designed to provide maximum information are perhaps the most 'passive' in terms of the students' contribution to the learning environment. On the other hand, one of the most interactive lessons I have given was one in which I introduced the students to an Australian literary text that portrays cultural diversity and explores the issue of cross-cultural communication. The intention was to actively involve the students in the reading and comprehension of the text. To this end I selected an excerpt from a radio play, since this type of writing is designed to be read out aloud rather than be performed on stage. Since the students had been given a copy of the text, several could take on roles in the play, while the rest could closely follow the script. I gave some contextual information, explaining who the characters were and when and where the action was set. By prior arrangement with the Gifu University professor who was supervising the class, certain props were also obtained and brought into the classroom. Then we performed the play. The students seemed to find this enjoyable as well as informative. Discussion of the theme and issues raised in the play completed the lesson.

The distance learning arrangement between Gifu and Sydney universities has functioned according to what Gifu University colleagues have called "a module-exchange system", whereby a series of up to three lectures are transmitted from the sender university to be incorporated into an existing course taught by the receiving university. My classes in Australian studies have been received by professors Norio Hirota and

Toru Tatsumi and incorporated into their "Communication by Foreign Language (English)" course. Hence one audience for international distance learning classes at Gifu University has been learners of English as a foreign language within the Faculty of Education. As a form of content-based English language instruction, the value of such international distance learning lessons may be self-evident. Indeed, when Gifu University students were surveyed after taking the classes (in 2007) a majority of students (81%) concluded that international distance education is effective for studying English. A significant number (60.3%) stated that this form of tuition should be introduced (32.8% were undecided while only 6.9% disagreed). ("On the results of questionnaire measured in the class 'Communication using foreign language [English]' in 2007").

As a vehicle for exposure to native language use and specialist content and vocabulary, a module of international distance learning classes may, to a certain extent, stand alone. However the intention to provide such classes to students other than those who are studying English, to draw upon the distance education more for content than for language tuition, raises an important issue: incorporation within the existing Japanese syllabus. Whether it concerns the possibility of introducing an entire course or including a series of lectures within an already established course, an important factor in the success of distance learning is the degree to which it can be integrated into the existing curriculum.

My lectures on Australian culture and cultural diversity were included within a course entitled "Cross Cultural Communication" convened by Professor Yasuo Nishizawa. My brief was to provide a module of three lectures but those lectures needed to complement Professor Nishizawa's classes, and match the material already covered in the course. My aim may have been to give the students some understanding of the history of immigration and settlement and the reality that contemporary Australia is a place in which people from different countries and of different cultures live. However, this needed to be meaningful in the context of the entire course and relevant to the broader aims of study. There was scope for bringing out both points of similarity and divergence between Australian society and culture and that of Japan. Real benefit would come from the students developing a comparative awareness, and some insight into the ways countries other than Japan have experienced the interaction of cultures in a profound way. I needed to make such connections obvious, so that my module of lectures would not seem disconnected or incongruous. Therefore I introduced my series of lectures by citing the words of Kakuzo Okakura, a prominent Japanese intellectual whose work the students had studied during the course. Quoting from "The Book of Tea", I highlighted Okakura's concern for potential misunderstanding between cultures, but also his belief in the possibility of different cultures coexisting and 'supplementing' each other. Okakura's thinking had developed in response to Japan's relationship with the West, but his thoughts could also be insightful for understanding cultural diversity within other societies, such as that within Australia. Indeed he may have been surprised to find that Australia is now like "a tea-cup in which humanity has met". The interface of cultures provided a theoretical ground from which Professor Nishizawa could reevaluate Japan's 'cross-cultural communication', both in terms of ancient relationships with China and Korea, and Japan's more recent 'westernisation'. What I tried to bring was a meaningful contrast and comparison with Australia's post-war expansion in terms of industry, economy and population, and the development of Australia's multicultural society. Together Professor Nishizawa and I hoped the students' understanding of Australia's cultural diversity would relate to their exploration of the impact of cross-cultural communication upon Japan.

Aside from course content and pedagogical approach, other factors have been crucial for the success of the international distance learning classes: delivery quality and delivery techniques. Teams of technical support staff at both Gifu and Sydney universities have worked tirelessly to ensure smooth transmission and reception of the video-conferences. This reminds us of the need for strong institutional support, including expert technicians, video conferencing equipment and other technical resources. Unfortunately this also bespeaks the possibility of institutional constraints, given the lessons designed for international distance learning may not always be suitable for domestic students. Departments and Faculties may be limited in the resources they can assign towards developing distance learning units of study for use by students of other universities.

I have always been aware that the technology supporting the long-distance learning link-up between Gifu and Sydney universities could be taken advantage of to create an interactive learning experience. Various forms of multimedia have been employed, using a high visual component (video, photographs, images and the like). The use of real-time transmissions has maximised immediacy. Given there is no significant time difference between Australia and Japan, video-conferencing is a particularly effective vehicle for distance learning classes. Nonetheless there is more work to be done and our plans for the future involve investigating the technological possibilities for providing on-demand transmissions and E-learning technologies aside from video-conferencing. We will enhance and further develop forms of video-conferencing beyond the standard lecture format to include new strategies for student-to-student and student-to-lecturer interaction.

While certainly challenging, international distance learning is ultimately very fulfilling. Feedback from students has reinforced this fact. It was satisfying to learn, for example, that "Sonia's English was easy to understand" (email from student dated 12/1/05). It was rewarding to see careful consideration: "I read through the study material of today's class in the train back from university. And now I have questions from today's class…" (email from student dated 11/1/05). And of course I was pleased to hear my students say "I'm looking forward to meeting you again next week" (email from student dated 11/1/05).

The current project appears to address a growing desire within Japanese universities to internationalise curricula by (i) expanding the classes presented in English and (ii) providing domestic students with an accessible international experience. For Australian universities too, broadening the student learning experience has become an important aim, as has the need to raise awareness of Australia's place within the Asia-Pacific region. Both these objectives may be met through an international distance learning venture such as the lecture exchange between Gifu and Sydney universities. In fact, the broadest aims of international exchange can now be served through international distance learning, by allowing students a readily accessible but truly global educational experience.

Indigenous Curriculum: A local solution to global concerns

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Abstract

Since 1800s curriculum for Māori (indigenous people of Aotearoa New Zealand) has been controlled by non-Indigenous educators. Education became an instrument for conformity rather than a tool of empowerment. Despite Māori resistance, schooling was largely monocultural and based on English. Consequently Māori were disenfranchised and achievement was hindered.

Neo-liberalist policies of the 1990s meant the state reduced its involvement in people's lives and devolved some responsibility to local communities. In line with these policies the Ministry of Education (MoE) contracted out development of the first national curriculum policies. The Minister listened to the voice of Māori and agreed to support the development of curriculum in the Māori language. Although Māori writers' intentions were positive the resulting curriculum, albeit written in Māori, mirrored and was almost a direct translation of the English Medium curriculum

This presentation critiques the development of the first national curriculum in the Māori language and examines how MoE structures restrained Māori agency. The fact that Māori resistance brought about some changes to the MoE structures will be considered, along with Māori political and cultural reasons for engaging with the state in what was, at times, a dehumanising process for writers.

In 2007 the MoE decided to again revise all national curriculum policies. The new process saw a shift for Māori from 'curriculum as translation' to 'curriculum of the people'. The state worked in partnership with Māori in a more enabling process. Space for Māori community voice in the development of the newly introduced school based curriculum could result in a curriculum that is empowering.

keywords = Indigenous curriculum, structures,agency,community voice,empowerment

Traditional College Students and Greek Students: A Comparison of Ethical Behavior

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Abstract

Traditional College Students and Greek Students: A Comparison of Ethical Behavior
    The goal of this research was to extend the literature in the area of moral/ethical development as related to traditional (non-Greek), sorority, and fraternity college student behavior. Identifying the moral or ethical level of traditional, sorority, and fraternity college students is significant in understanding the influences such a population will have on society and the work force. The impact of inappropriate or immoral behavior can have extensive negative consequences on both the individual and societal structure. By understanding ethical behavior at an early developmental period, appropriate interventions could be constructed to educate a person to engage in ethical activities. To address these issues, there were two research questions: (1) What are the differences between traditional (non-Greek), sorority, and fraternity college students' responses to ethical situations? and (2) What specific ethical categories exist between traditional, sorority, and fraternity
 college students' ethical behaviors?
    A novel survey was created to determine the ethical activities of the college students.   The survey had 20 questions and responses were determined by answering "Yes" or "No." Questions were divided into three general categories, civics, classroom conduct, and personal attitudes. In 2009 there were 84 sorority and 49 fraternity students who completed the survey. A total of 2718 surveys were completed in 1998 and a total of 1832 were completed in 2006. All the data from the 4683 surveys were analyzed for this study.

    There were prominent differences between traditional, sorority, and fraternity students regarding their responses to ethical situations. Results indicate that sorority students and traditional non-Greek students typically responded in a more ethical and conservative manner compared to fraternity students. College students will cheat when given the opportunity but fraternity students tend to cheat more (self-report) in academic situations than non-Greek students and sorority students. The most shocking data from this research is related to drug use and implied inappropriate behavior in a student's room. 76% of fraternity students would attempt to stop a friend from trying to encourage an intoxicated person to go back to his/her room to engage in inappropriate behavior. Almost all (96%) of sorority members would try to stop such behavior. 24% of the fraternity students would allow a friend to try to encourage an intoxicated person to go back to his/her room to engage in in
 appropriate behavior. In 2006- 84.79% of male and female college students would stop a friend from trying to encourage an intoxicated person to go back to his/her room to engage in inappropriate behavior. Back in 1998 only 73.05% of college students would stop a friend from engaging in inappropriate behavior. The 2009 data related to the fraternity students regarding this question was similar to the 1998 data for the same question. It can be debated that fraternity students are slow to change behavior when it is related to alcohol use and inappropriate behaviors.

Constructing Culturally Sensitive and Responsive Education

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Abstract
This paper addresses the concerns about the aim of education in the context of internationalisation and strategies to meet these aims. The dynamics and complexity of international education from the perspective of intercultural communication and the needs to integrate intercultural competence into the curriculum were discussed. A participatory teaching and learning model is articulated to demonstrate how intercultural competence can be developed in the context of international higher education.

1.   The aim of education

Internationalisation of education challenges education researchers and practitioners to rethink the question that has been asked for hundreds of years: What is the aim of education? Alfred North Whitehead asserted that the valuable intellectual development was self-development. He stressed that education should enable the child to make the learned knowledge his own and to apply the knowledge in the circumstances of his actual life (Whitehead 1929). Whitehead's emphases on the usefulness of education was apparent in his writings, which was shared by other education philosophers of his time (Cahn 1997, p261) and supported by many of the contemporary education thinkers.

Student oriented teaching and learning lies at the core of the conception of student self-development and usefulness of education. To date, student oriented teaching and learning is mostly informed by psychological theories and experiments. Underpinned with constructivist epistemology, psychologised perspective of teaching and learning recognises the active role of students (the learners) in constructing their knowledge. From the constructivist's point of view, teaching and learning is not a process whereby knowledge transmitted from the teacher to the learner. What is transmitted from the teacher to the learner is the message, which is produced by the teacher with the intention to transmit her (the teacher's) perception. The learner receives the message, but not necessarily the teacher's perception. She initiatively constructs her perception from her point of view and with her background (Guo, 2009). Learning is a subjective initiative of the learner that happens on the end of the learner. Knowledge is constructed by the learner in the process of learning. The teacher can not produce knowledge on the learner's behalf, nor impose knowledge on the student. However, the teacher is obligated to support learning and to facilitate bringing about useful learning. "In constructivist theory, different individuals coming from diverse backgrounds will see the world in different ways" (Kincheloe 2005, p9). Therefore, each individual learner constructs his/her knowledge differently. From the psychologised perspective, teacher is able and ought to diagnose and understand each student's needs for learning. Through accurate diagnosis and understanding of the needs of each student, the teacher is able to select appropriate methods, arrange relevant message and learning experience in order to bring about useful learning. Apparently, there are two rationales behind this theory. One is the recognition of the subjective initiative of the learner in constructing his/her knowledge. The other is the assumption that student needs can be diagnosed, therefore teaching methods and learning experience prescribed. While it might be arguable that there are certain general principles that are relevant to humankind, this assumption seems unconvincing where cultural diversity is of concern. In multicultural classroom, origins of student disparities are of cultural as well as psychological nature. Unlike most psychological factors (e.g. intellectual skills) which are measurable, most cultural factors are dynamic and unmeasurable. Differences of value systems, beliefs and customs, lead to variances of constructed knowledge as well as variances of the way of constructing. Therefore, the constructivism's approach of teaching and learning, which is satisfied with the teacher's identifying student needs and selecting appropriate methods to bring about useful learning, encounters challenge in international education. One may ask: By whom the teaching and learning methods are perceived to be appropriate and useful? How the

student's needs are understood? Why these needs are understood in this (these) way(s)? How true are the teacher's understanding of student needs to the needs felt by the students? These questions reflect the complexity of teaching and learning in multicultural classroom and demand a student responsive approach in education. It is beyond the capacity of constructivism theories to answer these questions (Guo, 2009).

Critical constructivism pursues understanding of production of knowledge as well as understanding of the way of production. People normally learn, judge and act in the way that they are accustomed to without reflection. Critical constructivism brings people "to consciousness the process by which their consciousness was constructed" (Kincheloe 2005, p11). Understanding the way of one's own construction, help one to identify and understand other people's construction, and bring insights to differences between construction of one's own and that of other people. These insights contribute to development of one's intercultural competence, i.e. the ability to recognize and attend to the challenges of cultural diversity (Barrera and Corso 2003, p33).

Globalisation increases the abundance of intercultural exposures, connections, interactions and interdependence. People of different ethnicities, religions, nations work, learn, trade, and live together in physical (cities, universities, workplaces) and virtual spaces (internet, satellite TV). This presents both opportunities and threats to harmony of human society. On the one hand, intercultural exposures and interactions without intercultural understanding imply more chances of intercultural conflicts and thus may be harmful to human harmony. On the other hand, globalisation enables intercultural learning to occur in real time and space and thus opportunity for developing better intercultural understanding and tolerance. In the process of intercultural exposures and interactions, a critical constructivist becomes aware of cultural diversity and acquires understanding of ways of doing and thinking that are alien to him/her. These awareness and understanding empower the critical constructivist to reflect on his/her own ways of doing and thinking and bring her to further understanding of the culture of herself and those of others, and thus eventuate in development of intercultural competence. In international education, teaching and learning occur in parallel with intercultural exposures and interactions. The context of international education allows intellectual and intercultural competences to develop concurrently. Both of these two types of competence are essential for a global citizen. Intellectual competence enables the educated to work successfully in the material world. Intercultural competence enables the educated to navigate smoothly and efficiently in multicultural globalising world. From this point of view, development of intercultural competence, like intellectual competence, forms part of the aim of international education. Supporting and facilitating intercultural competence development should be integrated in the process of teaching and learning.

2. Intercultural competence in international higher education

In intercultural communication discourses, one may find terms such as cultural competence, intercultural competence, intercultural intelligence, and cultural intelligence have been used alternately. In the context of international higher education, the term "intercultural competence" seems to be most appropriate. Firstly, using the word "Intercultural" instead of "Cultural" underlines the equality of all participants (oneself and others; teacher and student; local and foreign). This stresses the viewpoint that cultural differences exit between cultures, rather than as the result of comparing "other" cultures to the "dominant" culture. Secondly, using the word "Competence", instead of "Intelligence" as some scholar preferred (Peterson 2004), highlights that it is concerned with the quality of one's characteristic that links closely with moral and ethics. Under this conceptual framework, a holistic concept of intercultural competence should consist of three dimensions and under one premise. The three dimensions are the capability to understand and deal with one's own culture; the capability to understand and deal with "other cultures"; and the capability to negotiate between cultures of one's own and of others. The premise is that intercultural capability must be applied morally and ethically.

In intercultural encounters, the most apparent challenge is to deal with cultural differences. People of different cultural backgrounds view things differently and thus act and react differently. Being culturally competent means being aware of the differences, being willing to accept the differences, and being capable

to accept the differences in a moral and ethic way. Critical consciousnesses of one's own culture and of other people's culture support each other. When confronting cultural differences, one will naturally be aware of the difference of "others" and subconsciously used one's own culture as the standard to identify the difference of others. The lack of self awareness prevents insightful understanding of other people's culture. Brooks Peterson observed that "you can't learn about other people's culture until you develop awareness of your own" (Peterson 2004, p162). Cultural self-awareness equips one with the capability of introspection and empathy. The capability to understand and deal with one's own culture and the capability to understand and deal with "other cultures" are interdependent. One could not exist without the other, and development of one will enhance the other. The third dimension reflects the value of equality in intercultural education. All cultures of the world are justified and meaningful in their own contexts and deserve being respected, appreciated and valued. In international education, all cultures should be treated equally and without referencing to other power relations. In discussing multiculturalism and the "expanding community", Maxine Greene argued that:

> "No one can predict precisely the common world of possibility, nor can we absolutely justify one kind of community over another. Many of us, however for all the tensions and disagreements around us, would reaffirm the value of principles like justice and equality and freedom and commitment to human rights" (Greene 1997).

There should be no dominant culture in international education. That is no culture could claim absolute superiority over any others. Meanwhile, intercultural competence could not be reduced to cultural concession – regardless of concession of one's own culture or other people's culture, because upholding the value of justice, equality and freedom is the right as well as obligation of all. Intercultural competence, most importantly, is reflected in the capability of intercultural negotiation in moral and ethical way. In other words, intercultural competence is not about dealing with cultural differences, it is about successfully and smoothly navigating between cultures.

From the perspective of intercultural competence as an aim of education, the importance of intercultural competence development in international education is three fold. Firstly, intercultural competence is the premise for successful and fruitful teaching and learning in intercultural contexts. Intercultural competence is based on awareness, knowledge, understanding, respect and appreciation of cultural diversity and can be acquired in intercultural practices. Intercultural competence development means development of one's attitude, values, and behaviours towards cultural differences. These properties contribute to one's cultural entirety. In this sense, intercultural development is essentially a process of developing one's culture through intercultural learning and sharing. International education provides an ideal environment for intercultural learning and sharing. In international higher education, each student comes with a rich bank of knowledge accumulated in his/her past studies, works and life. The students also bring various perspectives and approaches that reflect their cultures and experience backgrounds. The richness of knowledge and the scope of viewpoints possessed by the students in multicultural classrooms are incomparable with those in mono-cultural classrooms. These are valuable resources for teaching and learning. Intercultural competent teaching and learning should aim to overcome intercultural barriers and to utilise these resources to enrich teaching and learning experiences. Secondly, intercultural competence should be an important graduate capacity in the globalising world. Teaching about culture is not an entirely new concept in education. Alfred North Whitehead pointed out decades ago that education should aim at producing "men who possess both culture and expert knowledge", because "expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from", and "culture will lead them as deep as philosophy and as high as art" (Whitehead 1929). Subject expert knowledge and culture, i.e. the entirety of one's attitude, values, beliefs, are the key qualities to be developed through education. Subject expert knowledge establishes the foundation of a graduate's capability. Culture guides the graduate's construction and application of subject expert knowledge. As discussed above, meaningful education should enable students to make what they were taught their own knowledge and to apply the knowledge into their practical situation. Therefore, the contents of the subject expert knowledge and culture, as the key qualities to be produced through education, evolve alongside with the evolution of the human society in order to be meaningful and useful. Graduates of today's education will enter a world where intercultural interactions and interdependences are prevailing and increasing. To

be successful in the globalising world, graduates of the global future need not only intellectual competence, but also intercultural competence. Thirdly, intercultural competence development may facilitate intellectual development. In the course of developing intercultural competence, students expose to and learned to view the world from various perspectives and approaches. They not only learn what the knowledge is, but also how the knowledge has been constructed, and furthermore, alternative constructions of knowledge. Through this dynamic and critical learning and development process, they gain broader and deeper understanding of the subject expert knowledge.

A crucial dimension of intercultural competence in international education is to accommodate cultural diversity. This demands a critical constructivism conceptualisation of teaching and learning, that values diverse ways of viewing and knowing. Inspired by Paulo Freire's concept of liberation education and ideas of critical constructivism, the author has been practicing the participatory teaching and learning approach in a international postgraduate program in recent years.

3.   Participatory Teaching and Learning - accommodating cultural diversity

The participatory teaching and learning method integrates principles of liberation education and critical constructivism to accommodate cultural diversity in the context of international education. The concept of liberation education opposes any power relations or authority in education. Teachers and all students are equal actors in the cognitive actions. Liberation education consists in actions of the "cognitive actors" rather than information transferral (Freire 1970). The epistemology of critical constructivism is the underpinning theory of liberation education. Critical constructivism is grounded on the constructivism notion that views knowledge as human construction. Knowledge is not, as objectivist claimed, validated truth that reflects the reality. Knowledge is constructed by human with the whole set of social, cultural, political and historical backgrounds. Under the critical constructivism theoretical framework, education is a process of knowledge construction, rather than knowledge transmission. Learning is, therefore, impossible without engagement of the learner in the knowledge production process. "A central dimension of teaching in this context involves engaging students in analysing, interpreting and constructing a wide variety of knowledges emerging from diverse locations" (Kincheloe 2005). The essence of the participatory teaching and learning method is to bring about meaningful learning in multicultural classroom through engaging students in cognitive actions that aim at construction of useful knowledge. In participatory teaching and learning, learning consists in dynamic cognitive actions of which the students are active actors. Knowledge is not transferred from the teacher, but constructed in the interactions among students and between students and the teacher. In participatory teaching and learning, students are given more autonomy in deciding what and how they prefer to learn. However, this does not lessen the importance of the teacher's role. On the contrary, participatory teaching and learning sets an even higher requirement for the teacher. It requires the teacher to be knowledgeable and flexible enough to meet the diverse and dynamic requirements of the students, and demands more preparation time for each class.

The subject chosen for the experiment of the participatory teaching and learning method is Development Communication. The reason to choose this subject is the correlation between the teaching and learning approach and the subject content. Participatory communication is an important concept in the field of development communication, and shares a common origin with Freire's liberation education. Development of students' knowledge and skills of participatory communication is identified as a key learning objective of the subject. The class has always been highly internationalised. In the second semester of 2009, the 20 students enrolled in the subject came from 10 countries, including students from Australia, Asia, Europe, North America and South America. It was expected that the participatory teaching and learning method could on the one hand accommodate the cultural diversity of the class, through engaging students in the knowledge construction process. On the other hand, it will enhance students' understanding of participatory communication, because the teaching and learning process followed and showcased by the author allows for praxis in participatory communication. The method is proved to be successful in facilitating critical learning and accommodating cultural diversity in multicultural classroom. Student learning experience evaluation in the past three years scored above 4 (of the 5 mark scale).The highest score was achieved in

the evaluation conducted in July 2008, scoring at 4.8. The participatory teaching and learning method is composed of the following four components.

Multicultural working and learning groups
Intercultural exposure and interactions in the context of internationalised education provide opportunity to enrich student learning experiences. The rationale of multicultural groups is to develop students' capability to work and learn cooperatively with people from different cultural backgrounds. Students are required to form multicultural working and learning groups in the first week of the semester. Each group is recommended to have 4 to 5 members and no more than two members in one group should come from one particular country. The groups are assigned with two major tasks. One is to design and present to the class a development communication campaign, using theories and concepts learnt in the course. Although this is the final project of the course, students are advised to start working with their groups from the first week, so that they start the multicultural experience from the beginning of the semester. The second major task is an ongoing one. The groups are required to take turns to lead each week's discussion session (normally one hour each week). This ensures the group work together constantly. While all students are required to prepare for and participate in each week's discussion, the leading group are in charge of facilitating participation and triggering discussions. Therefore, the leading group are assessed from two aspects: their preparation for the discussion topic and facilitating strategy. Working in a culturally diverse group gives students opportunities to interact closely with people from different cultures. While working cooperatively towards the accomplishment of the group project, they practice and develop their skills to express, appreciate, and negotiate cultural differences. Constant intercultural exposures and interactions in a supportive and collaborative environment enable development of intercultural awareness, understanding and capability, and thus lead to development of intercultural competence.

Student controlled learning process
Under the conception of liberation education, students do not passively receive the knowledge transmitted by the teacher. They take part in the cognitive actions as equal actors. Knowledge is constructed in the cognitive actions and dialogues that involve the teacher and all students. Participatory teaching and learning empowers student with the autonomy to determine what and how they prefer to learn. This ensures that meaningful and useful learning is brought about. The delivery of the subject Development Communication is designated as a weekly three-hour seminar. In the first week, students are informed of the objectives and expected learning outcome of the subject. Assessment components and criteria are also explained. From the second week, each seminar is started with a discussion session. At the discussion session, students will critically discuss the reading material and share their understanding. They may refer to specific experience of their own or of other students and explore the topic further. They may ask each other questions (e.g. how did the Chinese government promote the One Child Policy? What happened in mass communication reformation in Thailand?) The discussion session will generate a list of questions that interest the students and about which they want to learn more. The author prepares the lecture on PowerPoint slides for each seminar based on the learning objectives and frequent asked questions of previous students. Questions raised from the current discussion session are noted on the whiteboard and be integrated into the lecture. Relevant audio-visual materials may be used to expend student learning experiences and bring in new approaches and perspectives. Critical enquires are encouraged in the class. It is the author's undertaking to the students that they may challenge the lecturer with any questions that are interesting to them. The questions will be answered by the lecturer or may be further discussed in the class. If the lecturer could not answer the question on the day, the lecturer will conduct further research and answer it in the following week. After the seminar, the PowerPoint slides are updated to included questions of the day and uploaded to the course website, which is accessible to students enrolled in the course. Participatory teaching and learning is featured with student controlling and peer learning. The dynamic dialogue and critical analysis from the vast diverse perspectives ensure insightful knowledge construction and intercultural competence development.

Active participation by the students

The participatory teaching and learning approach aims to facilitate and support sharing and constructing knowledge among students. A central idea of critical constructivist teaching and learning is to engage student in producing knowledge of their own through processes of critical analysing and multi-perspective interpreting. Multicultural classrooms are without doubt ideal arenas for this purpose. Students from a wide variety of backgrounds view the world differently. Tossing together the diverse perspectives and experiences developed in various social, political, cultural and economic contexts, and geographical locations, reveals multiple ways of consciousness constructing. The participants construct their consciousness of the subject together with the consciousness of diverse ways of consciousness through the intercultural activities of sharing, analysing, interpreting, and communicating. Group dynamics invoke wider and deeper exploration and research. Additionally, the participatory activities in multicultural classroom are also praxis of intercultural expression and understanding. Most students develop their presentation skills and become more confident in speaking in the end of the semester. Active and inclusive participation of all students is crucial for the participatory teaching and learning model to work. It is recognised that students perform differently in classroom participation due to various factors of cultural and linguistic nature. For example, most European students seem to be more open and quicker to speak in the class, while Asian students normally are relatively quieter. The reason is mainly cultural rather than intellectual in nature. The barrier that prevents Asian students from speaking out in class is language. The two largest groups of non-native English speakers of the author's students are Thai students and Chinese students. Students of both groups said that they were willing to share their ideas, however, "the topic had changed when I realized what it was about" or "the topic had changed when I was ready to speak". When a non-native English speaker engages in communication in English, there are normally two internal translation processes to be completed, though the processes could be short and sometimes subconscious. The first process is to translate the topic of discussion into the student's native language (for example English-Chinese). The student will reflect and organise her/his ideas in her/his native language and then translate the ideas into English (for example from Chinese to English). If the communication involves complicate and unfamiliar concepts, the processes will take longer time. Therefore, most non-native English speakers find it is hard to follow the discussion pace of the whole class. The other major barrier to open and inclusive sharing in international classrooms is the fear of "losing face", or in other words, lacking confidence to speak out. For example, some students regard making mistake or improper comments in the class as losing face. Some students may feel awkward to directly contest against others. These misgivings prevent them from expressing their opinion openly and freely. They speak only when they feel "safe" and are well prepared. Therefore, it is not surprising that some students may keep quiet normally, however, when they do speak, they make good points.

Another barrier to engagement in discussion is the intention to avoid taboo or conflict with the majority. This is described as the "spiral of silence" by some communication scholars. It "is a reaction to taboo, fear and shame – for those who think differently than what they perceive others to be thinking" (Katz 2002). Spiral of silence might occur to people from any cultures. For instance, the author once found that an American student kept quiet most of the time in class discussions. This is apparently unusual for normally the American students are quite active in class discussions. The author found a chance to speak to him and found out the reason that he was usually quiet in the class. The majority of the class were Asian students. The student of concern was the only student from the United States in the class. He often found that his ideas were different from the majority and he did not want to upset his classmates by proposing opposite opinion.

In order to facilitate active and inclusive participation, a consensus of respecting, appreciating, and valuing diverse perspectives and opinions needs to be established. This is indeed easy to understand, but rather hard to achieve. First of all, an open, supportive and inclusive atmosphere needs to be fostered from the beginning of the semester through explicitly affirming the values of diverse cultures and opinions and the effort to respect and appreciate diversity. At group led discussion, the leading group are reminded of the requirement to engage the whole class in discussion. Supporting students with their preparation for the discussion is also essential. This includes foreshadowing the upcoming week's learning topic, recommending relevant reading material, and suggesting one or two questions for perusal. This has proved to be very helpful for students of EFL background. Additionally, during the discussion, an invitation for

individuals to express opinions on issues of their expertise can encourage those who are not used to speaking voluntarily.

Intercultural competence development
Intercultural competence development is an important component of education in the context of globalisation. It is the requirement of the globalising world on education and on the graduates. In participatory teaching and learning, intercultural competence and intellectual capability develop simultaneously throughout the whole process. Students gain intercultural awareness and understanding through participatory discussions. They theorise and logically organise their understandings through presenting and explaining them to others at discussions and presentations. They develop and practice skills of intercultural communication, appreciation, respect, negotiation, and collaboration through multicultural group learning and working activities. They develop personalities of intercultural openness, sensitivity, flexibility, toleration, and empathy while constructing and developing subject expert knowledge and skills, and thus prepare themselves for successfully entering and navigating the globalising world.

Internationalisation of education requires new ways of conceptualisation of education that is informed by teaching and learning practices and critical investigations. Pursuing excellence of education is itself a consciousness construction process which demands constant reflection on what is constructed as well as the way of construction. Based on this critical constructivist point of view, the above discussed participatory teaching and learning method is by no means a conclusive model, but a construction way of international education. Continuous critical research and investigation are required to expend the construction and thus develop wider and deeper consciousness of international education.

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Comparisons between the National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS) Based Training System and the National Dual Training System (NDTS) in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

Valid and reliable assessment in Vocational Education and Training (VET) is very important for ensuring competent and employable k-workers. To ensure this, Department of Skills Development, formerly known as The National Vocational Training Council, is one of the agencies under the Ministry of Human Resource, that is responsible for the co-ordination and control of skills training as well as career development in skills training, and this include monitoring the assessment process among the vocational institution in Malaysia. There are two accreditation systems namely National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS) based training system and National Dual Training System (NDTS) that awards students with Malaysian Skills Certification (MSC) Level Three after two years training. NOSS based training use National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS), while NDTS uses the National Occupational Core Curriculum Unit (NOCC). This paper will discuss the similarities and differences between National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS)-based training system and National Dual Training System (NDTS. The comparison of both systems is based on the general comparison of NOSS and NDTS curricula and the exemplary comparison of specific occupational curricula.

1.0   Introduction

One of the determining factors in accelerating the overall progress to an industry is skills development. This is because the level of skill possessed by worker will determine his/her ability to contribute towards the overall quality of the end product, the cost-efficiency of the product, productivity, the time span to complete the product and flexibility in adapting to changes. To support the development of a workforce with these skills and enhance industry competitiveness, the workforce development system must be adaptable, innovative, and well connected to the world of work.

In Malaysia, the Department of Skills Development, formerly known as The National Vocational Training Council, is one of the agencies under the Ministry of Human Resource, that is responsible for the co-ordination and control of skills training as well as career development in skills training, and this include monitoring the assessment process among the vocational institution in Malaysia. The skills training are accredited by two systems: National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS)-based training system and National Dual Training System (NDTS). Both the accreditation body will award qualified students with Malaysian Skills Certification (MSC) Level Three after two years training. Although the certificate being awarded is identical, NOSS based training use National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS), while NDTS uses the National Occupational Core Curriculum Unit (NOCC). This paper will discuss the similarities and differences between National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS)-based training system and National Dual Training System (NDTS. The comparison of both systems is based on the general comparison of NOSS and NDTS curricula and the exemplary comparison of specific occupational curricula.

2.0   General comparison between National Occupational Skills Standard (NOSS)-based training system and National Dual Training System (NDTS)

NOSS-based system is an accreditation system that was established resulting from the report of the Cabinet Committee on Training dated 21 Mac 1990 ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Malaysia</Author><Year>2001c</Year><RecNum>30</RecNum><record><rec-number>30</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="zeexdew0asvtw4ex5eb52xtna99trd5rpdzr">30</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><authors><author>Malaysia, Government </author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Report of the Cabinet Committee on Training: Training for Industrial Development – Challenges for the Nineties. </title></titles><dates><year>2001c</year></dates><orig-pub>Kuala Lumpur: National Printing Corporation.</orig-pub><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>(Malaysia, 2001c) in response to the training needs for the nation. The system outlines a comprehensive policy on training programme to ensure that training institute would response to the demand of workforce demand effectively. The accreditation system was adopted from the British National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) framework.

 The system comprised of two major elements: the establishment of the occupational skills standards in Malaysia known as National Occupational Skills Standards (NOSS) and the competency-based training approach (MLVK, 1992, p.21, MLVK,1993). The concept of accreditation was defined as "a procedure by which the NVTC (National Vocational Training Council as an awarding body for MSC (Malaysian Skill Certification), evaluated and approved any skills training provider as a accredited centre for undertaking training and assessment leading to the award of the Certification" (NVTC,2001). The accreditation system has quality control in three stages: the qualified accredited training provider, the assessment personnel and the assessment process.

The NDTS has evolved from the Dual Training System Project (DSP) which was formulated with the purpose of strengthening technical education and vocational training in Malaysia by incorporating the dual training system practiced in Germany (DSP, 2001). The DSP started with a study known as 'Basic Study on the Design of a Dual Vocational Training Scheme in Malaysia', undertaken by German consultants during 1997-1999 (Blumenstein,1999). The aim was to produce knowledge-workers or 'k-workers', in order to cope with globalization and rapid changes in technology and increasing complexity of work processes in Malaysia.. To train k-workers, the workplace is utilized as the prime learning environment, thus the collaboration between training providers and industries is essential. The Government of Malaysia decided on 19 May 2004 to implement National Dual Training System (NDTS) commencing 2005. The target was to produce 31,500 skilled workers by 2010 (MLVK, 2005a).

2.1   Qualification/Certification

Both systems will award the same Malaysian Skills Certification (MSC) Level Three to qualified students after duration of two years of training. The certification is based on the Malaysian Qualification Framework (MQF) which is an instrument that develops and classifies qualifications based on a set of criteria. In the NOSS Based training system, certification on skills can be accumulated from Level 1 to Level 3, however in NDTS the programme is conducted in a single tier direct to level three.

2.2   Philosophy and Purpose

The purpose of NOSS-based Training System is to provide an alternative and attractive career development path parallel with academic-based qualification framework. Training and learning can be undertaken on a modular basis each self contained competency can be separately assessed and certified.   Assessment is more flexible-throughout the duration of training.   This skills training system promotes the long life learning (LLL) to enable skilled worker in industries to upgrade their qualification in order to qualify for promotion or as an articulation in their career development. The skills certification is more accessible to trainee and skilled workers through the formal training and Accreditation of Prior Achievements (APA)

process (MLVK, 2007). APA is a process through which the achievements of students can be academically acknowledged, allowing them to receive credit from previous qualifications and experience. The output of the system is equipped with the skills, knowledge and good attitude to make them competent and qualified workers.

The NDTS philosophy is to produce a new type of skilled workforce known as knowledge-workers (k-workers) (Malaysia 2001b) and to look for approach that integrates training and workplace, involving the industries as the main driver. The purpose is to develop a workforce that could adapt to rapid technological and workplace changes, and to nurture creativity and innovativeness as well as thinking skills among trainees through student centered learning approach (Malaysia, 2001a). This is a dual system where the training is conducted in both the training institute and the industry. This is in line with the Third Outline Perspective Plan, 2001- 2010 as : To ensure that the school curriculum remain relevant to industry and include work-based learning components, a mechanism will be set up to link schools with industries (Malaysia, 2001a).

2.3   Curriculum

NOSS based training system

The NOSS based training system is introduced to improve the national vocational training and certification system in Malaysia (MLVK, 1992; MLVK, 1993). This system adopts NOSS as a standard in implementing the training. NOSS is defined as a specification of the competencies expected of a skilled worker who is gainfully employed in Malaysia for an occupational area and level and pathway to achieve the competencies (MLVK 2001). The characteristic of the NOSS are: it should develop based on the industrial occupational needs; followed the career structure in the occupational fields and developed by industry expert/practitioner. This curriculum was developed by using the Developing a Curriculum (DACUM) approach, which is defined as "a group consensus, structured, brain-storming process" (DACUM facilitation Courses).

There are three phases is the NOSS development: occupational analysis; job and task analysis; and validation. The NOSS development starts off with the first phase i.e occupational analysis where the purpose is to identify the job title, career structure and level or position of job title from the skills advisory committee or expert group in related field.
Then job analysis and task analysis is conducted. The job profile chart is the results from the job analysis, is a detailed and graphic portrayal of the skills or competencies (categories by duties and tasks) involved in the occupation being studied. Task analysis is then conducted to analyse selected tasks for steps. Each task comprises of three important elements that are skills, knowledge and attitude/safety in the tasks. There are several elements to task analysis, namely the title of occupation, related duty and task, the performance criteria / standard (what the student should achieved after finish such task as an outcomes for that particular task), sub task (is fraction of the task), enabling requirement where the knowledge, ability and attitude/safety required in the sub task and material, equipment and tools required in the task. The tasks analysis will be repeated for each task in the duty and other duty of the job profile chart. The third phase is the validation of NOSS which is conducted by the Skills Advisory Committee and Department of Skills Development.

In Malaysia, skills training based on NOSS is offered by various public and private training institutions. As at May 2007, a total of 1,151 different training institutions have been accredited to offer 6,575 training programmes based on NOSS, of which 363 centres are administered by public agencies and authorities, whilst the remaining 788 are privately run (Thomas, 2007).

NDTS

In contrast, NDTS uses the National Occupational Core Curriculum (NOCC) as a foundation for the implementation of training and assessment in industries and training institutes. The NOCC is defined "as the documented training structure to be carried out by the industry and the training institution comprising of the practical and theoretical of the changing technologies, to produce k-workers" (MLVK, 2005b). The concept of the NOCC has been based on the work process approach and concept of 'work process knowledge'. The characteristic is combination of the theoretical knowledge and practical experience in a

systematic way, as well as an orientation towards the entire business and work process of a company (Hoepfner & Koch, 2004b). The curriculum of NDTS is develop by using work process analysis approach by the relevant industry for specific training occupations, in which experts and practitioners identify the training subjects to be included for the training at the industry and training institute.

The NDTS Curriculum consists of the following components: Training Occupation (TO), Occupational Profile, Training Occupation (TO), and Occupational Core Work Processes (OCWP). First, Training Occupation (TO) is defined as a cluster of job areas in a specific sector selected for training in NDTS. It is based on work process oriented curricula to produce k-worker with occupational competencies comprising of technical competencies, social and human competencies as well as learning and methodological competencies. Second, Occupational Profile provides details of the work demands and conditions of a Training Occupation and describes the nature of work, working conditions, employment prospects and qualification awarded upon completion of training. And third, is Occupational Core Work Processes (OCWP) which is defined as a group of main work processes identified during the work process analysis and is commonly practiced in several companies dealing with the same Training Occupation. The OCWP consists of a group of about 8 – 12 Core Work Processes (CWP) of the Training Occupation.

The development of OCWP is carried out through Work Process Analysis. This involves the analysis of actual contents of core work processes and their relevance to the Occupational Profile and interrelations between technology, work and training. The Work Process Analysis is carried out to provide a clearer and more detailed picture of competence requirements associated with the Occupational Profile. This analysis will then form the basis for the construction of the Core Competencies. The elements of the OCWP are first Core Work Process which is a set of core work activities conducted in a complete action cycle (goal setting, planning, decision making, executing & monitoring and evaluating) which are commonly practiced by skilled workers across the industries of the training occupation. Every Core Work Process will produce either a product, service or decision. Each of them consists of: Description of Core Work Process, Details of Core Work Process and Core Competencies. Second element is Description of Core Work Process which is includes the Core Work Process, products/services and standards to be achieved in carrying out the core work process. Third element is Details of Core Work Process which is elaborated in the Details of Core Work Process under three main headings namely: Core Work Activities, Tools/ Technologies, Methods, Organization of Core Work Activities and Social Values and Social Skills. The fourth element Core Competencies (CC) which states the competencies required to carry out the Core Work Process. These competencies comprise the five stages of the complete action cycle, namely setting goal, planning, decision making, executing & monitoring, and evaluating. It also specifies the training venue where the competency should be acquired as well as the training duration.

In summary both curriculum, NOSS-based training and NDTS approaches are different from each other although it was developed from the same source i.e expert from the industries. The primary different is that NOSS focus on competency of the particular job, whereas NOCC is focus on a larger scope, such as the work process in the industry and the familiarization of the workplace environment.

2.4   Training/learning approach

As stated earlier, the NOSS-based training system was adopted the CBT as a training approach as the introduction of the accreditation system (MLVK, 1993). CBT approaches emphasize what a person can actually do in the workplace as a result of education training (Australia, 2003). It used the self paced concept where the students are allowed to proceed with new topics at their own speed and time, rather than progressing at the same time as all the others undertaking the same study. CBT is a student centered approach with the characteristics that firstly, achieved competencies should be identified, announce and verified earlier; second, competency encompasses skills, knowledge and attitude/safety; third, method and criteria for assessment should be explain and announced clearly and early; fourth, learning program provided for individual development and assessment for each competency and fifth, trainee can upgrade depends on their own capabilities by showing the identified previous competencies. In order to support the student centered approach the training materials such as Learning Guide, need to be developed and the training institute need to have a resource of references for the student.

In NDTS the action-oriented teaching, self-reliant learning (SRL) as well as learn and work assignments

(LWA) have been adopted as the fundamental of teaching and learning approaches in the training (MLVK, 2005b). The action-oriented teaching is a way in which human being set goals and create a plan in their mind before bringing it into various steps of action (GMI 2005). The processes of action-oriented learning approach encompasses of, setting goals, planning the pathway for the action, decision-making regarding utilization of plan and resources, executing the action process and monitoring and evaluating action and its result (GMI, 2005). SRL is a process for solving learning and work assignments by follows the action-oriented approach steps. LWA is an integration of the actual work place related assignments with the steps of the action oriented learning process. It is very much like problem based learning; the LWA will see apprentices solving real-life problems faced by the industry (GMI, 2005).

Various aspects of the self-learning approach are applied dependent upon the complexity of the lessons or work assignments, and they cover the following steps or activities:

Goal setting – apprentices must achieve the goal or objective (according to the assignment) they had set for themselves.

Planning methods of actions – the apprentices plan the work steps either individually or as a group. They work on several variations for the plan. The coach gives hints and makes them aware of information sources.

Decision-making based on the plans and use of resources – the apprentices, together with the coach or team-mates, will decide on whether to continue with the agreed plans or not. The coach will points out the mistakes and recommends the correction

Execution and observation – the apprentices will execute their plans and observe the developments and results. The coach will only step in if the situation is unsafe.

Appraisal of the action and results – the apprentices will grade and analyse the processes and methods to complete the task and record based on the assessment form provided by the coach. The coach will verify the assessment. The apprentices will also be ready to present the results obtained by the LWA.

The training approach is similar for both system, whereby both NOSS-based training and NDTS use the student centered method. However, in terms of the implementation, NOSS-based training uses the CBT which do not have a systematic method to achieve the student centered approach; while NDTS use the self-reliant learning (SRL) approach which consists of a clear and systematic step to do the learning as a didactic approach.

2.5   Assessment

The NOSS based training system uses both formative and summative assessment. The trainee will be assessed after each module and it is carried out continuously until all modules finished. Using the CBT approach, student is allowed to repeat the module tested until he/she is competent in the module trained. Each test consists of theoretical and practical component.   In theoretical component, students are assessed by using written test such as multiple choice, essay, matching and others; whereas in the practical component, assessment may be in the form of demonstration, oral, individual project and group project. Student will also has to attend the final examination at the end of the semester.

The use of tests and examinations is to ascertain that the performance standard stated in each task in the NOSS is accomplished. All the tests and examinations questions should comply with the three assessment principle such as valid, reliable and sufficient. Valid is when the test actually assesses what it is supposed to assess, reliability is when the test is able to produce similar result although it is to be used at different times, by a range of teachers, with a range of students; and sufficient is when the test comprises all the skills, knowledge and attitude/safety stated in the module. The instructor will assist students to develop their own portfolio where all the assessment evidence is recorded in it.

 The objective of the assessment are, firstly, to shape a transparent, fair, comprehensive and valid assessment which fulfil the requirements set in the NOSS; second, to develop the responsibility behavior among the personnel quality assurance on assessment; thirdly, to develop the competitiveness among the student to getting a better result; and finally produce the competitive and skilled workforce.

Criterion-referenced testing is used to test the performance standard in each task in the NOSS. The student will repeat the test until they achieved the specific competency level. Assessment process is conducted by the assessment personnel such as assessor, internal verifier, external verifier and accredited center assessment panel. The roles of external verifier also increase instead of as an external verifier for the continuous assessment they also should act as an examiner during the final examination by assisted of assessor and internal verifier in the related Accredited Center.

The component for assessment is different for each level. For level one, two and three the components assessed are course work (40%) and final examination (60%), and they should pass the core abilities assessment. However, for level four or Diploma level and level five or advance diploma level, three components are assessed: course work (40%), final examination (40%), and final project (20%). On top of that, they need to pass the core abilities and on job training assessment.

Whereas NDTS used LWA as a main approach of assessment where the student given the LWA then he/she should finished the related task by doing either individual/team by follow the SRL step by step for the core competencies. The LWA for workplace and training institute comprise of: Assignment Sheet and Assessment Sheet. LWA is a document that is developed for the purpose of training. It consists of an assignment considering the complete action cycle which covers the Core Work Process to be carried out in the actual working environment at both the workplace and training institute. Assignment sheet is an assignment sheet states the work assignment that has to be carried out by the apprentices. It consists of information sources, guiding questions, hints and instructions to guide the apprentices in completing the work assignment and assessment sheet is a sheet states the areas and criteria to be measured by either apprentice for self assessment and/or coach/trainer to assess the apprentices' performance based on identified work process performance in completing training.

Beside the continuous assessment through the LWA, NDTS has a final examination which is develop by the company and conducted whether in the company or in the institute whichever suitable (MLVK 2005b). The final examination is divided in two parts theoretical and practical examination and both of them contribute 40% of the entire mark. Both parts need to pass in order to pass the final examination. The examination is conducted by the assessment panel which is appointed by Department of Skills Development.

3.0   Exemplary comparison between NOSS and NDTS using Automotive Mechatronics curricula

3.1   Curriculum
After both systems is compared in general in terms of qualification/certification awarded, their philosophy and purpose, curriculum, training/learning approach and assessment, a more specific comparison will be made using specific training occupation. In this case, we will use a curriculum in Automotive. It is difficult to find an identical name but we use a arrive with Automotive Mechanic with the code P-159 in NOSS based training and Automotive Mechatronic with the code AT01 in NDTS.

P159 is a job occupation in the industry which is a mechanic, whereas, AT01 is a name of a process or training occupation in the industry. P-159 has 10 duties; this means that in order to become a mechanic the student needs to be competent all the duties. Similarly, AT01 has 9 Occupational Core Work Processes (OCWP) which are needed by the apprentice to accomplish. In the NOSS based training, the duty is stated in the active verb and it can stand alone in modular form (together with its own set of skills, knowledge and attitude/safety.) In NDTS, the first four OCWP is common in all the training occupation where the purpose is for the trainees to be familiar with the organization. However, the remaining OCWP is core to the specific occupation. Although the number of OCWP in NDTS is less compared to duties in NOSS based training, scope of the training is more comprehensive because it based on the work process in the workplace. Table 1 shows the comparison between the duties of NOSS and Occupational Core Work Processes (OCWP) of National Occupational Core Curriculum (NOCC).

Table 1: Comparison between the duties of NOSS and OCWP of NOCC.

	Duties in the P-159 - Motor Vehicle Mechanic	OCWP in the AT01 - Automotive Mechatronic
1	Perform Work shop practices	NDTS and Organisation structure and Procedures
2	Perform Vehicle Maintenance	Industrial Standards and standards Operating Procedures
3	Perform Engine Repair	Administrative services and Warranty
4	Perform Fuel System Services	Standard Services
5	Perform Vehicle Electrical System Repair	Troubleshooting, Diagnostic procedures for Wear and Tear and Minor Repair
6	Perform Vehicle Manual Drive Train Repair	Troubleshooting, Diagnostic procedures for Rectification of Mechatronic System
7	Perform Vehicle Brake System	Troubleshooting, Diagnostic procedures for major repair on aggregates and components
8	Perform Vehicle steering System Repair	Repair of Aggregates : Engine and Gearbox
9	Perform Vehicle Suspension Repair	Troubleshooting, Diagnostic procedures and rectification of Standard Accessories
10	Perform Vehicle Air Conditioning system Service	

3.2   Content of training,

To compare the content for NOSS based training and NDTS, we obtain an example where both system need to perform similar task. In this case, the example we use is *Duty 3* and *Task 4* of NOSS that is *Carry Out Engine Top Overhaul,* and OCWP 8 of NDTS that is *Repair of Aggregates: Engine and Gearbox.* Table 2 shows the comparison in detail. From the table, it can be observed that NOSS content is very specific in what to be achieved compared to the NOCC whose content is more general. For example, the task in *Performance Standard* of NOSS is similar with Core Work Processes (CWP). The difference is in NOSS, the task *carry out engine top overhaul* is divided into smaller task (sub task) such as *distinguish type of engine; drain water coolant and engine oil;, remove cylinder head assembly; examine condition of engine cylinder, head assembly; install cylinder head assembly; replenish engine oil and coolant; and check ignition timing* is very specific. On the other hand, the OCWP of NOCC which is *Repair of aggregates: Engine and Gearbox* remains the same and is not broken into small task. The advantage of using NOSS is that it is easier for students to follow the steps in NOSS. However, the NOSS should be revised more frequent to include technology changes. Although NOCC is more general but it has a Learn Work Assignment (LWA) to support and guide the student to do the job. The advantage is that although there is a change in technology the same standard can be used.

Table 2: Comparison between Content of the NOSS and NOCC for similar task

Duties 3: Perform Engine Repair	**OCWP 8: Repair of Aggregates : Engine and Gearbox**
Task 4: Carry out engine top overhaul	

PS: PERFORMANCE STANDARD: (Actions, Conditions, Criteria) Carry out engine top overhaul using service manual, special tools, measuring tools, hand tools, timing light, tachometer, valve grinding paste, valve grinding stick, replacement parts, lubricant, and fluids so that types of engine determined; cylinder head assembly removed, examined, and installed; and ignition timing checked are in accordance with the manufacturer's specifications.	CWP : Engine and gearbox are overhauled and the function of the vehicle is restored. Dismantling of components, failure investigation of parts through inspection and measurement according to manufacturer's specifications are carried out to determine the amount of repair. Prior to this, adequate test and measurements (emission test, compression test, pressure test, and noise analysis) have to be carried out for troubleshooting. The determination of wear limits and tolerances are required. Fault tables are applied.
Sub Task: 1. Distinguish type of Engine 2. Drain water coolant and engine oil 3. Remove cylinder head assembly 4. Examine condition of engine cylinder head assembly 5. Install cylinder head assembly 6. Replenish engine oil and coolant 7. Check ignition timing	CW Activities: 1. Testing of aggregates 2. Overhaul of aggregates: 3. Quality control Core Competencies: 1. Determine defects by performing testing on the aggregates. 2. Carry out overhauling process.

3.3   Training materials & aids and learning conditions

There is a difference in how NOSS listed training materials & aids and learning conditions from NOCC. In NOSS, this section is divided *Tools/Equipment/Materials* and *Enabling Requirement*. Training materials and aids are listed very specifically and in detail under the *Tools/Equipment/Materials*. In the *Enabling Requirement*, knowledge, skills and attitude that is required to complete the task is stated very clearly in NOSS. In NOCC, the term *Tools/Technologies,* is used to list the training materials and aids and learning conditions. Items listed on *Tools/Technologies* are quite broad and general. However, this compensated with *methods used, organization of Core Work Activities* NOCC uses. On top of that there is *requirement in terms of social competencies of Core Work Activities* added in NOCC. The comparison can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison the Training materials & aids and learning conditions used in NOSS and NOCC

Sub Task	CWP
1. Distinguish type of engine	Testing of aggregates engine manual gearbox automatic transmission gearbox emission test compression test pressure test noise analysis
	Tools / Technologies, methods used, organisation of Core Work Activities
TOOLS/EQUIPMENT/ MATERIALS	Tools / Technologies Computerized customer / car database

1. service manual 2. hand tools 3. special tools 4. measuring tools 5. timing light 6. tachometer 7. valve grinding paste 8. valve grinding stick 9. replacement parts 10. lubricant and fluids 11. fender cover ENABLING REQUIREMENTS (Knowledge, Skill, Attitude and Safety) Knowledge on: 1.1 Engine types and classifications 1.2 Engine construction 1.3 Purpose of engine main component 1.4 Principles of engine operation Ability to: 1.1 Identify type of engine 1.2 Interpret construction of engine 1.3 Interpret principles of engine operation Attitude/Safety: · Use fender cover · Correct way of disposing used oil · Correct way of disposing water coolant · Disconnect negative cable from battery · Use personal protection equipment	Service documents Repair documents Technical information systems (fault tables) Standard and special tools Measuring and testing equipment . **Methods used** Emission test Compression test Pressure test Noise analysis Service and repair procedures according to manufacturer's specifications. Cooperation with other departments **Organisation of Core Work Activities** Setting of testing equipments Conducive working environment. Worker - oriented organization. Responsible for work control prior to delivery to customer.
	Requirements in terms of social and learning competencies of Core Work Activities
	By customers (Internal and/or External): Advice with regard to time and cost of repair Efficient service Customer oriented deadlines and delivery. Service process in consideration of function safety Quality work **By company:** Abide to safety regulations. Abide to Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) Quick and reliable to determine required repair tasks Efficient teamwork Quality work **By skilled workers:** Application of manufacturer's work procedure. Adherence to regulations on occupational health and safety, dangerous materials and substances, waste disposal as well as company guidelines.

	Customer oriented deadlines and delivery Effective communication with colleagues and other departments. Quality work

3.4   Learning environmental

NOSS based training is an institute based, therefore the training is 100% in the institute while NDTS is industry based with 70 % training done in the industry and 30 % in the institute. The advantages of the NDTS in term of the tools, equipment and materials, the apprentices can used the real equipment in the workplace and indirectly this can be reduce the cost for the skills training institute. From Table 3, we observe that NOSS present its curriculum in a very specific manner. For example, in the subtask 1 (Table 3), the enabling requirement consisting of knowledge, ability and attitude and Tools, Equipment and Materials (TEM) is very specific. However, in NOCC the details presented under the *tool and technology, method and the organization of the core work activities* is quite broad. However, the social values and social skills are spelt out clearly for each CWP. Furthermore each of the CWP also has its own core competencies which should be accomplished through the five step action in the LWA.   Meanwhile, NOSS based training uses learning material which is known as Learning Guide (LG) and Course of Study (CoS) to guide trainee learn through various activities.
LG is used for students to provide guidance to learning via a various activities listed, enable the student to identify their level through the self assessment and a method for trainer to assess the student performance. Meanwhile CoS is guide for trainer to implement the materials in the training (MLVK, 2006a).

4.0   Conclusion

Although both NOSS based training system and NDTS award students the same Malaysian Qualification Skills Level Three, both systems are different in terms of philosophy and purpose, curriculum, training approach and assessment procedure. Both systems have their own strength and weaknesses, and students have a choice which type of training they would be able to cope and excel to fulfil the country needs for competent workers.

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The Role of Community Colleges in Northeastern Thailand in Supporting and Creating Vocational Networks in Communities

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Abstract

Thailand has about 63.4 million populations as of 2009. The northeastern part of Thailand occupies the largest land area of Thailand with approximately 21.2 million populations which is nearly one third of the total population of Thailand. Many people, especially the youngsters, fled from the area because of the arid land and poor economy to struggle for jobs in other parts of Thailand and send money back to support the elders and young children they left behind. This situation breaks thousands of families apart. Hence, this region is the largest pool of labor to businesses and factories throughout the country. The downward trend of the current economic condition results in shrinkage of many industries. A lot of labor forces are laid off and have no choice but return to their home towns where there are limited numbers of employments. They need to develop self-employed careers for living. These workforces need training for such purpose. The Thai government has established community colleges to provide knowledge and trainings with the emphasis on the development of vocations for people in local communities.   These community colleges have an important role in providing short courses to offer knowledge in making professions. The aim of this research project was to investigate the role of community colleges in supporting and creating vocations' networks within and among communities. In-depth interviews were conducted with directors of community colleges in northeastern part of Thailand together with administrators of vocational programs as well as leaders in communities. Data were content analyzed and inductively interpreted. Results suggested that communities are keen in building network with other communities but they need community colleges' assistance in linking to organizations.

Introduction and Background of the Study

The Institute for Population and Social Research of Mahidol University (2009) reported that the total population of Thailand as of 2009 was estimated at 63.4 million. Out of this, northeastern region housed the largest number of population, 21.2m compared to 6.7m in Bangkok, 15.3m in the central, 11.7m in the northern, and 8.4m in the southern regions. The northeastern region of Thailand consists of nineteen provinces which covers one third of the area of Thailand. The U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's world factbook (2009) reported that Thailand's GDP per capita was USD 8,500 in the year 2008 while the per capita income in 2008 was USD 4,125 (U.S. Department of State, 2009). The northeastern region occupies the largest land area but has the lowest income among all regions (Bank of Thailand, 2009; National Statistical Office, 2009; Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2009). Many people, especially the youngsters, have to migrate from the area because of the arid land and poor economy to struggle for employment in other parts of Thailand and send money back to support the elders and young children they left behind. The poverty situation breaks thousands of families apart.

Community College

The Thai government tries to cope with poverty situation by distributing aids and introducing vocational training courses through several agencies. Community colleges are higher education institutions that manage learning and offer certificates and diplomas to adults. The Bureau of Community College Administration (2008) reported that, as of 2008, there were 19 community colleges in all regions of Thailand. The purposes of community college were to offer formal degree education and vocational training. Formal degree education is offered so as to provide opportunity for those who could not attain education during their childhood. Holzer & Lerman (2007) argued that community colleges in the US have an important part in training workers for businesses. The situation is similar in Thailand. Furthermore, students could use the degree granted to pursue further study in the higher level. The objective of vocational training courses, which is the focus of this research project, is to assist local people to learn skills to start their own vocations and become entrepreneurs.

The community colleges are governed by the Bureau of Community College Administration. Each college appoints a board of trustee composing of academicians and community members. The role of

the college is to analyze vocational needs in the local area and create courses to satisfy those needs. Most participants requested for courses that teach skills to make handicraft products and services. Many participants earn their living through selling of handicraft products and they want knowledge to produce other products so they request the college to organize courses for them. Participants form a group of approximately 20 people and request the college to open vocational courses they need. Some participants become trainers for other communities. They have the same vocations and make similar products, hence, it is very likely that they form network among themselves. The objective of this research project was to examine the role of community college in supporting and creating vocational networks among members in communities. (Bureau of Community College Administration, 2008).

The target group was adults who incorporate their personal goals and vocational proficiency in their learning (Kegan, 1994). It is important that the planning of adult education should incorporate more direct and practical vocational knowledge rather than only theories. Training programs are flexible and adapted to each locality's needs. Community college was established on the belief that everybody has potentials and should receive proper guidance to unleash these potentials. The focus of education was on practical knowledge so that people could build their vocations (Nong Bua Lampoo Community College, 2008).

History
        The first community college in Thailand was established in 1977 in the Phuket campus of the Prince of Songkla University. The college was reverted back to the university in 1984 due to the educational reformation during the period. In 1994, 77 specific-purpose educational institutions throughout Thailand such as agricultural college (governed by the Ministry of Agriculture), art college (governed by the Ministry of Culture), and other colleges were combined into the umbrella of community college authority. Again, the process failed and the schools were returned to the original authorities in 1996. That ended the early attempt to establish community college in Thailand (Bureau of Community College Administration, 2008).

In the year 2002, the Thai government revived the community college idea and established 10 colleges in all regions of Thailand. By the year 2009, 19 community colleges were established; four of these were in the northeastern region (Bureau of Community College Administration, 2008). The aims of community colleges were to provide low cost education to assist poor people in local communities to start their own occupations and provide formal degree for those who lacked opportunity to study in the childhood. Community members' opinions are surveyed in order to plan for curriculum and design appropriate teaching programs. The participation could lead to innovation and proper utilization of the community's potentials (White, Nair, & Ascroft, 1994). One of the strategies of community college was to create network with members in the community, i.e., business organizations and other government authorities such as the Local Development Authority, The Water Authority, and others to find assistance in facilitating the participants' vocations.

Networking
        King Rama IX of Thailand had introduced the sufficiency theory that promotes self-contentment and the creation of networks among members in and among communities. The sufficiency network could create strength for Thailand and help to reduce the vulnerability of dependency upon other economies (Subcommittee on Sufficiency Economy, 2005).

Network is characterized as having several nodes connecting individual and group to each other. Inter-organizational networking can increase competitiveness of organizations and the group (Morris, Bessant & Barnes, 2006). Porter (1998) suggested that network can be categorized along the value chain into horizontal network among firms in the same level of value chain and vertical network among firms in different level of value chain. Goold & Campbell (1987) reported that Japanese firms normally do networking with each other to increase their competitive advantages. Exchange of information, or networking, is a popular practice among Japanese companies (Nonaka, 1990). Networking of firms can create clusters of industries which can enhance and create collective strength among members.

Thai society is characterized as a collective society (Hofstede, 2001). Although, the urbanization may drive people to be more individualistic but people in the provinces are still collectivistic. With such characteristic, networking behaviors are likely to occur, especially in less urbanized areas. Iacobucci and Zerrillo (1996) explained that network occur in the individual, dyadic, or group relationship where members connect to others. Individuals are motivated to get into relationship with each other in order to obtain needed resources (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1992). Members within the same community with similar vocations are likely to establish network with others. Individuals and organizations in a network would exchange information for the common purpose of the network through both formal and informal communication for the benefits of the professions and societal development (Kemm & Close, 1995). Modern businesses need to pool knowledge and expertise from others (Mankin and Cohen, 2003). Clarke (2006) suggested that commitment in the network was an important contributor to overall performance of members in the network. Martin (2009) suggested that interpersonal communication is an important element for entrepreneurial success. Social network among entrepreneurs provides opportunities for social support (Hogg & Adamic, 2004). The communicative and transformational learning approaches for adult learning enhance the intimacy among members and results in strong network.

Johanson and Mattsson (1992) explained two levels in network as the network of exchange relationship and the network of production system. The network of exchange relationship refers to the resource exchange process among members while the network of production system refers to the collaboration among members for the production of goods and/or services. Members in a network possess something of value and exchange those with each other in a reciprocal manner. Blankenburg et al., (1999) argued that the exchange process would bring about the development of knowledge among members. Trust could be developed along with the exchange (Hallen & Johanson, 2004). The longer the history of exchange, the more solid the trust became. The collaboration could combine complementary skills which could enhance the effectiveness and efficiency among network members (Powell et al., 1996). Chiu (2009) supported that network competence resulted in innovation performance.

A developmental network aims to improve career growth and members' learning (Higgins and Kram, 2001; Lankau and Scandura, 2002). This type of network draws relationship from various individuals and groups. Whitely et al. (1991) reported that developmental network played an important role in the enhancement of individual's career advancement.

According to the Subcommittee on Education System Structure and Knowledge Network (1990), network has 4 components:
1. the transfer, exchange and dissemination of modern knowledge and local wisdom to apply and create new knowledge relating to each community.
2. the stimulation of intelligence, spirit to develop the community and participation in community development.
3. the exchange of information relating to developmental projects of private and public sectors to keep members abreast of each other's activities.
4. the co-ordination of resources, materials and equipment, facilities and budgets among various units.

Methodology

This research was designed as an exploratory research to gain an in-depth understanding of the roles of community colleges in the creation of vocational network among members of communities. The northeastern region of Thailand was selected as the location for this study. There were four community colleges in the region at the time of study.

The researcher applied for approval from the central authority, the Bureau of Community College Administration, to conduct the study. The Bureau approved and gave names and contact numbers of the directors in the four community colleges in the northeastern region. The directors were informed by the Bureau about this study. The researcher made appointments with directors to conduct in-depth interviews with director of each college. In-dept interviews were also performed with personnel who were responsible for the vocational training short-courses in each college. These personnel were the main link between the colleges and community members. They mingled with the locals to study their needs and design programs

to satisfy these needs. Leaders and members in communities were asked to participate in focus group interviews. These participants included leaders of the local administrative authorities, members of the community who were trainers, active members of the communities and local business organizations. Each focus group consisted of 4-6 members. The researcher also went to visit some groups' businesses such as weaving and home-stay groups. Most interviews took place at the meeting room of the community college except one which was performed at one of the community leader's orchard.

Question protocol used with directors included questions relating to curriculum development, curriculum management, assessment, general policies and practices, and roles in creating vocational networks in the community. Particular interest was about their roles in creating or supporting vocational network among members in the communities. Question protocols for community leaders and members included questions relating to degree of participation in curriculum development, needs for advices in vocation and networking, credibility of the community colleges, trust in the community colleges and their collaboration with the colleges. These question protocols were assessed for content and face validity by experts in the Ministry of Education who were knowledgeable about the operations of community colleges before the interviews.

Results and Discussion

One of the colleges' chairman of the board of trustee said that *"The survival of community colleges lies in the creation of network, without network we can do nothing."* Community colleges were small organizations that did not have many resources. The strategy was to become a broker connecting various groups together. In the capacity of an educator, the colleges seek for academic assistance from universities, business assistance from local business organizations, and development assistance from other governmental units such as the Water Authority or Electricity Authority of Thailand. There were courses organized for a local sugar factory to train farmer in sugarcane growing and harvesting, and to train factory workers in sugar production. Participants were both workers and members in the community. In other cases, professors were invited from a university to teach in a college's computer program of study and the graduates could further their study at a university. A director asserted that *"Ubonrachathani University offered a quota for our 2-year business computer graduates to enter the university without taking entrance exam"* and *"Lay people are not able to gain access to some units, we serve as the links."* Another college had a course for managing home-stay businesses. The college acted as the link to ask for supports from Thailand Tourism Authority for the community.

The proximity to communities makes the colleges prudent in social network. Personnel visit communities in order to survey their needs. Hence, they become close to many community members. This social network provides assistance in two folds, one is in the training need assessment process. The need assessment becomes more accurate. Members in the community can request for courses they really want. Sometimes, the personnel may suggest courses that can benefit community members and discuss with them whether they want those courses. The second advantage is in the recruitment of trainers for courses. Trainers include professors or experts from organizations and local wise men depending on the characteristics of each course. Due to limited budget, some trainers could be recruited from wise men in locations close to training stations to safe transportation costs. Social network helps the college to identify knowledgeable local wise men for this purpose. The result is that these trainers become nodes in the community network that links several groups to each other, a horizontal network.

Some groups networked long before the colleges came into existence. One community leader said *"We have several active local networks going on for more than 20 years…there is no need for the college to help us networking."* Some groups offered handicraft training courses by themselves. In such case the college assisted in making the training programs more systematic and added theoretical knowledge into the programs. The colleges helped in the application of technology to the handicraft system such as the assistance in computer graphic for the designs of weaving groups and packaging. Before a course could be opened, the program organizers had to write up proper documentation and asked for approval from the colleges' academic and the administration boards. The documents must spell out the rationale, background, material needed, formulas or recipes, budgets, and curriculum. Usually, local wise men did not have exact recipe or formulas so the personnel from the college had to talk to them and extracted their knowledge into formal documents or turned implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge as proposed by Nonaka and

Takeuchi (1995) for knowledge management. When a program organizer want to open a course for fertilizer production, they had to convert the approximate ingredients into recipes to be included in booklets and curriculum and submit the curriculum for to the academic board and then to the college's board of trustees.

Currently, the colleges emphasized on the production side. Little assistance was offered for marketing of products or services. Members of several production groups would participate in trade shows throughout Thailand taking with them products of members in the groups. Friendship and loyalty in the community created trust, commitment, and cooperation among members in the network (Pesamaa & Hair, 2007). The colleges were trying to link groups from different courses together such as organic fertilizers groups with rice growing groups. Those in computer classes might be asked to setup website to distribute handicraft products from several groups.

A few participants complained that *"some of the new teachers don't know who we are and they treated us like we knew nothing."* This reflects the hierarchical nature (Hofstede, 2001) in the rural area where governmental authorities, with their higher education than laypeople, who did not have formal education during their childhood, perceive laypeople as unintelligent. Actually, these laypeople, though some could not read or write properly, possessed a lot of life and work experience. Some of them were very intelligent. This misperception created a large gap between laypeople or wise men and authorities. Those authorities who were in the field long enough get to know these people and could handle them properly. It is important to have an induction program to introduce new authorities to the nature and conditions of members in the communities else they will not be able to bridge the traditional gap between government authorities and communities. Some dissatisfaction were evident during one of the interview when a government authority from other unit called one of the participant on her mobile phone and asked if she would attend a seminar. She declined right away and told us later that *"I scheduled an appointment with them already, why should he ask me again if I would go or not, it is as if he did not trust my words."*

Conclusion

Communities do not need community colleges to assist in forming horizontal network with other communities. Thai people have the tendency to link to each other and call other a cousin (Komin, 1991). People in the same community are related in some ways or another either as cousins, neighbor, or others. Community members have similar needs and wants. They are in similar conditions and speak the same language. Networks exist naturally even across communities. Community colleges play a significant role in the vertical networks that link communities with organizations especially government's. Community members feel that they have to be submissive to government authorities due to the hierarchical nature of Thai culture (Hofstede, 2001). Community colleges should act differently from universities that emphasize academic knowledge and formal teaching and learning. They also should behave differently from governmental units that provide aids and assist in development. It would be appropriate for community to act in between both and be closer to local people than other governmental units and bride the hierarchy between community and government authorities. Community college should act as a center for trainer networks and locator of academic assistance. Community members interviewed expressed their appreciation and satisfaction in the role of community colleges in supplying them with practical knowledge for their occupations. Future research should seek to identify the structure and pattern of network used by community colleges. Research into the efficient management of network by community members is warranted.

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Taiwan students' Motivation and Performance to Learn: A Comparison Between On-job and Full-Time Students Majoring in Tourism and Hospitality

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Abstract

This study explored the relationship among student's learning motivation and performence of tourism education in technological and vocational education system in Taiwan. In addition, the difference between on-job students and full-time ones was also investigated. Students who study in the Taiwan Hospitality & Tourism College (THTC) were selected as the respondents. A structured 5-points Likert questionnaire composed from Huang(1992), Kirkpatrick(1994), and Lee & Huang(2007) by the authors was completed by 216 THTC's students. The results of this study show that the on-job students have more learning motivation and perforence than the full-time students. It also has shown that the strength of learning motivation is related to the level of the learning performance; there is significant relationship between the level of learning satisfaction and the performance of learning. On these grounds we have come to the conclusion that the experience of work and the time limitation before graduated will direct the students to value the importence in learning.

Keywords. Student motivation, on-job student, learning performance

INTRODUCTION

Taiwan has seen a marked increase in the number of hospitality related programs and departments in higher education institutions since 1998. The increase is even steeper from 2000 onward. As of academic near 2003, universities and colleges have established a department or graduate institute for hospitality, tourism, or leisure and recreation, of which 64 are bachelor degree programs, 17 are master degree programs, and one is a PhD degree program (Horng, 2003). This trend is continued now, as the fewer babies born trend in Taiwan going, the more competition in colleges. It will become a trend that department will rename and found into tourism area.

The same observation applies to the policy of Taiwan Government. The Tourism Bureau (TBRoc, 2009) declare the「Development Plan for Six Key Emerging Industries」 policy, the tourism plan also named: Project Vanguard for Excellence in Tourism on the list. On the other words, the promote of manpower quality in tourism is the key fact to competed with others. The Performance of students who major in Tourism degree will be one of the potential issue in tourism industry development. Cole, Cole and Ferguson(2006) study results confirmed that Parks, Recreation, and Tourism(PRT) students were more likely to have changed majors. Although PRT students reports lower ACT and GPA scores, but no significant difference was found between the two groups in their motivation to learn. Many scholars believe that there is obviously relationship between student's learning motivation and performance, but most most studies focus on the teaming motivation and satisfaction but few studies focus on the learning ability of students. Therefore Tzai-Zang Lee & Li-Yang Huang (2007) targeted their research on the students of the In-service graduate program. They finded that stronger of the student's learning motivation, the more effective they are at learning, and the students of In-service students have the strong attitude towards learning. With the exception of this studies, few studies focus on the college student who major in Tourism; and even conduct on the difference between the on-job students and full time students.

Therefore, this study will focus on the students of the Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College(THTC) as example. THTC localed in Hualien, is a professional tourism-training college, which mainly put our emphasis on the six departments−Department of Food and Beverage Management,

Department of Hospitality and Hotel Management, Department of Travel Management, Department of Leisure Management, Department of Chinese Culinary Arts, Department of Western Culinary Arts, and Department of Tourism−Five-Year Division. With the exception of normal college, THTC also have the divison of night school, continuing and extension education. Most of the full-time students come from anywhere of Taiwan, but the on-job students who major in night school or continuing education are live in local country. The study aim at the students who are play the role of on job or not, distinguishing the difference between their learning motivation and learning performance. And finding the relationship and influence among the students who are on job or not for the reference of THTC's job-based curriculum design goals.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning Motivation

In recent years, the cognition orientated motivation theory focus on the goal and way of approach on personal achievement behavior. Rezabek(1998) was made a study of the motives, barriers, and enablers affecting participation in adult distance education class in an Iowa community college. The study shows that the key factors would influence on student's learning effort, one is the way of teaching, and the other is students learning motivaion. The centrality of motivation to learn in Figure 1 reflects its importance for any training or development program. Motivation to learn refers to the desire of the trainee to learn the content of a training program (Noe, 1986).

Mahon and Dannells(1998) from the view of teachers, conducted a survey of 278 academic advisors from six four-year colleges and universities determined differences in advisors' attitudes toward students matriculating at their institutions, transfer community-college students, and students coming from other four-year colleges. Advisors viewed transfer students as less prepared, less motivated, less knowledgeable about requirements and procedures, and less able to adjust to an upper-division academic environment.

Motivation to learn is generally defined as an internal state that arouses us to action, pushes us in particular directions, and keeps us engaged in certain activites (Ormrod, 1999, p.407). In psychology, there are many theoretical perspectives for studying motivation. Motivation has been studied extensively over the years using the Expectancy-Value Theroy. Pintrich & Schunk,(2002) holds that a student's motivation to meaningfully engage in an activity depends on two primary components: (1) the students' expectation for successfully completing the task and (2) their perceived value for that task. For example, Pintrich & Schunk,(2002); Wigfield & Eccles,(2000) used Expectancy-Value Theory to investigate whether there were differences in motivation to learn between PRT(park, recreation and tourism) students and students majoring in other fields. Harlen & Crick(2003) presents motivation is considered as a complex concept, closely aligned with the will to learn, and encompassing self-esteem, self-efficacy, effort, self-regulation, locus of control and goal orientation.

To sum up authors' view, the learning motivation will divided into six items(Tzai-Zang Lee & Li-Yang Huang, 2007): (1)the purse of learning; (2)the development of career; (3)refuge and stimulate; (4)social service; (5)external expectation; (6)relationship of society.

Learning Performance

Learning Performance is an index that not only measuring the result of learning, but also judging the quality of teaching. The top four performance determinants of a learning course and the learning thereof, pointed-out by Honore (2003), are course design, individual need, interaction and technology. The evaluation of learning performance also could be develop from Kirkpatrick's (1994) techniques for evaluation training programs' four-level model. According to Kirkpatrick's (1994) four-level model for assessing training effectiveness, evaluation should always begin with level one, and then, as time and budget allows, should move sequentially through levels two, three, and four as Table 1 showed. The levels are: level 1 – reaction, a measure of participants' initial reactions to a course, usually assessed through surveys;level 2 – learning, a measure of the amount of information that participants learned, usually assessed using criterion-referenced tests;level 3 – transfer, a measure of the amount of material learned that participants actually use in everyday work, usually assessed using observations and interviews with co-workers and supervisors; and level 4 – value to the organisation, a measure of the financial impact of the training course on the bottom line of the organisation, assessment for this level is not clearly defined.
Table 1 four-level model for assessing training effectiveness

Level	element	Meaning	Contents
Level 1	Reaction	a measure of participants' initial reactions to a course, usually assessed through surveys	courses、lecturers、meterial and approach, etc.
Level 2	learning	a measure of the amount of information that participants learned, usually assessed using criterion-referenced tests	*learning situation and efforts
Level 3	Behavior	Behavior Transfer and working performance	participants actually use in everyday work, usually assessed using observations and interviews with co-workers and supervisors
Level 4	Results	a measure of the financial impact of the training course on the bottom line of the organisation	value to the organisation

Steven (1997) translate the performance of company's trainee events and process outcomes into the quantification. According to the quantification evaluation, researcher could identified the pros and the cons of training plan, judged the benefits of learner and the learning satisfacion of course design and appraisal, etc. These evaluation will be the reference of education planing exculative(Noe, 2003).

The question is There is no reserch focus on the relationship between college students' learning motivation and performancce. T. Z. Lee & L. Y. Huang (2007) targeted study on the students of the In-service master program. They found students in-service master program have the greatest inquisitive attitude towards learning, but didn't compare with the full time students. On the other hand, they found the stronger of graduated student's learning motivation, the more effective they are at learning, but we still don't understand the college students will be the same situation relative with the graduated students. Thus, this study is presented as an exploratory study to investigate this issue. The three research questions guiding this study were:

　Do on-job students differ from full-time students with regard to gender and other background characteristics?

　Do on-job students differ from full-time students with regard to learning motivation and learning performance?

　Is students' perceived learning performance related to their perceptions of learning motivation?

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to integrate motivation theories, and learning performance researches into a comprehensive model to explain the difference between on-job students and full-time students. As Figure 2 shows, we design a integrated questionire based upon an adapted version named 「The motivation of participated contiuning education Scales」by T. Z. Lee & L. Y. Huang (2007), F. S. Huang(1992), and two levels of Kirkpatrick's (1994) four-level model.

The survey asked students to rank the extent to whick they felt their learning motivation's in 26 questions from six divisions, such as the pursue of learning, the development of career, refuge and stimulate, social service, external expectation and relationship of society; and included a more general range of scales about their majors and learning performance via 15 questions. The items under each scale, their means, standard deviations, and the scales' reliabilities scores are listed in Table 2. The "Learning Motivation" scale was measured with six 5-point items with 1 representing "strong disagree with me" scale and 5 representing "strong agree with me". Overall, respondents reported a relatively high level of agreement with the six items of the "Learning Motivation" scale and the two items under the "Learning Performance" scale. Reliabilities of the scales were examined using Cronbach's alpha. The "Learning Motivation" scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9357, while the "Learning Performance" scales that have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9324. According to Nunnally(1978), scales that have a Cronbach's alpha of at least 0.70 are considered reliable. The questionnaire also included questions regarding students' gender, academic level, their current major and some family situations.

A total of 286 surveys were sent out to all college, data was collected from undergraduate students enrolled at the Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College during the 2008/2009 academic year. All total of 216 students completed the questionnaire, a total response of 83.1% completed surveys, of which 39 were on-job students and 177 were full-time students representing 6 majors from across campus.

Table 2. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities of Sacles

items		Means	Standard Deviations	Cronbach's α
Learning Motivation				0.9357
	the pursue of learning	3.6566	0.6780	0.8799
	the development of career	3.6350	0.7145	0.8646
	refuge and stimulate	3.3488	0.8333	0.7514
	social service	3.4097	0.7128	0.8139
	external expectation	3.5220	0.7559	0.8068
	relationship of society	3.5278	0.8148	0.7885
Learning Performance				0.9324
	learning	3.5313	0.6858	0.8888
	behavior	3.5212	0.7417	0.9087

(N=216)

RESULTS

Table 3 details the demographic profiles of on-job and full-time students. A significantly larger group of on-job students than full-time students were female respondents (X^2=0.041, P<0.05), Chi-square test results indicated that either on-job or full-time students were large amount of Freshman & Sophomore than Junior & Senior's at school.

Table 3. Respondents' Profiles

Scale	Items	N	%	X^2 value
Gender				0.041*
On-job	Male	13	33%	
	Female	26	67%	
Full-time	Male	91	51%	
	Female	86	49%	
Class Level				0.003*

On-job	Freshman & Sophomore	24	62%
	Junior & Senior	15	38%
Full-time	Freshman & Sophomore	147	83%
	Junior & Senior	30	17%

(N=216)
*$p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

From the view of Scale of learning motivation, there were three significant difference item. Female respondents had strong pursue of learning and more care about their development of career than male students (t = -2.6096, P<0.01; (t = -1.8288, P<0.05). As Table4 shows, on the other hand, male students had strong refuge and stimulate on learning motivation than females((t = 1.7063, P<0.05). However, there was no significant difference in terms of gender between the scale of learning motivaion items, social service, external expectation, and relationship of society. In the same way, there was no significant difference stand on gender between the scale of learning performance's items.

Table 4. Comparison of students' gender perceived Learning Motivation and Performance

Scale	Items	Mean	SD	t value
Learning Motivation				
the pursue of learning	Male	3.5321	0.7643	-2.6096**
	Female	3.7723	0.5660	
the development of career	Male	3.5433	0.7337	-1.8288*
	Female	3.7202	0.6885	
refuge and stimulate	Male	3.4487	0.8358	1.7063*
	Female	3.2560	0.8238	
social service	Male	3.3726	0.7813	-0.7369
	Female	3.4442	0.6444	
external expectation	Male	3.4519	0.7601	-1.3151
	Female	3.5871	0.7494	
relationship of society	Male	3.5032	0.7883	-0.4263
	Female	3.5506	0.8415	
Learning Performance				
learning	Male	3.5048	0.6737	0.2931
	Female	3.5558	0.6991	
behavior	Male	3.4849	0.7752	0.2449
	Female	3.5548	0.7110	

(N=216)
*$p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

The mean scores of perceived learning motivation and learning performance for on-job students and full-time students are list in Table 5. With regard to research question 2, F-tests were conducted to examine the differences in learning motivation and learning performance between the twe groups. Results of F-tests revealed that there were significant differences in learning motivation sacle's items: "the pursue of learning (F=18.5922, P<0.001)" and "the development of career(F=12.1615, P<0.001)", on-jobstudents were strong intention than full-time students. In the same way, there were significant differences in learning performance sacle's items: "learning (F=10.2533, P<0.05)" and "behavior (F=5.9396, P<0.05)", on-job students were strong deed than full-time students. On the contrary, "social service(F=4.2332, P<0.05)" in learning motivation scale was presents that the full-time students(M=3.4562) have vigorous intent than on-

job students(M=3.1987).

Table 5. Comparison of on-job and full-time students' perceived Learning Motivation and Learning Performance

Scale	Items	Mean	SD	F value
Learning Motivation				
the pursue of learning	on-job	4.0641	0.5628	18.5952***
	full-time	3.5669	0.6696	
the development of career	on-job	3.9872	0.6402	12.1615***
	full-time	3.5574	0.7082	
refuge and stimulate	on-job	3.2051	0.9901	1.4169
	full-time	3.3804	0.7943	
social service	on-job	3.1987	0.7930	4.2332*
	full-time	3.4562	0.6876	
external expectation	on-job	3.7051	0.6536	2.8176
	full-time	3.4816	0.7724	
relationship of society	on-job	3.6410	0.7429	0.9192
	full-time	3.5028	0.8296	
Learning Performance				
learning	on-job	3.8429	0.5705	10.2533*
	full-time	3.4626	0.6914	
behavior	on-job	3.7802	0.5522	5.9396*
	full-time	3.4641	0.7668	

(N=216)
*p＜0.05; ** p＜0.01; ***p＜0.001

To address research question 3, regression analysis were conducted between students' perceived learning motivation and learning performance. Results of the correlations are displayed in Table 6. The correlations between learning motivation and learning performance were significant, especially between the learning motivation's items of the pursue of learning(r=0.0576 and r=0.3876) and social service.(r=0.1646 and r=0.2139) for the learning and behavior of learning performance.

Table 6. Regression Between Scales of Learning Motivation and Learning Performance

Learning Motivation	Learning Performance	
	Learning	Behavior
the pursue of learning	0.5676**	0.3876**
the development of career	0.0067	0.2065*
refuge and stimulate	0.0508	0.0640
social service	0.1646*	0.2139**
external expectation	-0.0080	-0.1191
relationship of society	0.0139	0.1144
F	33.9836	32.4744
P	0.0000**	0.0000**
R^2	0.4938	0.4825

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

DISCUSSION

This paper has presented the findings of a study into the relationship between learning motivation and performance via on-job or full-time students major in hospitality and tourism management in Taiwan

Hospitality and Tourism College. The study highlighted the problem that, we hypothesize on-job students would have stronger motivation and better performance than full-time students, but it couldn't be proved from survey. In other words, on job students have a strong motivation to learn, but there is no remarkable learning performance compare with full-time students. The on-job student cohort on hospitality and tourism courses in Taiwan is diverse, having variable levels of related skills, training and employment experience in the hospitality and tourism sector when they embark on study.

This explorative study has revealed that, the scale of learning motivation present high predict on "the pursue of learning", "the development of career", and "social service". Therefore, the students own the strong pursue of learning, like service with others, and have interest in career development, who will be a good performance student as prediction. The findings of this study have generated a number of questions and propositions that could usefully be the subject of future study. However, results of this study did not show that on-job students' motivation to learn was significantly lower than that of full-time students. For both groups, their perceived learning motivation and learning performance was significantly correlated.

Not only did this study show that on-job students were no less motivated than full-time students, it also suggested that there is a stronger relationship between on-job students' perceived learning motivation and their performance of learning, compared with full-time students. Given these results, tourism instructors may want to be particularly sensitive to creating an environment that supports students' motivation of learning via career development, social service, while also easing student interest and an enhanced sense of importance and usefulness of the academic material covered in the major. Tourism educators and advisors may want to focus full-time students' attention on how they should be pursue for the learning to ensure positive outcomes of teaching.

This study only demonstrated that Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College's on-job students and full-time students as an example, another limitation of the study is that this sample may not truly represent the student population on campus as on-job student respondents. Educators in tourism should pay special attention to these differences in order to develop effective strategies to motivate students to learn.

We hypothesised that we might be dealing with different groups within the sample: those who see the on-job experience developed within their motivation and performance in learning; and another group for whom full-time students would be focus on learning motivation for career. We suggest that further research is needed on this view of our students' working or intern experiences to try to identify further connections between the expectations and career aspirations of our students.

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Coaching for self-study on the opensource e-portfolio system "mahara"

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Abstract

Our laboratory members discuss research project face-to-face for a week. In that discussion, though our laboratory students report about their research activities, they don't have the evidences to report, report papers, reference papers, andso on. Hence, we cannot discuss their report and promote their research project.

In the future, we hope that our students will forward their research project by their plan. It is well known that the Self-Regulated Learning(SRL) helps for researching students to promote their research. In the SRL processes, the "goal setting" is a start process, and the "self-evaluation" is a last process.

We have coached the setting personal goals and the reflection for their every reporting after discussion. In these coaching, the opensource e-portfolio system "mahara" has used. This e-portfolio has the functions, "setting goals", "blog" to record their evidences and "storage" to save various files. This e-portfolio offers individuals these functions after authenticated by ID and password. At first, for our students, we give instructions to record all their search results and their thoughts in their blogs. Therefore, our students have become to show us the evidence for research activities naturally. Next, for our students, we give instructions to reflect by themselves after the face-to-face discussion. Because of this coaching, we have efficiently promoted research project and coached our students on time.

We indicate that our laboratory students cannot record their artifact and don't know the reflections. In this report, for solving these practical problems, we show our practical approaches to introduce the e-portfolio system and to give instructions for how to record and how to reflect.

Performance of uni directional LMS synchronization in various networks capacity

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Abstract - A uni-directional synchronization is implemented within different type and capacity of networks between the master and client LMS. Obtained results shows that variation of network capacity (56 kbps - 2 Mbps) results time synchronization from 9199 seconds upto 236 seconds for a volume of file about 50 Mbytes. This result shows that to overcome problems in learning object development and maintenance can be solve by automatic sharing and updating thoughout LMS synchronization.

Keywords
Distributed LMS, Uni-directional Synchronization, content synchronization

1. Introduction

LMS is a system that supports the implementation of electronic learning (e-Learning) to provide learning materials, instructions the learning done by students, materials evaluation, and results of the learning process [1]. Currently, many applications Learning Management System (LMS) at the commercial and general public licence are developed [2]. One of the popular system of General Public Licence is Modular Object Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (Moodle) [3], onwhich the synchronization system is run.

The usage of e-learning expands the capability of education with distance and asynchronous ways of learning. While development of information and communication infrastructure still relatively behind comparing progress of technology in developing countries. Organizing higher education courses, for example, in universities located in eastern part of Indonesia is challenging works. In order to achieve successful learning, lectures should be highly motivated within limited environments, including infrastructure and facilities, capacity of human resources and availability of good course contents and materials. [4]

In addition to fully utilize the capability of e-learning, building and maintaining costs of learning objects should be also minimized while the security for protecting personal information when using a Learning Management System (LMS) should be considered.

A single LMS can not provide sufficient accessibility if many of learners access to this LMS from distance connected with limited bandwidth networks.. In such a case, solution may be proposed by providing an LMS server within a local network with broad bandwidth in individual educational institutes in distance. Then its LMS contents necessary are necessary to be synchronized. Hence, to overcome both problems, a dynamic and automatic synchronization of the learning objects within multiple LMSs are required.

2. Distributed LMS

Synchronizing learning objects within multiple LMS can be considered as implementation of distributed LMS. Two approaches of synchronization was proposed, namely bi-directional and uni-directional synchronization [5]. Bi-directional synchronization approach is applied to all master LMS data (tables). They are synchronized between those of the master and the client one. This synchronization affects to all data is completely. But a uni-directional synchronization concerns only to learning objects of the client LMSs with ones in the master LMS; while the learners' information including the discussion and other interactive activities among learners and teachers, is not synchronized between LMSs in order to provide the separate operation for each educational institute.

Figure 1 shows the uni-directional synchronization system, the specified learning contents only on the server LMS are retrieved and the differences are taken with the previously synchronized contents. Those differences are send to the specified client side either immediately or at specified timing and they are uploaded to the client LMSs. The synchronizing learning contents does not include learners' personal information; all contents posted by learners, all records of activities between all of server LMS and client LMSs.
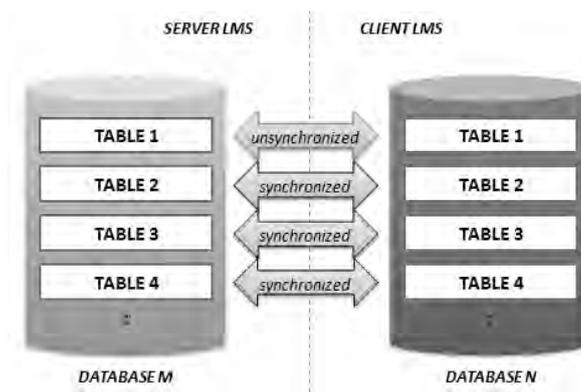
Figure 1. Uni-directional synchronization of LMS

Whlist both LMS synchronization approaches are carried out as described in Figure 2. Specified database tables are compared between master data (database M) to the copy of client's data (Database sub1). Then SQL commands to update / remove /add records to make M and sub1 identical are directly generated. The following step is SQL commands are copied from server LMS side to the specified client LMS side. The copied SQL commands are applied to client LMS's Database S1. Finally based on the acknowledgement from client LMS, Database sub1 is updated. [6]
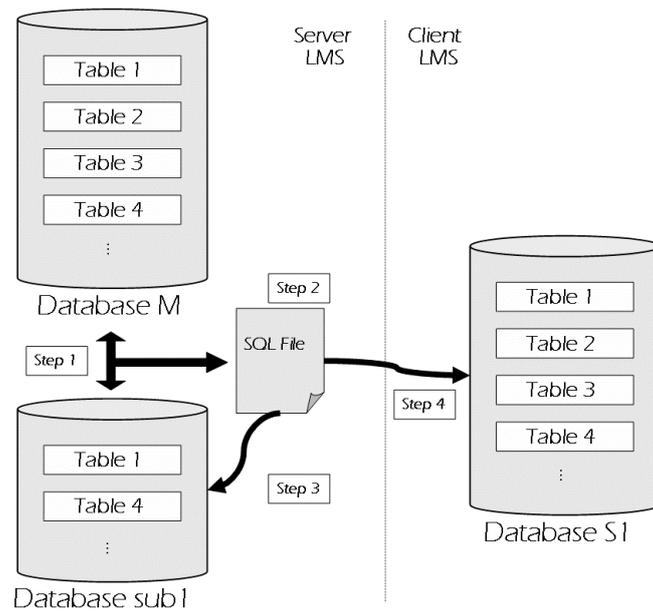
Figure 2. LMS synchronization concept

3. Scenario of Experiment

Scenario of experiment on the performance of LMS synchronization is designed for two types of network media, namely cable and wireless networks. The first experiment concerns on the difference of both type of networks in the various available bandwidth (56 kbps up to 2Mbps), where topology of both networks test bed are shown in Figure 3 and 4.
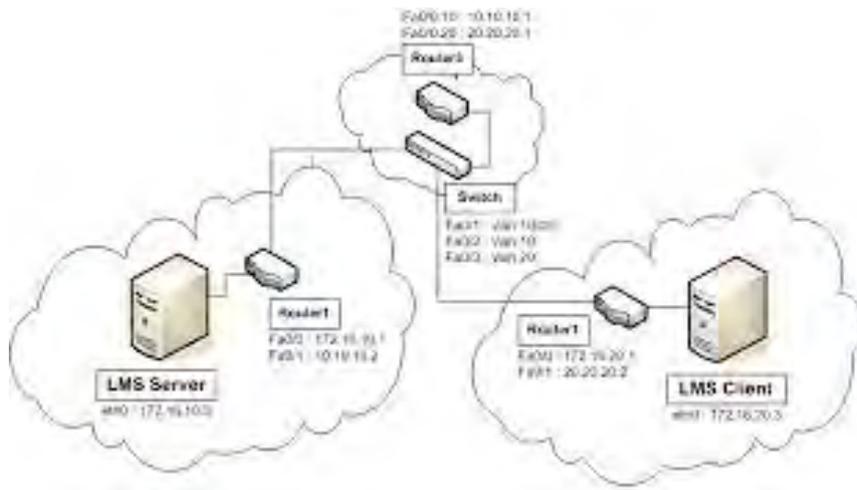
Figure 3. Cable Network topology
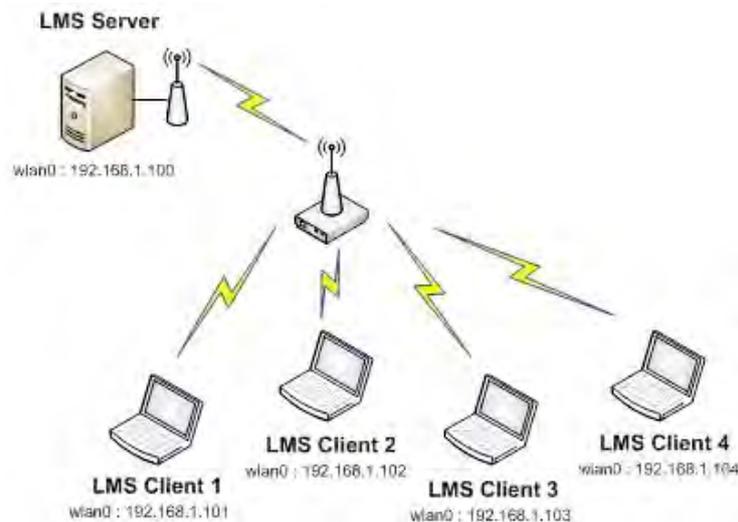
Figure 4. Wireless Network topology

Observation is focused on various available bandwidths in the networks will impact to the LMS synchronization performance. The bandwidth availability varies from 56 kbps, 384 kbps, 512 kbps, 1 Mbps and 2 Mbps. This LMS synchronization experiment is carried out to transfer a content about 50 Mbytes, and configurated by applying with and without other traffic in the networks. A Wireshark protocol analyzer is employed to monitor such a network performance and time synchronization [7].

4. Performance Evaluation

Obtained measurement results of LMS synchronization performance parameters within different capacity of the network backbone, are presented here including throughput during synchronization process and synchronization time between Master LMS and Client LMS. Due to limitation of test bed scale and number of LMS clients, this experiment is considered as an ideal connection performance environment.

Results of average throughput performance in cable networks for various bandwitdh given in the table 1, varies from 50.70 kbps to 1919.01 kbps, with deviation standard of 0.86 kbps to 16.45 kbps. When the bandwidth is limited, it shows that the variation of throughput become important 1.70% of the average, rather than that in the broadband of 0.86%.

Table 1. Throughput in cable networks for various bandwidth

Address A	Address B	Bandwidth				
		2Mbps	1Mbps	512Kbps	384Kbps	56Kbps
172.16.20.3	172.16.10.3	1928,95	982,51	507,25	377,58	50,39
172.16.20.3	172.16.10.3	1930,93	982,08	508,61	376,60	51,01
172.16.20.3	172.16.10.3	1891,31	978,96	513,08	377,94	51,88
172.16.20.3	172.16.10.3	1916,54	980,40	511,27	378,47	49,53
172.16.20.3	172.16.10.3	1927,29	980,24	508,33	375,20	50,70
		1919,01	980,84	509,71	377,16	50,70
		16,45	1,45	2,40	1,29	0,86

Figure 5 and 6 shows both throughput and time synchronization of LMS synchronization in cable networks in various bandwidth. The important of variation in small bandwidth seems more clear in the picture, especially for the time synchronization performance in 56 kbps networks variation may reach 2.88% of its average.
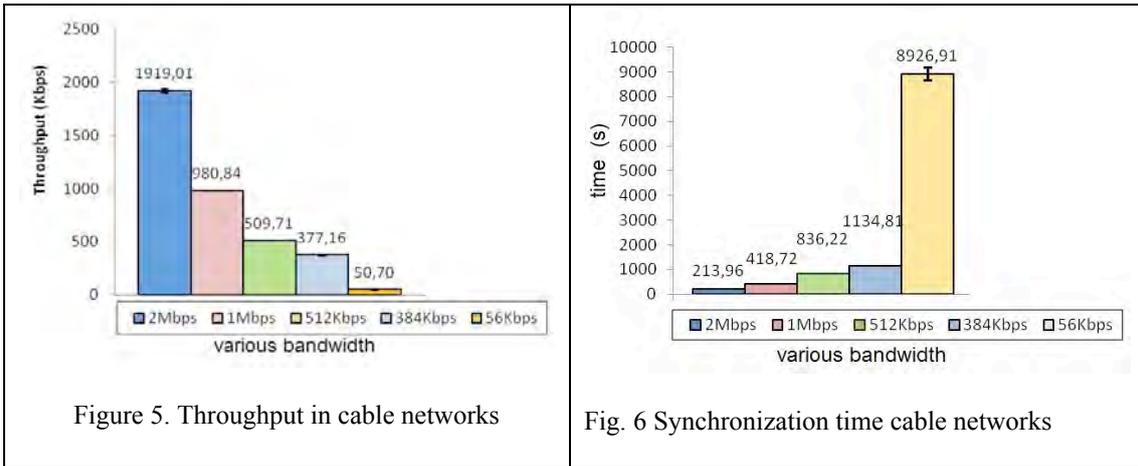
Figure 5. Throughput in cable networks
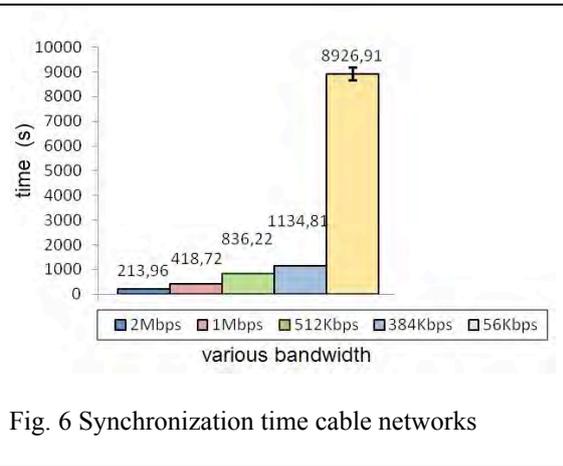
Fig. 6 Synchronization time cable networks

Other key important of implementation in different network media, i.e. cable and wireless. The performance of LMS synchronization in wireless networks for both parameter are shown in the Figure 7 and 8. The difference of throughput performance of each bandwith in wireless and cable networks increases (from -3.60% to -20.21%) when the bandwidth is inchrease (from 56 kbps to 1 Mbps). However, due to higher variation in the 2 Mbps bandwidth (3,85% of the average), this increment could not be confirmed in such a bandwidth. Hence performance in wireless networks is worse varying from 3.6% to 20.21% of network capacity (56 kbps to 2 Mbps) in cable.
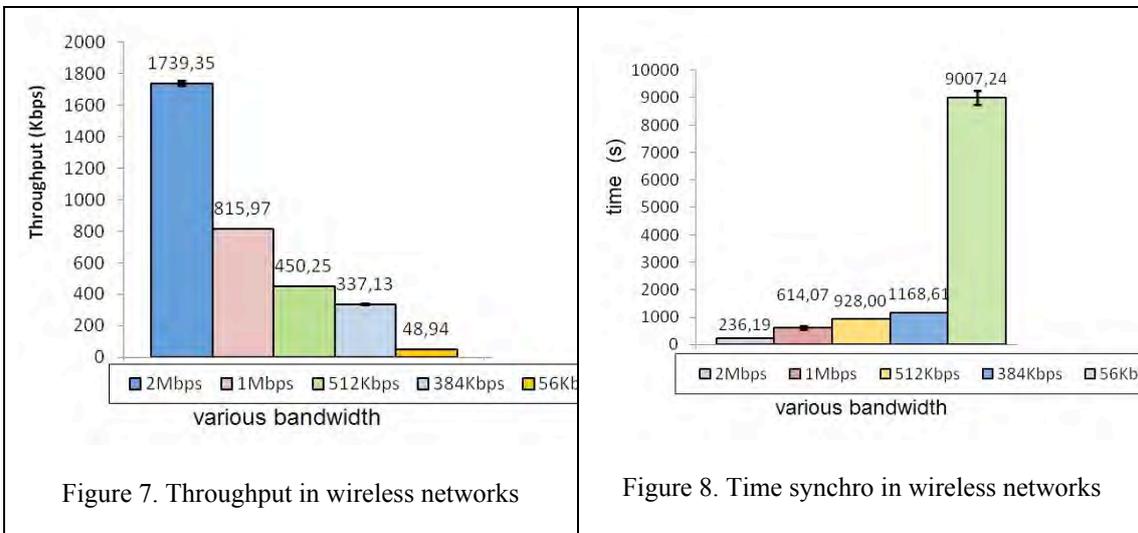
Figure 7. Throughput in wireless networks
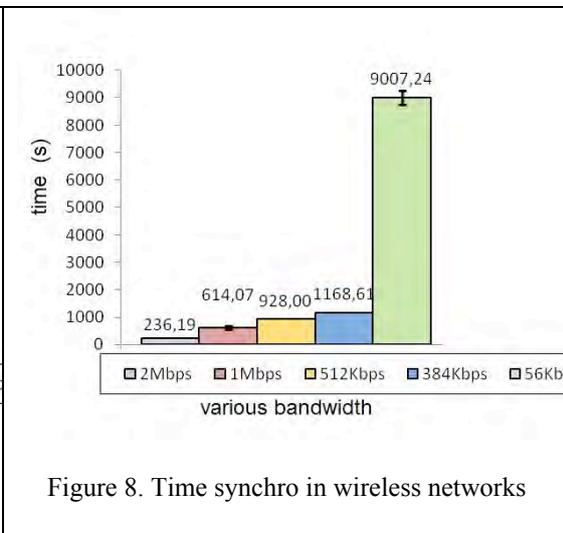
Figure 8. Time synchro in wireless networks

Whilst in the point of view synchronization time, the above statement may not be applied to the time synchronization between both LMSs. In the wireless networks, increase of bandwidth will not much vary in standard deviation of time synchronization (about 3% for all bandwidth). This may be happened due to difficulties of propagation environment, in consequence the variation to the average time synchronization is not important comparing the bandwidth increment.

5. Conclusion

Based on the measurement and evaluation presented above, some point may be addressed as followings:

1. LMS synchronization performance depend on the type of networks media and available bandwidth of the networks.
2. In general, better performance will be obtained using cable networks with higher available bandwidth.
3. Use of wireless networks will drop significantly of LMS synchronization comparing the cable one, but variation of bandwidth capacity (with reference of its average bandwidth) will not vary with the increase of available bandwidth.
4. Care must be taken, in the future, when the connection of the networks is not stable enough to maintain the communication. Such a research may be offered by considering real condition of networks in the community.

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PoSTech, Front-End to AltaVista Search engine: A Case Study

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Abstract

This poster describes the design and development of a Personalised Search Tool for Teachers called PoSTech!

PoSTech was developed as part of an iterative case study to investigate the decisive factors that individual teachers look for when searching online for resources. This search tool is a front-end to AltaVista's search engine or repository, aimed at UK teacher practitioners at primary, secondary and post-compulsory levels.

PoSTech comprises of twenty two search options from which seven are classified as being 'Research in Progress' options. The 'Research in Progress' options are search options that were preferred or highlighted by individual teachers in our previous case study but not currently supported by AltaVista.

With PoSTech, search results are presented to teachers in two separate windows; these windows are positioned next to each other and are made visible to teachers after clicking on the 'Search' button. The window on the right hand side of the webpage is designed to return personalised search results to teachers from the AltaVista's search engine/repository and the window on the left hand side retunes non-personalised search results.

Personalising search engines or repositories to teachers' needs and preferences and indeed the development of search tools like PoSTech place importance in the way in which teachers (and other group of end-users) embark on using generic search engines to pursue their online searching activities. Seeing that, with the invention of the internet in particular Web 2.0 and the UK government's call for an increased use of online resources and online based tools in classroom teaching, teachers are now incorporating digital resources into their lesson plans and have began using collaborative tools such as 'wikis', 'blogs' and 'podcasting'.

Moreover, teachers are the main (and perhaps the most important) end-users in the government's ICT policy agenda. They are the first group of users exposed to new teaching practices and technologies in education. These new practices are often enforced on the teachers through compulsory teacher trainings and new curriculum standards. This, therefore, makes teachers the pivotal point of all the government's policies and indeed the key implementers of their system given that, teachers are the facilitators and mediators between students and the new educational technologies outlined by the government.

Hence, the concept used for the design and development of PoSTech can easily be replicated around the world by search engine developers and/ designers to create other personalised search tools (front-ends) for their teachers; to develop search tools that sit in front of other generic search engines or repositories, rather than having to restrict teachers' search results to educational and or specialised search engines only.

keywords = Personalisation, Internet, Online Resources, Teaching, Government's ICT policies

Teaching Future Jordanian Information System at university

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Abstract

Teaching Information Systems (IS) to Jordanian tertiary students has become increasing problematic with many of them relying on a surface level approach to study. This will surely affect their understanding of IS material and in turn affect their effectiveness in the workplace.

Teaching Information Systems to future Jordanian Information System (IS) professionals has become significantly more challenging over the previous past years, for many different reasons, the changing nature of technology, the needs of industry and the student population differentials.

One of the main challenges is that the Jordanian university structure and style tends not to promote a deep level understanding of the information given to the students. This is concerning as students then take this poor approach into their working lives as IS professionals.

To assess whether this assertion is correct and explore possible solutions to it, the authors looked at a particular unit within an IS degree taught at a University within Jordan.

This paper examines the issues behind this trend and considers Learning Problem as an aid to counteract it.

keywords = Information Systems,Teaching and Learning Issues , tertiary teachers ,breadth of coverage

EFL Reading and Writing through a Critical Literacy Perspective

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Abstract

Despite the obvious importance of a critical literacy stance in a people's language and literacy practices, whether it be their native, second, or foreign languages (Hammond et. al, 1992; Hood, Solomon and Burns, 1996; Rice, 1998), there has been few research that discusses critical literacy in English-as-a-foreign language (EFL) classrooms, although the implementation of critical literacy in language classrooms in many English-speaking nations (e.g. Australia, Britain, and the United States) has already received extensive attention and wide documentation (Brown, 1999; Fehring & Green, 2001). Indeed, critical perspectives are still being overlooked in many EFL classrooms more than 10 years after the "critical turn" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) in language education during the 1990s. Albright et al. (1999) also observe that most of the work on critical literacy has involved academics rather than practitioners and classroom teachers. This is particularly true in many
 Asian EFL settings, where critical literacy remains outside of mainstream practice (Falkenstein, 2003; Kuo, 2006). This paper therefore reports on an action research study which explored ways to include a critical literacy perspective in an EFL classroom. The purpose of this study was to gain insight into how critical literacy could be incorporated into an EFL reading and writing course. Particularly, this study attempted to understand the ways in which students responded to texts when encouraged to read critically. Ultimately, the goal was to investigate the possibility and practicality of a critical literacy framework for the teaching of English in EFL contexts in Asia.

   The research was undertaken at a university in northern Taiwan in a semester-long elective course focusing on EFL reading and writing. 35 non-English majors in their second, third, and fourth years enrolled in the course. Data collection lasted from September 2008 until January 2009. For the critical literacy component of the course, students were encouraged to respond to texts critically, and several questions were suggested as possible angles through which to consider texts. Towards the end of the course, students were also asked to write a short paper in which they reflected on various aspects of their learning. Data for this paper include students' written responses to three texts and students' reflections of critical literacy. Findings suggest that when provided appropriate materials and instructional support, students were able to question the voices that have been silenced and interrogate the perspectives that have been omitted in the texts that they read. The
 paper also discusses the angles through which students were able to examine texts of varying topics, including those more directly relevant to their lives and also topics of less personal relevance. Implications for future practice of critical literacy in EFL classrooms and suggestions for future research directions are also addressed.

Keywords: critical literacy, English-as-a-foreign language, reading instruction

Current Situation of Medical English Education in Japan

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on the current situation of medical English education at medical schools in Japan, based on: (1) Strategic planning in Japan, (2) Four medical colleges that received grants, (3) Activities of three associations in Japan, (4) Examination of Proficiency in English for Medical Purposes, (5) Nationwide questionnaire survey on medical English and (6) ESP teaching materials for medical students in Japan.

1. INTRODUCTION

Japan is facing an unprecedented aging society, and the roles of doctors are becoming more important than before. At the same time, we are facing global pandemics such as the global outbreak of influenza A (H1N1). We need to have medical doctors who can respond to global outbreaks quickly. We need doctors with a high level of medical English and the ability to exchange information with other medical professionals around the world.

Table 1 Rate of Japanese Papers in First Class Medical Journals
(University of Occupational and Environmental Health Library, 2004)

Impact Factor	Journals	Number of Japanese Papers	Total Number of Papers	The Rate of Japanese Papers
34.833	N Engl J Med	9	2,411	0.37
30.979	Nature	98	7,879	1.2
29.162	Science	78	4,125	1.9
21.455	JAMA	1	4,435	0.02
18.316	Lancet	45	8,605	0.52
12.427	Ann Intern Med	8	1,041	0.76
7.209	BMJ	1	4,739	0.02

However, the number of Japanese medical doctors who are recognized world-wide is very limited. For example, the rates of Japanese papers in the first class medical journals in the world are very low. (Table 1) This is the undeniable fact, though we have many talented persons in medical schools in Japan. One of the causes of this status is insufficient medical English education at medical schools in Japan.

It is very important to understand English education in Japanese medical schools today to assess what is still needed to improve medical English education. This paper reports on the current status of medical English education in Japan, categorized into six points: 1) Strategic planning in Japan, 2) Four medical colleges that received grants, 3) Activities of three associations in Japan, 4) Examination of Proficiency in English for Medical Purposes, 5) Nationwide questionnaire survey on medical English and needs of English in medical education in Japan and 6) ESP teaching materials for medical students in Japan.

2. STRATEGIC PLANNING IN JAPAN

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan announced an action plan to cultivate "Japanese with English abilities" in 2003. This action plan proposes a system for "cultivating Japanese with English abilities." The university graduates are required to have 'English language skills for specialized fields or for those active in international society.'

The ministry provided subsidies to universities which had plans for good education to achieve this goal. This subsidy program called 'Good Practice' has six categories among which it has "cultivating Japanese with English abilities." In 2004, 74 universities or colleges applied for this subsidy under this category, and in 2005, 70 applied. 13 were selected in 2004, and 11 in 2005. In 2 years, 144 applied, and the total number of universities or colleges which got the ministry's special subsidy to cultivate Japanese with English abilities was 24. Among these selected 24 programs, the number of the programs aiming at the special fields is very limited, while most of them are aiming at general English abilities. The programs focused on special fields which were adopted are medicine (4 cases), engineering (2 programs), science (2 programs), business (1 program), and marine affairs (1 program).

3．FOUR MEDICAL COLLEGES THAT RECEIVED GRANTS

Four medical schools, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo Medical University, and University of Fukui got the subsidies. Medical schools are the recipients of the largest number of subsidies among the schools aiming at special fields of ESP and each school received a large amount of money (20 to 30 million yen, or 200 to 300 thousand dollars for each school).

3.1 Tokyo Medical and Dental University
The ultimate aim of Tokyo Medical and Dental University is to foster students with the same abilities as Harvard graduates. Their students receive training by visiting professors from the U.S. in such areas as techniques for interviewing patients, examining patients and presenting case studies. After arriving in the U.S., students receive orientations by Harvard Medical School professors. During the stay in the U.S., they can receive guidance from their school in Japan through TV conferencing.

3.2 Tokyo Medical University
The integrated English education system is continuous through six years, and two years for residency. 1^{st} and 2^{nd} year students learn basic medical English education. 3^{rd} and 4^{th} year students learn clinical medical English. 5^{th} and 6^{th} year students have chances to experience practicum at overseas hospitals. The emphasis is on 'hearing' and 'conversation,' throughout the eight years. Long-distance education with universities in North America, via optical fiber communication, is also available.

3.3 Tokyo Women's Medical University
The program called "I Am Your Doctor Project" aims to develop students' ability to communicate with patients, using such expressions as "I am your doctor. How may I help you?" Their students can learn English anytime with newly developed communication tools and native teachers. They also learn medical examination procedures in English, through the use of mock examinations, which are evaluated by native teachers. Moreover, international exchanges, including inviting interns from overseas, are promoted.

3.4 University of Fukui
Students listen to lectures regarding the importance of English language proficiency by clinical doctors and nurses, by young doctors on overseas experiences, and by overseas specialists. Basic medicine and clinical medicine are taught in English lectures. Some faculty members visit medical facilities in English-speaking countries to observe medical English. Students learn English anytime in the room called the E-clinic, where they can do mock examinations, present papers, or hold conferences in English.

4．ACTIVITIES OF THREE ASSOCIATIONS IN JAPAN

4.1 JSME (Japan Society for Medical Education)
JSME consists of teachers at medical schools in Japan. They study medical education in general. In 1994, however, it created a special committee for foreign language education. The committee held workshops for English teachers teaching at medical schools, and performed a questionnaire nationwide to survey English education at medical schools in Japan. The committee found out that English education was poor at medical schools, and determined that it was critical to teach medical English at medical schools to raise the level of medical care in Japan.

4.2 JASME (Japan Society for Medical English Education)
    The JSME members launched a society for medical English education study in 1998. This society was promoted to an association called JASMEE in 2001. JASMEE has especially focused on medical English education. This association consists of medical doctors and English teachers teaching at medical schools, pharmaceutical schools, nursing schools and other schools related to the filed of health sciences and interpreters. It is a very unique association because teachers and researchers who have different specialties get together and research only medical English education.

4.3 JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers)
    JACET is an association consisting of English teachers at colleges in Japan. Members of this association study English education at colleges in general, but it has a special society for English for specific purposes (ESP society). The members of this society are English teachers at medical schools, pharmaceutical schools, nursing schools, engineering schools, aviation schools and other specialized schools. They have to teach English for specific purposes to their students. They study how to teach ESP and publish many English textbooks necessary for these special fields.

5．EXAMINATION OF PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH FOR MEDICAL PURPOSES

    In response to the great need for medical English, and based on the research on medical English education, JASMEE had decided to create a special proficiency test for medical English. The first exam was held on April 13, 2008. 579 people nationwide including medical students, pharmaceutical and nursing students, medical doctors, pharmacists, and nurses took the examination. The number and percentages of test takers of the first examination for Proficiency in English for Medical Purposes are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Test Takers of the First Examination for Proficiency
in English for Medical Purposes

MediEigo, (2008)

	3^{rd} level	4^{th} level
Number of test takers	401	178
Medical doctors (%)	26.9	6.7
Medical people other than doctors (%)	17.0	17.2
Medical students (%)	21.2	39.3
Interpreters, Translators (%)	11.7	6.7
Others (%)	23.2	30.1

    This new examination carries the heavy weight of high expectations for improving the status of medical English education in Japan.

6．NATIONWIDE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY ON MEDICAL ENGLISH

    I performed a questionnaire survey which was funded by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. The theme of the research was 'A Systematic Study of Actual Conditions and the Future: A survey of ESP Education in Medical Schools and Nursing Schools.' I surveyed English education in all medical schools in Japan.

6.1 English education in medical schools in Japan
    I sent a nationwide questionnaire to the presidents of all medical colleges, and the deans of all medical schools in Japan, a total of 80 institutions. I received replies from 53 institutions (66.3%) This very high percentage for this type of questionnaire shows that the interest in English education is very high among administrators of medical schools in Japan.

As for the questions focusing on ESP, the percentage of medical schools that teach medical English is 86.8%. The percentages of medical schools where teaching lesson ESP content are taught are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Rates of Medical Schools Teaching ESP

(Kawagoe, 2005)

	Reading English Medical Papers	Daily English Conversation	Medical English Conversation	Writing English Papers	Presenting Papers at Conferences
Teaching in Medical Schools	81.1%	69.8%	49.1%	30.2%	52.8%

'Reading English Medical Papers' and 'Daily English Conversation' are taught in medical schools. But, 'Medical English Conversation' 'Writing English Papers,' and 'Presenting Papers at Conferences' are taught less compared with the two previous items. So we must improve these areas of teaching.

About half of medical schools offer students chances to study abroad. The main purpose of going abroad for medical students is 'Practicum.' For 'Practicum,' the students have to learn a lot about medicine before going abroad. So the greatest number of students going abroad is the 6^{th} year students, followed by 5^{th} year, 4^{th} year, 3^{rd} year, 2^{nd} year and 1^{st} year students. The greatest number of students visit the U.S. followed by U.K., Canada, Australia, Holland, Germany, France and Thailand.

As for the cost of going abroad, the most common case is that the student personally bears the expense for going abroad. It is frequently over \300,000 or 3,000 dollars. It is a very heavy burden for the students. Table 4 shows the number of schools which responded to the survey about the cost. The greatest problem for going abroad for the students is 'money.'

Table 4 Number of Schools about Cost of Going Abroad
(Kawagoe, 2005)

Total	Less than \100,000	\100,000 \200,000	\200,000 \300,000	Over \300,000	Not written
School Only	1	8	2	1	0
Student Only	0	2	3	8	9
School + Student	0	1	0	2	4
Other (donation etc.)	1	5	0	0	3

The number of credits for English is shown in Table 5. As for the core curriculum, the total number of credits is 6.3 credits. As for optional credits, the number is 1.7 credits.

Table 5 Number of Credits for Medical Students to Take
(Kawagoe, 2005)

Core curriculum	
Public schools	5.2 credits
Private schools	7.7 credits
Total	6.3 credits
Optional curriculum	
Public schools	1.7 credits
Private schools	1.7 credits

Total	1.7 credits

This survey reveals much about the current status of medical English education in Japan. This is vital data for improving English education in the medical schools of Japan.

7. ESP TEACHING MATERIALS FOR MEDICAL STUDENTS IN JAPAN

I surveyed textbooks for medical students published in Japan. The results of the survey are shown in Table 6. We have many good quality reading and writing textbooks for medical students. We have several good speaking textbooks, but there are few listening textbooks for medical students in Japan. We also need to make audio materials and E-learning materials.

Table 6 Textbooks for Medical Students Published in Japan

(Kawagoe, 2005)

Type of textbooks	Number	Rate
reading	74	34.4%
writing	50	23.3%
speaking	31	14.4%
listening	2	0.9%
comprehension	5	2.3%
dictionary	36	16.7%
vocabulary	17	7.9%
Total	215	100%

I have been teaching medical English at medical schools in Japan for more than eight years, and have used the following E-learning materials.
(1) E-learning for medical conversation
    Net Academy, Medical Course, ALC, Tokyo, 2002
    Students play the roles of doctors and converse with computers on which voices of patients are recorded. They learn English expressions necessary for doctors to converse with patients, and medical vocabulary related to the conversation. In the following class, they are given quizzes on the expressions and medical vocabulary they learned the previous week.
(2) E-learning for TOEFL
    English Special Program, NTT SOFT, Tokyo, 2005
    As an assignment outside the class, students are required to have training for taking the TOEFL test.

The following figures show the results of the questionnaire to medical students. Figure 1 shows the responses of the medical students to the question, 'Are you motivated in the class with the textbook 'ER' and the materials, 'e-learning for medical conversation?' Figure 2 shows the responses to 'Is the class meaningful?' Figure 3 shows the responses to 'Is the textbook of "ER" or "e-learning for medical conversation" interesting?'As shown in figures, 'e-learning for medical conversation' motivates students far more, makes classes more meaningful and is more interesting than the textbook 'ER.' 'ER' is also a very nice text book, but 'e-learning for medical conversation' is a much more effective material than the textbook on ER. 'E-learning for TOEFL' is also an excellent material, and it is very beneficial for improving students' English abilities.

As mentioned above, e-learning materials are very effective for medical students, so we need to make good quality e-learning materials. In addition, medical students are very busy studying medicine, so e-learning materials which can be studied anytime at home are very convenient for medical students.
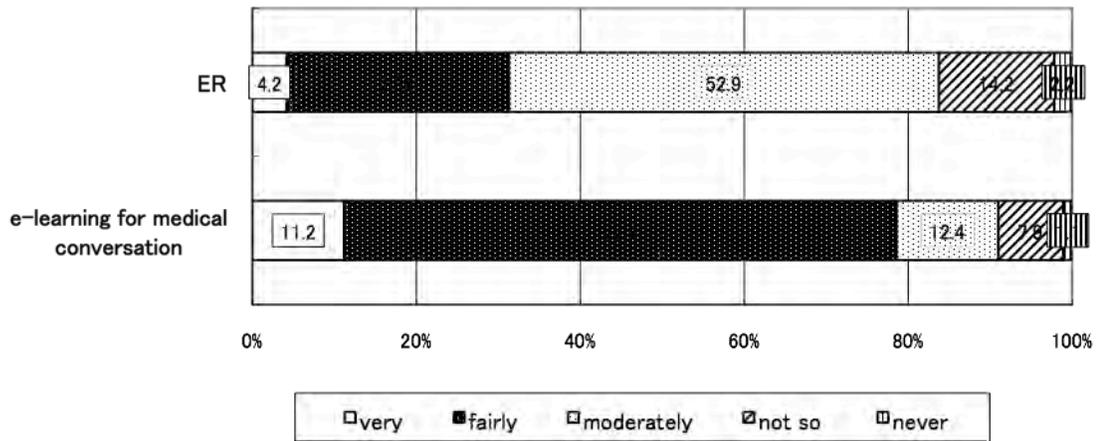
Figure 1 Are You Motivated?
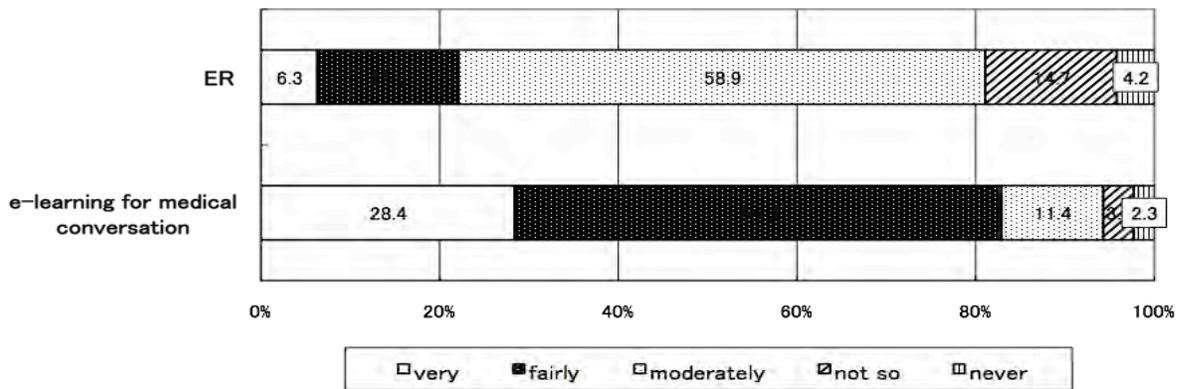
Figure 2 Is the Class Meaningful?
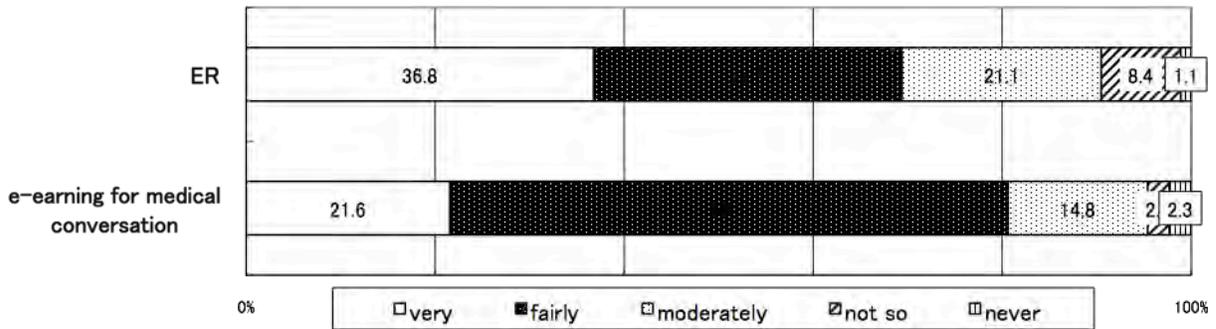
Figure 3 Is the Material Interesting?

8. CONCLUSION

I have overviewed medical English education in Japan categorized into the six points above. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, medical schools and three associations have recently been focusing more on medical English education. Medical English education is gradually getting better, though it is very urgent that we continue to see it improve, as shown in the results of my nationwide survey. Examination for Proficiency in English for Medical Purposes which has just begun will play a great role to improve medical English education. I have also shown that e-learning is a very effective method. We should develop e-learning materials for medical English education in Japan. Fortunately, I received a grant from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology to develop e-learning materials. I will do my best to develop these materials for medical

English education in Japan. At the same time I desire to make known the need for the improvement of medical English education in Japan, and I also hope to continue cooperating with medical doctors and English teachers teaching at medical schools for the improvement of medical English education for the future of Japan.

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EFL College Students' Self-regulation:
Results from an Experimental English Course

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of an experimental English course with self-regulated learning activities on students' English performance and self-regulation. 107 college students in a Taiwan college participated in this study for a semester. The instruments utilized in this study included an English achievement test, Self-regulated Learning Inventory, and an experimental English course. The collected data were analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

Introduction

In the 1970s, research on learning and instruction was mainly focused on cognition, whereas motivation and high level of control were seldom mentioned. Yet, through educational reform, individual differential variables, and innovative technology, researchers gradually shifted their research focus towards students and factors affecting their learning motivation. Among them, self-regulated learning was the most valuable term and the most attentive topic—it emphasized the process through which learners take charge of their own learning. A great deal of research has been focused on their studies related to self-regulated learning (e.g. Paris & Byrnes, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989, 2000; Paris & Newman, 1990; Pressley, 1995; Winne, 1997; Pintrich, 2000; Schunk, 2000).

Based on theories of self-regulated learning (e.g. Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000), students have no longer treated as passive respondents but rather considered them as active participants. Throughout the entire learning process, students can stimulate learning performance through self-regulation, and teachers can simulate students' self-regulation and improve their learning performance through various self-regulated activities rather than passively cooperate with students on invariable psychological ability and social environment to teach students.

Many EFL college students in Taiwan have shown high level of learning motivation at the beginning of the first college year. Gradually, they have low motivation to learn English due to lack of verbal practices through social interaction along with increasing difficulty of learning contents. To promote students' English learning and to provide more effective English teaching, more must be known about self-regulated learning in Taiwan. This study attempted to investigate the effect of an English course designed with self-regulated learning activities on English performance and meta-cognitive regulation of college students in Taiwan.

Research Questions

The main purpose of the study was to explore the effect of an experimental English course on English performance and meta-cognitive regulation of a group of EFL college students. Students in the experimental group adopted an English course with self-regulated learning activities; students in the control group adopted an ordinary English course. The following two research questions were proposed to accomplish the purpose of the study:

1. What are the differences among students in the experimental and control groups with respect to English performance?
2. What are the differences among students in the experimental and control groups with respect to meta-cognitive regulation (e.g. self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-correction, and strategy use)?

Literature Review

Definitions of self-regulated learning are vary depending on each researcher's theoretical perspective. Studies related to self-regulated are also vary ranging from behaviorism to modern psychology. In the past two decades, a great deal of research has been done related to self-regulated learning on cognition, meta-cognition, and behavior (e.g. Corno & Mandinach, 1983). In the past ten years, it has been changed to focus on a constructivist perspective on self-regulated learning (e.g. Paris & Byrnes, 1989), on social foundations of self-regulated learning (e.g. Zimmerman, 1989), on developmental changes in self-regulated learning (e.g. Paris & Newman, 1990), and on instructional tactics for promoting self-regulated learning (e.g. Bulter & Winne, 1995). Recently, many researchers focused their studies on an educational psychological perspective on self-regulated learning (e.g. Zimmerman & Lebeau, 2000; Phakiti, 2003; Whipp & Chiarelli, 2004, Zimmerman, 2008).

Since self-regulated learning is multifaceted, this study mainly focused on metacognitive regulation. Meta-cognitive regulation concerns the awareness and control of one's thought processes. Zimmerman's (1989) self-regulated theory is composed of six different self-regulated learning theories, including behaviorism, social cognitive, action control, cognitive constructivism, phenomenalism, and Vygotskyism. The six perspectives all share the same emphasis—through active manipulation of cognition, motivation, action, and meta-cognition, learners can achieve better results.

According to Pintrich (2000) and Zimmerman (1999, 2002), meta-cognitively, self-regulated learners are able to plan, organize, monitor, evaluate, and modify their learning process for achieving better performance. In other words, they are also able to use a variety of meta-cognitive strategies in their learning, such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-correction. Self-monitoring strategies included checking learning processes regularly and comparing goals and current accomplishments (Schunk, 2000). Based on Mace, Belfiore, and Hutchinson (2001), self-evaluation, self-correction, and self-monitoring occur almost at the same time. Self-regulated learners decide whether to change or correct the way of using meta-cognitive strategies, keep the efforts going, or exert more efforts based on the results of comparing goals and current accomplishments.

Method

The population involved in this study was 107 college students. The students were randomly assigned into the experimental group or the control group using random numbers. 54 out of 107 students were in the experimental group and 53 students in the control group. Students in the control group adopted an ordinary English course; students in the experiment group adopted an English course with self-regulated learning activities.

Instruments used to assess EFL college students' self-regulated learning in this study included Self-regulated Learning Inventory (SLI), English Achievement Test, and an experimental English course with self-regulated learning activities. SLI used in this study was developed by Wu and Chang in 2006, which is especially developed to elicit the frequency of self-regulated strategy use by EFL students. English Achievement Test used to test students' English performance was also developed by Wu and Chang, which included listening, reading, and writing. The experimental English course with self-regulated learning activities was developed by the researchers. This course was designed based on Zimmerman's (1986, 1989, 1990, 1999) studies, theories, concepts, and perspectives of self-regulation learning.

Results of the Study

Descriptive statistics (e.g. mean scores and standard deviations) and ANOVA were used to answer the two research questions of this study. In this study, for all statistical analyses, the significant level was set at $p < .05$. The results were as follows.

Research Question 1

Research question one is, "What are the differences among students in the experimental and control groups with respect to English performance?"

(1)   After the English course, students in the experimental group (M = 73.92) had higher English performance than students in the control group (M = 72.47).   In addition, students in the experimental group improved their English performance (pre-M = 69.46; post-M = 73.92); however, students in the control group did not improve their English performance (pre-M = 73.38; post-M = 72.47).

(2)   The results of three-way mixed-design ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference of English proficiency on English performance ($F = 111.31$, $p < .001$).   Moreover, two-way ANOVA results revealed a statistically significant difference between groups and stages ($F = 5.73$, $p < .05$) on English performance.

Research Question 2
Research question two is, "What are the differences among students in the experimental and control groups with respect to meta-cognitive regulation (e.g. self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-correction, and strategy use)?"

(3)   After the experimental English course, students in the experimental group (M = 22.36) used more self-monitoring strategies than students in the control group (M = 19.94).

(4)   Three-way mixed-design ANOVA showed that there was only a statistically significant difference of English proficiency on self-monitoring ($F = 8.27$, $p < .01$). Two-way ANOVA results also revealed statistically significant differences of groups and English proficiency ($F = 4.27$, $p < .05$); groups and stages ($F = 4.95$, $p < .05$) on self-monitoring.

(5)   No statistically significant difference was found among students with good English proficiency on self-monitoring in both experimental and control groups; however, there was a difference among students with poor English proficiency ($F = 9.20$, $p < .01$).

(6)   No statistically significant difference was found in the experimental and control groups on self-monitoring in the pre-stage; however, there was a difference in the post-stage ($F = 4.82$, $p < .05$). There was a statistically significant difference among students in the control group on self-monitoring in the pre-stage and the post-stage ($F = 8.64$, $p < .01$).

(7)   After the English course, students in the experimental group (M = 22.06) used more self-evaluation strategies than students in the control group (M = 19.33) when facing some problems or getting some new information.

(8)   The result of three-way mixed-design ANOVA showed that there was only a statistically significant difference of English proficiency on self-evaluation ($F = 20.00$, $p < .001$). Two-way ANOVA results also revealed a statistically significant difference of groups and stages ($F = 5.98$, $p < .05$) on self-evaluation.

(9)   No statistically significant difference was found in the experimental and control groups on self-evaluation in the pre-stage; however, there was a difference in the post-stage ($F = 6.05$, $p < .05$). Also, there was a statistically significant difference among students in the control group on self-evaluation in the pre-stage and the post-stage ($F = 4.04$, $p < .05$).

(10)   After the English course, students in the experimental group (M = 22.84) used more self-correction strategies than students in the control group (M = 20.25) when facing learning problems.

(11)   The result of three-way mixed-design ANOVA showed that there was only a statistically significant difference of English proficiency on self-correction ($F = 10.52$, $p < .01$). Two-way ANOVA results also revealed a statistically significant difference of groups and stages ($F = 7.57$, $p < .01$) on self-correction.

(12)   No statistically significant difference was detected in the experimental and control groups on self-correction in the pre-stage; however, there was a difference in the post-stage ($F = 4.61$, $p < .05$). Also, there was a statistically significant difference among students in the control group on self-correction in the pre-stage and post-stage ($F = 5.31$, $p < .05$).

(13)   After the English course, students in the experimental group (M = 18.94) tended to use more strategies than students in the control group (M = 16.84).

(14)   The result of three-way mixed-design ANOVA showed that there was only a statistically significant

difference of English proficiency on strategy use ($F = 7.93$, $p < .01$). Two-way ANOVA results also revealed a statistically significant difference of stages and groups ($F = 6.71$, $p < .05$) on strategy use.

(15)   No statistically significant difference was found in the experimental and control groups on strategy use in the pre-stage and in the post-stage. However, there was a statistically significant difference among students in the control group on strategy use in the pre-stage and post-stage ($F = 5.66$, $p < .05$).

Conclusions

Several conclusions were drawn from the results of this study.

(1)   The coefficient alpha of the SLI was .94, which indicates that the internal consistency was acceptable.

(2)   As for English performance, there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. Also, students who adopted an experimental English course with self-regulated activities showed a higher achievement than others in an ordinary English course. This means that the experimental English course was effective in improving students' English performance.

(3)   From the study of meta-cognitive regulation, although no statistically significant differences were found between both experimental and control groups on self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-correction, and strategy use in the pre-stage, there were significant differences in the post-stage. This means that the experimental English course was effective to students' meta-cognitive regulation. Students in the experimental group tried to use meta-cognitive strategies to monitor, evaluate, and correct their English learning process towards the best.

Recommendations

This study has presented crucial information about self-regulated learning. Although the subjects were limited to a specific college, the findings did reveal some potential issues related to the EFL learning in technological and vocational colleges throughout Taiwan. The following recommendations are derived from this study.

(1)   The English achievement test used to measure students' English performance in this study included listening, reading, and writing. The results of students' English performance need to be replicated with other measures, such as speaking, so that the findings might be validated.

(2)   The subjects in this study were limited to one college in Taiwan. It may not be applicable for different technological or vocational college students in Taiwan. Therefore, more subjects covering a wider range of colleges are strongly recommended in future work.

(3)   The current study was based on college students. Future research may focus on junior high school students, senior high school students or university students in Taiwan as subjects.

(4)   Future or further research needs to explore other variables that may influence the use of self-regulated learning strategies. Wigfield (1994), Shin (1998), Pintrich (1999), and Jakubowiki and Dembo (2002) indicated that self-efficacy, time management, and effort management all might influence the use of self-regulated learning strategies.

(5)   Intensive studies are essential because they can help language teachers understand why and how individuals use the specific self-regulated strategies in the language learning processes. They also can help English teachers provide incentives, which directly or indirectly help learners to use a greater variety of self-regulated strategies to improve their English learning.

(6)   English instruction should emphasize students' active participation and strengthen the bond between recognition and implementation. Technological and vocational college teachers in Taiwan should receive well-designed training in self-regulated learning strategy use.

(7)   Most students had shown tremendous interests in English learning between age six to 12 in Taiwan (Wu & Chang, 2006). Gradually, their interests started to waver and many of them even gave up due to the difficulties of English. It was necessary to improve students' learning habits in order to

maintain their learning motivation. Every student is unique. Students have different preferences of self-regulated learning strategies. Therefore, if technological or vocational college teachers in Taiwan want to train their students on the use of self-regulated learning strategies, they should take each student's personal characteristics into account. Self-regulated learning strategy training should not be limited to the classroom; it should go beyond the classroom. The purpose of this effort is to help learners experience and develop a range of effective self-regulated learning strategies and then guide them to apply these strategies to their own learning outside the classroom.

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Reflections on EFL teacher quality in Japan: A case study of elementary and secondary schools

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Abstract

Japan, like many other EFL countries in Asia, has implemented a variety of reforms to English education policies and relevant action plans in an effort to promote oral communication skills (Lamie 2004). In 2002, the Japanese Ministry of Education set the desired standard level of English proficiency for secondary school English teachers at a minimum of 550 points in the TOEFL and 730 points in the TOEIC. In addition, all English teachers are now required to take intensive in-service training for five years in order to improve their overall English proficiency and practical teaching skills (The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2006).

　Despite these growing demands for high-quality teachers, recruiting such teachers has become increasingly difficult for several reasons. First, the overall academic level of Japanese university students is expected to decrease due to the implementation of more relaxed educational policies in secondary schools in recent years. Those who are enrolled in teacher preparation programs are no exception. Second, there are a large number of baby-boomer teachers who will retire in several years, which will naturally lead to a high demand for English teachers. This demand will further expand, particularly when English education is implemented in elementary schools in 2011. Given these sociopolitical changes, what matters is the increased demand for English teachers together with the limited supply of high-quality teachers, resulting in a situation in which even low-quality teachers could be easily hired. Therefore, it is critical to investigate and determine the minimum required s
 tandards, in terms of not only English proficiency but also knowledge level of second language acquisition and foreign language teaching techniques, for prospective teachers.

　In this presentation, we will discuss, drawing on interview and questionnaire data collected from current English teachers working for elementary and secondary schools, discrepancies between teacher qualities sought in teacher preparation programs, those assessed in the EFL teacher recruitment exams, and those that are needed in real-life classrooms situations. We will also discuss whether their thinking and philosophies about teaching were changed when preparing for the exams, and if so, how the change affected their teaching practices in the actual classroom. In so doing, we will examine what perspectives are missing regarding teacher quality in the current teacher preparation programs, and what to look for and how it should be measured in the employment exams, as well as how in-service training should be connected to the newly-hired teachers' educational background.

Keywords: English teacher, English education policies in Japan, EFL, teacher recruitment exam, teacher education

Soft Power on the Higher Education Front: A Link between Hegemony and Self-determination

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Abstract

Over a quarter-century ago, Philip G. Altbach adopted the centre-periphery model to describe the global landscape of higher education. He pointed out that academic resources are unequally distributed in the contemporary world where prominent higher education institutions in the developed world, mainly referring to Anglo-American universities, occupy and control most of the means and resources of knowledge production, whereas those in the developing world can only play the role of consumer and follower in the global academia. Such an unequal pattern has been further strengthened under the impacts of globalisation. Some even argued that globalisation has caused a convergence trend that merely means a process of re-colonisation, resulting in reproducing and copying western practices. Recent studies however suggest that nation states still play a determining role in developing infrastructure and initiatives of higher education. In addition, the rapid economic growth has brought a tide of massification and of the quest for world-class excellence in higher education sectors in some newly industrialised nations, such as Japan, China and the four East Asian tigers. Building "centres in peripheries" becomes a common measure adopted by countries in the region in response to the global competition in higher education. In this regard, the question "how much is hegemony and how much is self-determination?" is the focus of discussion in the dialectic of the global and local.

    The purpose of this paper is to distinguish the line or to identify the link between hegemony and self-determination by adopting the scale of power developed by Joseph S. Nye. It argues that the recent emergence of world university rankings represents a "missing link" in the transition from hard power to soft power and between the global and the local. While it agrees that nation states are still the dominant actor in higher education policy, it believes that individual higher education systems are affiliated to a homogenization-heterogenization matrix that restricts state strengths and the scope of state functions in high education governance in the globalised world. On this basis, the paper suggests that states in peripheries are strong and proactive in directing their higher education systems but weak and passive in the relationship and communication with the centre university systems.

Keywords: Soft power; globalisation; university ranking; centre-periphery; hegemony

Research Performance in Taiwan's Higher Education Institutions

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I. Research Backgrounds and Purposes

For centuries, universities have been playing two major roles: the role of creating knowledge and the role of disseminating knowledge. Both knowledge dissemination and knowledge creation rely on research to create endless knowledge; hence it can be said that research is right at the core of university education.

With the current world-wide trend of increasing competition among universities and colleges in higher education systems, more and more people have started to care about "institutional diversity." On the other hand, the popularization of higher education has also reflected the heterogeneity between students and courses or institutions. With the trend of higher education development, it has become increasingly important to enhance the openness of politics in higher education institutions to understand the diversity and heterogeneity of higher education. At present, there are two methods around the world to increase the openness of higher education. One is horizontal classification, which classifies a higher education institution on the basis of its function, assignment, and characteristics to increase the understanding of the differences among the properties of higher education institutions. Another is vertical ranking, which ranks the same category of institution or curriculum according to its reputation or performance to acquire rankings from different evaluations. Although current international university classifications and rankings have suffered criticisms from college social groups, the emergence of various types of classifications and ranking systems has not been influenced, and has been increased gradually instead.

Based on the above, the purposes of this study are as follows:

1) To understand how to evaluate the research performance in Taiwan's higher education institutions.

2) To analyze the rankings of research funding among universities and colleges in Taiwan.

3) To propose relevant suggestions according to the research conclusions.

II. Literature Review

Literature review of this study contains the methods of research performance and overseas related studies.

The methods of research performance primarily rely on some techniques. First is called bibliometric data, which extensively includes the quantity and citations of published research theses and review papers (King, 2004). Thomson-ISI (Institute for Scientific Information) is the provider of these data; it provides three kinds of citations, namely, the Science Citation Index Expanded, the Social Science Citation Index and the Arts and Humanities Citation Index. Each index provides the citation mapping of single article from 7,000 journals.

Thomson-ISI indicates the most highly cited research among 21 academic areas. Individuals received as the most highly cited researchers represent they are listed top 250, according to their published articles, in a specific period of time. Thomson-ISI also provides raw data of publication on authors, organizations and nations.

Second, the prestigious academic awards are open and useful data, which help to distinguish relatedness between institutions and rewarded persons. Besides that, researchers can utilize other famous scholarships and fellowships, such as Fulbright Scholar Program, The Royal Society Fellowship, or Academy of Arts and Sciences, as indicators of rankings of research funding.

In Australia, New Zealand and UK, there are quite many materials published by local governments and the allocation unit, including graduate student enrollment and graduation situation by institutions & fields of study. In addition, teacher materials (e.g., the number of full-time faculty by institutions and fields of study, proportion of faculty owning degree of doctor), external research income (e.g., competitive research award passing ration) and research creative income are used to be tools for evaluating research performance of higher education institutions. In some English-speaking countries, such as Australia, Canada and US, they usually collect research creative income data through regular surveys, including certificate in technology, creative income from certificate, patents and real profit of subordinate companies.

According to overseas related empirical studies, Australian Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (1998) once used cluster analysis to classify domestic colleges by adopting grand scope of teaching and the research materials from 1996/1997. There are over 20 indicators used to be six predictable dimensions, for example, scale, overseas orientation, diversity, internal/full-time orientation and financial research orientation. Based on these six performance measurements mentioned above, the universities and colleges are divided into 4 to 7 groups and ranked by each indicator.

Abbott and Doucouliagos (2003) also adopted data envelopment analysis to estimate the efficiency of universities and colleges in Australia by using non-parametric techniques. The items of output contain teaching and research dimension. The former consist of numbers of equivalent full-time students, enrollment in tertiary education, numbers of awarding bachelor, master and doctoral degree of undergraduate and graduate schools; the latter consist of research funding, research expense, and so on. Regardless of the influence of output-input mix, results found that universities in Australia were highly efficient on the whole.

Using research performance as a prediction to evaluate universities' performance is proven to be a controversial issue. Not only needs to consider the quantity of research output but also quality. de Groot, McMahon & Volkwein (1991) surveyed universities in America, which were evaluated by the items of research output (bibliometric) and research quality (peer review). Meanwhile, Athanassopoulos and Shale (1997), Johnes and Johnes (1993) used the weighted index of research publication to assess the quantity and the quality of research. Johnes and Taylor (1991) used traditional measurement indicators, such as publication, citation and research income, to evaluate universities performance.

In some research, it applies citation to measure research quality, such as annual Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI). However, if we completely use SSCI to evaluate the quantity and quality of research performance, it may cause bias for mostly research papers could not be published on SSCI journals. Harris (1998) also supports this similar claim.

Another kind of evaluation method is using the external research income of a university as a basis to evaluate research performance. Cave, Hanney & Kogan, and Tomkins & Green suggested that the fund of research funding reflects the market value of that research; hence it can be viewed as a kind of index of research performance (Valadkhani & Worthington, 2005). However, Johnes & Johns (1993) indicated that the fund of funding is a kind of expenditure rather than output.

Although the three kinds of methods for research assessment mentioned above all have their own advantages and disadvantages, they are still important methods which are often used in research assessment.

III. Research Method

This study performed document analysis and secondary data analysis in order to find out the rankings of research funding among universities and colleges in Taiwan. This study adopted four data to inspect institutions' research performance, by searching National Science Council (NSC) Database and Ministry of Education website, including the number of pieces of NSC Research Projects, the number of people who gained important awards, such as NSC Outstanding Research Award, National Academic Award and National Chair Professor Award.

IV. Results Analysis and Discussion

The number of pieces of research projects which passed the screening of NSC was analyzed, including two aspects: total number of pieces and the average number of pieces per teacher.

This study was based on the four items mentioned above to analyze total academic productivity and the average academic productivity per teacher. Appendix A shows that the average academic productivity per teacher and ranking from 2003 to 2007. However, due to the limitation of the length of context, we only discuss the average academic productivity per teacher.

First, as far as total number of pieces of NSC research projects is concerned, the top 10 universities and colleges are in the following order (see Table 1): National Taiwan University (國立台灣大學), National Cheng Gung University (國立成功大學), National Chiao Tung University (國立交通大學), National Tsing Hua University (國立清華大學), National Central University (國立中央大學), National Chung Hsing University (國立中興大學), National Sun Yat-sen University (國立中山大學), National Chung Cheng University (國立中正大學), National Taiwan Normal University (國立台灣師範大學), National Taiwan University of Science and Technology (國立台灣科技大學).

As to the total number of people who gained NSC Outstanding Research Award, National Academic Award and National Chair Professor Award, the ranking displays a little bit different (see Table 2), but entirely speaking, there exists positive correlations between the four academic productivity items. Table 3 shows that Pearson's correlations (the average number of pieces or people of academic productivity per teacher); Table 4 indicates Spearman correlations (ranking of the average of academic productivity per teacher).

Table 1 Total Number of Pieces of NSC Research Projects from 2003 to 2007—Top
　　　　10 Universities and Colleges

Institution Name	NSC Research Project	Ranking
National Taiwan University	9025	1
National Cheng Gung University	5298	2
National Chiao Tung University	3222	3
National Tsing Hua University	3135	4
National Central University	2403	5
National Chung Hsing University	2186	6
National Sun Yat-sen University	1851	7
National Chung Cheng University	1833	8
National Taiwan Normal University	1770	9
National Taiwan University of Science and Technology	1480	10

Table 2 Total Number of People Who Gained Important Award from 2003 to 2007—Top10 Universities and Colleges

Institution Name	NSC Outstanding Research Award		National Academic Award		National Chair Professor Award	
	Total Number of People	Ranking	Total Number of People	Ranking	Total Number of People	Ranking
National Taiwan University	71	1	14	1	13	1
National Tsing Hua University	27	2	9	2	9	2
National Cheng Gung University	26	3	3	4	2	6
National Chiao Tung University	21	4	3	4	3	4
National Chung Hsing University	11	5	2	7	1	7
National Central University	11	5	4	3	4	3
National Chung Cheng University	7	7	*	*	*	*
National Taiwan Normal University	5	8	1	8	*	*
National Sun Yat-sen University	5	8	1	8	3	4
National Yang Ming University	5	8	1	8	*	*

* out of top 10 ranking

Table 3 Pearson Correlations—the total number of pieces or people of academic productivity

		NSC Research Project	NSC Outstanding Research Award	National Academic Award	National Chair Professor Award
NSC Research Project	correlations	1.000	.776(**)	.643(**)	.522(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
NSC Outstanding Research Award	correlations	.776(**)	1.000	.814(**)	.683(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
National Academic Award	correlations	.643(**)	.814(**)	1.000	.739(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
National Chair Professor Award	correlations	.522(**)	.683(**)	.739(**)	1.000
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.
	number	164	164	164	164

**p<.01

Table 4 Spearman Correlations- ranking of the average of academic productivity per teacher

		NSC Research Project	NSC Outstanding Research Award	National Academic Award	National Chair Professor Award
NSC Research Project	correlations	1.000	.588(**)	.453(**)	.401(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
NSC Outstanding Research Award	correlations	.588(**)	1.000	.574(**)	.472(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
National Academic Award	correlations	.453(**)	.574(**)	1.000	.668(**)
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
	number	164	164	164	164
National Chair Professor Award	correlations	.401 (**)	.472(**)	.668(**)	1.000
	significance (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.
	number	164	164	164	164

** $p < .01$

V. Concluding Remarks

Based on the above results, concluding remarks are made as follows.

First of all, the top three universities with the best overall strength to win the researching funding of NSC Research Project are National Taiwan University (國立台灣大學), National Cheng Gung University(國立成功大學), and National Chiao Tung University (　　　　). Moreover, the top three universities with the best average faculty strength to win the research funding of NSC Research Project are National Tsing Hua University (國立清華大學), National Chiao Tung University (國立交通大學), and National Taiwan University (國立台灣大學). Comparing these two results, it could be found that both National Taiwan University (國立台灣大學) and National Cheng Gung University (國立成功大學) acquire advantages with their large-scale. It is therefore suggested that when evaluating the strength of a university to win research funding, both overall strength and average faculty strength should be considered to avoid the unfairness towards universities of smaller scale. In fact, when evaluating the research performance of each university in Taiwan, it should be considered that how to avoid the absolute advantage caused from different scales.

Secondly, in terms of academic productivity per teacher by NSC Research Project, NSC Outstanding Research Award, National Academic Award and National Chair Professor Award, there is consistency among higher education institutions. Thus, we can make a tentative conclusion that using the number of NSC Research Projects per teacher of a university is a reliable measure of research performance.

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Appendix A Average of Academic Productivity Per Teacher and Ranking from 2003 to 2007

Institution Name	NSC Research Project	NSC Outstanding Research Award	National Academic Award	National Chair Professor Award
National Tsing Hua University	1.1098 (1)	0.0097 (1)	0.0031 (1)	0.0032 (1)
National Chiao Tung University	1.0527 (2)	0.0072 (3)	0.0010 (5)	0.0010 (7)
National Taiwan University	0.9818 (3)	0.0078 (2)	0.0015 (3)	0.0014 (3)
National Cheng Gung University	0.9335 (4)	0.0046 (4)	0.0005 (9)	0.0003 (13)
National Central University	0.8924 (5)	0.0043 (5)	0.0014 (4)	0.0014 (3)
National Taiwan University of Science and Technology	0.8746 (6)	0.0018 (11)	0.0005 (9)	0.0000 (16)
National Sun Yat-sen University	0.8042 (7)	0.0022 (10)	0.0004 (12)	0.0013 (6)
National Chung Cheng University	0.8023 (8)	0.0031 (8)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Yang Ming University	0.7458 (9)	0.0033 (6)	0.0007 (6)	0.0000 (16)
Yuan Ze University	0.6756 (10)	0.0032 (7)	0.0000 (15)	0.0007 (8)
National Chung Hsing University	0.6022 (11)	0.0031 (8)	0.0006 (7)	0.0003 (13)
National Dong Hwa University	0.5957 (12)	0.0007 (20)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Yunlin University of Science and Technology	0.5942 (13)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taiwan Ocean University	0.5795 (14)	0.0006 (21)	0.0017 (2)	0.0005 (11)
National Taipei University of Technology	0.5786 (15)	0.0000 (27)	0.0005 (9)	0.0005 (11)
National University of Kaohsiung	0.5556 (16)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Chi Nan University	0.5453 (17)	0.0010 (15)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)

Chang Gung University	0.5071 (18)	0.0012 (14)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kaohsiung First University of Science and Technology	0.5004 (19)	0.0010 (15)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Formosa University	0.4848 (20)	0.0006 (21)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taiwan Normal University	0.4690 (21)	0.0013 (12)	0.0003 (14)	0.0000 (16)
Kaohsiung Medical University	0.4688 (22)	0.0009 (17)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chung Yuan Christian University	0.4678 (23)	0.0000 (27)	0.0004 (12)	0.0000 (16)
Taipei Medical University	0.4384 (24)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Cheng Chi University	0.4214 (25)	0.0013 (12)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tatung University	0.3751 (26)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Changhua University of Education	0.3734 (27)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hua Fan University	0.3725 (28)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0014 (3)
Feng Chia University	0.3680 (29)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
I-Shou University	0.3571 (30)	0.0005 (23)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chung Hua University	0.3499 (31)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Pingtung University of Science and Technology	0.3455 (32)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kaohsiung University of Applied Sciences	0.3283 (33)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chung Shan Medical University	0.3238 (34)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tunghai University	0.3211 (35)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Da Yeh University	0.3131 (36)	0.0005 (23)	0.0000 (15)	0.0003 (13)
Tamkang University	0.3071 (37)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
China Medical University	0.3048 (38)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taipei University of Education	0.2912 (39)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kaohsiung Normal University	0.2886 (40)	0.0008 (19)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National United University	0.2867 (41)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National University of Tainan	0.2788 (42)	0.0009 (17)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chaoyang University of Technology	0.2786 (43)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Southern Taiwan University of Technology	0.2663 (44)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taipei University	0.2657 (45)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Chiayi University	0.2575 (46)	0.0004 (25)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chin Yun University	0.2539 (47)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Mingchi University of Technology	0.2502 (47)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tzu Chi University	0.2480 (49)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Hsinchu University of Education	0.2427 (50)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Providence University	0.2379 (51)	0.0000 (27)	0.0006 (7)	0.0006 (10)
Vanung University	0.2345 (52)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Nanhua University	0.2332 (53)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Ilan University	0.2268 (54)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Pingtung University of Education	0.2250 (55)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kun Shan University	0.2161 (56)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Chin-Yi University of Technology	0.2159 (57)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taitung University	0.2154 (58)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Far East University	0.2123 (58)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Mingdao University	0.2032 (60)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Soochow University	0.2022 (61)	0.0004 (25)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Fu Jen Catholic University	0.1978 (62)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taichung University	0.1959 (63)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Hualien University of Education	0.1934 (64)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Yuanpei University	0.1878 (64)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kaohsiung Marine University	0.1858 (66)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Lunghwa University of Science and Technology	0.1849 (67)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Shih Hsin University	0.1787 (68)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0007 (8)
Asia University	0.1766 (69)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Shu Te University	0.1738 (69)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)

National Pingtung Institute of Commerce	0.1704 (71)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Penghu University	0.1703 (72)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hungkuang University	0.1612 (73)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Fo Guang University	0.1609 (74)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0023 (2)
National Taipei College of Nursing	0.1607 (75)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Taipei Municipal University of Education	0.1602 (76)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chang Jung University	0.1590 (77)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chia Nan University of Pharmacy & Science	0.1588 (78)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Leader University	0.1585 (79)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Cheng Shiu University	0.1567 (80)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chinese Culture University	0.1552 (81)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Nanya Institute of Technology	0.1492 (82)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National College of Physical Education and Sports.	0.1474 (83)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Fooyin University	0.1377 (84)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Dharma Drum Buddhist College	0.1364 (85)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Central Taiwan University of Science and Technology	0.1359 (86)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Oriental Institute of Technology	0.1333 (86)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Ming Chuan University	0.1302 (88)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chienkuo Technology University	0.1289 (89)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kao Yuan University	0.1278 (90)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Taipei Physical Education College	0.1277 (91)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
St. John's University	0.1254 (92)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Nan Kai Institute of Technology	0.1239 (93)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
China Institute of Technology	0.1136 (94)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Minghsin University of Science and Technology	0.1112 (95)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hsiuping Institute of Technology	0.1050 (95)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Diwan University	0.1035 (97)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Wufeng Institute of Technology	0.1011 (98)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kaohsiung Hospitality College	0.0977 (99)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taichung Institute of Technology	0.0974 (100)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
ChungChou Institute of Technology	0.0973 (101)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hsuan Chuang University	0.0943 (102)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Ta Hua College of Technology and Commerce	0.0869 (103)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taiwan University of Arts	0.0859 (104)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
De Lin Institute of Technology	0.0839 (105)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tungnan University	0.0837 (106)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Aletheia University	0.0791 (107)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Taipei National University of the Arts	0.0762 (108)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taipei College of Business	0.0761 (109)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Toko University	0.0755 (109)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kainan University	0.0738 (111)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hsing Kuo University of Management	0.0735 (112)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Kinmen Institute of Technology	0.0722 (113)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Overseas Chinese Institute of Technology	0.0707 (114)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chung Hwa University of Medical Technology	0.0701 (114)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Yung Ta Institute of Technology & Commerce	0.0675 (116)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Ling Tung University	0.0646 (117)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tajen University	0.0609 (117)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Shih Chien University	0.0593 (119)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Mei Ho Institute of Technology	0.0589 (120)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taiwan College of Physical Education	0.0587 (121)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Jinwen University of Science and Technology	0.0587 (122)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
China University of Technology	0.0547 (122)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Takming University of Science and Technology	0.0546 (124)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)

Nan Jeon Institute of Technology	0.0542 (125)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Yu Da College of Business	0.0529 (126)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chang Gung Institute of Technology	0.0517 (127)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Technology and Science Institute of Northern Taiwan	0.0509 (128)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tzu Chi College of Technology	0.0448 (128)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chin Min Institute of Technology	0.0440 (130)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tainan National University of the Arts	0.0434 (131)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages	0.0432 (132)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Fortune Institute of Technology	0.0430 (133)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health	0.0401 (133)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tung Fang Institute of Technology	0.0391 (135)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Transworld Institute of Technology	0.0369 (136)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Lan Yang Institute of Technology	0.0352 (137)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Lee-Ming Institute of Technology	0.0342 (138)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Southern Taiwan University	0.0339 (139)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Dahan Institute of Technology	0.0324 (140)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hwa Hsia Institute of Technology	0.0320 (141)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hsing Wu College	0.0307 (142)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chihlee Institute of Technology	0.0307 (143)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kao Fong Institute of Technology	0.0288 (144)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chungyu Institute of Technology	0.0148 (145)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tatung Institute Of Technology	0.0145 (146)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Taiwan Hospitality & Tourism College	0.0092 (146)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Taipei College of Maritime Technology	0.0052 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taiwan College of Performing Arts	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taichung Nursing College	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Tainan Institute of Nursing	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
National Taitung Junior College	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kang Ning Junior College of Medical Care and Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Mackay Medicine,Nursing and Management College	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Jen-Teh Junior College of Medicine, Nursing and Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Shu-Zen College of Medicine and Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Tzu Hui Institute of Technology	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Cardinal Tien College of Healthcare & Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Min-Hwei College of Health Care Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Kao-Mei Institute of Technology	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Yuh-Ing Junior College of Health Care & Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Chung Jen College of Nursing, Health Science and Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
St. Mary's Medicine Nursing and Management College	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)
Hsin Sheng College of Medical Care and Management	0.0000 (148)	0.0000 (27)	0.0000 (15)	0.0000 (16)

( ) means the ranking

The challenges of exporting Hong Kong's higher education services to the Asian Markets

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ABSTRACT

Internationalization becomes increasingly important in higher education in a globalized world. Exporting higher education services by recruiting overseas students is an integral facet of internationalization of higher education. It not only helps develop the place as an education hub but also facilitate internationalized environment of higher education. Alongside this global trend, Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong are of no exception and have embarked on the process of internationalizing their higher education campuses by recruiting more non-local students, striving for achieving the policy goal of developing themselves into regional education hubs .

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2007), Asian students will dominate the global demand for higher education in the next decades. In forecasting global demand for international higher education, Bohm, Davis, Meares & Pearce (2002) have found that the global demand for international higher education is set to grow enormously. Within Asia, China and India will represent the key growth drivers, generating over half of the global demand in international higher education by 2025 due to their blooming economies. Since there is a great demand for higher education among Asian countries, it is strategically important for Hong Kong to embark on her internationalization process by recruiting students from the region.

Hong Kong has no doubt had some comparative advantages over other Asian competitors in the region but there are several major hurdles she needs to overcome before she can develop herself to be a regional education hub. This paper reports a territory wide study in order to highlight major strengths and weaknesses of exporting Hong Kong's higher education. Policy recommendations at both institutional and system levels in relation to its potential of being a regional education hub in Asia are made. The findings suggest that to overcome the weaknesses requires a well-organized and strategic orientation towards developing Hong Kong as an education hub. It is suggested that further studies is required to understand the market situations.

DETERMINANTS OF QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION?

Bangladesh Perspective through Private Universities

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SUMMARY: Private higher education in Bangladesh witnessed a rapid growth in the last decade, although it is facing quality issue challenges in financial sourcing, standards compliancy, qualified faculties and market demand for skilled workforce. This paper explores the issues that influence and determine quality and performance of private universities, analyses the internal and external quality assurance policies with focus on quality of teaching, quality intake, sources of revenue and makes certain policy recommendations to ensure quality in higher education.

INTRODUCTION

The private universities are fastest growing segment in higher education in Bangladesh. This is true particularly in terms of number of institutions. In fact, private universities outnumber public universities. Despite this growth, private universities can enrol much less number of students than the public universities and the quality of their courses, strengths of their faculties, quality of graduates, etc are concerns of further introspection. On top of these, cost factor in private university education is also subject to social scrutiny. It is therefore critical to examine and ascertain the factors that contribute to attain better performance in some private universities in comparison to others in terms of education quality, teaching-learning capacity vis-à-vis cost involvement in higher education with view to justify emergence and future expansion of private universities. This paper is based on a qualitative research conducted in 2008 and purpose is to highlight the mechanism within the policy practices that creates variation in their performance and issues that act as constraint in quality education.

The discussion is structured into four parts. The first part explains the reasons behind the emergence of private universities in Bangladesh and regulatory issues. Current situation of private universities are discussed in part two. The third part highlights the findings and comparative analysis carried out on the selected universities and how the internal policy and other issues affect their performance. The final part presents the general conclusions and addresses the required policy changes and measurements to ensure quality and performance of private higher education in Bangladesh.

PART 1. EMERGENCE OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN BANGLADESH

After the independence of Bangladesh, in 1971, higher education was provided by state, just like other sector. The immediate reason for thinking of a private university was to allocate a large number of students unable to gain access to admission due to limited number of seats in the public universities. And Public universities were unable to expand and satisfy the growing social demand for higher education in terms of number and type of programs offered due to funding constraints (Varghese, 2002). This vacuum has created a demand for private universities. Therefore, the previous system of education has adopted the legislation that allows for the development of private higher education.

Another factor for establishing private universities in Bangladesh is due to continued political unrest and violence in the campuses of public university. The presence of political affiliation in the public universities, among the teacher, students and authority resulted in a continual session jam and significant delay in the holding of university exam. And private universities are the assurance to give a politics - free educational atmosphere to complete the education in due time (Alam and Haque, 2004; 64-65).

Thirdly, there was a change in the country with more reliance on market forces for development, the decline of centrally planned economies and created conditions conducive to the growth of private universities (Siddiqui, 2002; 161 -165). The impact of privatisation policy and expansion of the private sector created new demand for courses and subjects of study that are mainly market driven. As a result in the early 1990s private sector initiatives with the establishment of private universities became a new phenomenon in the country to fulfil the demand of the market. These perceptions, market demand and the growth of private higher educational institutions has resulted in the enactment of Private University Act in 1992(PRUA) by the Bangladesh government. Originally the state did not plan to set up new universities in the public sector with this new orientation. To fulfil the demands of the new labour market, private universities are considered as a superior option by the government to fulfil the demands of the market.

The "Private University Act of 1992" and "Amendments in 1998" paved the way for establishing higher education degree awarding universities in the private sector. Within a period of 14 to 15 years there has been a greater number of private institutions created in the country than public ones and has become an integral part of higher education. The first government approved private university NSU (North South University) started operating in January, 1993 (Siddiqui, 2002; 162).

1.1 QUALITY ASSURANCE AND POLICY PRACTICES:

Private universities are supervised by the administrative and academic rules set by the University Grants Commission (UGC), the regulatory body under the Ministry of Education of Bangladesh. The Ministry of Education (MOE) is the policy making body and the UGC works as the administrative agency. UGC also acts as the intermediate body between the government and the universities in Bangladesh. The UGC has been mandated by the Private University Act 1992 as the monitoring and supervising authority for higher education of the country. It works as the "approving authority'' because without its recommendation, the Ministry of Education does not grant permission to establish a private university. The approval of UGC legitimises the operation of private universities. The UGC creates standards, makes recommendations to the Ministry of Education, sets faculty qualification guidelines and monitors compliance of the Private University Act. UGC works towards supervising, assessing needs and coordinating the activities of universities (source: UGC website). The UGC also regulates the plans and programs of different private universities. The UGC publishes annual reports that supply basic information on the operation of both public and private universities. UGC also defines the administrative, financial and other parameters for these private universities and is responsible for over viewing quality. UGC works as a mechanism to ensure the quality of private universities in terms of minimum level of standards of legal requirements. The Private Universities Act of 1992 provided for complete autonomy in the matters of academic function and the recruitment of teachers and staff for the private universities. Curriculum of private universities requires prior approval from the UGC. They also enjoy financial authority to charge tuition fees and salaries to hire faculty members (Alam, Haque and Siddiqui, 2007; 27).But both public and private universities in Bangladesh have no external system or agency until now to review the academic programs of institutions.

PART 2. CURRENT STATUS OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN BANGLADESH

The total number of private universities in Bangladesh is 51 (UGC Annual Report 2006) with a total number of 124,267 students (498 foreign students) in comparison to 29 existing public universities with 1,241,352 students (171 foreign students). The intake capacity of private universities has a steady rise according to the national education survey of 1999. The highest number of students was found in Stamford University to be 12,342 and the least in Green University of Bangladesh with only 118 students. The aim

of these universities is to facilitate skilled manpower, creating ability to respond market demand, students with opportunities, resources and expertise to achieve academic, personal and career goals within a stimulating and supportive environment with academic excellence and quality education.

Table SEQ Tabel * ARABIC 1 Five Years Student Enrolment in Private and Public Universities in Bangladesh

Year	Number of Institutes	Total Students	Change From Last Year	Change in Percentage

_Private_Public_Private_Public_Private_Public_Private_Public__2002_37_15_34432_92152_+7187_ -410_+26_-0.44__2003_52_19_46080_104736_+ 11648_+12584_+34_+13.66__2004_53_19_62856_112327_+16776_+7591_+ 36_+6.76__2005_54_19_88669_116397_+25813_+4070_+ 41_+3.62__2006_51_23*(excluding National and Open University)_1,24,267_153249_+35598_+36452_+ 40_+31.66__**Source: UGC Annual Report 2006**

There is no clear policy on income and expenditure (tuition, administrative and other, salary of faculty members etc) of private universities in Bangladesh. Therefore the tuition fees and salary of staff differ vastly from one university to another. According to UGC report (2004) the fees charged by different universities vary from TK 200 or approx. USD 2.90 (USD 1 = BD TK 68, 4 Nov 2009) to TK 7500 or approx. USD 109 per credit (Masum, 2008; 20). The private universities mainly offer four-year bachelor's degrees and two years masters programs on a limited number of subjects. None of the private universities offer doctoral programs (PhD and MPhil) like the public universities in Bangladesh.

Courses offered by Private Universities:

Private universities are different from public universities – their purpose of establishment and orientation of operations are totally different. The academic system in public and private universities is different thus the assessment of quality is also different from public to private universities (UGC Chairman, 2008). As many of the private universities are self-financed through revenues, the courses they offer depend on market opportunity and demand. Commercial consideration is one of the primary objectives that reflect on the curriculum of these institutions. The top ranking private universities in Bangladesh like North South University, East West University and BRAC University offer degrees mainly in Business Administration, Economics, Information Technology, English Language, Economics and Environmental Studies. Very few universities offer courses in music, fashion, product design, interior architecture and hospital management.

Management and Administration:

Private universities are based on two-tier administrative structure: The Board of Governors is in the 1st tier and the Vice Chancellor, Dean and Registrar and other administrative staff at the 2nd tier. The Board of Governors is the highest executive authority and trustees of the sponsoring foundation. A Chairperson elected by the members of the board is responsible for policy decisions regarding development, long-term financing and overall management of the university. Matters relating to assets of a private university and its finance are to be taken care of by a finance committee of at least five members headed by a treasurer. The Registrar is the top administrative official. They also have different committees responsible for day to day activities, admission of student, recruitment of administrative and academic staff, scheduling of courses and examination. Other important academic and administrative positions in a private university include deans of faculties, a controller of examinations and chairpersons of departments (source: website of Banglapedia).

Financing Arrangements and Physical condition:

In the initial stages of private university boom, most of them started functioning with limited capital funds and were dependent on part-time faculty members who were hired from public universities. Private universities don't receive any fund from government like the public universities. The universities run their

operation based on the collection of academic charges and student fees (Alam, Haque and Siddque, 2007; 23). Compared to public universities the physical conditions and facilities in private universalities are usually better in terms of class room, library, computer centers and Internet access. Most of the class rooms are air conditioned and has audio-visual equipment. Multimedia is used by many teachers who are trained abroad (Hopper, 1998).

Faculty profile in Private Universities:

Many of the private universities are operated by part-time faculty and a limited number of full-time teachers. Reliance on part-time faculty is a common phenomenon in the private universities of Bangladesh due to the lack of available full-time qualified teachers. In some leading private universities different departments are headed by professors from public universities. The following figure shows that out of about 4,000 faculty members, roughly 60% are full-time faculty; therefore a significant number are part-timers. Another important aspect revealed by the figure below is that the majority of the faculty is young aged professionals, i.e. lecturers (56% of the total full-time teachers). Among the part-time teaching staff, the professor category (i.e. the most senior faculty) dominates.

Figure SEQ Figuur * ARABIC 1: Number of Teachers in Private Universities of Bangladesh 2003

Table   SEQ Tabel * ARABIC 2: Number of Private universities, total enrolment and number of teachers (1997- 2003)

Year_Number of Private Universities_Number of students_Number of Teachers__1997_16_5668_636__1998_16_8718_914__1999_16_13340_1214__2000_19_32791_1608__2001_22_27245_2205__2002_41_34432_2948__2003_52_46080_4543__Source: Bangladesh Education Statistics 2002-2003

In comparison to the private universities, there are 7,905 faculty members in the existing 25(except National university and other affiliated colleges) public universities (UGC Annual Report, 2006).

Teacher and Student Assessment:

All private universities have introduced terms and semester systems. They offer courses that are calculated in credit hours (US standard). Students are evaluated and graded from A-F for each course. The total grade is calculated using the weighted Grade Point Average (GPA) system. Students are also given the flexibility to take courses according to their interest which is different from the public universities where the perceived prestigious courses are reserved for the most meritorious students. This flexibility of course intake option allows a student to take two to five courses per semester in a program. Some private universities in Bangladesh have systems of faculty evaluation by students. Variety of assessment procedures are followed in these universities for both student as well as teacher evaluation. Students scoring Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) between 1 and 2 after the first two semesters in private universities are generally placed on probation for the next two semesters. If a student can't improve their grades within two semesters, they face dismissal from the university.

Capacity in Research:

Research is a personal concern of the faculty members in most of the private universities in Bangladesh. Private universities neither encourage nor discourage the faculty members and usually there is no research grant available (Aminuzzaman; 9).

Job Placement of private university graduates:

The state level agencies like Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) and University Grants Commission do not keep any record of job placement of the private university graduates. The two leading private universities, North South and Independent University of Bangladesh from their internal record reveal the following pattern of job placement among their graduates:

The graduates are mainly entering the private sector jobs and firms like manufacturing, textile, financing and banking institutions, telecommunication, software, multinational/ multinational agencies.

The average income level of these jobs are significantly higher than the counter parts from public universities (except the graduates from Institute of Business Administration under the University of Dhaka) (Alam, Haque and Siddique, 2007; 33).

UGC Overview on All Private Universities:

The present situation of the numerous private universities at large is questionable as far as quality education is concerned. Regardless of the rapid increase in the enrolment of students in the private universities for the last 15 years, quality of education has remained a cause of concern. Most of private universities have failed to meet the minimum requirement set by the University Grants Commission (UGC), (Aminuzzaman; 2). These include insufficient number of qualified academic staff, absence of strong administrative and financial control, poor quality intake, infrastructural facilities and market acceptability of graduates. According to UGC survey conducted in 2004, out of 52 private universities roughly nine universities (NSU, BRAC, EWU, IUB, AMA, UDA, Stamford, Daffodil, IIUC) are performing highly satisfactory. Based on the academic standards of UGC, it singled out 35 universities as they failed to meet the minimum requirements. UGC appointed a fixed time-limit for these universities to improve their performance so they could meet the standards. The committee also recommended cancellation of the permission of the remaining eight universities. The report, undoubtedly, gave an impression that conditions are not satisfactory in the majority of the private universities (Prothom Alo, November 2004).

The following section of this paper reflects on the findings of the recent study from a comparative perspective followed by some policy suggestions.

PART 3.COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SELECTED UNIVERSITIES

This section provides comparative analysis of four selected universities and compares their quality assurance mechanism and performance variation. The four universities selected for the research study were based on the UGC survey and evaluation list. Two of the universities were amongst the top 9 that met all the minimum set of UGC standards. The other two universities were selected from the broad category listing of UGC. The broad category lists universities that have some limitations and weakness in view of UGC standards. There is a third category of listing provided by UGC that was not looked into because universities in this list are soon to be shutdown as a result of receiving government legal show-cause warnings. Additionally some common selection criteria were applied when choosing the universities. These common criteria were locality, courses offered, sources of revenue (tuition fees), cooperation to supply information and accessibility.

All the selected universities have their own individual policies and practices and operate within the national framework of UGC to ensure quality education. Quality is also determined in terms of their individual aims and objectives of the universities as stated in their mission statements. The comparative analysis of these private universities reveals a number of issues which acts as constraints towards ensuring quality education and variation of performance amongst them. It has been noted that lack of this creates variation of performance. Admission policy, faculty recruitment policy, scholarship opportunities are vital elements of internal quality assurance mechanisms and the practice of these elements are setting apart the better performing universities from the rest. The implementation of the various elements of quality assurance mechanisms requires financial resources. Even when the internal quality assurance mechanisms are similar

to the successful universities, the major cause of failure of the policies lies in implementation. This results in inconsistency of academic standards.

Admission policy and selection of student

Student selection and admission policy of the satisfactory universities create variation of quality in providing higher education. Because of the internal policy differences the quality of input (student intake) has a direct affect on the quality of output (graduates). Poor quality intake results in poor academic performance and finally acceptance of graduates in the market. To ensure quality, the strict admission selection systems (admission tests, higher requirements) are enabling some of the private universities to ensure higher quality student intake. Established and proven universities have more strict requirements when it comes to new student admissions than newly founded universities. The demand to get admitted in such universities is high because of reputation and market acceptance of graduates and have set minimum admission requirement to GPA 3.00, which is more than the UGC minimum requirement of 2.5 for admission eligibility. One of the selected satisfactory private universities has been following the strict admission policy of GPA 3.0 requirement from the beginning of their establishment. In addition to written admission exams satisfactory universities also require face-to-face interviews for the final selection of candidates.

On the other hand less satisfactory universities do not have strict admission requirements like the satisfactory one.In Bangladesh, most private universities depend on tuition fees as revenues which restrict their intention to ensure high quality student intake.Revenue and financing is an important factor for newly founded universities and to maximize student enrolment their admission requirements is also lower. Lower admission requirement policies can be seen to have a direct correlation with quality.

Scholarship Opportunity:

The study also reveals that there is a lack of meritorious student enrollment in private universities; as such students prefer public universities as their first choice of application. One of the major reasons for preferring public universities is that talented students often face difficulties financing their education in private universities (student's opinion in focus group discussion). Private university education costs can be as high as 20 times when compared to public universities in Bangladesh. The assurance of scholarship opportunity in the admission policy also determines the provision for bright meritorious student to study in private universities. This mechanism creates variation of quality among private universities. As Masum (2008;25) has stated, getting admitted in private university with full tuition waiver and after graduating with high CGPA can help financially disadvantaged students get high-end jobs. Scholarship opportunities for students are available more in the established and proven universities in comparison to other universities. In case of satisfactory one, the increasing investment in scholarship provision is helping the institute to attract more meritorious but financially disadvantaged students who otherwise would not have been able to afford the cost of private higher education. There are also innovative strategies (like full tuition waver towards students achieving top scores in admission test, top ranking HSC students), taken by satisfactory universities attract meritorious student who need financial support. The provision for financial assistance to attract meritorious students (top ranks in tests) from middle class families who are unable to pay large tuition fees was incorporated in their policy from the beginning of its establishment.

Faculty Recruitment, Promotional Criteria

The study found that private universities in Bangladesh face a number of issues in terms of quality assurance practices. One of the major constraints is adequate number of qualified faculty members which has a deep correlation to the quality of teaching. Faculty quality is generally accepted as the most important determinant of the overall quality of higher education institutions (World Bank, 2000; 65). However the improvement of quality of teaching and the presence of qualified faculty in these institutes is also related to their internal quality assurance policy practices such as recruitment policy, long-term faculty development plans and promotional criteria.

Satisfactory universities emphasize more on the recruitment of foreign trained faculty members than any other private universities in Bangladesh. It is very much visible in their recruitment policy and maintained that practice so far. Satisfactory universities do not allow teachers without a PhD to teach in the Master's program. Masters Degree from USA, UK, Canada, and Australia are mostly preferable for recruiting lecturer in the undergraduate level.

Selected satisfactory private universities view international training and publication as criteria for academic staff promotion. The recruitment and promotional criteria in those universities for faculty selection emphasizes more on working experience, involvement in research activity and publication in international journals. However, most of the universities have their internal policies (such as presentation and interviews) to evaluate faculty members through student evaluation, peer review, administrative involvement and academic contribution.

Based on the comparative analysis, the full-time and part-time faculty ratio of all the private universities does not meet the UGC criteria. This has also been confirmed from the UGC Annual Report 2006. Though the full-time and part-time faculty ratio does not meet the UGC requirement it could not be established if the part-timer trend lowers the quality of teaching. In reality the most satisfactory university of the study had more part-time faculty members than the less satisfactory ones. In all cases the institutes benefit from the presence of qualified and experienced teachers even though they work as part timers (based on opinion of university authorities and students).

Investment in Research:

According to UNESCO (2007;38) expenditure on research is an important indicator for quality assesment in higher education and indicates institutional performance.The involvement in research activity among the universities varies from one to another. In most cases research activity is more of an individual effort than institutional provision (Aminuzzaman; 9). Despite the fact, the investments in research of satisfactory universities are considerably more than the other universities. It is also visible in the UGC report (2006).In the faculty promotional policy of established universities research is given the most important criteria. Therefore research activity is high in the satisfactory universities and is a significant reason for higher investment in that area compare to the unsatisfactory one.

Financial Resource:

Finally, the above mechanisms of the universities are directly or indirectly connected to the financial resources (sources of revenue). Financial sources play a dominant role in ensuring quality. As Masum (2008; 27) stated, quality is a function of investment and management. Financial resources are required for recruiting qualified teachers with adequate salary packages, improve academic facilities (library, lab), investment in research and development, and providing learning materials to students. Private universities that have enough funds for hiring can attract qualified faculty members from other public universities to their own institutions. Universities that depend solely on tuition fees while charging less to students cannot afford to recruit internationally trained and qualified faculty members.

To summarize, private institutes that perform better in terms of providing quality education has sustainable financial resources, they maintain the minimum standards of UGC and additionally implement their own innovative strategies.

PART 4. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Quality in higher education has become the prime agenda of countries worldwide with the changing context of globalisation and economic activities. Many countries have been pressurised to assure quality in higher education compared international standards at the national level. Consequently various countries initiated "national quality assurance mechanisms" and many more are in the process of evolving a suitable strategy (Stella, 2002; 13). Therefore ensuring quality in private universities should be of concern nationally as the

numbers of private universities are greater than public universities in Bangladesh. Based on the above analysis, the paper addresses some required policy changes and measurements to ensure quality and performance of private universities in Bangladesh.

To ensure more access of financially disadvantaged but meritorious students in private universities, Banks and investment institutes can offer various student financing packages to help students meet their education costs. The financial institutes can work with the private universities to provide this kind of service for students. At current there are only a limited number of such services available in Bangladesh. Availability of student loans and financing can help deserving and meritorious student's opportunities for study better in terms of providing quality education has sustainable financial resources, they maintain the minimum standards of UGC and additionally implement their own innovative strategies.

Large and established companies can also play a part to increase quality of private higher education in Bangladesh. For example, in US there are various foundations (The Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, and more) that provide grants towards universities and students.

There should be some guidelines to restrict the number of part-timers. In PRUA 2007 Act there is provision for part-timer rules which should be implemented to improve dedication of full-time faculty members towards their parent institutions. The crisis might deepen with expansion of private universities in Bangladesh and unavailability of qualified teachers resulting in lower quality of education. To overcome the possible challenge for private universities, the government needs to consider and asses the current supply of qualified faculty before approving the establishment of any new private university.

Private universities should publish an annual report with details of the infrastructure and facilities available, profiles of the trustees and the administrators, the academic qualifications and experience of the staff, the courses offered, the number of students, the results of the examinations, the amount of funds available to the university and the sources of funding etc. In addition, every educational institution must get itself rated by an independent rating agency and publicly announce its rating to prospective students to enable the students to choose the institution they want to enroll. And above all, the implementation of the proposed accreditation council for the promotion of quality and quality assurance is must in Bangladesh.

The significance of higher education is increasing in Bangladesh as new employment opportunities are being created by the emerging private banks, telecommunications and IT sector and manufacturing industries. Private universities can fulfill this demand in the market place by ensuring quality graduates. The advantages of private universities compared to public ones are based on the following key aspects: collaboration with other international universities, no academic session delays, politics-free environment, and international standards based grading systems (CGPA).Therefore ensuring quality in private universities should be of concern nationally as the numbers of private universities are greater than public universities.

The aim of this paper is not to provide solutions for ensuring quality in higher education, but an attempt to address the issues that act as constraints within the policy assurance mechanisms that affect quality. Highlighting these issues, it is hoped that both the government and private universities will consider them for enhancing the standard of quality in higher education.

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HYPERLINK   "http://www.unesco.org/iiep/PDF/pubs/PrivatHEAfr.pdf" http://www.unesco.org/iiep/PDF/pubs/PrivatHEAfr.pdf

In 2005 the number of private universities in Bangladesh was 54. The Government appointed authority asked five universities to close their operation. Two new universities got approval at the end of 2006 so the final number of private universities is 51 now (UGC Annual Report 2006).

The UGC listed minimum requirements like physical infrastructure, own campus, outer campus and its description, student number per course and semester, teacher student ratio and details of fulltime faculty members and ratio of part time and fulltime faculty members, detailed description of VC, Governing body, syndicate and academic council, salary structure, financial statements, etc.

The UGC survey in 2004 was conducted based on some selected criteria like physical infrastructure, own campus, outer campus and its description, student number per course and semester, teacher student ratio and details of fulltime faculty members and ratio of part time and fulltime faculty members, detailed description of VC, Governing body, syndicate and academic council, salary structure, financial statements, etc and universities were evaluated based on their performance in fulfilling those criteria.

MAKING THE DIFFERENCE:
SUPPORTING DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS TO A SUCCESSFUL OUTCOME

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Abstract
In the UK, universities have noticed an increase in the disclosure of mental health issues among the student population. Recent legislative changes affecting equal opportunities in Higher Education and a strong government policy imperative to "widen participation" (reaching out to disadvantaged minority groups, who have been traditionally excluded), makes it a key time to effect improvements in provision and change the ways of delivering the curriculum so that students have better access and equal opportunities.

In the past Higher Education in the UK has been the privilege of the few. In the last twenty years, the number of students starting university has increased rapidly and in the UK, there have been legislative changes as part of a government agenda of social inclusion to "widen participation". The government set itself a target to have university places for 50% of its school leavers by 2010 and put in place a new system of student loans and grants to assist with the financing of this project.

"After a decade of campaigns to get more students into university, especially those from the poorest backgrounds, Labour's "widening participation" policy has taken off this year. There has been a 10% increase in applications, fuelled in part by a population rise and in part by older applicants seeking to escape the recession." (Curtis, 2009)

Reaching out to minority groups, who have been traditionally excluded, has highlighted the need to make effective changes to provision. Students may come from low income families; students who come from families where no one has been to university before; students who have not had a traditional educational experience etc. Although this is mainly a social class issue, "widening participation" has also offered the opportunity of a university education to students with disabilities, who may have previously been disadvantaged.

With the rise of the number of students, teaching groups have become very large. Research shows that there are declining resources per student which increases the stress that students are under. [Trowler, 1998]. Yorke and Longden [2004])

"While it is … easier …. to pretend that all is well, there are clear emotional consequences to working in these large groups for both students and lecturers. For instance, students may experience powerful feelings of alienation, anger, and envy in large groups and compensate in various ways, some of which will be antithetical to achieving effective learning and a stimulating educational experience. Similarly, lecturers can also seek to cope with their own feelings of fear and uncertainty by behaving equally maladaptively." (Hogan and Kwiatkowski, 1998)

There is less help from tutors, whose time is constrained and we have found that students who may be from a disadvantaged group, suffer more and are indeed, more "at risk" of not completing their courses or not achieving their potential.

"With dropout rates above 25 per cent at 13 universities, ….. some say it is all but inevitable that standards will slip, almost as a prerequisite for financial security……Since 1989, universities have seen resources per student fall by 37 per cent. The student-to-staff ratio now stands at 23:1. …The sector is also taking on thousands of overseas students, who place different pressures on standards with

divergent learning cultures and, often, language problems. And as the drive to get half of all people under 30 into higher education by the end of the decade continues, universities outside the oversubscribed elite will have to increasingly rely on students with more limited preparation for higher level study." (Times Higher Education Supplement, 2004)

In order to examine the nature of the difficulties experienced by students, this paper will look at one disadvantaged group and how the universities can change to accommodate the needs of these students.

With "widening participation", and new legislation supporting people with disabilities, many more students with a variety of difficulties have now entered Higher Education. The impairment that has caused us growing concern in recent years in our study support team at LCC, is mental health. At the London College of Communication, which is one campus of the University of the Arts London, (the largest university dedicated to the creative arts in Europe,) since 2003, there has been an increase of 24%. Indeed this past academic year over 50% of all students who declare a disability, disclose a mental health issue.

Academic Year	Total no of disabled students (not including dyslexia)	No. of students disclosing mental health difficulties	Percentage
2003-2004	104	32	31%
2004-2005	175	60	34%
2005-2006	207	78	38%
2006-2007	214	100	47%
2007-2008	195	91	47%
2008-2009	234	127	54%

All UK universities have noticed an increase in the disclosure of mental health issues among the student population. It is not entirely clear why this should be. Whether it is because of the amount of stress that students are under trying to juggle their studies alongside paid employment; combining studying with supporting a family; or whether it is due to drug related issues; or because mental ill health has lost some of its stigma and students feel less concerned about disclosing their difficulties, we are not sure.   Whatever the reason, the Disability Discrimination Act, 2005 says that colleges and universities have a duty to take into account the needs of disabled people when making decisions or developing policy and to make reasonable adjustments so that they can have a successful outcome to their studies. The DDA defines a disabled person as someone who has a "physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long term adverse effect upon his ability to carry out normal day-to day activities" (Disability Discrimination Act, 2002). This includes students with mental health difficulties. To qualify, the disorder has to be a form of mental distress which is "clinically well-recognized" (DDA, 2002) even if it is controlled by medication. These disorders include depression, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, phobias, obsessive compulsive disorder and eating disorders. Students with hidden impairments such as mental health difficulties do not want to be labelled as "disabled" but they have to accept this, in order to gain reasonable adjustments.

This paper will take a number of examples of case studies to show how we are trying to support students with mental health issues and to ensure that they are not disadvantaged either by their disability or our university systems.

Case Study 1 - Nicola

Nicola is a mature student having worked for many years and not had the opportunity or financial means to study. For some years she has suffered with depression and anxiety and has regular therapy. Nicola has moments of panic, when she feels totally overwhelmed by her deadlines which result in inertia. At other times she can sit for hours furiously writing down ideas and then getting lost in her chaos. Her work is excellent and her tutors have no idea that she suffers so much and they continue to encourage her to do more and more, which actually exacerbates the problem, as she feels she needs to push herself to achieve everything they suggest.

When Nicola first came to see me during her first year, she was ready to give up. In fact she often says she is going to stop because it is all too much for her. "I am exhausted by the constant struggle," she

said. Nicola asked me to keep her difficulties confidential. She had not disclosed her impairment partly because she thought she should be able to manage alone and partly because she did not want anyone to think she was making an excuse for her "laziness". I explained to her that the university offers her the right to confidentiality. This meant that although she had told me her difficulties, I did not have to disclose the nature of them to anyone else, unless I was concerned that she might be a danger to herself or anyone else. With her agreement I put her on our disability register which then entitled her to double the loan time for resources from our library, and regular study support meetings with me, where we can talk about the stress she feels and plan to alleviate it.

As a mature student, Nicola feels that she should be able to manage this herself and she feels terribly guilty when she makes an appointment to see me. She has not taken advantage of the possibility of weekly meetings but when we meet, we plan her essays together, organising her ideas into meaningful chapters and I give her maximum word counts for each part of her assignments. She finds this useful as she has been known to write double the number of words required and then spend hours editing her work and missing her deadlines.

Nicola is about to start her third year, which requires a 9000 word dissertation. She has a number of ideas and knows that the writing is not the problem, but keeping herself on track and not being distracted by her interest in other subjects is a huge worry for her. She has finally agreed to apply for Disabled Student Allowance which is a government funded resource that will give her hardware, software and the opportunity to have weekly study support to ensure she is able to keep to her deadlines. She has allowed me to discuss the issue of flexible deadlines with the teaching staff and they have agreed that she can have an automatic two week extension for all her written assignments. Having a safety net will provide her with the security that if she is paralysed by her mental health at any time, she is still able to hand in her work for assessment.

Jackson and Blythman believe this kind of flexibility offered by the university is part of the structural and cultural changes needed by a university:

"In University of the Arts London, academic support for students with mental health difficulties is located within an academic unit rather than within a student services unit. This has a number of advantages. It means that we are recognized and respected (mainly!) by other faculty as fellow teachers. We often have more teaching experience and pedagogic knowledge than many of our colleagues elsewhere in the university who have been appointed for their disciplinary expertise rather than their knowledge of teaching and learning. These factors mainly make much easier any negotiations around changes in the way a course is delivered although there can occasionally be difficulties with faculty whose approach to teaching is radically different from ours."   (Jackson, S and Blythman, M. (forthcoming*))*

There are often comments from tutors like "Well if she can't manage a deadline here, how will she manage in the real world?"   Those that struggle daily with their impairment will find a way round this issue. But it is our duty, under the DDA, to ensure that these students are not disadvantaged by their disability as a result of the university's inflexibility.

Case Study 2 – Masako

Masako came to LCC from Japan to study Photography. She was often absent from her course and eventually when she was confronted about her lack of attendance by her teachers, she broke down and cried. She then started to shout and talk irrationally. The teaching staff were concerned about her unusual behaviour and they called for my assistance. It was clear to me that Masako was having a breakdown and I referred her to our mental health advisor who was instrumental in getting Masako the medical intervention she needed but had resisted for so long. She had not disclosed to anyone that she had been suffering from any kind of mental impairment. She was clearly embarrassed. She spoke of having "emotional epilepsy" and that other members of her family had this difficulty too. It wasn't until after her return to Japan that she sent me a letter from a doctor which said she suffered from a personality disorder.

Student behaviour can be difficult to understand and this behaviour may raise the anxiety levels of teaching and non-teaching staff. Sometimes it is difficult to know whether a student is unwell or just behaving badly. Staff worry about how to respond to students with mental health difficulties who

express such high levels of anxiety in a variety of explosive ways. These students require a lot of extra time and work and teaching staff are often pressurized and under a lot of stress themselves. Providing suitable boundaries for the student with mental health difficulties is very important. Their lives are often in chaos and one way of alleviating their fears is to ensure that they feel contained, knowing where to come to if they have a problem, safe in the knowledge that very few staff will be involved. This lowers their levels of anxiety and embarrassment. At LCC, staff are happy to allow me to take over that role and leave them to concentrate on their teaching roles and other responsibilities.

 We are attempting to make a difference to the learning experience not only of students with mental health difficulties but to all students. Of course, students with mental health difficulties generally need to receive extra support to help them to cope with the environments that they find themselves in. However, to achieve the right balance, both the students and the institution need to be helped to change and adjust. Higher education institutions need to look more carefully at the flaws in the learning environment as well as the support of individual students.

Teaching and Learning
There is now a general re-thinking of university teaching and learning methods and the realization that good practice for one group of students is often best practice for all. Course directors are now more willing to adapt the curriculum, offer a variety of forms of evaluation/assessment, modify the delivery of teaching, put lecture notes on the university intranet, give clear handouts, allow students to tape record lectures, offer extra time for assignments and make special arrangements for exams. All this has also helped to improve the situation for students with disabilities (Riddell, Tinklin, and Wilson, 2005).

Funding
HEFCE (The Higher Education Funding Council for England) awards funding to Higher Education institutions on the basis of the number of UK students applying for DSA (Disabled Student Allowance) in their first year of a degree course and this information is reported by HESA (Higher Education Statistics Agency). However as students are not obliged to disclose that they have a disability, these statistics are not necessarily representative of the total student population. Also the University of the Arts London attracts a large number of overseas students, some of whom have mental health difficulties, which often manifest during the course of their educational programme, as in the case of Masako. These students are not able to apply for funding, nor does the institution have a stream of funding available for their support. At LCC we do support these students by offering extended deadlines for assignments, extended library loans and 1:1 academic and emotional and/or study support. Along with other disabled students their needs are assessed and recommendations made to the course teams. We are not able to recoup the money, but we feel that we would not be offering them an equal opportunity if we did not adopt this strategy.

Case Study 3 – Joe

Joe disclosed his mental illness as soon as he arrived in his first year at LCC. He said he had a diagnosis of paranoid schizophrenia but as he had a medical team around him, regular therapy and was on medication he felt ready to start his course in Graphic Media Design. He did not want his course tutors to know of his difficulties but felt extremely isolated from the beginning:

"In the first lesson we were asked to get ourselves into groups of three…..I couldn't do this. For me to speak to someone was just too much. In the end I was put with the other "losers" who were also too shy or too scared, which did not help our communication at all."

Then the group was asked to go out into the area surrounding the campus and find 20 pieces of packaging, for their first assignment. Joe came to see me quite distraught. He explained: *"My mother has schizophrenia and she picks up rubbish daily and piles it in our house, under my bed etc. I do not need to come to university to do such things…….."*

This required some negotiation on my part with the course team who were quite shocked that they had upset the student and why. They had been considering that students had financial worries and did not want them to go out and buy 20 items, so they had suggested finding items that had been left by others. The university lecturers had never considered that this task might cause anyone anxiety, but when I pointed it out to them they were able to think of any other number of ways of gaining the same

information that they required for their assignment. I stressed that by giving the students choices this allowed everyone to find their own best method of working. I also recommended that for the first few weeks that they put the students into groups rather than suggest that they find their own, as this would encourage them to talk to different people, and also be more inclusive.

Other stressful situations that Joe faced included being with large groups of people, group work, presentations, examinations, having to absorb information under pressure and having rigid deadlines. He avoided group trips to exhibitions as it was terrifying for him to travel on the London Underground. Universities are now required to be proactive in identifying barriers and work to remove them. Offering all students a variety of ways of achieving the same learning outcomes would take away another pressure from the student who does not wish to be seen as being different and singled out. With Widening Participation there is more encouragement to support students for whom being successful at a university is really problematic

Other Institutional Barriers
The Admissions experience is one that is constantly being thought about. It is no longer acceptable to ask students to complete a form disclosing information without saying what will happen to that information.

"The university recommends early disclosure and provides reassurance that this will not affect the application process….[However] this attitude ignores the valid reasons for non-disclosure, such as fear of unfavourable treatment or the wish not to be treated differently to their peers." (Tinklin and Hall 1999)

On the one hand we want students to disclose their disabilities so that we can ensure they get the support to which they are legally entitled. However unless they have a medical diagnosis, or an educational psychologist's report in the case of dyslexia, their disability will not be accepted by the government for funding purposes. In the case of mental health this is problematic. Students often do not realize they have a difficulty until they are living away from home and placed in situations outside their normal experience. Families will accommodate their needs but once they are in the outside world, others will think that they are strange, their behaviour odd, and the student may become increasingly isolated and distressed.

Confidentiality
Confidentiality is another barrier. At what point does disclosure breach the confidentiality clause? Having now been at LCC for 7 years, most staff will now accept without question when I explain that I am not able to give details about the disability. Some staff members feel that they cannot help a student who will not give out any information, but students with mental health issues do not wish to be singled out and treated differently, which is why we need to find a more inclusive approach.

Sharing information in a university setting is difficult. Computer systems are often out dated and many staff are part time practitioners rather than trained teachers and may not even use a university email address. It can cause a huge amount of added stress and distress, when students have to continuously explain their difficulties to each member of staff.

Case Study 4 - Matthew
Matthew, a mature student, on a part time MA course, with a long history of bi-polar (manic depression), reported that his class presentation had been judged as "performance art" by his tutor. Although the information had been sent to the course director, the member of staff assessing the presentation had not been informed of Matthew's mental state and how his medication might affect him. As a result he felt that the tutor had judged his manic state instead of his work, that he had been treated "like a joker". He was completely demoralised and he was very scared of having to do another presentation. I asked him to allow me to speak to his tutor on his behalf as he felt too embarrassed to be part of the conversation.

I met with the tutor and explained how Matthew's mental state might affect his behaviour and what kind of strategies she could put in place to help him. Matthew was given an alloted time to speak and he managed his medication accordingly. If he took it too early he was likely to be too drowsy to speak. By taking it after the presentation he was able to calm down quickly and be less manic. On the

previous occasion he had been asked to change his time at the last minute and this upset him considerably. The tutor was pleased to help and Matthew felt supported and was able to manage his second presentation more successfully and indeed he completed his Master's degree.

"Once disclosure has taken place to a member of staff then in legal terms the whole organisation is deemed to know. However, if the disabled person has not given permission for this information to be shared with the rest of the organisation then this would impact, in legal terms, on what the organisation could reasonably have done for the student. Under the DDA it is up to the organisation to have effective channels of communication to pass information to relevant staff. It is not up to the disabled person to fulfil this requirement." (Understanding the DDA 2007, Section 3.2 p.80)

The law is clear. Universities are often huge institutions and managing this information is often a barrier that must be overcome.

Assessment / Evaluation

Students cannot be treated less favourably for a reason relating to their disability. The university has to make reasonable adjustments. Reasonable adjustments can be either an individual adjustment for a particular student such as the right to present an assignment in an alternative format, often called accommodated assessment, or it can be an anticipatory adjustment where, for example, the university offers a variety of assignment formats to all students. Reasonable adjustments could include changing standard procedures, adapting the curriculum, adapting teaching delivery or providing alternative forms of assessment/evaluation. It can also involve adapting facilities, and providing additional services like materials in alternative formats or indeed 1:1 academic support. It also involves training staff to understand their responsibilities. If these adjustments could be open to all students instead of making "special arrangements" then this would normalize things for students with difficulties.

Research at Plymouth University in the UK (SWANDS, 2002), has shown that by offering all students a choice of type of assessment that has been agreed before the start of the course, then fewer adjustments, if any, need to be made for disabled students. These types of changes require cultural change as well as structural since such changes in teaching and learning can only work with the co-operation of faculty and administrators. Shevlin, Kenny, and McNeela (2004) point out that there are issues of both attitude and awareness.

Time out

Students who become ill during their courses may need time out to recuperate. Universities need to have a more flexible approach to allow for this. Recent research, in the area of social class participation but equally applicable to students with mental health difficulties, suggests that the UK is not good at this (Quinn et al, 2005). Currently, universities and colleges in the UK are rewarded financially and in terms of reputation for getting students through in the minimum period, which is three years for a Bachelor's degree in England. The United States, with a different history of participation in higher education, has a more adaptable approach with its modular system, which might be one way forward to be supportive to students. At LCC staff are helpful in this regard but the complicated procedures involved in coming back to the course, both by the institution and the funding authority are extra barriers to negotiate.

Finance

Administrators and funders need to understand that some students cost more to educate than others because of their additional support needs. "The universal student" does not exist. Now that we are opening up our universities to all students from all backgrounds it is important that the needs of some students are seen as a question of social justice.

Promoting Change

Change is always a challenge and people fear change. Making changes to the Admissions policy, for example, to ensure that no one is prevented from doing a course of their choice for reasons of their disability, was a relatively easy policy to put in place. But who knows what fears the staff have and the emotional effect on them, when they are confronted with a student who discloses at interview that he

has a diagnosis of bi-polar (manic depression), for example. Change is always complex and there will always be unpredictable situations which will require some thought. We cannot expect everyone to take these changes on board as we cannot vouch for the experience of the university staff: academic, technical and administrative.

Michael Fullan (2001) believes that most people do not develop new understanding until they are involved in the process. We know that staff have said that they would like more training and yet when we are dealing with mental health it is true to say that it is never totally clear what action should be taken. What is important is that boundaries are put in place to lessen the chaos and conversations need to take place with everyone concerned both staff and student to ensure that the best possible outcome ensues.

Generally, widening access for disabled people into higher education is a success story. In the last decade the number of disabled students entering universities has doubled. Fullan (2001) believes that the way forward for a university to ensure that it includes all its students whatever their difficulty, is to change the culture through continuing professional development. However there is not only one answer to suit the global problem. Without face to face conversations with the people involved, the local problem is unlikely to be resolved. I hope that by continuing to support staff to recognise the needs of disadvantaged students and to think about their practice, assessing the impact of all activities, we will manage to become an "inclusive" university for all.

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Impact of Multiple Dimensions of Diversity on Pre-service Teachers

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Abstract

Given the dramatic shift in the demographics of our society, our schools are serving an increasing number of students from diverse backgrounds. The fact that teachers need to be prepared to teach these diverse students is unquestionable. However, how to prepare these teachers is under constant debate. When addressing diversity in teacher preparation programs, institutions generally limit training to six specific diversity traits: race, age, gender, sexual orientation, abilities/ disabilities, and ethnicity. Anecdotal data indicate that when pre-service teachers identify the aspects of diversity having the greatest impact on their lives, the majority of traits chosen are not among those included in teacher preparation programs. These findings raise the question of whether educational institutions have been focusing diversity training on the wrong dimensions of diversity, and should we expand diversity training to include more of what is actually affecting the lives of others?

This session will describe anecdotal data from the exploration of multiple dimensions of diversity. At the end of the session, participants will be able to:

　1. Describe the various dimensions of diversity;
　2. Develop a better understanding of the importance of diversity and its impact in the lives of pre-service teachers;
　3. Engage in a dialogue about the expansion of dimensions of diversity addressed in higher education.

Social justice, low ses schools and a postgraduate class.

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(Note: this paper has been accepted as a chapter in an edited book, title yet to be established, on innovations in University teaching. The chapter title will be *Worlds and words: education for social justice in a postgraduate course*).

Keywords = Freire, social justice, urban, postgraduate, pedagogy

Abstract = 'Low Decile Education' is a new Masters level course which was first taught in the Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand during 2008. During classes students critically examined theory, politics and practices concerning both international and New Zealand's urban schools. An emphasis was placed on Freirean philosophy and teaching practices and the theoretical basis of the course encouraged students to be critical educators (Shor 1992).

Twenty students were in the first cohort. Most were Pasifika (of Pacific nations descent) or Maori (indigenous New Zealanders), with student ethnicities largely reflecting that of local urban school populations. All students were professionally involved in urban schooling; they were primary and secondary school teachers, a mentoring coordinator, and Ministry of Education staff. Most were drawn to the course by a passion for education and a strong concern for social justice.

The course was taught using an empowering pedagogy – students were invited to teach alongside the lecturer with the premise students' world knowledge (practice based) is complementary to the word (as in theory) (Shor & Pari 1999). Dialogue was intense; students always sat in a circle formation and both informal and formal (assessed) tasks required full group and/or class involvement.

The presentation and paper critically examines the 2008 course, based largely on the lecturer's reflective diary, with theoretical support. Her argument is that this kind of postgraduate class pedagogy, underpinned by critical theory which promotes agency within and beyond the class, has the potential to promote social justice in wider educational contexts.

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Introduction:

The twenty students who enrolled in the post graduate course, "Low Decile Education" (LDE), brought their worlds into the evening classroom. Most were primary and secondary school teachers from low decile schools (schools in low socio-economic–SES-areas). The few non-teachers worked in support of such schools; in mentoring programmes, Special Education Services or the Ministry of Education. As fulltime workers, all arrived each evening tired, but passionate and ready to learn. All came as graduates with academic ambitions, and as emerging intellectuals (Kanu & Glor, 2006).

The 'normal' lecture/tutorial format of postgraduate course delivery was inappropriate for this new course. Various New Zealand government initiatives had had little success in raising student achievement in low decile schools, this course was designed, therefore, to provide an opportunity for intellectual reflection, innovation and positivity regarding teacher agency.

I planned, developed, and then lectured on the LDE course during its initial delivery. In the classroom the students met one another, me, interacted with some visiting speakers, examined various research reports, and engaged in dialogue. As part of, and integral to all of this, they read and reflected on the inspirational words of theorists like Paulo Freire (1972). Freirean pedagogy has a reputation for empowering students (Paulo Freire, 1987, 2005; Roberts, 2008; Shor & Pari, 1999).

For three face-to-face hours a week, worlds and words mingled as we tried to better understand the low decile school environment and our agency within those places. Many students continued the discourse outside class; meeting physically and through email and telephone conversations. While I discussed the course and my understandings with various colleagues, my inner dialogue and reflection was captured through regular journal entries (from which the words in italics are directly taken).

This chapter analyses the course, its progress and achievements during its first year of teaching. I argue that, for empowerment-focused courses such as LDE to be effective, all participants – lecturers included - must live the words (theory) and make them shared worlds. It is important, I believe, that participants' worlds are shared, so they evolve into shared words. In essence, together, these describe a Freirean pedagogy. This chapter critically examines my attempts to walk Freire's talk, to cast aside selected academic formalities and the more common university pedagogical banking practices, and to teach in a non-oppressive, empowering and more inclusive way.

The course

I teach a range of courses at University, from undergraduate through to Doctoral programmes. Sociology of Education underpins my teaching and my research, and I place importance on the critical understanding of policy and context and the value of social justice (see for example Carpenter, 2005) I am a registered teacher and I see little relevance in students of education reading theory and research if they are unable or unwilling to make significant links with their teaching practice and contexts.

Reflection and scholarly dialogue, informed by literature, have the potential to bring participants' words and worlds together.

> If it is in speaking their word that men [sic] transform the world by naming it, dialogue imposes itself as the way in which men achieve significance as men. … dialogue is the encounter in which the united reflection and action of the dialoguers are addressed to the world which is to be transformed and humanized, this dialogue cannot be reduced to the act of one person's 'depositing' ideas in another, nor can it become a simple exchange of ideas to be 'consumed' by the participants in the discussion. Nor yet is it hostile, polemical argument between men who are committed neither to the naming of the world, nor to the search for truth, but rather to the imposition of their own truth. Because dialogue is an encounter among men who name the world, it must not be a situation where some men name on behalf of others. It is an act of creation; it must not serve as a crafty instrument for the domination of one man by another. The domination implicit in dialogue is that of the world by those who enter into dialogue, it is the conquest of the world for the liberation of men' (Paulo Freire, 1972 p.61-62).

Freire's words and philosophies have inspired many people (see for example Fassett & Warren, 2007; hooks, 1994; Shor & Pari, 1999) and they permeated the course. Using Freire's frame, I as the lecturer do not have a right to 'deposit' ideas in others. Individual students also should not impose their individual truths; combined dialogue or acts of creation are the key to learning.

> ...one's desire to engage critical communication pedagogy is inherently Freirean: It is about fulfilling a call to do the work of social justice, it is about learning to listen and see in self-reflexive ways, it is about speaking carefully and humbly and recognizing that it is the job of the critical scholar to open rather than shut doors of possibility, it is about engendering hope in the world rather than dwelling in stubborn immobility (Fassett & Warren, 2007 p.108-109).

The traditional university model often achieves positive change in the world; undoubtedly academia opens doors. However, as Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) note, those open doors usually enable entry and consequent success for those whose habitus is white and middle/upper class. The LDE course included such people, and also attracted students from a wide range of ethnicities - Maori, Pakeha, Samoan, Tongan, Niuean, Fiji-Indian, and German. Ages ranged from the early twenties to mid sixties, 16 were female, and 4 male.

Each student brought a particular history, social construction, knowledge and range of experiences to our dialogical encounters. Those who as children learned English as a second language had experienced particular educational challenges. Such awareness was relevant for our learning. Students who had felt the sting of racism could make others more aware. The more mature class members had first-hand knowledge of different political regimes, having lived through and experienced the contrasting impacts of the Keynesian welfare state, neo-liberalism and the third way. Maori students, as indigenous New Zealanders, provided the wisdom and guidance to inform protocols and our class kaupapa. To cap this, there was much all students could learn through educational cross-sector (primary, secondary, tertiary, bureaucracy) dialogue.

The common thread was that students' professional lives were focused on those who the system usually fails, and like me they cared about that injustice. All course members had chosen what could perhaps be described as an 'alternative' course; there was therefore something unique about each person. Who the students were and what they brought to the table, and who I was and what I brought, were integral to what and how all would learn. We, the students and me, potentially harboured the most valuable knowledge; it was contained in our worlds.

<div align="center">

Nā tō rourou, nā taku rourou
ka ora ai te iwi
With your food basket and my food basket
The people will thrive

</div>

Setting the tone

> The educator who dares to teach has to stimulate learners to live in a critically conscious presence in the pedagogical and historical process (Macedo, 1995).

The allocated face-to-face contact time was short, a total of 10 x three hour sessions, with additional time set aside for one-to-one consultations. Establishing a warm, safe environment and getting to know each other as quickly as possible was crucial; much hinged on the tone of the first session. After a very short mihi (welcome), the first half hour of the class involved us mingling, meeting and greeting each other, generally with handshakes and short discussions. What could be described as a relaxed and informal opening of a university course in reality reflects widespread and customary practice for many Maori and Pacific Island communities. Following this we sat in a circle and took it in turn to introduce

ourselves, our places of work, study intentions and why LDE was chosen (by students) and developed (by me).

During my 'turn' I spoke of the Freirean process/dialogic discussion, and the importance which was to be placed on our shared knowledge. My key point was that, as experienced educators, the students brought considerable wisdom and expertise to the class. Whilst theory, visiting speakers, assessment tasks and my input were also integral, it was the juncture of all aspects that would result in worthwhile learning for each of us. All voices in the room mattered, without each of them our worlds would not be enriched as they could be. My own voice needed to be measured from the start; if I talked too much during the first session then a banking model could become the norm. In brief I started as I hoped to continue, quietly, but being 'upfront' about the Freirean process - and its significance - was of the essence.

Later in the first session, group discussions of a reading (Carpenter, 2008) gave students an introduction to some theory, permission to critique my writing, and a space to build peer relationships. Food was vital. It was provided in some form from week one and its provision said many things to the class: you are important, you must be tired after a day's teaching and this will provide sustenance, we can break bread and eat together as a community, and the university cares about you and is prepared to feed both your body and your mind.

For all classes it was necessary to be prepared in practical and pedagogical terms. This meant going to the classroom early and arranging circular seating, ensuring good ventilation and learning conditions, providing food and drinks *(Chocolates give energy! Provide food each time),* planning the sessions (reflection based methodologies, inclusive strategies, accepting silences as thinking time) and reflection on philosophical underpinnings (am I sure of where I stand in all of this? is my input appropriate? is everyone involved in ways which are comfortable for them?). The recording of my impressions after each class was the starting point for planning the subsequent class; reflection always preceded, underpinned and followed action.

'Knowledge' and readings

Unlike other postgraduate courses, I did not prepare a book of readings for LDE. This strategy does not indicate a dearth of relevant theory and research. It was because predicting particular directions the class would take seemed presumptuous. Shor (1992:35) addresses this issue and maintains that providing some readings is acceptable, provided all so called 'knowledge' is represented as someone's truth, but not necessarily as the truth. All readings, including those written by me, were therefore open to critique. Topical chapters or journal articles were made available through computer links, and they were updated on a weekly basis,

Classroom practices and dialogue

Freire observed that it is not easy to be a dialogical teacher - it entails a lot of work. In contrast he saw being a 'pure descriptivist' as easy (Macedo, 1995). Many University lecturers, including me at times, could be described as 'pure descriptivists'.

While many aspects of my pedagogy needed to change during the teaching of the course, becoming a dialogical teacher was the aspect which required my most conscious thought and reflection. I did not want a classroom where students just shared their feelings and perceptions, in a psychological manner, with little learning, intellectual engagement and empowerment. There had to be strong, pertinent and reflective links to theory and knowledge. Some people are quieter than others, some are more or less articulate, more or less widely read, for some English – the classroom language – was their first language, while for others it was their second or third. My challenge was to establish an atmosphere that did not suffocate or patronize students, and where dialogue characterized our epistemological relationship. Circle seating was a deliberate structural arrangement; we each had no choice but to be with each other.

Aside from challenging thinking with exigent but relevant material, and small but focused lectures, waiting and particular kinds of questioning were necessary. Primarily waiting, and waiting… and ensuring that the sound of my voice did not dominate the air space. A colleague suggested the slow count to five technique in which I used my fingers under the desk to slowly count to five before

speaking. At times I had to let the silence happen until someone else in the class chose to pick up the theme and address it. In Freire's words:

> Those who speak democratically need to silence themselves so that the voice of those who must be listened to is allowed to emerge (P Freire, Fraser, Macedo, McKinnon, & Stokes, 1997:306).

How did I do this? Sometimes avoiding eye contact worked; I discovered that it is possible to listen actively while gazing out the window. This technique meant that a speaker was more likely to make eye contact with peers, and in turn this meant that other students were more likely to contribute.

Shor writes of the 'patiently impatient' teacher:

> …the critical teacher has to balance restraint and intervention. She or he must lead the class energetically while patiently enabling students to develop their thoughts, agendas, and abilities for leading. The teacher has to offer questions, comments, structure, and academic knowledge while patiently listening to students' criticisms and initiatives as they co develop the syllabus. The patient critical teacher is also impatient to propel students' development so that they take more responsibility for their learning (Shor, 1992 p.25).

Rhetorical and open ended questions were useful, but I wanted these to come from the students as much as from me. A further challenge was to ensure that conversations did not filter through me. My goal was for a zigzag journey of conversation, radiating in all directions around and across the seated circle, rather than a student/lecturer didactic situation with observers. For me, the most successful sessions were when I said least, emotions ran high, and passions were tempered with world and word based reality, immersed in objectivity. How was this achieved? Primarily by my silence, students' comfort levels within the class, allowing space for the process to happen, and believing that positive outcomes would justify the means.

Problem posing had huge potential in our classroom. Shor advocates this form of dialogue:

> ...problem-posing focuses on power relations in the classroom, in the institution, in the formation of standard cannons of knowledge, and in society at large. It considers the social and cultural context of education, asking how student subjectivity and economic conditions affect the learning process. Student culture as well as inequality and democracy are central issues to problem-posing educators (Shor, 1992 p.31).

The third class

The following paragraphs describe our third class, which had the theme "Capital – families, communities and schooling". Outside of class, students had read and critically discussed a range of readings. While I could have commenced the session with a lecture (in a banking manner) on various forms of capital and their effects on low decile schools, or with problem-posing as indicated above, I knew from my reflections that my challenge was to ensure that "*ample time (was) given to their processes*". In particular I was unsure about the quieter students, or in Shor's (1992) words, the 'silent ones'. Were they engaged? Or were they struggling in the dialogic encounter? Were they linking their worlds with the words?

The class therefore commenced with student interactions, and without my participation as an 'expert'. In three groups (each based on one pre-read article/chapter) students shared their understandings of the readings, asked each other questions, and made links to their practice – the 'so what?' question. Following this, in the second stage, students moved into self selected groups of three (on the basis of each reading) and, in turns, each shared her/his understandings, questions and perceived relevance of a reading, plus led a tripartite discussion. The first stage of the exercise scaffolded students into the second stage; after the first group discussion, each had greater expertise regarding their particular reading and its links to practice.

The final stage was for the class to move back into a circle, and for us together to revisit the 'so what' question. My planned lecture was interspersed during this time, as and when appropriate; some material was hastily omitted while other theory/research/understandings/writers were added. What

was exciting for me during the dialogue was a Tongan student articulating links between theory and the historical and contemporary situation in Tonga. She used her insider knowledge of Tonga and its politics as an example of agency and power amongst class based groups. *Riveting stuff ... an emphasis on there being no one answer, that politics is central to any response and therefore can't be ignored.*

Our time ran out that evening well before we had completed my planned schedule. But that didn't matter. I seemingly had done and said very little, yet I was fully engaged the whole evening, and very tired at the conclusion. We all learned and all were challenged.

> <u>They</u> shared <u>their</u> knowledge.

> *Last night was kind of loose and joyful. At appropriate times students talked about their readings and their practice, and that of others.*

> *Delpit's messages resonated with Samoan students in particular. White privileges and attitudes were discussed.*

Visiting speakers

Visiting speakers were invited to share their worlds and enrich ours, and they all achieved this to some extent. A school principal, an education researcher, and a left wing education activist articulated their passions, politics and energy; all were grounded in the real world, had read widely, and appeared to relish their passionate engagement and dialogue with students.

In contrast, invited government officials had a less salubrious effect. They declined to be part of a panel, then 'hid behind' a power point presentation - one student later described their actions as 'death by power point'. Despite the most pointed of questions, the officials refused to address any issue which deviated from their planned address or was even slightly controversial. The bureaucrats' refusal to engage in dialogue meant that, in a practical sense, we learned little that we didn't already know or could glean from a website. Their actions did, however, teach us a great deal about a particular form of decidedly uncritical pedagogy, education politics and power, and the role of state officials and the state apparatus.

Assessment with its tensions

In his conversation with Macedo, Freire noted that teachers grade and they have "certain control over the curriculum … to deny these facts is to be disingenuous" (Macedo, 1995:377). Undoubtedly assessment and its consequent tensions represent contradictions for many users of Freirean pedagogy.

Grade point averages (GPAs) are tools of trade for universities. On the basis of GPAs students gain entry to further and higher level courses. Despite my feelings regarding the competitive nature of such systems, and my own social justice focus, it is obligatory to assess and rank the students. Any concerns I had regarding GPAs needed to be represented in a different university forum, not in this class.

That said, there is flexibility within the system for autonomous decision making. The course had three major assessment tasks. The first spanned the initial seven weeks, and each of three consecutive sub-tasks involved reading two articles, comparing them with each other, and making links to practice. My feedback on each sub-task was detailed, pedantic and explicit because I was intent on teaching students the 'game' (Delpit, 1997) of post graduate study. Readings were carefully chosen and 'paired', and in a sense they became de facto core readings. All were critiqued in some way during class, using various techniques such as the jigsaw cooperative learning process. While students were encouraged to meet outside class and/or use electronic media to continue their discussions, the assessment emphasised submissions were the work of individuals. Students needed to understand plagiarism risks. For the first time in my post graduate teaching no one in the class submitted a sub-task late, or requested an extension.

The second task was a group activity. Self chosen groups selected a film or documentary which portrayed, in some way, education in a low SES community. Groups then presented a theory based critique which included class discussion. This task differed from Task One in that students established

assessment criteria, and the marks awarded (out of a possible 15%, all group members to receive the same mark) were based on peer review. Time was set aside for the class to make decisions regarding assessment criteria. Such power and autonomy was obviously a foreign experience for most of the students and some appeared confused and embarrassed. Because of this, at one stage I left the room to enable more open discussion. It appeared that one student argued a strong case for all to receive 15% provided everyone contributed (*I don't mind if the 15 argument succeeds, it's their decision to make. I just hope that learning happens!*). Ultimately this was the class decision, with criteria developed by a volunteer. While I had some misgivings about the decision, it did demonstrate solidarity, class efficacy and courage. Despite some variance in the content and quality of the group presentations the class resolution was respected and all received an A grade (15%).

The third task (40%) required students to choose an aspect of their own schooling or teaching, or a political issue related to New Zealand's low decile schools, and appropriately theorise it. Topics included: a low decile school teacher revisiting the philosophy he wrote at the beginning of his teaching career; a Maori teacher reflecting on self-efficacy she and others gained from their schooling in a low decile intermediate school; and a Samoan secondary teacher examining injustices he perceived regarding Pasifika students and streaming practices in his secondary school. Theory enabled a deeper understanding of writers' potential agency.

Reflections and Conclusion

LDE was evaluated by students in 2008 and, according to university criteria, it was a successful course. Numbers interested in the course for 2009 provide an indication of the course's popularity; I decided to 'cap' the numbers at 25 so that Freirean processes have a better chance of working. This situation is reminiscent of one that bell hooks (1994) describes. As she became more and more committed to "liberatory pedagogical practices' her classes became too large. She warns that "overcrowded classes are like overcrowded buildings – the structure can collapse" (p.160). bell hooks also suggests that colleagues can be suspicious of popular teachers, and that "there is a tendency to undermine the professorial commitment of engaged pedagogues by suggesting that what we do is not as rigorously academic as it should be" (hooks, 1994 p.204).

While LDE contextual issues were central to class discussions, assessment tasks, and curriculum, I am not convinced that we engaged fully enough in actual problem solving as part of our classroom learning. This is an aspect I will change in the future; preliminary thoughts are to centre each classroom session on a particular problem, plus make problem solving central to group assessment tasks. I acknowledge that problem solving does not just happen when I, the lecturer, am present and have set the scene. It is possible that my personal insecurities masked what may well have ensued in groups, at home, in schools, and generally in students' professional lives. I live in hope, but with reservations - a state of reserved hope?

As a critical educator it is essential that I reflect on **all** that the course entailed, so that my pedagogy improves in future classes. I have already indicated a need for a stronger focus on problem solving. Secondly, while Freire's ideas underpinned the course I feel that his words and works were not given the credence they deserved – rather than share others' thoughts on Freire, in the future I intend to share more of Freire's words. In general there needs to be a stronger incorporation of theory (words) into classroom dialogue. Thirdly, our visiting speakers need to be better screened. It is unlikely I will again invite state representatives to talk with the class, our time is too precious to risk another death by power point or a 'this is the power we have over you' situation. The hegemony of the state already pervades the lived experiences of teachers; any LDE guest speakers need to bring alternative, radical or transformative perspectives.

How innovative is LDE? And what did it achieve? If I compare my pedagogy with best practice in New Zealand's primary or secondary schools, mine is far from unique. However the 'higher' one goes in the education system the more likely it is that a banking model predominates. This chapter suggests that encompassing words and worlds, and a particular way of working where the lecturer is not central and on stage, is meaningful, relevant and challenging at the university post graduate level. Two students, so far, have signalled an interest in course related thesis studies. Much needed research is therefore pending. At the end of the course my interactions with some class members continued and many still interact with each other. My hope is that, as a result of our shared dialogue, aspects of the low SES school context changed for the better, and continue to improve.

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Bridging the Gap: An Alternative Solution to an Alternative Framework

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Abstract

This paper discusses the alternative frameworks of elementary school students from four ethnic groups. Their conceptions indicate a need to make students aware that the way they think is quite different from the framework used by scientists. The teachers in this study developed instructional strategies to assist students in building the appropriate conceptual links between what they already know and what they ought to know. The effectiveness of their instructional strategies is the focus of this study.

Introduction

When a student is faced with a new encounter he/she constructs the meaning of it by connecting the new information received with prior knowledge. When the existing idea that is called upon to explain the new encounter proves its usefulness, the linked idea is confirmed.

It may be that there are some perceived similarities between the new experience and a prior one. In this case, an incomplete fit may occur because there are only some similarities that exist between the current and prior experiences. The linked idea will have a complete fit only if it is slightly modified. Otherwise, prior knowledge is retained and the new knowledge is not accommodated.

However, in the construction of a modified knowledge a misunderstanding or a misconception might take place. A good example is the students' construction of meaning of the word energy. Young students always associate energy with strength (Ferrer, 2008). When asked about the food that gives them the most energy, rice was a consistent response. To them eating rice would make them *stronger* compared with eating sweets or drinking high-energy drinks with high percentage of sugar.

When the new encounter does not fit at all with any prior learning experience, the information from the new encounter is abandoned. There are, however, possibilities that the knowledge gained from the new encounter may be accommodated falsely. If the student perceives that the information before him/her is important for examination purposes, then this information is accommodated in the short-term memory. After the need for it is satisfied, it is removed from memory as if that information is never encountered at all.

Students' Conceptions: The Driving Force for Teaching

The afore-mentioned discussions suggest that students' conceptions can override the knowledge being presented in class, distort new information, or co-exist with new information. These conceptions need to be addressed in instruction so that students will understand the lesson presented to them. Before any attempt to address it, the teacher should assess first the kind of conceptions students bring to class.

In this study, the students' conceptions of food were assessed using the *interview-about-instances*. This type of interview is a conversation between the interviewer and a student about situations represented in diagrams or pictures to probe the student's construction of meanings. In this interview the student is presented with a specific set of examples and non examples of the concept. The student is asked to identify which cases are examples of the concept and then to explain that decision (Southerland, Smith and Cummins, 2005),

Each teacher candidate from the following ethnic groups – Chamorro/Filipino (N=12), Pohnpeian (N=15) and Yapese (N= 9) was tasked to interview five elementary school students following the *interview-about-instances* procedure discussed in class.

The results of the *interview-about-instances* are shown in the summary table below.

Table 1: Students' Conceptions of Food by Ethnicity

Categories of Responses	Frequency of Responses by Ethnicity			
	Chamorro	Filipino	Phonpeian	Yapese
	N=60	N=40	N=75	N=45
1. Solids eaten at mealtime are food (rice, chicken, fish, meat)	87%	88%	93%	89%
2. Liquids are not food (juice, milk, choco drink, lemonade, coconut water, soup)	92%	95%	95%	93%
3. Snacks are not food (e.g. cake, sandwich, nuts, ice cream, chips)	80%	75%	93%	93%
4. Those grown at home are food (fruits and root crops).	25%	13%	96%	95%
5. Fruits are not food				
6. Sweets are food.	67%	75%	13%	16%
7. Cooked things are food.	17%	20%	91%	95%
	37%	63%	80%	84%

The results of the interview revealed partial understanding and misunderstanding of the concept of food. Most of the misunderstandings came from the lower elementary students. More than 90% of the respondents believed that liquids are not food. The students' responses show a dichotomy between foods and drinks. The two separate labels are posted everywhere in restaurants and supermarkets and they are used to interpret drinks as not foods.

The same holds true with another label - snacks. They are not considered food because they are not eaten at meal times. More than 75% of the respondents held this conception. Food was regarded as solids eaten at meal times (87% - 93%) and did not include drinks or snacks eaten between meals.

Mixed responses were noted about fruits. For Chamorros and Filipinos (67% and 75% respectively), fruits were not regarded as food. They were considered as a separate category just like in supermarkets where 'fruit section' and 'food section' are found. However, Yapese and Pohnpeian respondents asserted that fruits are food because they grow them, cook some of them (e.g banana, papaya, bread fruit) and are served during meal times. To them all root crops are also food because they are always cooked and served at meal times. On the contrary, the Filipino respondents alleged that they are not food because they do not eat them. Only 25% of the Chamorros held on to the belief that they are food because they grow them at home and they eat them,

An interesting revelation about ice cream came from the Yapese respondents. To them ice cream is not food; it is a drink. They wait for it to melt and they drink it. Also, they do not have the term for 'eat the ice cream' but they have a term for 'drink the ice cream' in their language. Parents use the 'drink the ice cream' term with their children.

Both Yapese and Pohnpeian respondents considered sweets as food (91% and 93% respectively). Chamorros and Filipinos believed otherwise. Sweets give them tooth decay and diabetes, and they make them hyper. The negative connotation associated with sugar is very common among younger students.

From the afore-mentioned discussion of results, the students' framework clearly shows that it is part of the everyday culture and cannot be eliminated. It is, therefore, important to teach students the difference between the two ways of looking at food and where it is appropriate to use the science framework. Furthermore, the students' alternative conceptions of food need to be addressed by bridging the gap between what students know and what they ought to know.

Bridging the Gap

From a constructivist perspective, science teachers have to acknowledge the fact that children's minds are full of ideas. Some of these ideas are misconceptions. Others show limited understanding of concepts. Misconceptions are resistant to change. Since they are tenaciously held in mind, they cannot be eliminated easily. What is needed is teaching for conceptual change. It requires a constructivist approach in which learners take an active role in 'testing out' their ideas, reorganizing their knowledge, and proving the correct concepts to themselves (Ferrer, 2008).

Following were the various techniques used by the teacher candidates in this study to help students change their conceptual framework. There were 20 teacher candidates from Guam (comprising Chamorros and Filipinos), 9 from Yap and 17 from Pohnpei who developed these techniques.

Use of the Food Pyramid (Technique 1 by the Guam Teacher Candidates)

The food pyramid showed examples of food including those that were not considered food by the students, such as milk, juice, ice cream, cake, candies, carrot, lemon, banana, papaya. bread fruit, and yam.

The students in groups discussed the foods in each food group and the nutrients derived from them. They were asked to challenge each other's ideas and be explicit about their meanings. They were required to negotiate conflicts in their beliefs and then synthesize their knowledge that they would report to the whole class.

After each group presentation the students were given a handout on food nutrients for each food group to reinforce their newly acquired knowledge. They were also given food samples in picture cards. They were asked to group them according to the categories in the food pyramid.

Study of Food Labels (Technique 2 by the Pohnpeian Teacher Candidates)

The students were shown food labels for drinks – milk, chocolate, fruit juice. They analyzed the nutrients mentioned in the labels. Then they classified the drinks according to food groups in their textbook. In this way the students were able to see that drinks are also food.

Finally, the students were asked to define what food is following a series of leading questions. Their definition was substantiated by what food does to the body. Then they were shown the pictures of foods that they did not consider as food during the interview. They were asked questions to challenge their initial beliefs about those foods. The idea was to make the students see the faults in their misconceptions and change them on their own.

As reinforcement, the students were asked to classify those foods in question according to food groups and discuss the nutrients they give the body.

Cooperative Learning Stations (Technique 3 by the Yapese Teacher Candidates)

Students were divided into three groups according to the food groups they follow in their curriculum – energy-giving foods, protective foods, and body-building foods. Handouts for these food groups with accompanying pictures of food were placed in the three stations. The students went from one station to another and discussed the contents of the handouts.

Then they were given worksheets that required them to classify foods according to food groups. Those that they identified as non-foods in the survey were included in the worksheet. They were asked to discuss their answers with their group mates.

Impact on Student Learning

Teaching for conceptual change involved the following steps that the teacher candidates carried out.

1. Uncovering students' pre-conceptions. The students were given a checklist that required them to identify food and non-food.

2. Using various techniques to assist students modify or change their conceptual framework. The students were actively engaged in cooperative learning, compare and contrast activities (students' ideas presented against those in the food pyramid, food labels, handouts), and classification tasks.

3. Assessing student outcomes. The students were given the same checklist and a test on classifying foods according to food groups. The results of these assessments are shown in the graphs that follow.

Figure 1: Understanding of Food (Identification Task)
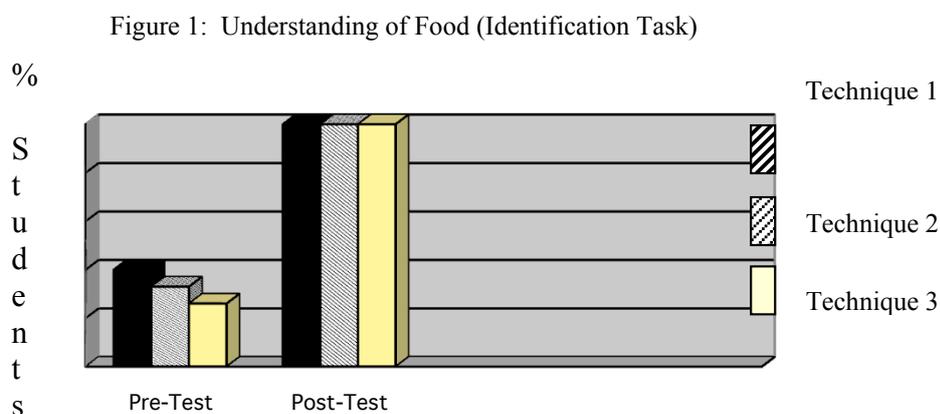
The pre-test was a simple *identification* of food using a checklist. The pre-test results show that only 40% of the student participants on Guam composed of grades 3, 4 and 5 (N_{total} = 30) had acceptable understanding of food. Thirty-five percent (33%) of the Pohnpeian student participants (multi-grade with N = 18) displayed adequate conceptions of food. The Yapese student participants (multi-grade with N = 15) had the most cases of misconceptions. They only had 26 % demonstrating satisfactory performance in the food identification task.

The post-test consisted of two tasks – *identification* of foods and *classification* of foods into food groups. The post-test results reveal 100% understanding of what food is by identifying correctly foods and non-foods. Only a handful of them (2 or 7% of the Guam student participants; 1 or 6% of the Pohnpeian participants; and 2 or 13% of the Yapese participants) were not able to meet the standard for the *classification* task. (Refer to Post-Test 1 in Figure 2).   Since classification is a higher order thinking skill, it was difficult for some students to carry out this task without the pre-requisite skills to classifying.

To address the classification difficulty of the students an application exercise was developed. It was the creation of a menu for lunch representing a balanced diet. This exercise which was suggested to be carried out through a cooperative learning activity would enable the students to discuss in detail the food nutrients present in the foods they want included in the menu. This application exercise which was considered a reinforcement activity was tried out with the participants the following day. The test results yielded 100% full understanding of foods and the nutrients they provide the body.

According to Harlow (2009), students learn new information in two ways; they can either assimilate the new information, when the learning fits within current knowledge structures, or accommodate the new information. When the existing information must change to accommodate the new, the process of knowledge reconstruction or modification can take longer.   As in the afore-mentioned scenarios, reinforcement – an added stage - was needed.

The next graph shows the performance of the students in this added stage of lesson development. (Refer to Post-Test 2 in Figure 2).   The reinforcement strategy proved effective at improving the performance of the students in the classification task.
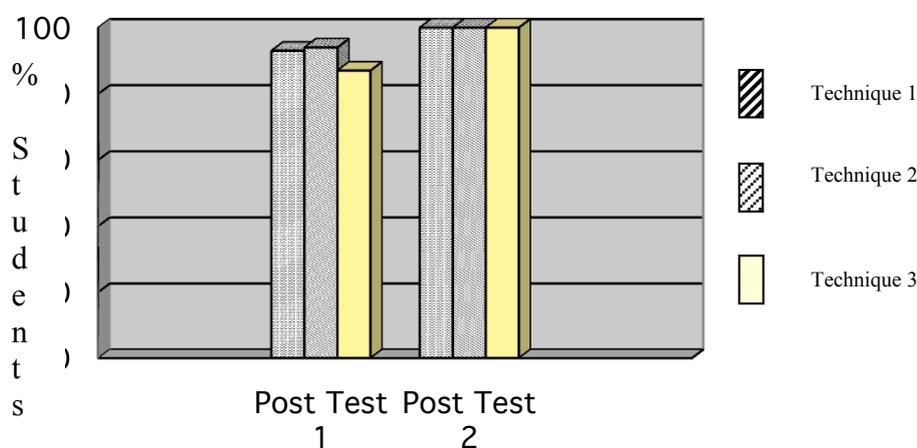
Figure 2: Classification Task

Concluding Statements

The findings of this study show that students from different cultures share many similar ideas about food. They have deeply imbedded misconceptions that are rooted in their daily experiences. Until these misconceptions are corrected, they will effectively disable the students from moving on to scientifically accepted models (Harlow, 2009)

There are instructional strategies which teachers can utilize to encourage conceptual change. Bransford (2000) suggests a bridging strategy by guiding students with leading questions. The reasoning behind these questions is to have the students come to their own conclusions about their misconceptions. If the students are able to see the faults in their misconceptions and change them on their own, then these new connections will be stronger.

Equally important in the learning process is the use of continuous feedback with students. Continuous feedback helps students know where they are in their learning and where they are going (Brophy, 2004). Feedback from both teacher and students are needed. It is specially beneficial in science learning because of the natural process of science through inquiry. Science discourse gives way to challenging misconceptions because comparing ideas can shed light on personal misunderstandings (Harlow, 2009).

If students are to advance their knowledge of the world around them, they have to develop ideas that are more acceptable from the scientific point of view. Ferrer (2008) urges teachers to assist students in building the appropriate conceptual links between what they already know and what they ought to know to ensure that no misunderstanding could set in during the process of knowledge construction. Teachers have to provide a wider range of experiences that challenge students' conceptions that are contrary to scientific ideas. Some examples of these experiences include further investigation that would test the workability of the students' ideas in a different but related contexts, scaffolding new ideas provided to students through the use of technology, and organizing whole-class discussions so that different ideas about the same concept can be brought together and discussed.

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A review of early literacy practices at home

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Abstract

In this article, we review previous research on parental literacy practices at home. Based on the degree of parental involvement in literacy activities with the child, existing studies are grouped into and reviewed according to three categories: those on parental modeling, those on material provision by parents, and those on direct engagement between parent and child. Based on the review, we draw implications for early literacy development at home and school in Asian contexts.

1. Importance of Examining Parental Literacy Practices

In the field of educational research, the last three decades have witnessed an emergence of theoretical and empirical research into the origins of literacy in the preschool years (Dickinson & McCabe, 2001). Much of literacy acquisition is currently believed to occur at an early age, long before formal instruction in reading and writing begins at school entry and long before children can exhibit any manifest reading and writing skills (Bus & van IJzendoorn, 1995; Dickinson & DeTemple, 1998; Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Mason & Allen, 1986; Snow et al., 1991).

Although effective formal reading instruction in school can enhance success in literacy development for children, home serves as a setting in which language and literacy are typically first encountered (Purcell-Gates, 1996; Weigel, Martin, & Bennett, 2005). From an emergent literacy perspective, a literacy-rich home environment contributes crucially to the development of emergent literacy in preschoolers and greatly increases their subsequent chances of success at school (Bus, van IJzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 1995; Jordan, Snow, & Porche, 2000; Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994; Share, Jorm, Maclean, & Matthews, 1984). Early instruction and active engagement with parents in literacy related activities at home are seen as most important in preparing children for instruction in reading and writing at school (Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Li, 2002), so much so that a large portion of the difference between children in school achievement at the end of the primary years is believed to be already determined by differences in what they have experienced before school entry (Wells, 1987).

Though early research on literacy environment in homes primarily focused on shared book reading activities (e.g., Bus, van IJzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 1995; Scaborough, Dobrich, & Hager, 1991), more recent work has approached the home environment as multifaceted (e.g., Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Leseman & de Jong, 1998). It is found that the social-economic status (i.e., parents' educational level, parents' occupation, and family income) of the family (Baker, Mackler, Sonnenschein, & Serpell, 2001; Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Li, 2006; Laosa, 1978; Ninio, 1980; Snow et al., 1991; Weigel, Martin, & Bennett, 2005; Wong, 1998), the active interaction between parents and children (e.g., shared reading, family library visits, family talk) at home (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; de Jong & Leseman, 2001; Scarborough, Dobrich, & Hager, 1991; Weigel, Martin, & Bennett, 2005; Wong, 1998), and parent-child relationship embedded in family activities (Baker, Mackler, Sonnenschein, & Serpell, 2001; Bus & van IJzendoorn, 1988, 1995, 2001; de Jong & Leseman, 2001; Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Snow et al., 1991) are all related to children's early literacy development and subsequent school success.

Empirical evidence suggests that although parental demographics are correlated with children's development, the correlations often disappear after controlling for other facets of the home literacy environment (Leseman & de Jong, 1998; Hoff, 2006). Furthermore, the social demographic characteristics of the family are relatively static. In addition, the emotional bound between parents and children are often embedded in parent-child interaction. We are thus more interested in the more active facet of the home literacy environment— parental literacy activities. These parental practices are most

subject to external influence such as family literacy programs and instructional efforts from school teachers.

2. Existing Research on Parental Literacy Practices

Parental literacy activities is an umbrella term covering what parents do at home to engage their children in literacy-related activities. These activities provide the vast majority of opportunities for pre-school children to develop their understanding of, and acquire knowledge of, literacy. In terms of the degree of parental conscious involvement in literacy activities with the child, parental literacy activities can be further divided into three categories: those on parental modeling, those on material provision by parents, and those on direct engagement between parent and child. In the rest of this paper, we will organize our review of previous research according to these three categories.

Parental modeling is defined as parental activities that *expose* children to models of literacy or literacy-related usage (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002), for example, parents reading newspapers in the presence of the child or taking the child to the library. During these activities, parents' literacy-related behaviors as *models* may raise the child's interest in literacy and as a result the child is more apt to be engaged in literacy activities (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Hudson, & Lawson, 1996).

Material provision refers to the provision by parents of literacy or literacy-related materials and equipment in homes. The materials can be of a wide variety, ranging from print (such as children's books or other reading materials, maps on the wall or other environment print) to toys (e.g., construction materials) and media (e.g., radios, computers) available at home for children's use. Parents do not merely provide materials for their child. They may also set rules concerning some literacy resources, for instance, which TV programs to watch or avoid.

Direct engagement is a term borrowed from Weiger, Martin, and Brennett (2005), referring to parents' efforts that *directly* engage a child in literacy and language activities designed to foster literacy or language development (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Weigel, Martin, & Brennett, 2005). Activities like parent-child joint book reading and parents' direct teaching during these activities belong to this sub-category. This sub-category emphasizes the intentionality of the parents and the personal experiencing of the child.

2.1. Research on parental modeling

Studies to be reviewed in this section target mainly home activities exposing children to literacy, namely parental reading habits and family outings.

2.1.1 Parental reading habits

Burgess, Hecht, and Lonigan (2002) found statistically insignificant correlations between parental modeling of literacy activities (termed Passive HLE [home literacy environment] in the study and based on parents' self-report) and two outcome measures (letter knowledge and word decoding ability) of emergent literacy, when children's earlier language and literacy abilities were controlled for.

Another study on 56 children from middle-class American families by Scarborough, Dobrich, and Hager (1991) that took children's reading achievement in Grade 2 as outcome measure also produced little evidence that differences in children's literacy outcomes were related to their parents' reading habits, defined as self-reported frequency of adult reading.

Although Weigel, Martin, and Bennett (2005) found in their study of 85 three- to four-year-old preschoolers that correlations between parental literacy habits and children's print knowledge as well as receptive language were all positive and statistically significant), they did not partial out the effects of other developmental predictors such as previous language development of the children. If multiple regression analysis had been conducted, the statistically significant relationships could have disappeared.

In summary, there seems to be little solid evidence that parents' reading habits have an effect on their children's language and literacy achievement. As Burgess, Hecht, and Lonigan (2002) have pointed out, compared with parental modeling activities, the active elements of the home literacy environment

(e.g., parent-child shared book reading) are more likely to be significant predictors of children's language and literacy learning when the effects of previous development of the child are controlled for. Put in another way, home literacy activities that directly engage children may have a much greater impact upon children's acquisition of language and literacy skills than merely exposing children to literacy does. This view is supported by Levy, Gong, Hessels, Evans, and Jared (2006). An alternative explanation for the lack of correlations could be that the role of parental reading habits in children's literacy development is an indirect one, as the results of Leseman and van Tuijl's (2006) study seem to suggest. Clearly, no definite conclusion can be made in this regard at the moment.

2.1.2. Family outing activities

As in the case with studies of parents' reading habits, research into the effects of family outings has also suggested an indirect role of modeling. Family outing activities expose children to external sources of literacy. Library visits are the most typical and the most literacy-related outings for many families. With a sample of 61 pre-kindergarten children from low and middle income families in Maryland, Baker, Mackler, Sonnenschein, and Serpell (2001) found no direct effects of the frequency of library visits on children's reading achievement. However, it could indirectly influence their literacy learning because of its relation to the affective climate at home.

In Sénéchal and his associates' (1998) study with a sample of 110 kindergarteners and 41 primary one students from English-speaking families in Canada, library visits were included in the category of storybook exposure and the overall category of storybook exposure was found to be related to children's development of language skills.

Griswold (1986) examined a much wider range of family outing activities (i.e., beach outings, picnics, visits of public library, museum trips, Disneyland and Marineland activities) of a large sample of fourth-grade children (N=1,715) from Black, Hispanic and White families in urban Los Angeles. Self-reported participation in those activities was compared across the three racial groups and used to predict reading and math achievement. The following results were obtained: (a) achievement was greater for participants of family outing activities than for non-participants; (b) visiting a public library was the best predictor of achievement regardless of race; and (c) a good predictor of achievement was frequency of picnics for Hispanics and visiting Disneyland for Whites, but there was no unique predictor of achievement for Blacks.

Like Griswold (1986), Snow et al. (1991) also examined the relationships of various family outing activities to children's language and literacy learning and development. Trips to museums, parks and libraries were collected in self-report. Frequency of family outings explained the largest portion of variance on word production (.22), reading comprehension (.24), vocabulary (.35) and word recognition (.24).

To sum up, most studies support a positive correlation between family outing activities and children's literacy development. However, the correlational nature of the studies reviewed makes it inappropriate to infer that encouraging children to participate in family outings will improve their literacy or academic achievement. It may very well be that family outings such as library visits result from children's good literacy development rather than constitute a causal variable for such development. A rival hypothesis is that frequent family activities of this type tend to result in greater parental involvement in school, which is a true causal variable for achievement. Furthermore, as Griswold (1986) has shown, the types of outing activities as well as their effects vary between families of different cultures, and library visits may be more common and beneficial for certain cultural groups but not for others. In any case, it is too hasty to claim a causal relationship based on the available evidence. For the same reason, Griswold (1986) called for follow-up studies to include verification of the relationships reported by attending to the quality of family outing activities.

2.2 Research on material provision

Print (e.g., children's storybooks, maps, tapes and computer programs), together with play materials (e.g., toys), is the medium through which children learn to master the surroundings (D. Taylor, 1983, cited in Li, 2002). As is shown in the studies to be reviewed below, a home literacy environment that is rich in literacy-related materials can facilitate children's positive attitude towards reading and writing. Parents are material providers, and at the same time they also set rules on access to these materials. In

this section, we will first review studies on the mere act of material provision and then those on the behavior of setting rules on access to the materials.

2.2.1. Material provision

Notably, the studies to be reviewed on parents' providing of literacy-related materials all employed inventories designed to assess the quality of home literacy environment in stimulating literacy development in children. An early study by Ware and Garber (1972) utilized the Home Environment Review (HER) to examine the relationships between measures of home literacy environment and a measure of school success. Among the nine dimensions of HER, the variable "materials in the home" concerning availability of materials in the home for children to learn was the most important predictor of future school success for the 4-year-old sample.

Three other studies employed a more widely used environmental measure—the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) inventory. With four versions targeting at families with children of different age ranges, HOME can cater for the needs of investigating samples of a wide range of ages. The definition of "materials" in HOME is also broader than that in HER: Materials at home in HER refer only to learning materials, while the concept of materials in HOME is extended to include play materials like toys and games.

Bradley and Caldwell (1981) investigated the validity of the preschool (or early childhood) version of HOME on a group of 60 Black children. Results showed a moderate correlation between preschool HOME scores and primary school achievement. The subscale showing the highest correlation with the composite achievement test score for both boys and girls was "toys, games and reading materials" at home. In a later investigation, Bradley and Caldwell (1984) investigated the home literacy environment on a younger sample with an infant version of HOME. Of all the HOME subscales gained when children were 12 and 24 months old, it was again the subscale of "play materials" that had the strongest correlation with first-grade achievement. The same result was also obtained by Elardo, Bradley, and Caldwell (1977) with a sample of 74 Black and White children. Thus, it seems that availability of developmentally stimulating materials and experiences is associated with children's good performance in achievement test.

With the development of information technology, computers, now widely available in families, provide additional access to literacy, although activities like computer games and Internet surfing are not literacy-related activities in the same sense as reading books is. The need to define literacy more widely by incorporating multi-modal ways of meaning making has been recognized in that the term *techno-literacy* is used to refer to those literacy practices and events which are mediated by new technologies (Lankshear et al., 1997; Marsh, 2004).

Marsh's (2004) study of 44 "toddler netizens" in England found through questionnaire and interview data that these children's multi-media literacy world was mainly composed of TV, computer games and mobile phones. Many children in this study were scaffolded carefully by parents and siblings, and they were developing skills to navigate the narratives in their multi-media literacy world in a meaningful way and developing the competences needed to become successful players. In addition, the texts in computer games that were connected with the wider popular culture interested the children and motivated them to read more widely in daily life.

Bakar's (2007) half-year-long ethnographic study identified an influence of popular culture through computer games at home in the literacy life of two young Malay kindergarteners in multilingual Singapore. Popular culture at home provided children with access to literacy texts and it was one of the ways that the families supported their children's literacy acquisition. When playing computer games, the children not only gained some conceptual knowledge of geography but also acquired appropriate forms of oral expressions. Another case study by Morgan (2005) on three three-year-old children also revealed the role of the computer in helping the children with reading and knowledge of letters.

Based on the findings from the above studies, it seems that provision of appropriate literacy-related materials for preschool children can contribute to their future success at school.

2.2.2. Rule setting

Parents do not merely provide materials for their children. They also set rules regarding some literacy-related resources, for instance, TV programs and computer games. Unlike children's books that are universally assumed to play a positive role in children's literacy development, media like TV, videos and computers can affect children's development either negatively or positively, depending on how children are engaged with them. Important factors in children's engagement with media are: the amount of time and control, and the amount of social interaction involved (GreenField, 1984). Too much time spent on watching TV may reflect children's lack of access to, or deprive them of access to, more interesting activities.

Early studies on family rules concerned access to TV programs only. Appropriate rules on TV watching have been found to have positive effects on children's word production (Snow et al., 1991) as well as children's knowledge of letters and words (Mason, 1980).

In a more recent investigation, Li (2002) expanded the notion of rules on TV viewing to family regulations on multi-media, including TV, videos and computers. Her ethnographic methodology enabled her to depict in fine detail the lives of four Chinese immigrant families in which media were handled differently and served different functions. For those immigrant families in which parents set rules on media and engaged their children in activities around the media, the media became a window on to the mainstream culture and literacy practices as well as a means of entertainment, and played the important role of bridging the Chinese immigrant families with Western (in this case Canadian) society. For those families in which parents let children free on TV watching and made no attempts to interact with children in media-mediated activities, the media were an instrument of resistance against and escapism from the mainstream culture. At the same time, this kind of media use occupied much of the children's leisure time and deprived them of opportunities to come into contact with mainstream literacy activities.

The studies reviewed in this section suggest that providing literacy-related materials and setting appropriate rules on access to these resources are facilitative of children's language and literacy development as well as school success. Nevertheless, the correlational nature of the reviewed studies renders it impossible and inappropriate to make any firm causal claim about the relationship between material prevision/rule setting and literacy learning. This limitation further renders it desirable to conduct longitudinal studies that are designed to uncover a cause-and-effect relationship.

2. 3. Research on direct engagement

Studies reviewed in this section cover such activities as joint book reading and direct teaching that directly engage children in literacy activities. These are probably the most easily recognized literacy activities and have attracted the most attention from researchers.

2.3.1 Shared book reading

Although ethnographic and diary studies have shown that parents engage their preschool children with literacy in a multitude of ways and through various household activities (e.g., Heath, 1983; Snow & Ninio, 1986), parental-child bookreading has been the primary focus of most empirical studies (Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994). As Bus et al. (1995) have asserted, book reading is not a minor part of a literate environment at home but rather a central condition for developing knowledge necessary for eventual success in reading acquisition. Even in families with few other incentives to become literate, the frequency of book reading makes a difference.

Frequency of shared reading is a most studied facet of home literacy experiences, and this kind of information is collected by different means: parental reports, checklists, and naturalistic observation. The first two are the basis for estimating the amount or frequency of shared book reading interactions at home, and the third one is more often conducted in studies that focus on the qualitative features of parent-child book reading. Due to the potential social desirability biases in parental report, checklist measures have been favored by some researchers (e.g., Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002 Sénéchal et al., 1996). These checklists are usually completed by parents to indicate, in a list of names containing foils, titles and authors of children's books they have at home for their children. Sénéchal et al.'s (1996) investigation into the reliability of self-report and checklist methods in estimating book reading

frequencies suggested that checklists as indirect measures of storybook exposure had criterion validity because they predicted children's language development better than did the traditional self-report measures of storybook reading.

With the different nature of individual studies in mind, we review quantitative studies on the frequency of book reading first and then qualitative ones on the qualitative features of joint book reading interactions.

Working with different ethnic groups in Netherlands, Leseman and de Jong (1998) and Leseman and van Tuijl (2006) both found correlations between frequency of bedtime stories and children's literacy achievement. Similar results were obtained in research with middle-class English-speaking samples. Dickinson and McCabe's (2001) study revealed that after controlling for demographic factors such as income, parental education and family size, book reading had a significant effect on children's receptive vocabulary, early literacy, and phonological awareness. Scarborough, Dobrich, and Hager (1991) found that the frequency of book reading at home was related to children's receptive vocabulary. Long-term effects of book reading were also reported by Sénéchal, Thomas, and Monker's (1995) longitudinal study: Preschoolers' book reading experience with their parents was related to their scores on a reading achievement test in Grade 2.

The studies reviewed above all elicited parental self-reports to measure the quantity of shared bookreading. As was pointed out earlier, a self-report is likely to suffer from social desirability biases. It is thus worth exploring whether a more objective measure of shared bookreading such as a checklist would still replicate correlations between joint reading and literacy development. The study conducted by Sénéchal et al. (1996) was such an effort, and significant positive correlations were found between shared bookreading as measured by children's book-exposure checklists and children's vocabulary scores.

Sénéchal et al. (1998) gathered information from parents about children's storybook exposure by means of both parental questionnaire and checklists. They also compared the effects of storybook exposure with those of parent teaching. Regression analyses indicated that storybook reading predicted oral language only and that parent teaching predicted emergent literacy skills only. This finding was replicated in Sénéchal and LeFevre (2002). The latter found that storybook exposure explained a significant 9% of unique variance in children's receptive language, whereas parents' report of teaching explained a statistically significant 4% of unique variance in children's emergent literacy skills. These results are consistent with what Bus et al. (1995) had found in their meta-analysis of research on parent-preschooler reading frequency: Although related to outcome measures such as language growth, emergent literacy, and reading achievement, the effects of book reading tend to be strongest for language skills. In other words, different kinds of home literacy experiences can be related to different kinds of skills.

Maturation is another matter that is worth noticing in the effects of storybook reading. Bus et al. (1995) suggested in their meta-analysis that although the effects of book reading are not restricted to the preschool period, they gradually weaken, as children become conventional readers. This conclusion is supported by results from de Jong and Leseman's (2001) longitudinal research, which found that the effect sizes of parent-child book reading on children's reading achievement were greater for younger samples. The declining influence of home storybook exposure may mean that schooling or independent reading by the child at later stages may, to some extent, compensate for a lack of family reading experiences in the preschool years (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991). However, shared book reading can still give children a head start when formal schooling begins, and this may be particularly important for children from low-SES families (Bus et al., 1995).

To recap, empirical studies of shared reading experiences at home found generally positive correlations between the frequency of storybook reading at home and children' language and literacy development, regardless of whether checklists or self-report measures were used for the joint reading variable. Although some studies found that the effects of storybook reading tended to be stronger for oral language skills than for written language or literacy skills, these findings were obtained from a restricted sample of middle to upper-middle class English-speaking families in only one national context, namely Canada in both Sénéchal et al. (1998) and Sénéchal and LeFevre (2002). There is a need for more studies on a wider variety of samples from a wider range of SES levels in different contexts to corroborate the findings. Besides, a clear causal relationship has not been established by

those studies reviewed in this section, as the quantity of storybook exposure was often measured only once and then correlated with outcome measures collected at a later stage, and potential extraneous variables were not adequately controlled to eliminate alternative explanations.

Despite the accumulated evidence of a positive role for joint book reading that has been yielded by studies based on frequency data, some researchers insist that the empirical evidence should be treated with caution and that storybook reading should not be encouraged unconditionally (Bus et al., 1995). As Evans, Shaw and Bell's (2000) investigation revealed, young children's early literacy and oral language skills were not enhanced or developed via general reading activities at home. Hence, Bus et al. (1995) called for more and better research to determine the conditions under which storybook reading is most beneficial. In response to this call, there has been growing research attention to the qualitative aspect of shared reading.

Perhaps the most influential study on the qualitative aspect of book reading was Heath's (1982, 1983) ethnography of patterns of language use in three literate communities in Southeastern United States. It was through this pioneering work that the mismatch between language use at school and at home was found to account for the school failure of children from low-SES families. The three communities differed strikingly in their patterns of language use via storybook reading, in the paths of language socialization for children, and in the extent to which they prepared their children for schooling.

Since Heath's pioneering study, researchers have paid more attention to qualitative aspects of book reading, usually by observing natural parent-child reading interactions at home. Reading conditions and interaction strategies during bookreading are their major concerns. Sénéchal's (1997) research into the effects of different storybook reading conditions—namely, repeated reading, single reading, and asking questions—on vocabulary acquisition revealed the superior effects of asking questions to mere reading, and the superior effects of repeated reading to single reading. Sénéchal, Thomas, and Monker (1995) further clarified the role of active responding from children during shared reading. The results of their study showed that both verbal responding through labelling and nonverbal responding through pointing enhanced vocabulary acquisition.

In addition to reading conditions, considerable attention has also been given to parental, especially maternal interaction strategies during shared book reading. Distancing theory (McGilliguddy-DeLisi, 1982; Sigel, 1982; Wang, Bernas, & Eberhard, 2005) offers a model that relates parental interaction styles/strategies to the demands put on presumed constructive cognitive-verbal processes on the part of the child. Based on this notion of psychological distancing, parents' utterances of higher distancing levels in book reading such as explanation, evaluation and extension are assumed to be especially beneficial for children's language and literacy development than utterances of lower distancing levels (e.g., directives, reproduction, labeling, and demonstration) are. Besides, the use of metalinguistic verbs (i.e., words denoting verbal processes, e.g., *tell*, *say*, *read*) and cognitive state verbs (i.e., words referring to knowledge states in affirmative, negative, and interrogative forms, mental activity and beliefs, and a variety of mental activity forms, e.g., *think*, *know*, *remember*, *expect*, *believe*, *remember*) in parents' language during storybook interaction is suggested to contribute to children's cognitive development (Adrian, Clemente, & Vallanueva, 2007; Pellegrini, Permutter, Galda, & Brody, 1990).

Leseman and de Jong (1998) measured the instructional quality of book reading by counting the proportion of higher distancing level utterances in interactions. The effects of instructional quality on children's vocabulary scores remained statistically significant even after statistical controlling of existing individual differences in oral language skills. This suggests that the quality of shared book reading has a direct influence on children's literacy development.

Evidence for longer-term effects of higher distancing level utterances was provided by de Jong and Leseman (2001). Instructional quality in storybook reading and problem solving situations was significantly correlated with word decoding at the end of Grade 1. However, by the end of Grade 3, the strength of this correlation declined. In contrast to word decoding, the correlation of instructional quality with reading comprehension increased from Grade 1 to Grade 3 from non-significant to significant.

In addition to utterances of high mental demands, the usage of metalinguistic verbs and cognitive state verbs are also important elements of parental interaction strategies. Pellegrini, Perlmutter, Galda and Brody's (1990) study indicated that maternal use of metalinguistic verbs was positively related to

children's vocabulary acquisition. A significant correlation between maternal use of cognitive state verbs and children's cognitive development (as measured by subsequent understanding of mental states) were reported by Adrian, Clemente, and Villanueva (2007) as well.

It is worth mentioning that parents may not be able to use those beneficial strategies all the time in joint reading interaction. With a sample of 13 mother-child dyads from Black low-SES families, Pellegrini et al. (1990) examined mothers' teaching strategies in joint reading with their four-year-old children and found that mothers tended to use more low-demand strategies around traditional texts (i.e., traditional children's books) and more high-demand strategies and metalinguistic verbs around familiar expository texts (e.g., comics, newspapers, and toy advertisements). Furthermore, mothers also tended to be more flexible in adjusting their strategies to children's vocabulary level only in the context of familiar texts.

All the findings above are from correlational studies, which means that a cause-and-effect relationship has not been established beyond doubt. As a result, intervention studies that could provide causality information are valuable. One such study was conducted by Jordan, Snow, and Porche (2000). In their one-year-long intervention project with 218 kindergarteners, the parents in the experimental group received instruction to increase the frequency and quality of parent-child language interaction. The findings revealed that children of the parents from the experimental group made significantly greater gains in language scores than those from the comparison group did. Similar findings were also found in Whitehurst et al.'s (1988) intervention study with a group of middle-class parents in the U.S.

To recap, where interaction strategies in storybook reading are concerned, parents' utterances of higher distancing levels and their use of metalinguistic verbs are generally facilitative of children's developing language and literacy skills and, in some cases, cognitive abilities. Still some issues need to be investigated. As most studies focused on interactions around storybooks, those around other sorts of reading materials should be explored. Besides, it is not clear whether or how the effects on children's language and cognitive development of parents' strategies in storybook reading will change as they grow up and enter primary schools. These limitations call for further longitudinal studies that investigate a wider range of literacy interactions.

2.3.2. Direct teaching

Apart from exposing their children to environmental print and engaging them in storybook reading, parents who value their children's school success may also choose to teach them skills perceived to facilitate school achievement, as well as skills that children are not learning adequately at school (Snow et al., 1991). Although parents play a central role in this type of instruction, in families with more than one child, especially immigrant families in which the parents are not literate in the language of the host society, older siblings can serve as mediators of literacy (Gregory, 1998). Compared with research on parent-child joint book reading, only scarce research attention has been paid to direct instruction by parents. This lack of attention might be explained by the fact that once formal schooling starts, children receive most instruction at school.

Parents' help with children's homework is probably the most common form of direct teaching. However, in Snow et al.'s (1991) study, the frequency with which parents helped with homework was not found to be statistically correlated with any of the outcome variables, including word decoding, reading comprehension, vocabulary and writing production.

In fact, to our best knowledge, only one specific instruction behavior of the parents – teaching about words to children – was found to be significantly correlated with children's literacy achievements, and the beneficial effects of such direct instruction were quite different from those of storybook reading. Two studies by Sénéchal et al. (1998) and by Sénéchal and LeFevre's (2002) support this point: Parent teaching was related to emergent literacy skills (i.e., print concepts, alphabet knowledge, invented spelling, and decoding), whereas storybook reading was related to oral language skills (i.e., vocabulary, listening comprehension, and phonological awareness).

With regard to literacy interaction, the out-of-school network of children may extend beyond their parents and include relatives and non-relatives, adults and children, siblings and peers. Many studies reported that older siblings helped young children with their homework (Bayley & Schecter, 2007; Volk & de Acosta, 2001). Especially in the case of immigrant families, the role of older siblings is

unique in that they mediate the lives of their younger siblings between home and school in a new linguistic and cultural environment (Gregory, 1998).

Gregory (1998) was among the first to explore the notion of siblings as mediators of literacy in immigrant families. His in-depth ethnographic study of seven five-year-old children from Bangladeshi in London showed that older siblings provided fine-tuned scaffolding closely adjusted to the reading ability of the individual children. Volk and de Acosta's (2001) ethnographic study also depicted the role of older siblings in the literacy lives of three Spanish-dominant Puerto Rican families in the U.S. The bilingual siblings, drawing on their experiences in school, made use of Spanish or English to scaffold literacy learning in the other language, translating and providing helpful cues.

Older siblings' contribution is unique partly because of the uniqueness of sibling relationships. Azmitia and Hesser (1993) found that young children were found to be more likely to observe, imitate, and consult their older siblings than their older peers. In addition, older siblings who are successful readers are likely to enhance the young children' language and reading development as well (Norman-Jackson, 1982).

To summarize the afore-reviewed research on the effects of direct instruction, the limited number of studies conducted so far prevents any definite conclusions regarding which types of direct instruction by parents are especially effective for which aspects of children's language and literacy development. While existing research evidence points to the central role of parents, there is also good reason to recognize the important role of older siblings as mediators of literacy.

3. Implications for Literacy Instruction in Early Schooling

From the studies reviewed above, we can see that parental literacy practices cover multiple aspects of home literacy environment, which includes, for instance, parental reading habits, family literacy outing activities, provision of literacy-related materials and setting rules concerning access to those materials, parent-child shared book reading, and direct teaching from parents and other family members, especially older siblings. Based on the findings concerning these aspects, several important implications can be derived for early literacy development in home and school.

First of all, although no definitive conclusion about the beneficial aspects of parental literacy practices can be made based on empirical evidence documented in the existing literature, one thing is for certain: Home literacy environments are multi-faceted. Consequently, any family literacy program should address multiple literacy practices at home instead of focusing only on a single type of interaction or activity, for example, shared book reading. Directions on family literacy activities like parental reading newspapers in front of the child, family visits to the library, parental provision of multi-media literacy-related materials, and teaching-like interactions between the older sibling and the child should also be considered as part of the program. This implication is especially beneficial to those children who are from deprived families and lack exposure to such activities.

Second, as suggested by the previous studies, many children have already been exposed to various literacy-related activities at home. Therefore, teachers should be sensitive to the ways of literacy knowing that children bring with them into the classroom and build on their pre-school literacy experience. As an illustration, teachers can introduce into the classroom literacy materials that are familiar to children in the home, for instance, maps, popular culture, and toy or game instructions, especially those multimedia resources like episodes of cartoons and computer games. Teachers can also include into classroom activities discussion about the books that parents read to children and about family outing activities. These familiar materials and activities can activate children's interests and motivation in the classroom and take advantage of their knowledge of literacy developed outside of school. This helps the teacher respect the ways in which children learn literacy in real life and legitimize the children's abilities to develop their own literacy skills.

Third, schools can provide training programs for parents to increase the frequency and quality of parent-child interaction, especially high quality interaction in joint bookreading, a central condition for reading acquisition. Strategies like using utterances of higher distance levels and metalinguistic verbs and cognitive state verbs should be encouraged when parents read storybooks to their child. This could help maximize children's literacy gains as well as their development of cognitive abilities.

Fourth, considering the mediating role played by older siblings in younger children's literacy development, family literacy programs should also manage to involve family members other than parents, especially older siblings. As mediators of literacy, they can be better teachers than some parents and peers. Due to the complexity of the out-of-school network of many children, it is necessary to make a concerted effort in fostering children's literacy development that involve *significant others* in their life, namely school teachers, parents, siblings, community members and beyond.

4. Research Directions

As revealed in the literature, a correlation between home literacy environment and children's achievement is well established, and the multiple facets of home literacy environment seem to play different roles in children's language and literacy development. Although the findings reviewed in this paper are encouraging, there are some limitations that are common to the existing studies. These gaps should be addressed by further research in the field of early literacy development.

First of all, the correlational nature of most studies in the literature prevents firm claims about causality. Secondly, a great majority of the studies focused on English-speaking communities, with little research attention given to bilingual or multilingual families, especially those non-English speaking families in Asian contexts. Even in those studies involving bilingual and immigrant children, the outcomes were always measured in the majority language of the host society, and the value of minority children's mother tongue and literacy was not recognized (e.g., de Jong & Leseman, 2001; Leseman & de Jong, 1998). Thus, there is a deplorable lack of research on home literacy practices of bilingual children's biliteracy acquisition in Asia. Thirdly, as socioculturally situated practices that have different meanings to different cultural groups in different contexts, literacy practices that are successful in some contexts for some groups may not be generalizable to other settings and other ethnic/cultural groups. That is why the conclusions gained from studies in such countries like the U.S., Canada, and the Netherlands may not be generalizable to Asian families. Thus more studies in Asian contexts are in need.

To address these gaps, future studies should adopt longitudinal qualitative designs to investigate the complex interplay of multiple factors in literacy development and explore the effects of parent-child literacy-related activities on children's literacy development in multiple Asian countries, especially such multilingual societies as Singapore, Hong Kong, India, and Malaysia.

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How Do School Characteristics Relate to Demand for Private Tutoring in the Asian Context?

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Private tutoring has become a worldwide phenomenon, yet there is little empirical evidence upon main factors leading the demand for private tutors across nations. Using data from the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) of 2003, this study firstly explored proportion of students' participation in private tutoring across nations and examined school-level factors that influence participation in private tutoring in selected Asian countries. From the HGLM analysis, the results revealed that in Korea, Taiwan, Japan, and Singapore which have a higher participation rate in private tutoring and a high mean achievement score, private tutoring has been mostly affected by the background characteristics of students and students' motivation. Meanwhile, in the Philippine indicating a high portion of private tutoring and a low math achievement, the results identified that participation in private tutoring varies widely between schools and that most of the variation can be explained by differences in the school process variables (e.g., use of remedial class, amount of school homework, frequency of tests, and use of grouping by ability).

Introduction

Private tutoring outside of school has long been a major phenomenon in Korea. The Korean government announced that 87.9% of elementary school students, 72.5% of middle school students, and 53.4% of high school students had participated in private tutoring as of 2008 and that the total amount of money spent in private tutoring by parents was estimated to be about 20.9 trillion Korean won (Korean National Statistics Office, 2009). When comparing this amount of money to the GDP of Korea in 2008, it amounts approximately 8.4% of the GDP. Considering that fact that the Korean government spent 3.4% of the GDP on primary and secondary educational institutions in 2005 (OECD, 2008), one can imagine the size of the private tutoring market in Korea.

Recent studies on private tutoring have also revealed that private tutoring is not a phenomenon prevalent exclusively in parts of East Asia, but more likely to be a worldwide phenomenon involving countries in Africa, America, and Europe (Bray, 1999; Baker, Akiba, LeTendre, & Wiseman, 2001; Lee, Park, & Lee, 2009). In addition, Baker et al. (2001) introduced the idea that private tutoring around the world might not be the same – the use and the function of private tutoring may differ across countries. If their argument is true, the policy responses to the private tutoring phenomenon should also be altered based on the accurate diagnosis on the private tutoring mechanism of each country.

The current Korean government is trying to curb the private tutoring expenditure with a focus on strengthening public education and alleviating the educational expenses to reduce the burden on the middle class. The main point of the new policy plan is to introduce "private-tutoring-free schools," which refers to schools that sufficiently absorb students' educational demands within school boundaries, both at regular and after-school hours. As a start, in 2009, the government will designate 300 private-tutoring-free schools and provide them with 200 million Korean won each in subsidy (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2009).

However, there is a lack of theoretical or empirical evidence supporting the relationship between the demands for private tutoring and school quality enhancement. In response, this paper will examine whether the causes and features of private tutoring differ across countries and to explore the school characteristics that influence the demands for private tutoring. In particular, focus will be placed on the school factors which represent school quality enhancement strategies.

Literature Review

Overview of the Private Tutoring

Private tutoring can be defined as the education outside the formal schooling system where the tutor teaches academic subject(s) in exchange for financial gain (Silova & Bray, 2006; Tansel & Bircan,

2006). Silova and Bray (2006) indicate three aspects of private tutoring; private tutoring is only concerned with 1) academic subjects taught in formal schools, 2) learning activities offered by tutors for financial gain, and 3) activities outside of school hours. In recent years, private tutoring has often been used as a term of "shadow education" (e.g., Stevenson & Baker, 1992; Bray, 1999; Baker & LeTendre, 2005) in order to convey the image of outside-school learning activities as parallel to mainstream schooling in the form of non-formal schooling. The forms of private tutoring vary, including from one-to-one education between a tutor and a student to larger classes provided by individual instructors and private institutes.

Private tutoring has become a universal phenomenon in many of the East Asia. According to the research by Baker et al. (2001), over 70 percent of students in Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan reported that they had received a form of private tutoring during their school experience. Recent studies indicate that the growth in private tutoring has been worldwide trend (Baker, Akiba, LeTendre, & Wiseman, 2001; Lee, Park, & Lee, 2009). For example, Baker and his colleagues (2001) show that the participation in private tutoring by eighth graders studying mathematics is extensive throughout the 1995 TIMSS sample of 41 countries. More than a third of all seventh-and eighth-graders participate in weekly tutoring sessions, cram schools, or other forms of shadow education activities. The study by Lee, Park, and Lee (2009) has also produced similar results. Using the 2006 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Lee et al.(2009) found that among 57 participating countries and regions, 37 countries have more than a 40% participation rate in private tutoring for science and 42 countries have more than a 40% participation rate in math private tutoring for math. Silova and Bray (2006) point out that private tutoring is now growing not only East Asia but also in other parts of the world, such as Africa, North America, South America, and Western Europe. Since the breakdown of socialism and the introduction of market economics, private tutoring is even more prevalent in Eastern European countries. For example, in Czech Republic, Latvia, and Slovak Republic, the proportions of private tutoring exceeded 50% (Silova & Bray, 2006).

Consequently, it is evident that prevalence of private tutoring is becoming a global educational phenomenon not only in Asia countries but also in Europe, America, and Africa.

Three Arguments Explaining the Demands for Private Tutoring

What attributes drive the demands for private tutoring and for what purposes? At least, three arguments are feasible in explaining the causes of the demand for private tutoring.

The first argument on the demand for private tutoring is that intense competition for higher education and labor market results in the prevalence of private tutoring (Baker & LeTendre, 2005; Slova & Bray, 2006; Lee, Park, & Lee, 2009). That is, the demand for private tutoring is brought on by intense competition for future educational opportunities accompanied by a "tight linkage" between academic performance and later-life opportunities in the labor market (Baker & LeTendre, 2005). In this sense, private tutoring will be regarded as "an enrichment strategy" when there are clear, high-stakes decision points within the system that are based on examination performance (Silova & Bray, 2006). For example, it is often observed that the tight linkage between elite universities and excellent labor market opportunities in Taiwan, highly competitive university entrance examinations in Korea, the examination-based connection between secondary schools and the best universities in Greece, and the use of secondary school certificate examinations in the labor market in Hong-Kong generate a strong logic for the growing demand for private tutoring (Bray & Kwok, 2003; Stevenson & Baker, 1992; Tansel & Bircan, 2006; Baker & LeTendre, 2005). Under these circumstances, high-stakes examinations function as "a gate-keeper to education and labor market opportunities" (Baker & LeTendre, 2005, p. 62).

The first argument has been continuously verified through further research studies. For example, Baker et al. (2001) empirically explore whether the use of high-stakes tests in national educational systems results in the prevalence of private tutoring as an enrichment strategy among students. Using the 1995 TIMSS grade 8 students' data, Baker's (2001) study shows that students in Korea, Romania, and Taiwan participated in private tutoring for competition-oriented enhancement motivation. However, the main driving factor related to private tutoring was as a remedial strategy to complement academic achievement. Almost 10 years later, Lee et al. (2009) have presented the meaningful results from the 2006 PISA cross-national data of 15-year-olds; this study represents the relationship between the number and characteristics of 15-year-olds receiving private tutoring whereby countries such as Korea, Turkey, and Hong Kong (for science), Taiwan (for mathematics), Greece, and Tunisia can be described as countries with high intensity of private tutoring and enrichment motivation. Meanwhile, countries such as Austria, Germany, Luxembourg, Belgium, and Finland can be described as countries with low intensity of private tutoring and with remedial motivation.

Yet, some studies question the link between high-stakes examinations and private tutoring. For example, Baker and LeTendre (2005) argued that the size, prevalence, and role of private tutoring are unrelated to national high-stakes tests. Given that the TIMSS study focused only on the seventh grade students and taking into consideration that students usually start preparing for high-stakes examinations in the upper grades of secondary school (i.e., 10th-12th grades), it is not surprising that a link between private tutoring and high-stakes examinations remain undetected. Aurini and Davis (2004) observe that tutoring businesses are growing substantially in Canada despite the fact that Canadian universities lack entrance exams and are not arrayed on a steep hierarchical prestige as are universities in other countries such as the United States and Japan. It is evident that there is a need for further research on the relationship between high-stakes examinations and private tutoring.

The second argument on the demand for private tutoring is that private tutoring is a product of an institutionalized remedial strategy used in some countries which provide lower levels of funding and enrollment. According to Baker et al. (2001), the 1995 TIMSS sample shows that in nations with underdeveloped and low cost strategies, private tutoring is more prevalent. In other words, there is lower public expenditure on education and low educational enrollment in grades seven and eight which leads to greater use of private tutoring, and more reliance on remedial strategies as well as use by high achieving students. In addition, Baker et al. (2001) indicate that low performing math students turn to private tutoring at much greater rates than high performing students. These findings imply that the primary role that private tutoring plays in the average national system represented in the TIMSS sample is that of remedial training rather than enrichment uses in most nations.

In the sequent research, Baker and LeTendre (2005) suggest that lower levels of funding and enrollment may indicate lower confidence in available school quality and as a result, in some nations, private tutoring develops as a kind of market reaction. That is, since education is commonly accepted as the main route to success, underfunding and limited access to education lead students to use private tutoring as an extension to mainstream schooling. In this context, private tutoring is used as a "remedial strategy" to help meet the requirements of what is being taught in mainstream schools

The third argument is that some nations have produced cultural and national motivations for students to make an effort towards educational success. As a result, greater emphases on student achievement have led to a high demand for private tutoring (Stevenson, Lummis, Lee, & Stigler, 1990; Lee et al., 2009; Kim, 2003). Many Asian cultures, particularly those influenced by Confucian traditions, are more broadly influenced by *credentialism*. Such countries tend to regard educational credentials as an important social value and an absolute standard in judging one's abilities (T. Kim, 2003). For example, Korean society has a tendency to impose excessive value and importance on entering a prominent university and equate this achievement with greater success in life (Choi et al., 2003; Hyun, Lee, & Lee, 2003). This understanding translates into the strong desire to attend a prestigious university, increasing the competitiveness among students (H. Kim, 2004). In turn, the desire for a good educational background leads to an increasing demand for private tutoring. (S-J. Lee, 2006). Furthermore, income disparities produced by educational background fortifies the existence of a tight linkage between educational background and the distribution of social values (Lee et al.,,2009). Through private tutoring, parents believe that their children will ultimately profit by gaining entrance into prestigious universities. Consequently, the tight linkage between educational background and the achievement of social value influence demands for private tutoring.

In some countries, the growing use of private tutoring is a result of a national strategy to encourage national achievement. Some nations have developed a system-wide initiative for national achievement in subjects like mathematics and science in order to equip the country to engage competitively and successfully on a global level. As the development of human capital takes on qualities and responsibilities of a unilateral national mission for successful global competition, educational policies aimed at achievement can be formed from a specific nationalist perspective that is promoted by the state (Bakers et al., 2001). These perspectives can motivate students to enhance national achievement and consequently, leading to an increase of private tutoring.

School Characteristics related to Private Tutoring

An increasing body of literature claims that the characteristics of school education are closely related to the level of participation in private tutoring. The main assumption behind these studies is that the deficiency of school education is the main factor which is stimulating the demand for private tutoring. For instance, Lee et al. (2009) point out that the low quality of public schools and teacher-centered education might result in an increased demand for private tutoring.

Some studies point out the lower parents' satisfaction with public education and the level of trust given to it, the higher participation rate in private tutoring (Chubb & Moe 1990; Jeon, Kang, & Kim,

2003) Chubb and Moe (1990) argue that parents' decision to participate in private tutoring are influenced by the degree of satisfaction with public schools and the degree of preference for private tutoring rather than demographic conditions. As the dissatisfaction with public schools increases, the rate of participation in private tutoring also increases. Thus, parents' dissatisfaction is a direct outgrowth of seeking various forms of private tutoring. Jeon, Kang, & Kim's (2003) study also reveal that Korean parents' dissatisfaction with public education is closely related to the attitude towards private education. Through the investigation of the factors affecting parents' satisfaction of public education services, they found that Korean parents living in *Gangnam* significantly prefer private tutoring to public education service and the trust in private tutoring and dissatisfaction with public education are significantly high compared with the parents living in *Gangbuk.* In addition, the proportion of expenses spent on private tutoring is higher for the parents living in *Gangnam.*

However, Davies and his colleagues (2002) point out that the increase of private tutoring in Canada is not caused by parents' dissatisfaction with public schools rather by educational policies stimulating competition. On a scale ranging from 4 to 16, with higher values representing greater dissatisfaction, parents who do and those who do not employ tutors offer mainly positive ratings of their provincial school systems. Thus, although parents who employ tutors certainly show some dissatisfaction, these results imply that they are not necessarily dissatisfied with public education rather they seek more personalized instruction or a competitive edge for their child or children through private tutoring. The growth of the private institute industry in Canada was caused by the local government's intensified comparison of students' achievement scores and the reduction of the public school budget. Particularly in Ontario, increased private tutoring was caused by education reforms, such as fortifying the competition for the college entrance examination, intensifying the math curriculum, standardized testing, writing, report cards of students' grades, and the abolishment of grade 13. All of these factors led to an increased demand for private tutoring.

A few studies indicate that the quality of school education is related to the demand for private tutoring. For example, Kim and Lee (2002) argue that the prevalence of private tutoring in Korea has been caused by the lack of high-quality school education. Teacher-centered instruction and deficient teaching in poor school education leads to a reliance on private tutoring as a way to supplement low-quality instruction in the public education system. Under the low cost approach to school education, where the demand for educational services is not supported by the school, private tutoring can increase through competitive strategies (Lee et al., 2009). There is a greater likelihood that the demand for private tutoring will increase when the educational system follows a low cost approach, when achievement is assessed only by test grades, and when college applicants are selected by a college entrance examination. Even in well-funded school systems, private tutoring increases with high-stake testing or standardized tests (Bray, 1999).

Meanwhile, the effort made by public schools to improve educational quality is evident through the attempt to decrease for the demand for private tutoring. For example, Davies et al. (2002) found that in a school that provides remedial classes for slow learners and low achievers or advanced academic programs for fast learners, the parents tend to spend less time and money on informal educational activities. One of the Korean educational policy strategies involves the creation of after-school programs which is expected to decrease the demand for private tutoring. Yet, the effectiveness of this policy to save on private tutoring cost is still controversial and inconclusive.

In a Korean context, the high school equalization policy is often debated with regards to its relation with the demands for private tutoring. For example, Kim & Paik's (2002) study reveal that the demand for private tutoring from students at general high schools is greater than the students at high schools with special purposes. Based on these findings, they suggest the acceptance of a school choice system as the appropriate policy. In contrast, Chae (2006) argues that the criticism of the high school equalization policy has not been fully supported by evidence. Through the KEEP (Korean Education & Employment Panel) data analysis of the effects of the high school equalization policy on private tutoring expenditure in Korea, Chae(2006) found that the high school equalization policy was not proven to have a significant positive effect on private tutoring expenditure.

Consequently, despite several meaningful findings on the characteristics of school education in relation to private tutoring, further research is still necessary to explore in further detail the complex relationships between the characteristics of school education and private tutoring.

Methods

Data

   We used the data from TIMSS 2003. TIMSS is an international assessment of the mathematics and science knowledge at fourth and eighth-grade students. And it also collects extensive background information on students, families, teachers, and schools related to the learning and teaching of mathematics and science. Here we used mathematics data of the eighth-graders from 5 countries that show distinguishing features in two aspects. One is the proportion of the students participating in private tutoring, and the other is the mean mathematics achievement score. The six countries are Korea, Taiwan, Japan, Philippines, and Singapore.

Variables

Dependent Variable: Dependant variable is the student's participation in extra lessons or tutoring in mathematics. It is measured with the following question: "during this school year, how often have you had extra lessons or tutoring in mathematics that is not part of your regular class?" The original response options ranging from 1 (almost every day) to 4 (never or almost never) were recoded into a dummy variable: 0 (never or almost never) or 1 (more than 'sometimes').

Explanatory Variables: To find out the variables that influence the student's participation in extra lessons or tutoring in each country, we set school level factors as explanatory variables. School-level factors are consisted of school contextual variables (community size, poverty rate) and school process variables (curriculum by ability, grouping by, remedial class, enrichment class, frequency of assessment, frequency of homework). For student background, his/her demographic variables (gender, father's education), motivation (educational expectation, instrumental motivation, self-confidence in math), and mathematics achievement are included.

Table 1 *Variable Descriptions*

Variable	Variable Description	
Student level (level 1) Variables		
Female	Is the student a female?	0 = no , 1 = yes
Father's education	Did one's father finish tertiary education?	0 = no , 1 = yes
Educational expectation	Does student expect himself/herself to go university?	0 = no, 1 = yes
Achievement	Plausible values (or estimates) of each student's achievement in mathematics.	
School level (level 2) variables		
Community size	Size of the community in which the school is located	1 = fewer than 3,000 person, 6 = more than 500,000 people
Poverty rate	percentage of students who come from economically disadvantaged homes	1 = 0~10 %, 4 = more than 50%
Curriculum by ability	How does the school organize mathematics instruction for students with different levels of ability?	1 = study the same curriculum, 2= study same curriculum but at different levels of difficulty, 3 = study different curricular
Grouping by Ability	Are students grouped by ability within their mathematics classes?	0 = no, 1 = yes
Remedial class	Does the school offer remedial mathematics?	0 = no, 1 = yes
Enrichment class	Does the school offer enrichment mathematics classes?	0 = no, 1 = yes
Frequency of assessment	How often does the teacher give a mathematics test or examination?	1 = never, 5 = every day
Frequency of	How often does the teacher assign mathematics	1 = never, 5 = every day

homework   homework?

Dependent variable

| Participation in private tutoring | Has the student participated in extra lessons or tutoring during this school year? | 0 = no, 1 = Yes |

Analysis Model

Two-level Hierarchical Generalized Linear Models (HGLM) was used to estimate the effects of various student and school level variables on student's participation in extra lessons or tutoring in each country. HGLM was used since the dependent variable is a dummy variable indicating whether or not the student participates in math private tutoring.

Results

Use of Private Tutoring across the Nations

Using the TIMSS 2003 mathematics data of the eighth-graders, we looked at how many students were participating in private tutoring for mathematics. Among 47 countries with available data, 34 countries reported that more than 40% of their eighth-graders participated in math private tutoring outside of school. The average participation rate in math private tutoring was 49%. Using the TIMSS 1995 data which was conducted 8 years before TIMSS 2003, Baker et al. (2001) reported that 16 out of 41 countries had more than 40% of their eighth-graders participating in math private tutoring. These results from the cross-national data confirm that the private tutoring is not a local phenomenon which only occurs in some Asian countries but a worldwide phenomenon whereby private tutoring has become more and more prevalent with time.
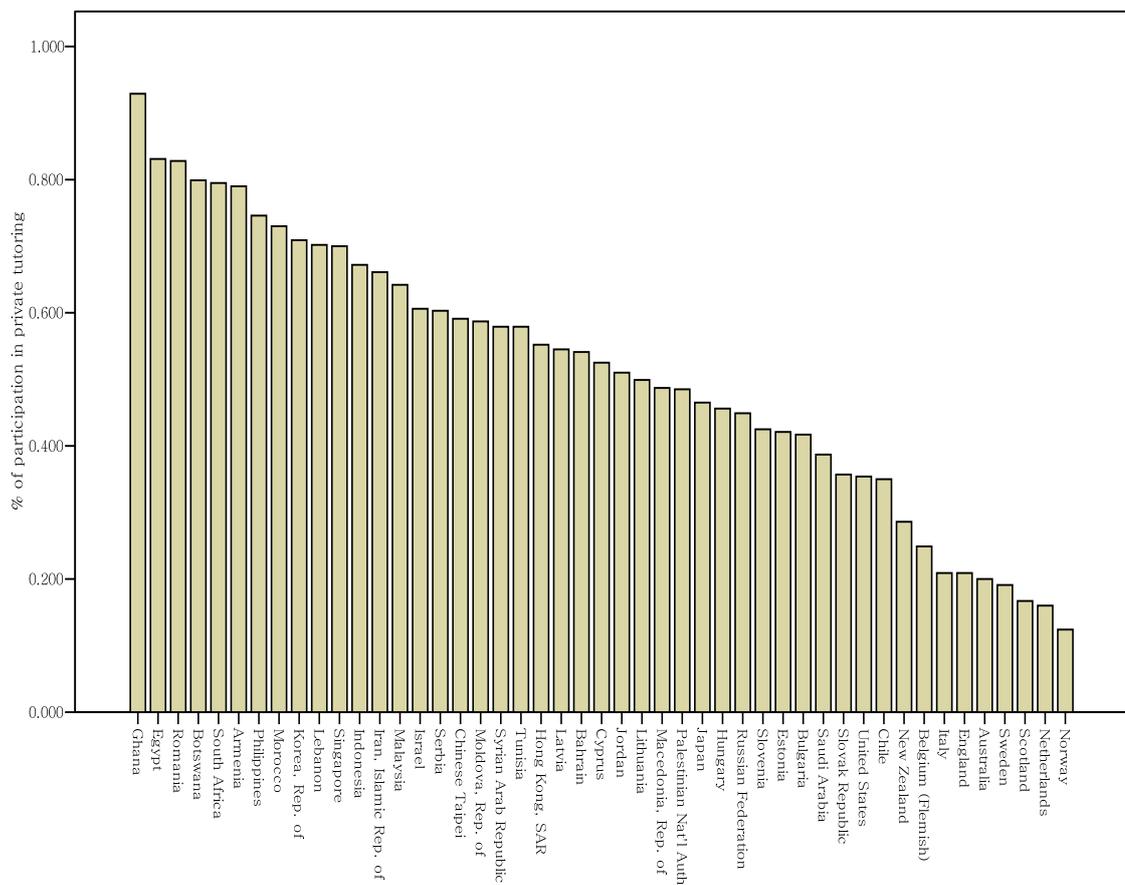
<Figure 1> Percentage of participation in private tutoring across nations

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the selected Asian countries. While 67% of Korean schools have students grouped by ability within mathematics classes, only about 10% of schools in Taiwan and Japan do. Enrichment classes are offered by more than 70% of schools in Singapore, Taiwan and Japan. In general, more schools offer remedial classes than enrichment classes. Amongst all of these countries, the schools in Taiwan and Philippines conduct math assessment most often.

At the student level, we can also see that about 30% of students in Korea have a father with tertiary education while only 10-20% of students in other countries do. The percentage of students expecting to go to university is the highest in Korea (84%). In terms of psychological factors, students in the Korea and Taiwan show the highest degree of educational expectation.

Table 2 *Descriptive Statistics for the Selected Countries*

Variables	Korea		Taiwan		Japan		Philippines		Singapore	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
Dependent variable										
Participation in private Tutoring	0.71	0.45	0.60	0.49	0.47	0.49	0.74	0.44	0.70	0.46
School level										
Grouping by ability	0.67	0.47	0.15	0.36	0.12	0.33	0.34	0.47	0.19	0.39
Enrichment class	0.46	0.50	0.78	0.42	0.74	0.43	0.64	0.48	0.89	0.32
Remedial class	0.91	0.29	0.85	0.36	0.90	0.29	0.80	0.40	0.96	0.19
Frequency of homework	2.74	0.70	3.17	0.88	3.97	0.19	3.71	0.71	3.11	0.97
Frequency of assessment	3.77	0.65	4.84	0.44	3.98	0.76	4.72	0.74	3.24	0.59
Community size	5.00	1.26	4.63	1.18	4.48	1.30	3.44	1.65	5.17	0.82
Poverty rate	2.08	0.95	1.47	0.74	1.34	0.59	3.25	0.99	1.73	0.92
N	127		141		138		101		153	
Student level										
Female	0.48	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.53	0.50	0.58	0.49	0.51	0.50
Father's education	0.34	0.48	0.15	0.36	0.19	0.39	0.18	0.38	0.15	0.36
Educational expectation	0.84	0.36	0.73	0.45	0.53	0.50	0.61	0.49	0.56	0.50
Achievement	589.45	80.32	588.69	95.98	487.88	81.76	378.33	77.06	601.00	78.35
N	4462		5026		3363		4887		5635	

School Characteristics Related to the Demands for Private Tutoring

Table 3 represents the results from the two-level HGLM analysis. The dependent variable is whether or not a student has participated in math private tutoring outside of school. Let us examine the effect of student-level factors on the demands for private tutoring first. In general, there seems to be no gender difference in the likelihood of participating in math private tutoring except for the case of Japan. In Japan, we can expect being a girl is associated with higher relative odds of participating in private tutoring. In Korea, which have a higher percentage of students whose father had tertiary education, we can expect the odds of participating in private tutoring for those whose father had tertiary education to be about 1.7 times (i.e. exp(0.565)=1.759 and exp(0.523)=1.686) the odds of participating in private tutoring for those whose father had lower levels of education. Generally, students who want to get into the university have higher relative odds of participating in math tutoring and students who consider that doing well in math is more necessary to get into university also have

higher relative odds of participating in math tutoring in most countries, even after controlled for other variables.

Table 3 also indicates the effects of the school-level factors on the demands for private tutoring after controlled for the student-level variables included in the model. In Korea, Japan, and Singapore students whose school reported to have lower percentage of students with economical disadvantages have higher relative odds of participating in private tutoring. Among the school process variables, it seems that organizing math instruction for students with different levels of ability has a positive effect in Korea and grouping students by ability within mathematics classes also seems to be effective to reduce private tutoring in Singapore. Meanwhile, providing the enrichment classes in schools seem to have no significant influence on the participation in private tutoring while providing the remedial classes in schools seem to have different influences across countries. In Taiwan whose students with low achievement score have lower relative odds of participating in private tutoring, the odds of participating in private tutoring of students whose school offers remedial classes are still expected to be 0.689 times (i.e. exp(-0.372)= 0.689) the odds of participating in math private tutoring. In Philippines, which have a high participation rate in private tutoring but a low mean achievement score, we can expect that being a student whose school offers remedial classes to be associated with a higher relative odds of participating in private tutoring, with an odds ratio of 2 to 3 (i.e. exp(1.201)=3.322 and exp(0.714)=2.043).

Table 3. *Results from 2-level HGLM Analysis for the Participation in Private Tutoring*

	Participation in Math Private Tutoring				
	Korea	Taiwan	Japan	Philippines	Singapore
FIXED EFFECTS					
School level					
Intercept	0.526^{**}	0.383	0.432^{*}	0.831^{**}	0.486*
School process variable					
Curriculum by ability	-0.293^{*}	-0.127	0.011	0.017	0.122
Grouping by ability	0.288	-0.117	0.031	-0.314	0.213*
Enrichment class	-0.053	0.034	-0.046	0.291	-0.024
Remedial class	-0.149	-0.372^{*}	0.001	0.714^{*}	0.427*
Frequency of homework	-0.049	-0.113	-0.071	0.540^{*}	-0.113
Frequency of assessment	-0.193^{*}	0.099	0.009	0.544^{***}	0.250**
School contextual variable					
Community size	0.128^{**}	0.145^{*}	0.145*	-0.108	0.102
Poverty rate	-0.188^{**}	-0.010	-0.049*	0.205	0.172**
Student level					
Female	-0.119	-0.111	0.042*	-0.100	-0.215
Father's education	0.565^{***}	0.084	0.115*	0.100	0.067**
Educational expectation	0.436^{***}	0.492^{***}	0.316^{*}	-0.094	0.114
Achievement	0.574^{***}	0.364^{***}	0.143**	-0.450^{***}	-0.099
RANDOM EFFECTS					
Level-1 variance	1.007	0.976	0.871	0.950	0.949
Level-2 variance	0.093	0.251	0.324	0.761	0.212

* indicates significance at $p \le .05$, ** indicates significance at $p \le .01$, *** indicates significance at $p \le .001$.

Discussions

From the analysis of 2003 TIMSS data, we found that in some Asian countries which show high level of participation in private tutoring, students' participation in private tutoring varies widely between

students rather than schools. The background characteristics of students (e.g., father's education) and students' motivation (e.g., educational expectation) significantly affect students' use of private tutoring. In addition, private tutoring has been influenced by school-level contextual factors (such as community size or poverty rate) rather than school process factors among school characteristics. These findings can be explained by Baker and LeTendre 's (2005) contention that extensive private tutoring exists in countries with intense competition for future educational opportunities, which are usually accompanied by a tight linkage between academic performance and later opportunities in higher education and the labor market. That is, in some countries which employ a modal strategy for enrichment purposes, many families fully devote private tutoring to guarantee that their children successfully enter high-status universities and have access to better paying jobs in the future. Thus, the logic of "rate of return to education" rather than the quality of school education can be the main factor which drives the demand for private tutoring.

The results from our analysis have also shown that in the Philippines, the primary role that private tutoring plays is that of remedial training. In these countries, a considerable variation of participation in private tutoring lies among schools and several school-level factors significantly affect students' use of private tutoring. Different from other countries, the data from the Philippines indicate that school process factors rather than contextual factors are the main factors stimulating the participation of private tutoring. Specifically, increased participation in private tutoring is associated with 1) use of remedial class, 2) increasing school homework, 3) frequent tests, and 4) use of grouping by ability. In these nations, education is recognized as the main route to success and private tutoring is getting prevalent in order to supplement formal schooling (Baker et al., 2001). In particular, the nations (such as Philippines) that invest lower public expenditure on public education, students widely use private tutoring as an augmentation of mainstream schooling. In this sense, a low cost approach to public education can drive the prevalence of private tutoring.

The findings from the current study hold major implications for education policymakers. First implication is that in some nations including Korea and Taiwan, private tutoring was chosen due to its enrichment capabilities of private tutoring by parents who react to intensified competition for further educational and labor market opportunities. Thus, policy strategies for private tutoring need to be investigated in the structure of labor market or the competitive mechanism of educational systems rather than the quality of public schools.

Consequently, although private tutoring has become a worldwide phenomenon, there is considerable cross-national variation in the modal strategies of private tutoring from country to country. Hence, policy responses to private tutoring should be differential across countries. When policy makers implement policy actions following their own modal strategy of private tutoring, the feasibility of these policies can be guaranteed.

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Characteristics of policy alternatives against the challenges faced by domestic private education since the 1980s and analysis of the corresponding changes in private education expenses[1]

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Abstract

This research sought to find out the educational realities and problems of Korea and provide the fundamental information required for establishing reasonable policy alternatives by examining private education-related theories and actual private education policies of Korea based on the term of Korea's central government. Toward this end, this research analyzed the approaches of the private education policies that have been implemented by previous Korean governments since the 1980s based on the theory suggested by Bray (1999). Based on the analysis, the household income and expenditure survey data (1982~2007) of the National Statistical Office (NSO) were leveraged to examine the time series transition of private education expenses and its relationship with education policies. To analyze the approaches of private education policies, various government records (policy planning data, promotional materials and handouts, government periodicals, etc.), research reports on education policies and private education policies of research institutes and professors, and press releases were collected, and theoretical analysis was conducted. Based on the research analysis, 30 years of private education policies in Korea were classified into three parts: prohibition, partial permission, and full permission. Meanwhile, private education expenditure against GDP has continued to increase since 1982, proving that the various education policies of previous Korean governments have not had direct positive effects on decreasing private education.

I. Introduction

The private education policies of previous Korean governments were torn between social quality and individual right to education. The regulation on private education focused on social equality until the 1980s; since the 1990s, however, the regulation on private education has been eased pursuant to the individual right to education.

Even though the government has made its best efforts to solve the private education problems and normalize public education, few research results comprehensively summarize and analyze all the private education policies of previous Korean governments.

Therefore, this research sought to analyze the time series transition and its relationship with education policies by using the household income and expenditure survey data (1982 ~ 2007) of the National Statistical Office (NSO). Toward this end, the background, development, and proposal related to the establishment policies were reviewed as suggested by previous Korean governments to address the private education problems that have persisted for 30 years. In particular, the theory of Bray (1999, 2003) -- who suggested the approaches of private education policies and strategies -- was organized to analyze private education policies. For this purpose, various government records (policy planning materials, promotional materials and handouts, government periodicals, etc.), research reports on education policies and private education policies of research institutes and professors, and press releases were collected, and theoretical analysis of such was conducted.

This research identified the realities and problems in domestic education and provided the basic materials required to establish reasonable policy alternatives by examining private education-related theories and actual private education policies in Korea. It also sought to find out the relationship between the private education expenses borne by each household and education policies of the

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[1] Some parts of this paper are quoted without using quotation marks from "Kim, Min-jeong, Lee, Yong-min, Han, Shin-il, & Kim, Hyun-chul (2008). *Policy report: Analysis of relationship between the private education policies and the transitions of costs of private education*. Korea Private Education Research Center.

government and to examine if the various education policies implemented during the terms of each government have positive effects on reducing private education expenses.

II. Understanding Private Education Policies and Private Education Expenses of Korea

1. Approaches of private education policies

Except Bray's research (1999), there are few studies that suggest the approaches of private education policies. Therefore, this section seeks to examine more specifically the theory of private education policy approach as proposed by Bray. In particular, Bray suggested six types of approaches of private education policy:

1) Laissez-faire approach
Many countries have overlooked private education in planning education policies. The reason for adopting a laissez-faire approach is that a market adjusts the quality and cost of private education to achieve the best balance. In other words, a balance of power can be achieved when a market guarantees variety and a supplier is in harmony with a consumer. More than anything else, however, the government implements this approach because private education is regarded as a complex challenge that incurs huge financial loss and creates a political trap. That is why many countries are reluctant to get involved directly in private education.

2) Monitoring, not intervention
The more aggressive method than the laissez-faire approach is to collect and monitor data related to size, type, and influence of private education. Such data is helpful in establishing education policies for schools and other social policies and is used to impose tax on private education providers and decide the schoolteachers' salary. Note, however, that there are few countries that actually collect data regarding private education even as investigation into a specific area is required to acquire the data.

3) Regulation and Control
Regulation & Control is a more aggressive approach to private education with various possibilities. For example, this approach includes regulations on non-educational fields such as fire evacuation facilities and ventilation facilities of private education organizations. Moreover, this approach monitors and regulates the tuition fee, class size, and curriculum, forcing education organizations to be registered and controlled by the government.

4) Promotion
This approach promotes private education aggressively from the perspective that private education is necessary to meet students' requirements and is deemed to contribute to creating human capital individually and socially.

5) Mixed approach
The government blocks some forms of private education more aggressively. For example, the government prevents schoolteachers from providing extracurricular lessons and acquiring additional income while allowing educational institutions except schools to provide private education. In other words, private education is permitted in general except the form that is legally restricted by the government regulation.

6) Prohibition
The most extreme approach is to prohibit all forms of private education based on the premise that private education causes social inequality. In other words, all forms of private education for commercial purposes are prohibited except complementary extracurricular lessons provided voluntarily or publicly and only for students with learning disabilities.

[Figure 1] shows an approach diagram of the Korean government's private education policies based on the approach to private education as suggested by Bray (1999, 2003).
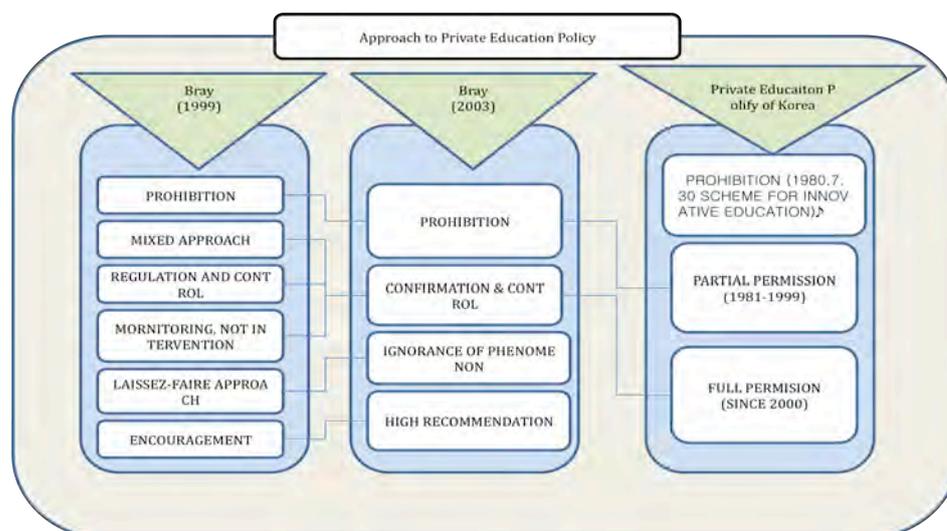
2. Private education expenses

1) Concept of private education expenses

According to the early research on private education conducted by Kim, et al (1982), private education refers to "the part of educational expense borne by each individual wishing to receive school education." On the other hand, Kim (1998) classifies the concept of private education into two: (1) general private education that is inevitably required to receive school education, and; (2) special private education required to receive extracurricular lessons.

In the research conducted by Choi (2003), private education expense is defined as 'the expenditure for private education institutes, private tutoring expenses, expenses for arts & physical education, and specialization & talent fostering expenses for career preparation and related material costs." Most of the research studies conducted after Choi 's research referred to private education expense as 'the expenditure for extracurricular education other than school education"; this means that private education expenditure is the cost required for complementary education rather than the additional cost required for school education. For surveys related to educational expenses and private education expenses conducted by the government, research studies carried out before 2003 proposed a comprehensive definition for private education expense, i.e., private education expenditure as the cost paid for education without public accounting. Note, however, that research studies conducted after 2003 are limited to private education other than school education. Similarly, this paper restricts private education to 'the extracurricular education provided outside schools to meet individual supply and demand."

2) Method of estimating the entire size of private education expenses and configuration of household income and expenditure survey data of the National Statistical Office (NSO)

The household income and expenditure survey data of NSO (1982~2007) ensures data continuity and reliability since daily income and consumption are examined through housekeeping accounting books. While nationwide surveys have been conducted since 2003, however, the survey was restricted to urban households with more than two members in a family before 2003. Therefore, this research was based on survey data (1982~2007) targeting urban household with families with more than two members to ensure time series. The general method of estimating educational expenses and private education expenses is as follows: "Average monthly educational expense x 12 x Number of households nationwide."

The "expenditure for educational institutes and private education ("institution fee")" out of the educational expenses in NSO data was used in this research. This item covers expenses charged by entrance examination preparation institutes and tutoring institutes (complementary educational expenses), expenses required to learn piano/arts/Taekwondo/computers, and other fees.

III. Analysis of Private Education Policy Type and Transition

1. Analysis of private education policies in Korea

1) Prohibition on private education

This approach regulates private education as a target to be removed and prohibits private education by implementing strict legal sanctions. The 7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation of domestic private education policy announced in 1980 is a representative example of this approach.

(1) 7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation (1980)

The open enrollment of middle schools adopted on July 15, 1968, innovation in the high school entrance examination system, and equalization policy for high school (February 28, 1973) have all contributed to the increase in the number of high school students. As of 1980, about 1.5 million students or 15.35% of a total of 9.8 million students received extracurricular lessons.

The government and the Ministry of Education were requested to take major actions against social cynicism across the nation caused by the excessive boom of private education by recovering school stability and realizing innovation in the educational environment. Accordingly, the National Security Committee enforced the "7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation: Normalizing School Education and Subsiding Overheated Private Education" on July 30, 1980 to normalize school education, create an ideal educational environment, and address the problem of disharmony between the poor and the rich caused by overheated private education.

This innovative plan was classified into two parts: normalization of school education and solving the problems of overheated private education. Specifically, the plan focused on abolishing the college entrance examination, enforcing the college graduation quota system, and strictly prohibiting all forms of private education.

The "7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation" was the government's extensive and strict action, drawing considerable attention from parents and students suffering from overheated private education. Nonetheless, regulating all forms of private education legally drew flak for the coercive measures. Moreover, the plan is a representative example of how a strict legal regulation can neither solve the fierce competition in college entrance examinations completely nor root out excessive private education until the academic-oriented society is abolished.

2) Partial permission of private education

This approach recognizes that private education itself is definitely a social phenomenon and that there are many actual challenges in prohibiting all forms of private education using strict measures. Instead, this approach focuses on permitting private education gradually through innovative modification and compensation.

The legal regulation against private education caused those with financial and social capabilities to use private education illegally, with the number of people involved in illegal private education increasing over time. Moreover, in 1986, the Supreme Court ruled in favor of private education: "Delivering knowledge must not be restricted unless it is illegal in society and nation." (Government Policy Briefing, 2007). In other words, owing to opposition, i.e., prohibiting private education in a liberal democratic country is unreasonable, prohibition has been partly eased even before a year has passed.

The representative private education policy before 2000 when private education was fully permitted is the "5.12 Easing of Overheated Private Education and Reduction of Private Education Expenses (1997)."

(1) 5.12. Easing of overheated private education and reduction of private education expenses (1997)

The Ministry of Education made its best efforts to find efficient methods of easing overheated private education and reduce the burden of private education expenses. As part of such efforts, the Ministry of Education announced the "Plan to Ease Overheated Private Education and Reduce Private Education Expenses" on May 12, 1997. From a short-term perspective, the plan encouraged the government to provide cost-effective, quality private education and meet the actual requirements for private education by securing and operating satellite channels specializing in private education and activating after-school educational activities. From the mid- and long-term perspectives, the plan emphasized efforts to enhance the quality of school education, improve the college entrance examinations system, and change parents' awareness to decrease the high demand for private education.

Above all, the plan stressed that the government's approach to private education must be changed through considerable efforts to adopt various methods gradually so that not only the short-term but also the mid- and long-term goals are achieved instead of focusing on total prohibition and settlement of private education problems.

3) Full permission of private education

This approach acknowledges private education as part of education just like public education instead of viewing it as a target to be removed but tries to minimize the need for private education by strengthening public education and enabling private education to be absorbed into public education. In other words, this approach acknowledges a complementary relationship between private education and public education but attempts to minimize the effects of private education.

On April 27, 2000, the Constitutional Court declared the "Act on the Prohibition on the Establishment and Operation of Private Teaching Institutes and Extracurricular Lessons" unconstitutional. As a result, the private education market changed from a target to be regulated to a free market, paving the way for the creation of a special education zone. Private education targeting elementary school students emerged again after 40 years. In fact, the private education fever continues to intensify. Accordingly, recognizing that the 2000 plan for prohibiting private education was a failure, the government sought to establish a counter plan (2004.2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses, 2007.3.20 Scheme for Private Education) by improving public education and enabling private education to be absorbed into public education.

(1) 2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses (2004)

Recognizing that private tutoring costs -- which have continued to increase since 2000 -- have imposed a burden on many parents and caused a wide variety of educational, social, and national problems, the civilian government focused on reducing private education expenses instead of rooting out private education completely. As a short-term countermeasure, the government released the "2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses" to ease the parents' burden of excessive private tutoring costs and normalize public education.

Depending on the fields and characteristics, the top 10 initiatives of this plan are mainly divided into three parts: 1) enabling private education to be absorbed into the public education system; 2) strengthening school education, and; 3) improving the social and cultural environment. The plan is also classified into short-term, mid-term, and long-term initiatives based on the implementation period. For the initiative of enabling private education to be absorbed into the public education system, short-term tasks include the following: Establishing an e-learning system to replace private tuition for college entrance examinations;   Implementing after-school complementary instruction to replace private tuition for curriculum;   Activating education for fostering the talents and aptitudes of students to satisfy the demands for private tutoring for fostering talents and English proficiency, and;   Operating an "after-school education program" targeting elementary school students in the lower class to satisfy the demands for child care. On the other hand, mid-term tasks include the following: Securing excellent teachers by improving their expertise and responsibility for the increased reliability of school education;   Improving the quality of class evaluation to normalize school education;   Complementing the High School Entrance System Without Examination such as differentiated education and expansion of students' selection;   Normalizing school education by improving college entrance systems and strengthening career guidance;   Guaranteeing the people's basic educational level by implementing the responsible teaching system for developing primary scholastic abilities and expanding educational welfare. Finally, the long-term task of improving the social and cultural environment includes   reforming social systems and ways of thinking such as academic cliquism or distorted perspective of education.

The "2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses" eased the burden of private tutoring costs for the unprivileged classes and low-income brackets and paved the way for strengthening teachers' competence and overcoming academic cliquism. Note, however, that efforts to adopt the EBS lecture series for college entrance examinations and after-school educational programs did not have an actual remarkable effect on the lower and middle income earners; Neither did private education address the high-income earners' fierce competition in private tutoring for college entrance examinations even though this initiative enabled various countermeasures for public education to absorb the demands for private education.

(2) 3.20 Scheme for Private Education (2007)

The "3.20 Scheme for Private Education" is intended to complement policies according to target groups and category of the "2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses" based on the "Survey of Private Education" conducted by the Korea Educational Development Institute (KEDI) at the end of 2006.

The government released the "3.20 Scheme for Private Education" consisting of 7 main goals and 22 tasks: providing English broadcasting service through EBS beginning April 2007; providing financial assistance (KRW 156.8 billion) to implement after-school educational programs for all

agricultural and fishing communities until 2008; operating after-school child care programs for elementary schools (KRW 16.6 billion); establishing 1330 English Education Centers for elementary schools until 2009; conducting a statistical survey on private education twice a year, and; punishing illegal special-purpose high schools (Kim Young-cheol, et al, 2007).

Compared to the "2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses (2004)," the "3.20 Scheme for Private Education (2007)" led to the following outcomes: 1) Strengthened the management of private education providers to respond quickly to the changing demands for private education and ensured a unified, systematic system as well as conducted a statistical survey on private education twice a year to improve the scheme for establishing infrastructure in keeping with the private education policy; 2) Added to the category of "supply of alternatives to private education" new initiatives such as the existing after-school educational programs, EBS broadcasting service, and mentoring of 10,000 college students to strengthen alternatives to private education for unprivileged people and bridge the educational gap, and; 3) Included in the public education system private education for talent or aptitude fostering such as arts, physical education, and writing, occupying a considerable ratio of private education for elementary school students.

This plan is the latest comprehensive initiative for private education released by the previous government. Currently, many tasks of the plan have been implemented but have yet to satisfy fully the people's high demands and expectations. Above all, there is a need to establish systematic educational policies from a long-term perspective and to execute promotion and marketing to encourage people's aggressive participation so that the many countermeasures suggested by the government can ultimately succeed. <Table 1> shows the previous government's annual private education policies.

<Table 1> Private Education Policies of the Previous Korean Government

Type of private education policy	Government	Year	Major Education Policies & Private Education Policies
Prohibition of private education	5·6 Republican Government 1980-1993	1980	7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation
Partial permission of private education	Civilian Government 1993-1998	1995	5.31 Scheme for Educational Innovation
		1997	5.12 Easing of overheated private education and reduction of private education expenses
Full permission of private education	National Government 1998-2003	2000	Constitutional Court's judgment, i.e., prohibition of private education is unconstitutional
			6.27 Scheme for preventing overheated private education and strengthening public education
		2002	Scheme for the diagnosis and improvement of public education
	Participatory Government 2003-2008	2004	2.17 Scheme for the reduction of private education expenses
		2007	3.20 Scheme for private education

2. Change in Private Education Expenses

<Table 2> shows the annual educational expenses, private education expenses, and private education expenses against GDP based on NSO data. [Figure 2] shows the related diagram.

<Table 2> Estimation of the Annual Educational Expenses and Complementary Educational Expenses

Year/Government	Educational Expense (unit: KRW1	Private Education Expense	Private Education Expense/GDP

		(unit: KRW1 billion)	(unit: KRW1 billion)	(unit: %)
1982	5th 6th Republican Government	1,510	163	0.29
1983		1,656	229	0.35
1984		1,988	305	0.41
1985		2,325	377	0.45
1986		2,699	446	0.45
1987		3,333	597	0.52
1988		3,743	891	0.65
1989		5,207	1,627	1.05
1990		6,555	1,819	0.97
1991		8,116	2,083	0.92
1992		10,356	2,584	1.00
1993	Civilian Government	11,616	2,486	0.86
1994		13,178	2,752	0.81
1995		16,138	4,831	1.21
1996		19,259	5,377	1.20
1997		21,264	5,706	1.16
1998	National Government	20,131	4,843	1.00
1999		22,169	5,101	0.96
2000		24,996	6,331	1.09
2001		27,755	6,727	1.08
2002		29,124	6,966	1.02
2003	Participatory Government	32,161	16,326	2.25
2004		34,389	17,994	2.31
2005		36,428	19,388	2.39
2006		38,756	20,869	2.46
2007		41,645	22,832	2.53

[Figure 2] Change in Private Education Expense Against GDP

For the ratio of private education expense against GDP since 1982, private education expenses (private tutoring fee) have increased rapidly (0.65%→1.05%, 0.81%→1.21%, and 1.02%→2.25% in 1989, 1995, and 2003, respectively). Meanwhile, private education expenditure decreased remarkably from KRW 5.71 trillion to KRW 4.84 trillion (1998) beginning 1998. Considering the fact that the economic crisis in Korea (IMF crisis) caused serious economic recession in Korea beginning 1998, private education expenses can be said to be highly vulnerable to the economic condition.

3. Comparative Analysis Between the Education Policies of Previous Governments and Change in Private Education Expenses

1) 5th ·6th Republican Government (1980-1992)
The 5th Republic of South Korea suggested a plan to prohibit strictly all forms of private education through the 7.30 Scheme for Educational Innovation to ease the overheated private tutoring fever

and deal with the expensive private tuition across the nation. According to the survey on complementary education costs conducted in 1982, the partial permission of private education in a gradual manner since the mid-1980s has caused a change in the private tutoring cost.

Compared to 1988 as the start of the 6th Republic of South Korea, private education expenses recorded a rapid increase (KRW 891 billion → KRW 1.63 trillion, 0.65%→1.05%) in 1989. The republican government permitted private education partially because suppressing the people's need for and right to education forcibly is unreasonable even as all forms of private education are illegal. Private education expenses have significantly increased since 1989 when college students' private tutoring and students' attendance to lectures at institutes started to be allowed. The economic boom after the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games also contributed to the increase in private education expenditure in 1989.

2) Civilian Government-National Government (1993-2002)

The civilian government focused on producing excellent students with various talents and skills through diversified free education while permitting private education partially like what the 6th Republic of South Korea did.

Private education expenditure recorded a remarkable year-on-year increase in 1995 when the civilian government -- whose term started in 1993 -- actively discussed education policies to introduce the 5.31 Scheme for Educational Innovation (1995). Moreover, since the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) has been adopted as a new college entrance examination system, and the college entrance examination by university was revived, the high burden of new examination system more likely led to investment in private education particularly institutes specializing in college entrance examination or complementary lecture. The 5.31 Scheme for Educational Innovation including improvements in the 1997 college entrance examination system (prohibition of college entrance examination by university, adoption of cumulative records), establishment of independent private high schools, strengthened foreign language education, and permission of early school entrance also contributed to the increase in private education expenditure. The announcement made on August 4, 1995, i.e., allowing students to attend institutes, led to increasing private education cost as well.

Although household expenditure for private education has gradually increased since 1995 until the late 1990s, its ratio has decreased slightly. This is because after-school educational programs for extracurricular activities and complementary education have been implemented based on the 5.31 Scheme for Educational Innovation since 1996. In addition, short-term policies such as encouraging after-school educational activities and adopting EBS satellite broadcasting service for education in accordance with the Easing of Overheated Private Education and Reduction of Private Education Expenses announced by the government in 1997 had a positive effect on saving on private education expenditure.

In 1998, the national government started amid the economic depression brought about by IMF; as such, the decrease in private education expenditure was mainly caused by economic factors rather than the government's education policies.

There has not been any remarkable increase in private education expenditure since the mid-1990s; after the IMF crisis, however, private education expenditure has continued to rise since 2000 when the Constitutional Court declared that the prohibition of private education is unconstitutional. In other words, the Constitutional Court's judgment stimulated investment in private education, with each household's burden of high private education costs increasing further. Meanwhile, the 2000.6.27 Scheme for Preventing Overheated Private Education and Strengthening Public Education proposed by the government to establish step-by-step comprehensive countermeasures for minimizing the social byproducts of the Constitutional Court's judgment and preventing overheated private education helped check the increase in private education in 2002 compared to the previous year.

3) Participatory Government (2003-2007)

In February 2003, the participatory government started its term focusing on educational objectives such as strengthening autonomy and diversity and creating a capability-oriented society.

The ratio of private education expenditure against GDP increased by 2.25% for various reasons such as high demand for English education including continuous rise in overseas studying following the economic recovery since the early 2000s, expansion of foreign language high schools, and teaching of English as part of the curriculum at elementary schools. Moreover, the high demand for special-purpose high schools (called "magnet school" in the US) as a result of the national government's announcement on the expansion of foreign language high schools designated as special-purpose high schools (2001) and announcement on the expansion of independent high schools (called "charter school" in the US) and operation of schools for gifted-talented students (2003) contributed to the increase in private education expenditure.

Private education expenditure -- which recorded an increase of as much as 2.25% (2003) compared to 1.02% (2002) -- has not shown any remarkable increase since 2004. Note, however, that private tuition fee for arts and physical education constituted a larger portion of institution fees than the expenses for entrance examination and tutoring institutes from 1990 to 2002. Nonetheless, since 2003 & 2004, expenses for entrance examination and tutoring institutes have recorded higher increase than the private tuition fee for arts and physical education.

That is because the 2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses as announced by the participatory government in 2004 affected short-term education policies. For example, "after-school programs" and private education for talented students are run by schools, thereby enabling saving on private tuition fee for arts and physical education. Furthermore, policies such as the EBS broadcasting service for CSAT and normal operation of special-purpose high schools under the 2.17 Scheme for the Reduction of Private Education Expenses have contributed to the slowdown in the increase in private education expenditure. Unfortunately, however, each household's burden of private education has continued to increase as of 2007.

IV. Conclusions

As shown in the research results, private education policies have changed in close relation to the change in the college entrance examination system; various strategies to decrease the high demands for private education have been actively discussed in line with the change in education policies. Based on such research results, the following recommendations are made to improve the Korean education system:

First, the most fundamental measure for decreasing the high demand for private education and reducing private education expenditure is normalizing school education and ultimately strengthening its competence instead of compulsory policies forcing behavioral changes such as prohibition of private education. Therefore, for private education to be absorbed into school education, the government must diversify efficient alternatives to private education such as EBS educational broadcasting or after-school programs and develop them as effective systems to expand opportunities for education through a cooperative relationship.

Second, the previous governments implemented various policies to reduce demand for private education. As shown in this study, however, most of the education policies did not lead to satisfactory results. Instead, a new education policy may increase private education expenditure, proving that increasing private education costs cannot be solved only by education policies. That is because private education in Korea focuses more on satisfying the social and psychological requirements for higher social position and competitive advantage rather than on complementing studies on subjects where students get low grades. In other words, encouraging parents and students to strengthen their confidence in studying and creating a capacity-oriented society in the nation are absolutely required. Such efforts to ease the hierarchical structure in the labor market must have precedence over education policies.

Third, based on the analytical result of the relationship between the change in private education expenditure and policy, the size of private education expenditure continued to increase during economic growth. This means that the intended compulsory policies on private education do not have significant impacts on reducing private education expenditure. For example, in spite of the policy on prohibiting private education (1980), each household's burden of private education persisted in the 1980s. Because private education has been partially permitted since the late 1980s, and with the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games triggering an economic boom, however, private education has increased rapidly. Although private education expenditure decreased rapidly due to economic depression caused by IMF (1988), the full permission of private education since 2000 and revitalized economy in the early 2000s caused the rapid increase in private education costs despite various policies to control the overheated private education. In other words, each household's private education expenditure records a rapid increase during the economic boom but does not decrease even during an economic slowdown, although the growth pace is slow.

Fourth, the policy of reducing private education expenditure is related to almost all fields of domestic education. Like other education policies, policies involved in private education must be implemented in linkage with other policies systematically and comprehensively. Otherwise, they may not be effective, and other problems may occur as a result. Therefore, there is a need to conduct research on the fundamental causes of private education-related problems through systematic cooperation with various fields.

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**The Ramification of Cultural Diversity and its Implications toward Assessment in International Universities:
A Case Study of International University in Vietnam**

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ABSTRACT

International universities are growing rapidly. At a transnational university in Vietnam, the curriculum offered across all campuses is the same but students' results at Vietnamese campuses are not quite satisfactory.

Due to different learning styles and expectations from international students in Vietnam, should we adapt the assessments to fit the students? Would that affect the standards and quality of the program? This paper is going to examine the assessment issues faced by students.

KEYWORDS

International students, Cultural diversity, Assessment, International Curriculum

INTRODUCTION

Globalization makes education borderless. Due to neoliberalism, marketisation, economic rationalism, and corporate managerialism, the curricula in universities, especially in international universities, are standardized to be available to both local and international students (Bower et al., 2007). Education becomes one of the commodity services that universities provide. This argument is well supported by Alexander & Rizvi (1993), Dobson (1998), Starck (2000), Matthews (2002) and Marginson (2003) as cited in Feast (2005).

However, international students are from different cultural background, their expectations and learning styles are different. Western learners seem to be more independent while Asian learners are dependent on teachers and instructions based on the way they were taught in former education (Brown & Joughin, 2007; Vandermensbrugghe, 2003).   Majority of international students, who are away from their home countries are mostly non-native English speakers who travel to USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand, for instance, to receive their education in English. In the USA alone during 2007/2008, there were a total of 623, 805 international students, which is 7 percent more compared to the figures of the previous year (Open Doors, 2008). The trend of international students is moving up every year especially during the economic crisis.

Table I. Number of International students in USA in 2007/2008

Rank	Country	No. of International Students	Compared with Previous Year
1	India	94, 563	+13%
2	China	81,127	+20%
3	South Korea	69,124	+11%
4	Japan	33,974	-4%
5	Canada	29,051	+3%
6	Taiwan	29,001	- <1%
7	Mexico	14,837	+7%
8	Turkey	12,030	+5%
9	Saudi Arabia	9,873	+25%
10	Thailand	9,004	+1%
11	Nepal	8,936	+15%
12	Germany	8,907	+3%
13	Vietnam	8,769	+45%
14	United Kingdom	8,367	- <1%
15	Hong Kong	8,286	+7%
16	Indonesia	7,692	+5%
17	Brazil	7,578	+6%
18	France	7,050	+5%
19	Colombia	6,662	-1%
20	Nigeria	6,222	+5%

Source: Open Doors (2008)
Highlighted rows show non-native English speaking countries.

Most international students expect to have an international degree as a gateway to upgrade their career paths. However, once they enroll in the program, international students usually find it hard to keep up with domestic students. As part of the standard curriculum that has been internationalized to use in different campuses around the world, the same assessment format and grading were also used. Internationalising or rather the effects of globalization affects the usage of English as lingua franca for communications (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Therefore, the entry requirements for undergraduate level in the international curriculum is using the same standard, which are English proficiency score of either 525 on paper-based or 197 on computer-based on TOEFL score or 6.5 on overall score on IELTS test while receiving minimum 6.0 on each individual band, and other scores on other subjects depending on the area of study field. However, during the learning process, cultural diversity seems to affect how well they perform on the assessment. This paper will discuss assessment issues faced by students in an international university in Vietnam due to cultural backgrounds as well as suggesting recommendations to educators in international institutions.

ASSESSMENT AND ITS IMPORTANCE

As part of the learning process, assessment is one of the most important components in a curriculum as it is always viewed as a way to test or measure student performance. Popham (2008, p.10) stated that 'assessment is a formal attempt to determine students' status with respect to educational variables of interest'.   Brown et al. (1997) also stated that 'assessment defines what students regard as important, how they spend their time and how they come to see themselves as students and then as graduates. Students take their cues from what is assessed rather than from what lecturers assert is important'. Earl, L.M. (2003) cited in McMillan (2007) suggests that assessment *as* learning helps students to learn as it can be used as a tool for students to foster self-monitoring.

While the assessment is important of the education, the cultural differences make it inhomogeneous in many countries, students came from Asia-Pacific region may have concerns about the way they are being assessed in International Universities.

As stated by Brown and Joughin (2007) again, assessor's expectations in the assessment tasks maybe incompatible with the students' perceptions towards the assessment requirements. While Brown and Joughin (2007) stated that assessor should not take cultural backgrounds as barriers but rather the assessment should suit the cultural differences of students.

Therefore, assessment can be an issue for international student.   Especially in the international universities, students are away from their home countries, students have to cope with anxiety and need to adapt to their surroundings, as well as the way they work on their assessments. For instance, the writing format they used to write in the assignment in their home countries is not valid any more in the foreign context, friends helping each other on assignments resulting in plagiarism issues in Asian cultures, etc. (Vandermensbrugghe, 2003).   In some culture, certain assessment is brand new and students have never had a chance to develop the skills to cope with. Perhaps, another essence in internationalising the assessment is incorporating the western way of thinking into education; Vandermensbrugghe (2003) suggested that Anglo-Saxon countries such as Canada, USA, England and Australia are leading in internationalising the curriculum. At the same time, they may incorporate critical thinking as essence in setting learning objectives and thus affect the curriculum and asessment (Vandermensbrugghe, 2003). As a result, the westernized-based curriculum is blatantly used in many courses to assess students. This often creates 'culture shocks' or 'surprises' to international students.

Asian students tend to be more conservative and quiet when western students tend to be proactive and independent. In addition, most of the time, it is claimed that international students do not have sufficient English proficiency (Alexander 2007 as cited in Ryan et al. 2009). They are always been viewed as deficient and do not participate in class if they are not forced to (Egege & Kutieleh, 2004; Brown & Joughin, 2007).   Although the international students have been screened by the English proficiency tests using entry requirements, and are assumed to have adequate English level, they may still not be prepared well enough to deal with local knowledge, pronunciation and terminology in the subjects (Ryan et al. 2009). If Asian students are asked to defend their work in viva voice (oral) exams, they will feel more intimidating, resulting in worse performance than other assessment format. *This issue can affect the reliability and validity of the assessment.*

Reliability in assessment means that students' score are free from errors of measurement. (Popham 2008) Popham mentions internal error, external error and background knowledge of the students, however, K.G. (2009) argues that culture and gender also varies the result in the assessment in certain subjects such as mathematics.
In international universities, campuses located outside the home countries usually use the same format and grading criteria as the head campuses, where most students are western students.

According to the course guidelines at RMIT, each course assesses students in 3-4 tasks to ensure reliability and validity of the scores; which are usually mid-term examination of 20%, 2 assignments of 15% and hurdle final examination of 50%.

> A student must pass all components designated as hurdles in order to pass the course. In the event that a student fails one or more hurdle component, the result is a Fail (NN) and their final percentage mark is the lowest of the failed hurdle components. If, however, the combined grade for all components is lower than that of lowest failed hurdle component, the student will receive the combined grade for all components.
> (RMIT 2009)

Hurdle assessments are designed to make sure that students completed previous assignments by themselves and did not ask somebody else to complete the assignments for them.

Figure 1. Sources of Possible Errors in Assessment.
Source: Adapted from McMillan (2008) and K.G. (2009)

Table 2. Example of Assessment Criteria & Grading in an Australian University

Grade	Criteria	Percentile
HD	High Distinction	80 - 100
DI	Distinction	70 - 79
CR	Credit	60 - 69

| PA | Pass | 50 - 59 |
| NN | Fail | 0 - 49 |

Source: RMIT 2009

A CASE STUDY OF AN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY IN VIETNAM
This international university delivers the same degrees and diploma programs that students acquire in Australia. Academic programs in Vietnam operate to quality standards which aim to ensure an equivalence of educational outcome with students undertaking the same programs at the University in Australia and the programs are monitored by a five-year audit cycle by the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQUA) (RMIT 2009). Approximately 90% of Vietnam Campus students are Vietnamese, other 10% comprises of Korean, Chinese, Russian, Canadian, and other nationalities (Student Life, 2009). These students are considered international students.

Research Programme

To identify specific student challenges at an international university in Vietnam a research project was implemented.

Scope

The research was designed to identify specific assessment issues from the perspective of Vietnamese students. The programme was not designed to isolate specific challenges or issues with regard to the overall learning objectives but rather focused on the assessment design & implementation. At the outset is an existing perception that there exist considerable differences between Australian university assessment & Vietnamese university assessment. The programme therefore attempted to identify specific student issues with regard to assessment design & implementation. It is understood that due to sample & time constraints the research is limited to both students of & assessment at one institution.

Research design

Sample – random. The sample was randomly selected from a group of 100 first semester students.

Sample size – 20 students

Quantitative – through the use of a structured questionnaire allowing for numerical scoring

Qualitative – at the conclusion of each question respondents were encouraged to expand on their personal experience & views.

Question design – a series of short questions were used to elicit structured responses. The questions were designed to be easily understandable & through the use of numerical scoring also allow empirical results. The design was formulated through consultation with several existing academics from several countries, including Vietnam.

Moderated Research implementation – the research samples were controlled over a period of 1 hour during which time –
• Each question was explained before the respondents' sample recorded their score on a numerical scale.
• After completing the survey the respondents were able to supply further comments.

Sample Demographics

• 20 students
• 12 male
• 8 female
• 18 – 19 years old
• Vietnamese (all)
• High school graduates (all)
• RMIT first semester students

Questionnaire Design

See Appendix section.

Research results

Question 1: Do you understand this international university's assessment system?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results are ambiguous. Via the numerical marking score it is not statistically demonstrated that the students have any clear understanding.

Qualitative: During the extended interview all students expressed the opinion that they clearly understood the assessment methods. Clearly there is a disconnection between the two, which will be discussed in the conclusion.

Question 2: Is the assessment criteria clearly explained to you in the course material or by course instructors?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results demonstrate that students are clear and satisfied with the explanations & details supplied regarding assessments

Qualitative: During the extended interview all students expressed the opinion that they were happy with the degree of clarification. Several students did express the view that the criteria for assessment varied from course to course & furthermore the assessment criteria were often overly complex.

Question 3: In your opinion, do you think this international university's assessment is fair?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results indicate that the respondents believe the assessments are fair & objective.

Qualitative: Individual respondent comments support the qualitative results further demonstrating general satisfaction. No negative comments were recorded regarding fairness & objectivity.

Question 4: Is this international university's assessment system different from Vietnamese high school system? How?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: Respondents clearly indicated that they understand there to be a very large difference in assessment systems used at this international university's and Vietnamese universities. A large degree of unanimity was observed on this question.

Qualitative: Recorded comments strongly support the quantitative results. Respondents indicated that there exists a very large difference between the two methods. Of particular note were the following issues;

• grading system (Vietnamese universities typically average the results of both mid term & final exams)
• Vietnamese universities allow for a re take of the final exam if students are awarded a fail
• For many course at this international university, a final 'hurdle' exam is used. Respondents found this to be both unexpected & in some instances unbalanced.
• Many exams at this international university place a high percentage of total marks on the application of theories, in many ways the opposite of the system typical at local institutions.

Specific recorded comments regarding Vietnamese educational institutes include;

' Vietnamese schools require you to memorise.'
'Teachers expect us to study by heart'
'We learn parrot fashion'
'Creativity counted for only 10%'
'Vietnamese schools test memory'

Question 5: Which is the most important to you?
Result interpretation

Quantitative: 80% of respondents indicated that high scores were most important; the remaining 20% choose obtaining knowledge.

Qualitative: It was significant that there was a clear focus on results, grades & scores. This was significant in terms of the assessment design as students will become excessively concerned with the exact nature, design & marking criteria.

Question 6: Do you think the assessments should be modified to meet local and language ability?
Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results are ambiguous. There was a spread of results across all possible scores.

Qualitative: There was a disconnection between qualitative & quantitative results as the majority of respondents indicate during free comments that the assessment should be modified for local language skills. These comments extended to include the design of the instruction periods as well as the exam. Several respondents commented negatively on the excessive use of 'long words' in assessments.

Question 7: Would you prefer exam-based assessment or assignment-based assessment? Why?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results were clear, all respondents favoured assignment based assessment.

Qualitative: During the discussion period it was clear that there was a strong bias towards assignments & many reasons were offered to support this preference. Respondents indicated that exams do not test a broad base of knowledge & may disadvantage certain students due to stress or nerves. Respondents also indicated that assignments allow them to more fully explore the background & research for any given subject whilst simultaneously reducing the emphasis on time limited language skills.

Specific recorded comments included;
'Exams cannot test knowledge'
'Assignments allow us to do research '
'Exams focus on certain topics only'

Question 8: Does the standard exam system identify the most able student?
Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results are ambiguous. Via the numerical marking score it is not statistically demonstrated that the students have any clear opinion regarding the effectiveness of exams at identifying the most able students.

Qualitative: During the extended interview several students expressed the opinion that the multiple-choice style was better designed at identifying able students.

Question 9: Do you think the marking of the exam is objective and fair?
Result interpretation

Quantitative: There is a clear agreement amongst respondents that the marking system is objective & fair.

Qualitative: Comments made during the session support the quantitative results. No respondents expressed any concerns regarding objectivity.

Question 10: What problems do you come across when you prepare for the assessment?
Result interpretation

Quantitative: All respondents choose option 1 – 'do not know how to answer the questions'.

Qualitative: Respondents indicated that during the majority of classes they were taught theories only. Consequently they experienced difficulty in applying these theories in an exam-based situation. Also clearly indicated that this style of exam was new to them, as it is not used in any standard Vietnamese exam system. Respondents strongly indicated that the teachers should include examples of how to apply theories during the class.

Specific recorded comments include;

'I do not have enough experience to answer the questions'
'We study theory only. I do no know how to apply it.'
'I need example template or guidelines to answer the questions.'

Question 11: Do you feel lack of language skills affect the final score?

Result interpretation

Quantitative: The results are ambiguous. Via the numerical marking score it is not statistically demonstrated that the students have any clear degree of agreement regarding this issue. Results were spread almost evenly across all possible scores.

Qualitative: During the extended interview many students stated that their lack of English languages skills would impact upon their final score. These general comments disagreed with the scores chosen. It is difficult therefore to reach a firm conclusion regarding the students view on how language ability impacts on overall score.

CONCLUSION

Globalization makes a number of international universities grow rapidly. Because the transnational programs are found common in many universities, assessment is becoming an issue.   Most international students perform poorer on the assessment comparing to domestic students.   Because most international students has background studying in different environment and background, when they attend international universities, they do not expect a total change in the assessment in the

curriculum.

Using questionnaires to explore Vietnamese students' point of view at an international university in Vietnam has shown that Vietnamese students have studied in the way that they need to memorise and repeat the same idea in the assignments and examinations. Therefore, they have a hard time applying the knowledge studied in classrooms. Furthermore, Vietnamese students expect to have guidelines and examples to follow in the written work because they are afraid to express their opinion or new ideas as it can be viewed as 'rude' or 'challenging the teachers'. (Brown & Joughin, 2007) Therefore, in the Asian culture, where teachers are highly respected, students see that as an unacceptable practice.

At an international university in Vietnam, where classes are divided into 1 hour and 30 minutes each section, twice a week, approximately twenty percent is allocated to lectures and the remaining time is spent on workshop. However, Vietnamese students seem to need more time on practicing and applying theories as a transition from Vietnamese high school education to international university education, where memorizing is just not enough. As the research results have shown that though assessment system and criteria is quite clear to them, if they do not know how to answer then it is pointless.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Since the assessment itself does not seem to be the problem in the international students' point of view, according to the research findings, the teaching and learning styles are recommended to be changed.

Teaching and learning strategies for international universities should:
• Seek to secure the participation of all students and encourage all students to know and listen to each other;
• Provide students with a range of learning opportunities including provision for independent learning;
• Include research assignments with local organisations working on international projects or national projects with an intercultural focus;
• Include analyses of international case studies;
• Include problem-solving exercises in international or intercultural contexts;
• Include self-reflective writing that focuses on students' autobiographies and other strategies that encourage students to use their own background in their learning;
• Include inquiry-based assignments involving contact and communication with people from different cultural backgrounds and/or located in other countries
• Include internships in international/intercultural agencies;
• Include simulations of international or intercultural interactions;
• Include assignments that students can use examples from their own experience;
• Use CCC in counter-arguments;
• Support language learning
• Encourage critical discussion in class
• Provide multi-level reading guides
• Discussing different points of views

    Compiled from: Arkoudis(2006), Deakin University (2004), Killick (2007)

International universities, although using international curriculum, should use case studies based on local companies, local products, and environment to give a clearer picture to students until they understand. Then, teachers can move on to examples of companies in different companies and make comparison of local companies and foreign companies in class.

Universities might wish to set up a learning unit where senior students can volunteer to take shifts to help junior students and obtain a small fee or recognition, as senior students can also review their knowledge before they set off to work while junior students get to learn from their seniors. However, the language conducted must be in English language. In addition, students will get to network and learn to be good trainers in the future.

Group and individual projects, writing research paper, working on case studies will encourage individual learning as well as improving critical thinking skills, where international students seem to need it most. Discussion questions might be given as guidelines to help students to initiate thinking process. In international universities, plagiarism case can also be an issue when students are helping

each other work and end up having similar result. Therefore, developing critical thinking skills will promote students to learn how to apply the theory and perform better in assessments.

Provide reading guides such as sets of questions to accompany difficult articles will allow students processing time that second language learners need (Arcoudis 2006). Therefore, by providing multi-level reading guides, students may find reading easier and access the main ideas faster. Teachers may wish to assign students to perform a short role-play to allow students to take part in the story. As a result, they may have a better understanding of the case studies or articles.

Small group discussions in class may be important, as it will allow students to argue and exchanging different points of views. Teachers should be walking around the classroom and facilitating the discussion. After sometimes, the groups may present their idea to the class and receive feedbacks from fellow students or teachers may wish to rotate the members of the groups to allow further discussion. This will allow students to learn to accept different points of view, as well as, encouraging students to think critically as well.

However, each university is different, at an international university in Vietnam, in particular, where two classes per week used to be taught in one lecture and one tutorial per week are transformed into 30-student per classroom with two classes a week. It is a challenge to the teachers where there are a lot of materials to be transferred to students, and there need to be time to allow students to learn how to apply them into their real life. Teachers might wish to pre-assess students before learning to understand students' background and expectations. The key is to balance lecturing time, interaction time, questioning time, and feedback time. Once the class is balanced, international students should have fewer problems in adapting their learning styles and performing better in the coming assessments.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire Design

- Do you understand this international university's assessment system?
- Is the assessment criteria clearly explained to you in the course material or by course instructors?
- In your opinion, do you think this international university's assessment is fair?
- Is this international university's assessment system different from Vietnamese high school system? How?
- Which is the most important to you?
-      High scores on assessment
-      Obtaining relevant knowledge
-      Socialization
-      Getting a degree
-      Preparing for employment
-      Other _____
- Do you think the assessments should be modified to meet local and language ability?
- Would you prefer exam-based assessment or assignment-based assessment? Why?
- Does the standard exam system identify the most able student?
- Do you think the marking of the exam is objective and fair?
- What problems do you come across when you prepare for the assessment?
-      Do not know which area to concentrate on
-      Do not know how to get high score
-      Do not understand the marking criteria in some exams, i.e. accounting
-      Do not know how to answer the questions
-      Other _____
- Do you feel lack of language skills affect the final score?

Curriculum Development for Practicing Ability Formation through Field Survey 2008-2009:
Mainly on a Social Skill Theory

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to improve the study model of student's memory type, and to produce the curriculum that develops the field survey ability. It is incontrovertible that many of past university educations in Japan tend to give priority to the transmission of one-way knowledge by the lecture form too much. It did not come to support student's problem discovery and problem solving ability. Therefore, the field survey of the student's (1) discovering the investigation object, (2) trying communications, and (3) discovering and presenting the problem is made a curriculum in this educational improvement plan. The difference with the social investigation practice of the past is to put the following social skill theories this plan on the mind, and to make a detailed educational curriculum.

Communications: It is related, speaks, and it appeals.
Object grasp: It sees and it catches.
Problem solution: It thinks and it compares it.

The curriculum in this educational improvement plan has been offering as the regular curriculum of Department of Management and Communication, Faculty of Life Design; it newly established in 2008, the Tohoku Institute of Technology. The subject composition is as follows.

Logical idea method
Social investigation method
Social science itemized discussion
Primary statistics
Intermediate statistics
Data analysis
Information science training for social research

The educational improvement plan has been begun from April 2008, and receives the Japan Universities Association for Computer Education (JUCE) subsidy, is adopted as a support of the upgrade and making to individuality plan of the undergraduate education in fiscal year 2008, and is continuing now.

Comparison of the 2004 SSEP with NCSS Themes

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Abstract

The Social Studies Education Program (SSEP) for the 4th and 5th grades was redesigned by the Ministry of Education in 2004. In this study, the 2004 SSEP was examined in relations with the themes determined within the context of NCSS criteria. The NCSS themes were compared with the learning areas of the 2004 SSEP in terms of highlighted points, questions, and emphasized topics.

Key Words: Social Studies Education Program, learning areas, NCSS themes

INTRODUCTION

In Turkey, the Ministry of Education redesigned primary education programs in 2004. As a result, the Social Studies Education Program (SSEP) for the 4th and 5th grades has changed remarkably. It is inevitable for primary education programs to have some global qualities and standards since they aim at training the work force that could meet the needs of era and keep up with the developing and changing world. Examining the 2004 primary education programs in terms of standards of international institutions at certain disciplines will give opinions about using their criteria as information sources and appropriateness of the programs with the standards in the world. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) in the USA aims at making Social Studies course more effective with some criteria and themes; besides, NCSS argues for the necessity of designing the education programs on the basis of the skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, decision making (Rice and Wilson, 1999)**.** This study aimed at examining the 2004 SSEP according to the themes determined within the context of NCSS criteria and the learning areas.

When the SSEP for the 4th and 5th grades is examined, it could be seen that the vision of this program is to train citizens of Turkish Republic who adopt Ataturk's principles and reforms, comprehend Turkish history and culture; also who are equipped with democratic values; respectful to human rights, and environmentally- conscious; besides who could interpret information with their experiences and hence could form, use and arrange it within social and cultural context. Additionally, it aims at preparing individuals who develop social participation skills and learn the methods that social scientists use for information production, also who know their rights and responsibilities and who are active and productive in social life (MEB, 2005, p. 43).

The 2004 SSEP differs from the previous program in terms of its objectives, content, teaching-learning process and evaluation. For example, the 2004 SSEP has teaching units designed within the framework of the learning areas while the content of the previous program consists of subjects and sub-subjects. A learning area is defined as "the structure which classifies learning and which contains related skill, theme and concepts as a whole" (MEB, 2005, p. 102). Thanks to the learning areas, the 2004 SSEP realizes a kind of thematic learning (Yasar, 2005, p. 334). The learning areas and units of the 2004 SSEP are indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. The Learning Areas and Units of the 2004 SSEP

Learning Areas	Units for the 4th grade	Units for the 5th grade
Individual and Society	I am learning about myself	I am learning my rights
Culture and Heritage	I am learning the past	Step by step Turkey
People, Places and Environments	The place we live	We are learning about our

		region
Production, Distribution and Consumption	From production to consumption	Our products
Science, Technology and Society	Fortunately we have them	Realized dreams
Groups, Institutions and Social Organizations	All together	People working for society
Power, Management and Society	People and management	A country and a flag
Global Connections	My friends away	Our World

While determining the learning areas, different social studies disciplines were included; and it was attempted to release the social studies education course from the dominance of History and Geography disciplines in contrast to the previous social studies education program. Thus, in this course it is tried to have students gain social identity through social studies disciplines starting from their near surroundings. In this study, ten themes determined by the NCSS for the Social Studies have been examined in detail.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the 2004 Social Studies Education Program in Turkey in terms of the themes established by NCSS. Specifically, the following two questions guided this study:
- What are the themes identified by NCSS and what are the learning areas in the 2004 SSEP in Turkey?
- To what extent are the 2004 SSEP learning areas consistent with the themes identified by NCSS?

METHODOLOGY

Document analysis, a qualitative research method, was used in the study. This method involves analyzing the printed materials containing information related to the phenomenon under investigation. Which documents are significant and can be used as data sources is determined in accordance with the research problem. As far as educational research is concerned, documents such as programs, student books and teacher guide books, course books, student records, school letters, student assignments and exams, lesson and unit plans can be used as data sources (Yildirim and Simsek, 2005).

The data sources used in the study include the "Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: Expectations of Excellence" by NCSS (2002) and the 2004 Social Studies Education Program (MEB, 2005) in Turkey. First step in the study was establishing the themes identified by NCSS and the learning areas in the 2004 SSEP. Then, the NCSS themes and the learning areas in the SSEP were analyzed comparatively to determine to what extent the 2004 SSEP learning areas are consistent with the themes identified by NCSS. In this regard, the features of the themes identified by NCSS were presented first and then how a specific theme was included in the 2004 SSEP was examined so that the similarities and differences could be determined.

FINDINGS

The findings obtained in parallel with the research objectives are presented below.

The Themes Identified by NCSS and the Learning Areas in the 2004 SSEP

Table 2 shows the NCSS themes and the learning areas of the 2004 SSEP together.

Table 2. The NCSS Themes and Learning Areas of the 2004 SSEP

2004 SSEP Learning Areas	NCSS Themes
Individual and Society	Individual Development and Identity
Culture and Heritage	Culture
People, Places and Environments	People, Places, and Environments
Production, Distribution and Consumption	Production, Distribution, and Consumption
Science, Technology and Society	Science, Technology, and Society
Groups, Institutions and Social Organizations	Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
Power, Management and Society	Power, Authority, and Governance
Global Connections	Global Connections
Time, continuity and change	Time, Continuity, and Change
No overlapping	Civic Ideals and Practices

As seen in table 2, the learning areas in the 2004 SSEP are similar to the themes determined by NCSS. While some of the NCSS themes such as "People, Places and Environment", "Production, Distribution and Consumption", "Science, Technology and Society", "Global Connections" take place by the same token in the 2004 SSEP, the other themes like "Individual Development and Identity", "Culture", "Individuals, Groups, and Institutions", are all included in the 2004 SSEP with similar names.

On the other hand, the theme of "Civil Ideals and Practices" does not take place in the 2004 SSEP. Furthermore, there are not any teaching units or attainments related to the learning area of "Time Continuity and Change" in the 2004 SSEP. Teaching this learning area in association with the other learning areas is suggested.

Comparison of the NCSS Themes with the Learning Areas of the 2004 SSEP

With regard to the second research question, the NCSS themes and the SSEP learning areas were compared to determine to what extent the 2004 SSEP learning areas are consistent with the themes identified by NCSS. The similarities and differences for each theme then were presented.

Culture

According to NCSS (2002, p. 21), the Social Studies Education program should provide experience to students about the studies on culture and cultural variations. In a democratic and multi-cultural society, students are required to understand multi-perspectives derived from different cultural features. Such an approach helps them to develop new understandings about the people in their society and the world (NCSS, 2002, p. 21). Sunal and Haas (2002, p. 9) emphasize that the main aim of Social Studies course is to help students develop their skills of decision making and obtaining information as citizens who embrace the cultural differences as richness in a society of democracy.

In the 2004 SSEP, this theme takes place as the "Culture and Heritage" learning area, which aims to introduce the fundamental components of Turkish culture, and adopt the necessity of development and protection of the culture to develop the national awareness. While students comprehend the fact that cultural components are the features separating a society from the others, they meanwhile realize that they could contribute to develop and enrich global world cultural heritage which occurs from local to national and from national to universal (MEB, 2005, p.103).

Comparing the theme of "Culture" determined by NCSS with the "Culture and Heritage" learning area of the 2004 SSEP yields some differences between them. In the 2004 SSEP, it is emphasized that students should firstly learn about their own culture. Thus, in the 4th grade, the unit entitled as "I am

learning the past" asks students to investigate the cultural past for their near surroundings. However, the learning area called "Culture and Heritage" is mostly associated with History discipline, so Geography, Anthropology and Sociology have been ignored and the effect of language on culture has been undervalued. Therefore, it could be claimed that some of the questions that NCSS (2002, p. 21) asks (such as "How do belief systems, religion or political ideas in a culture influence other components of the culture?", "How does a culture adapt to changing ideas and beliefs?", or "What does language inform about culture?") could not be answered in the activities and attainments of the 2004 SSEP.

Time, Continuity, and Change

According to the NCSS (2002, p. 22), the SSEP should inform students about the ways through which they could see themselves within the time. Knowing how to read the past and restructure it enable students to develop historical viewpoints and answer these questions: Who am I? What happened in the past? How does the past concern me? How did the world change and will it also change in the future? Why do our own personal ideas that we are not related with the past change? How possible to see our viewpoints about our life experience as the parts of human being history within time? (NCSS, 2002, p. 22).

In the 2004 SSEP, this learning area is defined as the requirement to understand students' own ancestors and their positions at the present time. Furthermore, this program could help students connect past-present and future. Thus, students could learn about their identity, past events and connect them with past and they could understand the changes of the world and its future circumstance. Besides, they could try to explain people's emotional ties with past, their positions through humankind history in terms of chronology, change and continuity perspective (MEB, 2005, p. 104).

The 2004 SSEP and the NCSS resemble with one another in terms of their viewpoints and target attainments for "Time, continuity and change". Both of them are based on the students' comprehension of change by locating themselves within the past, present and future process, also on their interpretation and understanding of the past. However, when the 2004 SSEP is examined on the basis of teaching units, it could be seen that there is no direct unit related to "Time, continuity and change" whereas it is pointed out that this learning area is associated with all other areas.

People, Places, and Environments

The studies on people, places and instruction between human and environment help learners develop spatial ideas and geographical viewpoints. The contemporary social, cultural, economic and civic requirements necessitate individuals to ask some questions and be able to answer them. These questions are "Where are the objects positioned? Why are they positioned there? What does "region" mean? How do the forms of lands change? What are the results of these changes for people?" Thus, this field study enables learners to make critical decisions as well as learning about the relation between humankind and environment. In schools, this theme is usually covered through the teaching units and lessons related to Geography (NCSS, 2002, p. 22).

In the 2004 SSEP, by means of this theme, it is aimed at letting students recognize the people's interaction with environment, and understand the results and reasons of this interaction by applying various skills and values; also gain personal or social viewpoints of future. In that sense, the students could know their environment. What is more, they would comprehend the significance of their environment and its protection not only for themselves but also for the society and future life while criticizing the role of humans for their habitation and being environmentally-conscious (MEB, 2005, p. 103).

It could be claimed that the 2004 SSEP has a parallel understanding with the NCSS for the learning area of "People, Places and Environment", which is based on the discipline of Geography. As Turner

(1999, p. 68) pointed out Geography is a discipline that investigates the surface of the earth and its relation with human life. By means of this theme, it is aimed at helping students gain geographical viewpoints by assimilating the interaction of human, place and environment; furthermore, it is desired to help students develop environmental consciousness.

Individual Development and Identity

According to the NCSS (2002, p. 24), the SSEP must contain the experiences about individual development and identity. How do people learn? What are the reasons for their behaviors? How do people influence what they learn, perceive and develop? How do people meet their basic needs in such diversity? Such questions are at the heart of the studies related to individuals' development from their youth to adolescence. In schools, this theme is usually included in courses and teaching units related to Anthropology and Psychology (NCSS, 2002, p. 24).

In the 2004 SSEP, this theme takes place under the title of Individual and Society and it tries to examine the effects of individual's personal development and social environment on the development. Students will determine their places in different groups, and try to relate role, right and responsibility; at last, they will realize that they have rights as children. For this learning area, the fundamental concepts of the disciplines of Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology and Social Anthropology and Political Science are given (MEB, 2005, p. 102).

The theme of "Individual Development and Identity" determined by NCSS has some common points with the "Individual and Society" learning area of the 2004 SSEP. Both of them emphasize the significance of culture and social environment for the development of an individual's identity and shaping the behaviors. However, the effect of Sociology discipline is a bit more dominant in the 2004 SSEP. Although these two programs share the common philosophy, it could be claimed that the 2004 SSEP emphasizes rights and responsibilities for this learning area more than NCSS.

Individuals, Groups, and Institutions

It is important for students to know how the institutions emerge, what controls and influence these institutions, also how institutions control and affect individuals and culture and to know how these institutions survive and change. The studies about individuals, groups and institutions based on Sociology, Anthropology and other disciplines prepare students to ask and answer some certain questions such as; what are the roles of institutions in my society and other societies? How am I influenced by the institutions? How do the institutions change? What is my role in institutional change? Moreover, this theme is studied in Sociology, Anthropology, Psychology, Political Science and History courses and teaching units in schools (NCSS, 2002, p. 25).

In the 2004 SSEP, this learning area takes place under the title of "Groups, Institutions and Social Organizations". Thus, students could examine how the groups, institutions and social organizations around influence their lives via this learning area. Besides, due to social problems, events and requirements, students will be aware of the significance of being a responsible individual associating group, institutions and social organizations and the importance of organizing and social participation. For this learning area, students will encounter the concepts of Sociology, Law, Psychology, Political Science and Civil Rights (MEB, 2005, s. 104-105).

The NCSS theme of "Individuals, Groups and Institutions" shares some similar points with the learning area of "Groups, Institutions and Social Organizations" of the 2004 SSEP. Both of them emphasize the mutual interaction among individual-group-institution; also, the foundations of institutions and groups and their effects on an individual are highlighted. Additionally, the 2004 SSEP contains social organizations and the importance of social participation is mentioned. However, in the 2004 SSEP, the role of an individual in institutional change, which NCSS has emphasized for this theme, is neglected.

Power, Authority, and Governance

The Social Studies Program should provide experiences about the studies on how people establish the structures of authority, power and management and how they change them. Hence, students should answer these questions: What is power? How is power gained, used and justified? What is legal authority? How are the governments founded, structured and changed? How can we hold the government accountable for the civil requirements? How can individuals' rights be protected in the rules of the majority? (NCSS, 2002, p. 26).

This learning area is under the title of "Power, Management and Society" in the 2004 SSEP. Students notice their responsibilities and duties by examining the ways of full-participation in the society as conscious citizens, which is one of main goals of Social Studies course. Furthermore, by learning the ways to participate in social services and various official activities, they would recognize the democratic ways to influence the management (MEB, 2005, p. 105).

Both the NCSS theme of "Power, Authority, and Governance" and the learning area of "Power, Management and Society" of the 2004 SSEP aim at training effective citizens in a democratic society. According to Kaltsounis (1987, p. 4) the Social Studies course is quite important since it promotes training responsible citizens who could keep the continuity of society. Michaelis and Garcia (1996, p. 3) stated some functions of the social studies course as forming an understanding about democratic structure and values; developing decision making and participation skills related to thinking skills and social criticism competency; and providing information necessary to cope with social problems and comprehend human relations.

By means of this theme, students are proposed to learn how the government is formed as a management mechanism in a society, what their democratic rights are as citizens, and how to use these rights and how to participate in management. However, as being different from NCSS, the 2004 SSEP emphasizes local administrations more in the concepts of "Power and Authority using this power".

Production, Distribution, and Consumption

The Social Studies Programs should give information about the studies on how production, consumption and distribution are arranged by people. The human beings have requirements which necessitate more than restricted sources. Therefore, to answer four basic questions different ways are tried: What will be produced? How will the production be arranged? How will these goods and services be distributed? In that sense, this theme is generally taught through units and courses related to economics discipline in the form of concept, principle and subject (NCSS, 2002, p. 27).

In this learning area which takes place with the same name in the 2004 SSEP, it is expected that primary school students could distinguish their desires and needs and the differences among them. Moreover, they would comprehend the inadequacy of resources in the national economics and believe the protection of existing resources. Students could learn the basic concepts about production, distribution and consumption, and so by knowing more about professions they realize that the professions are for the ease of life (MEB, 2005, p. 104).

The theme of "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" is defined as a theme based on economics discipline in both the 2004 SSEP and NCSS source of "Program Standards for Social Studies". One of the important goals of Social Studies course is to have students acquire skills for economic life. It could be claimed that the learning area of "Production, Distribution and Consumption" overlaps with the same theme of NCSS in terms of structure and content.

Science, Technology, and Society

According to the NCSS (2002, p. 8), Social Studies Programs should promote the studies on the relations among Science, Technology and Society. As known, without technology and science that supports it, a modern life is impossible. However, some questions emerge along with technology: Is new technology better than the old one? What can we learn from the past about the unexpected big social changes caused by new technology? How could we cope with the past changes and the feeling that technology is out of control? How could we protect our basic values and beliefs in the world which has become a village connected with each other via technology? Furthermore, this theme is seen in teaching units and courses related to History, Geography, Economics, Civics and Management.

This theme takes place with the same name in the 2004 SSEP. The modern life is impossible without technology and science. In this learning area, students learn that creative, critical and scientific thinking underlie the developments of science and technology. Besides, they comprehend the processes of scientific and technological developments and their effects on social life. On the other hand, they discuss how some technological products destroy nature while learning to what extent technology is related to their daily lives. In this learning area, students are informed about the basic concepts related to History, Geography, Economics and Civics (MEB, 2005, p. 104).

Within the context of the theme of "Science, Technology and Society", both NCSS and the 2004 SSEP emphasize the same points and answers the same questions. In this theme, it is aimed at enabling the students to comprehend the effects of technology on the social life, evaluate the benefits and costs of new technology, and understand the necessity of using technology in accordance with ethical rules; and as a result, gain scientific thinking.

Global Connections

The Social Studies Program provides experiences about the studies on global connection and interdependence. Examining the relationships and patterns among cultures like economical competition, dependence, ancient envy, political or military cooperation would help students investigate alternative politics developed in national and global contexts. This theme is generally associated with Geography, Culture and Economics; however, Humanities containing Literature, Art and Language, Physical and Natural Sciences are also included (NCSS, 2002, p. 29).

In the 2004 SSEP, the aim of this learning area is to inform students about all kinds of interactions between societies through the themes of disciplines such as Geography, Anthropology, and Economics. While students learn about general characteristics of countries in different regions of the world through the subjects of Geography, students also have the opportunity to compare and contrast their countries with other countries (MEB, 2005, p. 105).

Within the context of the theme of "Global Connections", the framework of the 2004 SSEP generally overlaps NCSS, whereas it could be claimed that NCSS handles this theme from a larger perspective. In that sense, "Global Connections" is a vital topic for Social Studies course. The attempts of integration among countries in the world and universal movement in education cause education to become global (Sozer, 1998, p. 35). By means of this theme, it is aimed at enabling students to balance national and universal viewpoints in the case of facts and events of all aspects of lives, and develop sensitivity to the current global issues and also comprehend the fact that the nations are interdependent and they influence each other. However, the 2004 SSEP ignores global matters of tension, economic development, environmental quality, universal human rights and so forth which are caused by national and global priorities; yet it highlights the introduction of different cultures and economic cooperation.

Civic Ideals and Practices

Social Studies Programs should emphasize the studies about citizenship ideals in a democratic republic, their principles and applications. Comprehension of citizenship ideals and applications is essential for full participation in the society, and hence this is an aim at the heart of Social Studies. The learners ask such questions; what is citizenship participation and how could I join in this? How does the meaning of citizenship develop? What is the balance between rights and responsibilities? What are the roles of a citizen in a nation and society as the member of world community? How could I create a positive variety? Furthermore, this theme is included in teaching units and courses related to History, Political Studies, Cultural Anthropology, global studies and Law; also in the content of Humanities (NCSS, 2002, p. 29).

The Social Studies course is quite significant to gain students citizenship ideals. As known, the most important goal of social studies teaching is to lead students to gain "societal personality". When the 2004 SSEP is examined, it could be seen that there is not a direct learning area with a title of "Citizenship Ideals and Applications". However, in all learning areas, there is a great emphasis on the gain of citizenship consciousness. Especially in the learning areas of "Individual and Society", "Groups, Institutions and Social Organization" and "Power, Management and Society", it is planned to have students gain some expectations from active citizens such as citizenship rights and responsibilities and social participation.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Within the context of program development studies, the SSEP was designed by the Ministry of Education in 2004 and put into practice as of the 2005-2006 academic year. It aims at enabling individuals to participate in life actively, decide accurately and solve problems (Gultekin, 2005, p. 519). Moreover, this program intends to train students as information producers and users and help them to develop needed skills and values through their own experiences. It could be claimed that this program is a quite important attempt to adopt learner-centered understanding and to put it into practice.

The evaluation of the 2004 SSEP in terms of the standards of international vocational institutions is crucial to adopt an understanding of a modern and universal program. The NCSS in the USA which has some guiding studies on Social Studies also makes some predictions on the Social Studies course in its source called "The Program Standards for Social Studies"; and thus its content was integrated with ten themes. In this context, when the learning areas of the 2004 SSEP are compared with NCSS themes, it could be seen that the themes determined by NCSS take place in the 2004 SSEP with the same or similar names. Of the ten themes determined by NCSS, except the theme of "Citizenship Ideals and Applications", nine themes are included in the 2004 SSEP. In this program, there are nine themes that were called as the learning areas and eight units related to eight themes, except for the theme of "Time, Continuity and Change".

Although the learning areas in the 2004 SSEP generally overlap with NCSS themes in terms of objectives and content, it is obvious that NCSS adopts a broad perspective for some themes. In the 2004 SSEP, nationality is emphasized, yet the balance of local-universal is neglected; furthermore "Global Connections" is perceived as the comparison of our nation with the others. It could be claimed that having a broad viewpoint would be more effective to prepare the future citizens.

The following recommendations can be put forward based on these conclusions:
- The Turkish 2004 SSEP and social studies education programs of developed countries could be studied comparatively.
- The 2004 SSEP could be improved in light of the comparative study.
- Some in-service training programs could be arranged concerning the consistency of the 2004 SSEP with international standards.
- Teacher candidates of Social Studies could be provided with informative training regarding the consistency of the 2004 SSEP with international standards.

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AVIATION ENGLISH: THE PRACTICALITY IN AVIATION INDUSTRY

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

UniKL MIAT is geared to be the premier Aviation training institution specializing in Aircraft Maintenance Technology with a population of 1600 students. The comprehensive yet balanced mix of theoretical and practical training complying with global airworthiness authorities' standards and industry requirements will enable graduates to keep pace with the demands of aircraft maintenances at present and in the future. UniKL MIAT produces graduates with the knowledge on wide range of aircraft technology in servicing, overhaul and maintenance tailored to the industrial requirements. The training programmes are comply with the international Aviation regulatory bodies and closely monitored by the Department of Civil Aviation Malaysia (DCAM). Not only that, DCAM has set the high standard of English proficiency which is in contrast with UniKL MIAT students' entry requirement. As English is one of the main languages in Aviation, UniKL MIAT is using English as the medium of instruction for teaching purposes.

The English subject offered in UniKL MIAT for Diploma in Aircraft Maintenance Technology (DAMT) is a combination of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It focuses on theory, practical and complex grammar which the syllabus consists of Grammar, Writing, Presentation Skills, Communication Skills, Business Communication, Job Hunting Skills and Technical Report Writing.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the practicality of the Aviation English syllabus in the Aviation industry. There is a need to know whether the syllabus is effective for the graduates' communication skills in the real working world. The research statements are as below:
1. Improvement on the proficiency skills which includes speaking, reading, writing and listening.
2. Effectiveness class activities.
3. Sufficient class contact hours.
4. Necessity of the multimedia facilities

1.3 Limitations of the Study

This study investigates the practicality of Aviation English syllabus in industry for UniKL MIAT graduates from different trades including avionics, manufacturing and composite. Due to tight scheduling and majority of the graduates are pursuing their studies, it limits the number of respondents.
1.4 Aviation English

English is the standard language of Aviation set by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). This does not apply only to those directly involved in flying or air-traffic control, but virtually to all those employed in aviation sectors who are required to communicate with international passengers and customers, pilots, dispatchers, operations centre technicians and regulatory agencies. To facilitate the interchange of information among them, English has evolved to become the global language for all aviation needs, and solid command of both general as well as it specialized (ESP) varieties, has become an essential prerequisite for safety efficiency and effective communication (Bratanic).

2.0 METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered by distributing the questionnaires among 60 UniKL MIAT graduates from different trades including avionics, manufacturing and composite. The questionnaires focused on the factors of the effectiveness such as proficiency skills, group work based activities, class contact hours and media facilities.

3.0 RESULT

Proficiency skills are divided into four skills; Speaking, Reading, Writing and Listening. Referring to Figure 1, 54.1% of the respondents agreed that they are more confident in Speaking after learning Aviation English for 4 semesters in UniKL MIAT. However, 50.6% of them were uncertain whether they are able to speak clearer, louder and more fluent although 62.4% of the respondents agreed that they are more confident participating in discussion. Besides that, 49.4% of them agreed that they have more confidence communicating with people.

Figure 1: Speaking

Referring to Figure 2, 57.6% of the respondents agreed they differentiate better between general English and Technical terminologies in Reading. Besides that, 65.9% of them agreed that they are able to extract important points for job purposes such as in reading the Aviation manual, reports and many more.

Figure 2: Reading

Figure 3 shows that 56.5% of the respondents agreed that they are able to spell correctly and 45.9% of them agreed that they are able to choose suitable words when they write. Unfortunately, 55.3% of the respondents were uncertain on their ability to write grammatically correct sentences.

WRITING

Figure 3: Writing

Based on Figure 4, 67.1% of the respondents agreed that when they listen, they are able to understand better the meanings of many words. Besides that, 80% of them agreed that they are able to follow instructions given and 60% of the respondents agreed that they are able to recognise and interpret speaker's views, attitudes or intentions.

LISTENING

Figure 4: Listening

In relation with the Class Activities, 65.9% of the respondents agreed that the exercises given are helpful for their present job scope as shown in Figure 5. Besides that, 51.8% of the respondents agreed that the assignment topics given are relevant and 67.1% of them agreed that the assignment topics given are helpful. Moreover, 56.5% of the respondents agreed that the knowledge in presentation skills has helped them in their present jobs.

CLASS ACTIVITIES (1)

Figure 5: Class Activities

In their present job, 67.1% of the respondents agreed the experience working in groups has helped them to become good team players, 58.8% agreed it has helped them to be active team players and 47.1% agreed they have become creative team player as shown in Figure 6. Besides that, 40% of the respondents agreed that individual assessment has helped them to become good staff, 58.8% agreed they have become independent staff and 48.3% agreed they have become creative staff.

CLASS ACTIVITIES (2)

Figure 6: Group Work

Figure 7 shows that 66.5% of the respondents felt that the 2-hour class for Aviation English is enough.

CONTACT HOURS

Figure 7: Class Contact Hours

For the Multimedia Facilities, 82.4% of the respondents felt that language lab should be provided and 91.8% felt that computer lab should be used as part of class activities as shown Figure 8. 98.8% of the respondents preferred LCD projector, and 71.8% of them preferred OHP as part of teaching aids.

Figure 8: Multimedia Facilities

4.0 DISCUSSION

After 4 semesters of learning Aviation English, most of the graduates are more confident participating in discussion and communicating with others in their present job. Furthermore, they understand better when they read both in general and Aviation English as this is important in understanding the Aviation Manuals. Unfortunately, graduates were uncertain on their ability to write grammatically correct sentences. If given more class contact hours, without doubt more concentration would be made on grammar. Besides that, graduates are able to listen better where they are capable to follow instructions given. Since they have improved their confidence in Speaking, their presentation skills have also improved. Not only that, graduates benefit from all class activities. Graduates felt that the 2-hour class for Aviation English is enough due to the packed schedule of Technical and other subjects. Graduates also felt that language lab should be provided as part of class activities.

5.0 CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, the Aviation English syllabus is effective for UniKL MIAT as graduates have improved in most of the skills. However, there are more rooms for improvement to prepare future graduates for the working world and to achieve the standard set by ICAO.

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AVIATION ENGLISH: THE PRACTICALITY IN AVIATION INDUSTRY

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HIGHER EDUCATION

UNIKL MIAT STUDENTS ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE USE OF CODE SWITCHING BY THE TECHNICAL INSTRUCTORS IN CLASSROOM

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.5 Background of the Study

UniKL MIAT is geared to be the premier Aviation training institution specializing in Aircraft Maintenance Technology with a population of 1600 students and 50 students are International students. Figure 1 shows the number of students for semester 5 Diploma in Aircraft Maintenance Technology with 346 Malaysian students and only 2 International students.

Figure 1: Number of students for Semester 5 Diploma in UniKL MIAT

The comprehensive yet balanced mix of theoretical and practical training complying with global airworthiness authorities' standards and industry requirements will enable graduates to keep pace with the demands of aircraft maintenances at present and in the future. UniKL MIAT produces graduates with the knowledge on wide range of aircraft technology in servicing, overhaul and maintenance tailored to the industrial requirements. The training programmes are comply with the international Aviation regulatory bodies and closely monitored by the Department of Civil Aviation Malaysia (DCAM). Not only that, DCAM has set the high standard of English proficiency which is in contrast with UniKL MIAT students' entry requirement.

As English is one of the main languages in Aviation, UniKL MIAT is using English as a medium of instruction for teaching purposes. The fact is after eleven years of learning English in primary and secondary schools, most of Malaysian students are still not proficient in this language. For this reason, the Technical instructors in UniKL MIAT have to code switch in order to teach technical subjects in English. Furthermore, they think that the use of code switching in class is a tool in teaching. Hence, this research is based on UniKL MIAT students' perception towards the use of code switching in the classroom.

1.6 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to look at several aspects relating to the UniKL MIAT students' attitude towards the use of code switching by the Technical Instructors in classroom by responding to the research statements below:
5. Frequency of code switching in the classroom.
6. Reasons of using code switching in the classroom.
7. Attitude towards the use of code switching.
8. The implications of using code switching in teaching the Technical subjects.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This study investigates semester 5 UniKL MIAT students' attitude and opinions towards the use of code switching by their Technical Instructors as a language tool. Due to time limitation, code switching which is naturally occurs in the classroom is not observed in the study.

1.8 Code Switching

Code switching refers to the change from one language to another in verbal communication context in a particular situation. Code switching is used in a classroom to help the instructors to teach their subject. In this context, the instructors will start the lesson in the second language (English), and then moving into the first language (Bahasa Malaysia) based on the certain circumstances. According to Willis (1981), the use of code switching in a classroom is preferable and economical when the instructors wanted to explain the meaning of new words in order to make the students to understand better.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered by distributing 70 questionnaires using convenient sampling among semester 5 Diploma students. The questionnaires were divided into three parts using Likert Scale. The first part was the frequency of using code switching in the classrooms, the second part was the attitude towards the use of code switching by Technical instructors, and the third part was the implications of using code switching in teaching the Technical subjects.

3.0 RESULT

3.1 Frequency of Code Switching in the Classroom

From the study, the students responded that the Technical Instructors sometimes use code switching as part of their teaching method. Figure 2 below shows that 50% of the students responded that the Technical Instructors sometimes code switch from English to Bahasa Malaysia. The reasons are discussed in Figure 3 below.

Figure 2: Frequency of Code Switching in the Classroom

3.2 Reasons of Using Code Switching in the Classroom

Referring to Figure 3 below, 44.3% of the respondents agreed that English is used in teaching technical terms and 42.9% of them agreed that English is used when the Technical Instructors introducing technical terms. Meanwhile 45.7% agreed that the Technical Instructors code switch whenever students are confused.

Figure 3: Reasons of using code switching in the classroom

3.3 Attitude towards the Use of Code Switching

Even though the Technical Instructors use English in teaching, majority of the respondents felt that code switching is important in learning any subject including technical subjects. Figure 4 below shows that 45% of the respondents agreed it is important for the Technical Instructors to code switch in teaching any subject and 35% agreed that code switching is important to be implemented in teaching technical subject. On top of that, 50% of the respondents also felt that code switching is necessary in Malaysian context. However, 41.4% of the respondents disagreed that the use of code switching is seen as a waste time in learning the Technical subjects. 45.7% of the respondents agreed that using code switching in the classroom eases up their learning process especially in learning Technical subject. Meanwhile, 27.1% of them disagreed and another 27.1% were uncertain that code switching are interference while learning technical subjects. Surprisingly, 38.6% of the respondents disagreed that code switching should be avoided.

Figure 4: My Attitude towards the Use of Code Switching

3.4 The Implications of Using Code Switching in Teaching the Technical Subjects

Based on Figure 5 below, 61.4% of the respondents agreed that they understand better when the Technical Instructors code switch. 44.3% of them agreed that using code switching saves time in teaching and 64.3% of the respondents agreed that by using code switching it simplifies their understanding. Besides that, 54.3% of the respondents agreed that they give positive feedback for class participation, better examination results and others when the Technical Instructors code switch. However, 41.4% of the respondents disagreed that they still get confused when the Technical Instructors code switch. Meanwhile, 34.3% of the respondents disagreed that code switching demotivates them in classroom. 37.1% of the respondents agreed that the Technical Instructors code switch when they are being asked by students.

Figure 5: The Implications of Using Code Switching in Teaching the Technical Subjects

4.0 CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, Technical Instructors use code switching in classroom whenever the students are confused as it will ease up classroom learning process. Besides that, by using code switching it simplifies students' understanding towards the subject taught by the Technical Instructors. The students also agreed that the use of code switching by the Technical Instructors should not be avoided since majority of them understand better, able to give positive feedback in participation and they are still motivated to learn the Technical subjects.

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Contemplations on Didactics of College English Reading Course Assisted by Internet

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Abstract

Problems in English Reading course is that the English majors read little out of class and traditional teaching models limit their capacity development. According to Constructivism, English teaching should be constructed around students under their teacher's guidance, and both sides should interact and cooperate with each other. The internet acts as a bridge to apply Constructivism into English teaching and offers sound conditions for English Reading course reforms.
Key words: English reading course; the Internet; Constructivism

I.   Present Situation of English Reading Course for English Majors in China

 Firstly, English majors have a small vocabulary. English reading course is an integrated part in the Curriculum for English majors, which aims to train the students' reading competence. As a matter of fact, reading course requires the students to read extensively. The related curriculum issued by China's Ministry of Education regulates that a student in English major at level 2 should read textbooks up to 250000 words, non-text materials up to 500000 words. At level 4, they should read textbooks up to 375000 words, non-text materials up to 620000 words. But, for a long time, this course has been designed for only 2 course hours per week, and English teachers in charge of this course follow the traditional teaching method: carefully analyzing the text in classroom without strict requirement for extensive reading. The students can never reach reading quantity required by the Curriculum. Secondly, traditional English teaching schema limits the development of the students' reading competence. The teachers prefer to make students do all kinds of English grammar patterns or drills in class, or explain the different shades of meanings of new words appearing in the text, or tell the students some reading skills so as to train their reading speed and accuracy of catching desired information. These drills help a lot in the students' examinations, but do little in their genuine communication in English. Accuracy rate , hence, falls into the sole norm upon judging the students' reading competence. And TEM 4 and TEM 8 further consolidate such notion. Chinese students, more or less, learn English in order to pass TEM 4 and TEM 8 because that stuff decides their BA degree. They are busy accepting the knowledge poured down by eager teachers and have little time to think, judge critically or even bring forth new ideas. Such teaching does not involve any genuine language training or practice, which cannot improve the students' competence of language application, nevertheless, deprives them of their independent learning choices. Such teaching patterns waste time and energy of the students and the teachers as well.

  What is concerning the circle of English teachers is how to make Extensive Reading Course function energetically in developing their students'reading competence. Recently, many English professors and teachers have studied a lot about the teaching methods, patterns, text materials and effects of this course. The fruit of their studies inspire me in my teaching this course. According to my experience of teaching for ten years, we should start from didactics so as to walk out of the predicament of this course: to change the traditional didactics into task-targeted didactics, teacher-centred classroom into student-centred and teacher-assisted forum.

Ⅱ. Didactics of English Reading Course for English Majors Assisted by the Internet

  The 21th century is the era of information, which witnesses the popularity of internet across the world. Advanced multimedia technology brings opportunities and challenges to the traditional English teaching in China. In 2004, China's Ministry of Education issued *Regulations for College English Teaching* which put forward that new teaching schema should not be limited by time or place, on the contrary, should develop into the students' autonomous learning based on modern information technology, especially internet technology. This regulation points out that internet-assisted teaching will become a new means of college English teaching. Profile information on the Internet offers college

students profile choices, at the same time, offers the teachers unprecedented information advantages and a ladder for improvement.

The following is my teaching plan which is based on Constructivist Learning Theory and guided by task-oriented didactics.

A. Classroom Teaching

What does constructivism mean? The term refers to the notion that learners construct knowledge for themselves ---- each learner constructs meaning individually and socially as he learns. Learning is an active process in which the learner uses sensory input and constructs meaning out of it. It consists both of constructing meaning and systems of meaning. Besides, learning is intimately associated with our connection with other human beings, our teachers, our peers, our family as well as casual acquaintances. We are more likely to be successful through our efforts to educate if we realize this principle instead of tring to avoid it. *Much of traditional education, as Dewey pointed out, is directed towards isolating the learner from all social interaction, and towards seeing education as a one-on-one relationship between the learner and the objective material to be learned. In contrast, progressive education recognizes the social aspect of learning and uses conversation, interaction with others, and the application of knowledge as an integral aspect of learning. Learning is contextual: we do not learn isolated facts and theories in some abstract ethereal land of the mind separate from the rest of our lives: we learn in relationship to what else we know, what we believe, our prejudices and our fears. On reflection, it becomes clear that this point is actually a corollary of the idea that learning is active and social. We cannot divorce our learning from our lives.* Hence, I transfer the teaching points into tasks for my students to fulfill so as to challenge their interest. The students are required to preview the text before they come into the classroom, which is important. Otherwise, they cannot follow the teaching speed and even hinder it. The students are divided into different groups (pair or panel, up to the context) to discuss the comprehension points and language points and make conclusions. If there are some controversial topics, a debate can be arranged between the students and they will understand deeper. When a fictional text appears, role play is no less than a good taste. This practice not only makes them understand more about the text, but also practises their oral English.

However, textbook is far from enough. More reading materials are always prepared closely related to the topics in the textbook. And the students are required to read instantly as fast as possible and then answer questions. This part is actually a practice of fast reading skills aiming to improve the students' reading competence. Reading strategies are explained previously , their reading speed is inspected and their bad reading habits will be corrected such as vocalizing, moving lips when reading, regressing out of habit and so on.

B. Extracurricular Activities

As is known, reading competence depends mainly on extensive reading. Reading skills do some help, but not final. Strangely, more and more Chinese teachers put the first concern on reading skills and pay less and less attention to reading quantity. They are attending to trifles and neglecting the essentials. Extensive reading greatly broadens the students' vocabulary which is the key to reading competence. Is reading in a foreign language a reading problem or a language problem? Charles Alderson put forward that practicing EFL reading strategies may have the possible effects in students with an initial low verbal ability in the language. Today, the extensive reading course in any university in China is designed as two hours per week, this is far from enough. Therefore, the students have to read a lot after class. Fortunately, Internet is aside us, which extends teaching to any place at any time. So, I have homework for my students. The background of the text waits for the students to explore and discuss. This task is closely connected with the topics in the textbook. And the students are required to read at least one piece of English news per day and write a summary, which keeps them familiar with live English. Thirdly, they need to finish reading a book in English within two weeks. The readability of the books should be considered for the students. Every one is unique in the world. Choices of the books might be given to the students so long as the books are healthy and sound. Great educator *Johann Amos Comenius* thought students' interest in learning was a guarantee to successful education. Teachers should have strict and explicit requirement of reading quantity about which the students must be clear so as to guarantee the effect. Afterwards, a forum of reading reports may be organized for the students to communicate with each other.

Ⅲ. Conclusion

The ultimate goal of education is to have the students study in great interest. English teaching reforms have marched for years, how to help Chinese college students to learn English effectively, with interest, calls for more teachers to explore. Extensive reading course is no exception.

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Writing after reading: implementing reading response journals into the classroom

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Writing after reading: implementing reading response journals into the classroom
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Abstract: The present study analyzes the problems existing in China's college English teaching, because less attention has been paid to writing practice, which resulted in students' poor writing ability. After doing a research on the function of reading response journals, basic methods and procedures are given. Two training templates are designed to teach students how to respond to what they have read. Classroom activities are conducted to implement reading response journals writing.
Key words: reading response journals; English writing; college English teaching; writing training

I. Introduction

The purpose of English teaching is to develop students' ability of communicating in English. Although listening and speaking are considered as important parts of English learning, reading and writing are no doubt the key base of that. On one hand, reading enables students to grasp vocabulary and grammar, and writing makes it possible for students to express their ideas. On the other hand, fostering reading comprehension and writing capability may directly promote listening comprehension and speaking ability. To certain extent, writing can be the most important index of learners' comprehensive language capability.

In China, College English Test – Band 4 (CET-4) and College English Test – Band 6 (CET-6) have been put into practice for more than 20 years, which has greatly influenced college English teaching and learning. Because these two tests have played a very important role in personnel training and the improvement in the quality of college students, they have won the good graces of the whole country. However, while CET-4 and CET-6 has been exerting so profound an impact, we also feel their disadvantage. First, questions of objectivity domain the tests, and questions of subjectivity have a low ratio. Such standard tests may make it difficult to verify students' state of mind, process of thinking and their weaknesses in creativity, such as lacking subjective initiative, ignoring divergent thinking and lacking the spirit of creative and innovative. Secondly, blindly pursuing passing ratio has affected the development of students' language application ability and communicative competence. As a consequence, colleges and teachers have not paid enough attention to their English integrated qualities. In English teaching, it is required that students should make balanced progress in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Yet the trend in recent years shows that greater significance is being attached to the first two abilities. One aspect of the reform in CET-4 and CET-6 is that, by revising syllabus, the focus now shifts towards listening and speaking, instead of reading and writing. Such a measure-shift is expected to improve students' comprehensive language ability (), to which the author can not absolutely agree. I think that writing practice should not be weakened; on the contrary, it should be highlighted. And how to achieve this goal is the purpose of this study. In the past, one major style of writing teaching has been assigning a subject for composition. This has not produced great effect on promoting students' writing ability. By investigating my students' compositions, composition part of CET-4, undergraduates' graduation project (thesis), thesis written by masters and doctors, I have noticed that in students' writing, problems like failing to express what the author meant, awkwardly putting sentences together, and talking frivolously have influenced their intention of expressing their thoughts in the right way. This means that in college writing teaching is not a success; and that is the reason why it needs attention.

Assigning a subject for composition provides learners sufficient space and freedom to give a picture of their thinking and reflects what integrated qualities they have. Therefore, writing in this way can really be used to measure the capability that learners have. On the other hand, the purpose of college teaching is not only to pass the tests, but also to explore how to improve their ability to apply the language. I think it is in this respect that reading response journal can play its proper role.

In my country, elementary and secondary education is doubtless the two most important stages which lay a solid foundation for writing in native language. As college teachers, we may think that a person's writing ability and aptitude has been greatly developed in these two stages. Practice has proven that the

development of writing ability is a success in the primary and secondary education, and there's much in their methods that can be made use of in college English teaching. Chinese writing in elementary and secondary schools receives considerable attention. In literature, it can be found that reading response journals are thought to be a breakthrough in argument writing. The essential prerequisite for writing a reading response is to read first, then digest and absorb the information, thoughts and sentiment that echo in these works. Based on this is that the author is able to form their own viewpoint by adopting the useful factors while doing the reading. Different from assigning a subject for composition, limits of reading response are plain to see – the subject of writing should be sticked to. Authors are required that, after gaining an adequate understanding and digesting of what they read, they must express their opinions, provide perspective, and show agreement or disagreement. They will have to reach higher standards in writing a reading response than writing a composition with an assigned topic. Additionally, it is a good practice for learners' later research. My students, most of whom will be engineers, in their future scientific work, will read related literature. They will firstly have an understanding of the basis of materials. By practicing reading response journals, they are able to investigate the materials thoroughly, grasp the useful score part fully, and conduct their own research.

II. Importance of reading response journal writing

1. Reading response journals are the optimum training method which guides the students to develop argumentation writing capability from narration.

During high school in China, the capability for narration and exposition writing are considered as the primary purpose for English teaching. On entering the college when the students begin writing argumentation, they feel strange and fear of difficulty to certain extent. Teaching the students to write reading response journals is a good way to decrease and eliminate their psychological obstacles. Reading response journal is a kind of writing in which the reflections are generated on the basis of reading the original work. The style that a narrative interspersed with comments is often adopted. In general, the content of reading materials is first described in brief, and then the reader's feeling is given in outline. After that, the facts are presented, the things are reasoned out and theory is related with practice. The points of view are clarified through summarization. Narration and argumentation are integrated organically and at last conclusions are given. Generally speaking, reflections can be always generated through attentive reading. Reading response journals are formed by writing down what you read, think about and feel. With unremitting efforts, the students feel free to write argumentation after mastering the principle and scientific training.

2. Reading response journal reflects the basic writing requirements of the argumentation

First, the writing requirements must be clarified. It is required to carefully read, understand the original work, and grasp the essentials. Only when the substance of the original work is thoroughly understood by careful reading can readers realize what it should be and their opinions be aroused. After reading the original work, readers' feelings can be many-sided. It is possible that reading, analyzing and understanding materials may have left readers with feelings in certain aspect; their task is to describe what has been inspired and touched deeply. In journals readers are encouraged to communicate their feelings, through which teachers will be able to look through what their students are thinking and what they know about the reading materials that have been selected. It is in this way that reading response journals have intense practical significance and moral influence in college teaching.

Second, the role and function of reading response journals in argumentation should be fulfilled. A journal is a type of writing which organically integrates "reading" and "response". Reading is the basis of response, and response is evoked by reading. Readers first gain a proper understanding of the material and then reflect in the journal what they have understood about the material. In other words, response should not be in separation from the original work, nor should it be replaced by reading. Therefore a journal is a narrative interspersed with comments, in which comments are the vital part. Readers may grasp just one point that touches them deeply and utilize reasonable examples to achieve organic integration of "reading" and "response". Also, a well-knit structure of writing must be established. Journals are composed of "citation", "comments", "connection" and "conclusion". "Citation" means a contextual quotation, or a very short summary or abstract of quoted references. Citation should be concise, precise, and pointed. "Comments" takes place after citation. Comments may refer to focus on what has been cited, or, seeing through the appearance to perceive the essence. By giving an in-depth analysis of the material, readers finally show their opinions. "Connection" is to generate new meanings by connecting reality with reading. And "conclusion" is to echo the beginning of the writing and advocate expectation and put forth calls. The argument is proposed in "citation" part and analyzed in depth in "comments" and "reflection". In "conclusion" the argument is highlighted. The structure is the same as that of argumentation, i.e. proposition-analysis-solution. It follows that reading response journal should possess argument point, argument foundation and argument proof, which is exactly the basic requirements for argumentation writing.

3. Reading response journals can arouse the students' interest of argumentation writing.

Interest is the best teacher. The writing enthusiasm of the students can be stimulated if they are given the freedom to the selection of reading materials. However, a piece of high-quality reading response journal can not be written only with interest and enthusiasm. When students write journals for the first time, the following problems often occur. First, "connection" is not made between reading and practice; the so-called reading response journal is almost a summary of the original text. Second, the conclusion is label type. At the beginning of writing, a general description of the original text is given, and at last, determination will be made about what they hope they will be. Third, the points of view are separated from the topic materials, i.e. there is lack of connection between them. Finally, there is no link between "reading" and "response" and a gap occurs in structure. All of the above problems should be given attention to in teaching activities.

III. Methods

A semester is selected to carry out reading response journal writing training during two-year college English teaching. First, reading materials are selected by students themselves. If any one dose not know what to read, the author（being the teacher）will assign materials for them. It is of importance to choose the materials suitable for their levels both in contents and meanings. Therefore, a standard is established and the teacher should make examination for the materials students choose. To make the process smooth, the author (as the teacher and training designer) recommends reading materials both in the library and on the website. The students are also encouraged to search materials by themselves. Internet supplies abundant reading resources, **e.g.** the following two websites. One is http://www.readbookonline.net, a classical literature website; and the other is http://www.theshortstory.org.uk, a contemporary English novel website. In consideration of reading response journal writing for the first time, all the materials are short stories in which students take an interest. It will take one month for students to conduct writing, from beginning reading materials to submitting writing paper.

After assigning the writing task, the author made a PowerPoint presentation to guide the students' writing on the following aspects. First, students should know what the introductory paragraph, the body, and the conclusion of the writing include. Second, they were provided model essays. The author recommends the students the websites for journal writing, such as http://teacher.scholastic.com/writewit/bookrev/tips.htm, and http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/CriReadingBook.html, etc.

In addition, two times of "pre-writing" training are carried out; at least 200 words are required respectively. The purpose is to let the students learn the demands for reading response journal writing. To research the effects of the reading materials on writing, different reading resources are determined. The students in one class are asked to choose one piece of article in the current textbook and those in the other class are required to choose one piece of article, or novel that they like from any kind of resources. The first pre-writing training template is designed according to the outline given in reference [12]. As shown in Appendix 1, the template includes the basic information of the reading (title, author, illustrator, publisher, and main characters, etc), further information (beginning, middle and ending), and the reader's thinking and opinions (main idea, what I like/dislike about the book, favorite characters and the ending the book should be like, etc). Following is the writing guidance. The students are demanded to write down the first impression on the reading, to relate it to themselves experiences and other books. During writing, the students should ask themselves questions about the reading, such as "I wonder why…?", "It puzzles me that….", etc. Furthermore, they were asked to "try to agree/argue with the author", and to write down the ideas that they were touched by figures of speech or detailed information. The students are free to choose some of the above contents to write. The second pre-writing training template is shown in Appendix 2. Students are especially encouraged to express their feelings in a freer way. In addition, to decrease writing resistance Character Helps for Writing is attached.

IV. Discussion

One month later, the time for submission of the formal reading response journal was coming. No outline and prompt were given. Under the guidance of the teacher (the author) students were expected to obtain inspiration from the two times of writing trainings and to express their real feelings freely. The results show that most of the students achieved the training goals and wrote a reading response journal which could meet the basic requirements for reading response journal writing.

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Appendix 1

A Reading Response Journal: OUTLINE

The title of the book: _____

The author's name: _____

The illustrator's name:_____

The publisher:_____

The main characters:_____

About the story:

        The beginning:_____

        The middle:_____

        The ending:_____

The main idea of the book:_____

What I like about the book:_____

What I dislike about the book:_____

My favorite characters:_____

I'd like the ending like this:_____

        Your writing need not include every part in the following list:

1. Write the first impression.
2. Relate it to your own experience.
3. Relate it to other books.
4. Ask yourself questions about the book (such as "I wonder why…?", "I'm having trouble" or "It puzzles me that…").
5. Try to agree with the author.
6. Try to argue with the author.
7. Write down the ideas that you were touched by, figures of speech or detailed information.

_____

_____

_____

Japanese Undergraduates' Reactions to American ITV Classes

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ABSTRACT

This study examined how the media effects and intercultural communication between American instructor and Japanese undergraduates impacted the learning in an interactive television course in a U.S. health science distance-education program. The analyses of the survey and focus group discussions revealed that the students found learning goal attainable but communication unsatisfactory due to the technology-caused miscuing of nonverbal messages and due to the Japanese preference and reliance on contextual communication.

INTRODUCTION

Distance education is often the solution on the global scale to meet certain local needs with specific expertise from other parts of the world. Interactive television (ITV) or teleconferencing with full two-way audio and video capabilities has been touted to simulate intact classrooms. For this reason, it is the preferred choice of technology when synchronous delivery to create face-to-face interactions is desirable. Nevertheless not much is known how learning is affected by media effects or intercultural communication where participants bring conflicting beliefs about good teaching and learning as educators often assume what is effective in their own culture in face-to-face mode will also work for students of another culture in technology mediated classes.

Media Effect

Media effect was best delineated by Rao, Lim, and Ridge (2000) with the contributing factors:
- Situational characteristics that users can control e.g. display resolution or asynchrony
- Inherent characteristics or limitation such as impossibility of mutual eye gaze
- Voluntariness of the communication
- Role of involuntary cues
- Sender ability to encode signals which is influenced by culture and gender
- Receiver ability to decode signals which is influenced by culture and gender

Immediacy as American Teaching Style

American faculty typically considers student engagement as the core value of effective teaching. For many decades, the research in educational communication has advanced the understanding of immediate teaching style. Immediacy was a word coined by Meherabian (1971) to signify psychological and physical closeness seen during communication acts. In educational contexts, immediacy is not usually expressed physically but rather by nonverbal and verbal means such as eye contact, smile, vocal expressions, gestures, humor, calling students by their names, use of personal examples, discussions of student-raised topics, invitation to participate, solicitation of students' views and opinions, and providing feedback through comments on homework.

Immediacy's positive effects on learning, particularly in college classrooms, has been tested and proven on many American campuses including those with ethnically diverse student bodies as well as on foreign university campuses with their native faculty and students. Neuliep's study (1997), in a Tokyo university, hypothesized and proved that the effects of nonverbal immediacy was weaker for the Japanese students than for the American students because of the limited range of immediate behaviors that are culturally appropriate for Japanese instructors. Pribyl, Sakamoto, and Keaten (2004) replicated Neuliep's study in another university but hypothesized that Japanese students' learning motivation is more intrinsic due to the Confucian cultural influence, which places the responsibility on the learner, and therefore might be a mediating factor in the immediacy-learning relationship. The study established a robust relationship but without clarifying the effect of motivation.

Japanese Culture and Classroom Communication

This study recognized the mutually exclusive nature of immediacy and distance education as well as the formidable challenge intercultural communication adds to its thesis, however, fortunately captured a rare opportunity to study the reactions of physical therapy students in a technical school in Japan to an American ITV course. The cultures involved in this study are diametrically opposed in values in almost all parameters proposed by Hofstede (1980). Japanese culture was characterized with collectivism, a large power distance and high-context communication. These features are often observed in the deference to consensus rather than independent opinions, the reverence shown to older persons such as teachers with an unspoken rule that inhibits interrupting or questioning them, and the preference for implicit communication that encourages "reading into" each other. Khoo (2007) offered other Japanese practices that may potentially confound the type of intercultural communication under examination:

- Politeness and associated display rules to attenuate expressions of affects
- Controlled styles of expressions that minimize potentially negative effects
- Silence exercised for self preservation

None of these traditions are conducive to participatory learning that presumes or prepares the learner to be a confident and competent director of his/her inquiries. Japanese students may feel uncomfortable with the degree of autonomy, independence, self-expression the immediate style of instruction often promotes. Japanese may accept or even admire American ways of open communication. Paradoxically, a long-held custom of keeping thoughts to oneself may not readily allow them to emulate what they esteem. Sometimes the fear of being labeled as stupid or uncooperative by Americans motivates them to break the silence.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In a new field of study such as learning in distance education, qualitative method can be very helpful in uncovering what the issues are. The following U.S. studies described the problems and solutions in ITV classes. Stone and Saulino (1997) took a sociocultural approach to understanding instructor-student interactions. They found that the television did not always lead to a more collaborative learning since the students did not feel comfortable in making remarks but rather put in effort for their "televised" presentations. Comeaux (1995) also discussed:

- students' feeling of needing to say profound things on camera.

McHenry and Bozik (1995) used ethnographic observations and interviews to discover how the collaborative processes of knowledge construction might work in video conferencing. They concluded:

- technology affected students' perception of the class and communication, for example originating site students hated to use the microphone but it meant the receiving site students were cut out of communication;
- technology necessitated new adaptations, for example it became necessary to disable the monitor at the originating site because students were bothered by seeing themselves on the screen;
- technology required new teaching strategies, for example making classes personal by calling students by name, introducing everyone during the first session or beginning each session with phatic communication.

METHODOLOGY

This study chose a combined approach although greater reliance was placed on the qualitative method using two focus groups of ten and five students each. These students also completed the survey which provided small numerical data and the comments in an open-ended question, both of which were analyzed qualitatively. Descriptive and nonparametric Spearman's rho correlations were the only statistics applied to the numerical data.

Teaching Style Survey was compiled by this investigator for a larger study, employing all ten items from the Revised Nonverbal Immediacy Measures or RNIM (Thomas, Richmond, and McCroskey, 1994) and all 20 items from the Verbal Immediacy Measure (Gorham, 1988). Students were asked to report how frequently each immediate behavior was observed using a five-point scale. Students were also asked to rate their own learning with the real instructor as well as a potential learning with an ideal instructor, using a nine-point scale. The comparison of the potential and real learning allowed the computation of a measure known as Learning Loss which has been reported to be more sensitive to

varying effects of immediacy. The survey results from the ITV course were compared with those of five face-to-face courses the same students completed in the same year.

RESULTS
Quantitative Analyses

Quantitative data of the ITV course showed very similar responses with those of the face-to-face courses, as shown in the table of Course by Course Descriptive Statistics. Six behaviors of the ITV instructor were rated noticeably differently with more than .50 deviation from the group means of the other five courses in a five-point scale.

The ITV instructor received the lowest ratings on two nonverbal behaviors:
- Walks around (.9 compared to 2.8 mean of other courses)
- Looks at the board or notes* (2.0 compared to 2.7 mean of other courses)

The ITV instructor also received a much lower rating on three verbal behaviors:
- Initiates conversations outside of class (2.1 compared to 2.7)
- Uses words "our class" (1.8 compared to 2.4)
- Talks about things unrelated to the class (1.5 compared to 2.2)

The ITV instructor received a higher rating than the face-to- face courses on one behavior:
- Calls on non-volunteering students for questions* (2.6 compared to1.3)

The response values to the nonimmediate behaviors marked with *s had been inverted. The lower rating means that the instructor looked at the board or notes more frequently. The higher rating means that the instructor did not call on non-volunteering students for questions often.

These differences can be logically explained by the limitation of the technology. The podium camera could not accommodate the instructors' movements and emphasized the absence of her face when she looked down at the notes. The instructor obviously did not extend the online time to converse with the students before and after classes particularly about things unrelated to the course. The classroom cameras did not enable the instructor to pan the whole room easily which may have precluded the sense of group identity or notice who were ready or hesitant to speak up.

The students' self rated learning of 7.4 (in 9-point scale) was also similar to the mean rating 7.54 of other five courses indicating the viability of the ITV course for the students to achieve learning objectives.

Course by Course Descriptive Statistics

Immediate Teaching Behaviors (Nonimmediate items in parentheses): Their scores were inverted.	129 Gen Ed **Face-to-face**	457 Gen Ed **Face-to-face**	326.1 Prof Ed **Face-to-face**	326.2 Prof Ed **Face-to-face**	459 Prof Ed **Face-to-face**	311 Prof Ed **ITV**
Uses gestures	3.5	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.5	3.3
(Uses monotonous and quiet)	.8	3.3	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.3
Looks at students' faces	3.8	3.4	2.9	3.8	3.8	3.5
Smiles at students	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.7	3.9	3.8
(Appears very tense)	3.5	3.2	2.7	3.3	3.3	3.5
Walks around	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.1	.9
(Looks at the board or notes)	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.0
Has relaxed manner	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.5	1.9	1.8
(Frowns)	3.7	3.4	3.0	3.4	3.7	3.7
Uses much expression	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.6	3.1	3.2
Uses personal experiences/ examples	2.1	2.4	1.4	2.0	3.0	1.9
Encourages to speak up/ask questions	3.4	3.5	2.5	3.3	3.6	3.0
Discusses students' topics	2.0	2.6	1.9	2.0	2.4	1.9

Uses humor	3.3	3.5	3.2	3.6	3.9	3.6
Calls students by name	4.0	2.5	1.8	3.4	2.6	3.0
Uses my first name	3.2	2.3	1.9	3.3	2.1	2.8
Initiates conversations outside of class	3.2	2.7	1.9	2.3	3.3	2.1
Initiates conversations with me	2.6	2.2	1.5	2.2	3.0	2.3
(Uses words "my class")	2.8	2.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.2
Uses words "our class"	2.5	1.8	2.3	2.8	2.6	1.8
Writes comments on home work	3.0	2.6	2.1	2.6	2.4	2.3
(Calls on non-volunteering students)	1.0	2.3	1.5	.5	1.8	2.6
Invites students' opinions	3.5	2.3	2.6	3.1	2.0	3.1
Invites students to call by phone	1.1	1.3	1.8	1.7	.0	.9
(Asks Qs requiring correct answers)	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.2
Asks Qs to solicit student opinions	2.5	3.1	3.0	2.7	2.8	1.9
Commends students	3.3	2.9	2.8	3.2	3.1	2.9
(Criticizes students)	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.3
Talks about things unrelated to the class	2.2	1.9	2.1	2.5	2.3	1.5
Addressed by first name by students	2.0	2.2	2.6	1.9	1.8	3.2
Aggregate Nonverbal	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.0
Aggregate Verbal	2.8	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.6
Aggregate Overall	2.9	2.8	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.5
Ideal Learning	8.2	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.7	7.9
Real Learning	7.7	7.0	7.1	7.7	8.2	7.4
Learning Loss	.4	.8	.8	.3	.5	.5

Spearman's rho Correlations

	Face-to-face Courses	**ITV Course**
Learning & Aggregate Nonverbal Immediacy	.75**	Not Significant
Learning & Aggregate Verbal Immediacy	.64**	.73*
Learning & Aggregate Overall Immediacy	.72**	Not Significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).   * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Association between immediacy and learning in the ITV course, as shown in the comparisons in the table of Spearman's rho Correlations is significant only for Aggregate Verbal Immediacy (p = .05) but not with nonverbal immediacy reflecting the media limitations on gaze, movements and facial expressions. In contrast, the face-to-face courses show a higher-level significance at .01 for the correlations between all three aggregate immediacy measures and learning. ITV results, however, must be viewed with a caution because of the small data size.

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative data, students' statements, were transcribed in Japanese and translated into English which are quoted in this section as they were uttered in fragments and in incomplete sentences.

Uncompromised Learning

The data, first of all, indicated that the ITV classes were not substantially different from face-to-face classes in terms of reaching the learning objectives.
- "I don't think the content of lectures changed",
- "ultimately, there was nothing we could not learn", and
- "they [effects of instruction] came through. But I don't know if they were maximized".

Harder Work

Students felt they had to work harder in the ITV course.

- "compared to the style experienced this term, that was not easy" and
- "I think somehow responses were hard to understand".

Constraints on Receptive Communication

It was clear that ITV communication constrained both the reception and production.
 The receptive issues were that the students:
  understood less or less quickly what the instructor said.
  - "my understanding is less through ITV. In other words, what the teacher is saying does not come through and I found it hard to get things across", and
  - "understanding is quicker in direct exchanges".
  were impatient when the camera and the projector had to be switched.
  - "switching the screen to show papers resulted in a waste of time".
  could only see limited gestures.
  - "I could see the teacher partly" and
  - "I felt that gestures were limited by the visual field and the camera. So it was hard to read them".
  could not see the instructor's face all the time.
  - "Some times it was hard to read when the camera was focused on the Teacher F's face and she was writing things on the paper",
  - "teacher's face was not always shown because, for example, only the paper is shown. Then you cannot see the face at all", and
  - "it was a strange feeling not to be able to see the teacher's face when she was looking up something or writing on papers".
  missed the fact that the instructor could not walk around in the class.
  - "In direct lectures, teacher can come around and I like that".
  could not engage gaze.
  - "I was looking at the teacher's face but I didn't feel I engaged my gaze", and
  - "gaze is strange on TV".

Difficulty in Decoding Messages Due to Directional Miscues

Directional miscues made auditory and visual reception confusing: Hearing the instructor's voice from the speaker in one corner and seeing her face on the screen elsewhere was surreal to them.
- "for example, the teacher is here but the voice is there",
- "I am looking this way but the teacher's image is over there", and
- "when I saw myself alone, singled out on the screen while the teacher was talking, I felt like the question was directed to me. Not to the whole class".

A student reported a little auditory delay.
- "teacher's responses to questions come after a while" and
- "it is like a telephone call with time difference".

Students Preoccupation with Reading Instructor's Nonverbal Cues

Decoding instructors' nonverbal cues was students' preoccupation: One group revealed the importance of seeing and reading the instructor's face by describing their concerns when they could not see her.
- "you wonder what she is doing, that concerned me" and

- "I was concerned some of the time, unless I can judge the teacher [if she] has vocal tones".

The insecurity they felt was described.
- "very uneasy" and
- "it was hard to concentrate".

The anxiety came from the inability to engage gaze with the instructor.
- "[I] did not feel good",
- "[I] felt insecure",
- "[I experienced] a unique disjointed feeling" and
- "I think I can study better in the direct way because I can tell how teacher is thinking or her nature if I am face to face with her".

Unique Notions of Good Tension and Atmosphere

Good tension and atmosphere were two mysterious notions the students shared. The latter came up in the discussions in both focus groups. These concepts showed the extent of contextual communication the students were accustomed to. Perhaps because of that, no student could define them except to point out that these qualities were missing in ITV classes. One student complained that in ITV instruction "the positive tension is less [than what it should be]". This investigator questioned "ITV has less tension?" Her answer was "the good sense of tension [was lacking]". Another student brought up the topic of atmosphere by saying "between TV to TV there is no atmosphere, so it is not possible to liven up". Yet another lamented that he "could not judge the atmosphere [in ITV classes]" and his friend agreed "that's true". This investigator tried to guess the meaning by suggesting some definitions such as "Atmosphere… like guessing if teacher is upset?", "body position?" and "atmosphere you speak of is perhaps nonverbal communication?. Answers were "yes", "yes", and "yes, something like that".

Constraints on Productive Communication

Expressive communication issues students described were mostly about the difficulty in asking questions. They said they could not:

    ask questions because it takes time.
- "With ITV even one question takes several exchanges and causes inconvenience"
    show or point to things to explain.
- "It is easier to ask questions in a direct lecture because I can show things but it is hard with ITV, I can't show things"
    state the questions concisely and clearly.
- "When I ask questions I cannot make them clear, so I wished I can deal directly"
    ask questions right after the session.
- "Let me tell you my experience with ITV. I thought of a question as soon as the line was shut off. I thought if the teacher was still here getting ready to leave or in her office, I could ask my question…"
    overcome a preconceived notion that ITV communication is difficult.
- "I probably had a prejudice against ITV which discouraged me from asking questions",
- "I expected. ITV makes me feel the distance and the difficulty of communication",
- "It may be because I already think it is going to be hard to express them [questions]"

Difficulty in Encoding Messages Due to Directional Miscues

Directional miscues made encoding nonverbal cues complicated: The students' subconscious efforts to send positive nonverbal feedback to the instructor caused a dilemma. The students realized that if they wanted to read the instructor's face by looking at the screen, the instructor could not see their faces because they would be facing away from the camera.
- "I wanted to watch the teacher's face but then I was pretty sure she thought 'where is this student looking?'"

Students Preoccupation with Encoding Positive Feedback

Encoding nonverbal feedback was also students' preoccupation. The meaning of the dilemma described above became clearer as similar concerns were brought up in the second focus group. They

recalled the anxiety they felt about the impressions they were giving to the instructor. They talked about the screen that showed the students sitting in the ITV classroom.
- "I don't know how to say, but I become conscious of what conditions I was seen in",
- "you would think we were not that conscious … but…"
- "[I] wondered how the other person is seeing me..." and
- "when there are cameras, cameras do that".

They were bothered when they could not see themselves on the screen.
- "There were times we could not see ourselves. Then I didn't know what to do",
- "am I on the screen now? Or am I not now?"

They expressed how it made them feel.
- "I was uneasy…"
- "honestly, I had those feelings too".

The students said they did not want to be caught doing something wrong but most of all they did not want to appear sleepy. The male students were particularly concerned about sleeping.
- "I know this sounds strange, but if I got sleepy it will be bad to fall asleep",
- "[I] did not want to be caught on screen",
- "I didn't want to fall asleep".

DISCUSSION
ITV as Viable Option

This study verified that the classes can be conducted via ITV without compromising the learning objectives. Immediate style, at least of verbal type, showed positive effects in intercultural communication in spite of the technological mediation of communication via ITV.

Media Effects

Students' dissatisfaction was partly due to the technological limitations inherent in ITV systems even though the set up in this study was bundling of several international phone lines to deliver the best results. Students reported a slight delay in audio reception, impossibility of engaging gaze and for the instructor to walk around. Some of the difficulties could have been resolved by realigning the speaker and the screen or replacing them with multiple monitors. There were also logistically impractical instructional behaviors such as engaging students in out-of-class discussions especially for conversations unrelated to classes.

Culture-Specific Communication Needs of Japanese Students

What this study revealed is that the Japanese students are more likely to be stressed in ITV classes because of the two culture-specific communication needs. One of the foreseen characteristics of the Japanese culture was high-context communication which means greater reliance on shared knowledge and implied meanings often conveyed nonverbally.

Context-Dependent Communication

Focus group discussions revealed that the students were very context-dependent communicators and resistant to or unable to switch to more explicit style of verbal expressions. Because of this tradition, the students were more than ready to take in any messages the teachers were sending with nonverbal immediate behaviors but reluctant to participate in classes. For example, because they could not depend on the deictic means for referring to shared knowledge using such words as "this", "that", "here", "there" or pointing or showing objects, they felt they could not ask questions. They depended so much on instructors' nonverbal expressions that they had a strong need to constantly read the instructors' affects. When they could not receive the full input, they felt "anxious", "insecure", and "disjointed". Students implied that the cumulative effects of nonverbal communication needed to reach a critical level for the class morale to be "liven up" into a positive environment.

Constant Self-Monitoring of Own Nonverbal Cues

Another side to this high-context communication is how Japanese students constantly and subconsciously monitor their own nonverbal cues. This activity became a more conscious one due to the intervention or interference of ITV technology when it became obvious that they could use the monitor screen as a mirror. But the careless positioning of the screen, loud speaker, camera and microphone caused some confusion and frustration. The students' needs to read the instructor's affects

and their needs to present positive feedback to the instructor could not be met simultaneously. A concern about the monitor screen showing the students was reported by McHenry and Bozik (1995). In their American study, the students at the originating broadcasting site were so bothered by having to look at themselves that the monitor had to be disabled. This is quite a contrast to the needs of the Japanese students who were bothered when they could not see themselves.

Japanese students tended to overwork their surveillance which is an energy-consuming process and can divert their attention from lectures. It can be exhausting to look for cues when they are not accessible or to look for meanings when none is intended. It is understandable why the students concluded that the ITV classes were "hard." A future study on how Japanese students manage their own immediacy will be able to further increase the understanding of their learning experiences.

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Home-Video Project: Efficacious EFL Approach to Teach Large Speaking Classes

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Abstract
Video making project has been suggested as a teaching strategy in foreign language classes. Our study showed that home-video strategy provided equivalent opportunity among 50 students to practice and perform the tasks and it increased students' ability in using proper expressions related to their life context. This strategy also provide critical and creative thinking as well as risk-taking, elements of successful language teaching and learning that are otherwise overlooked in large, overcrowded classrooms.

Keywords: heterogeneous language proficiency, crowded speaking classes, video making project, qualitative study, quantitative study

1. Introduction

Among a myriad of problems faced by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes in Indonesia are heterogeneous condition of students' language proficiency and crowded classes. This makes teachers difficult to create opportunities to practice the four language skills and accurately assess each student's skills individually. This will even worse when the emphasis of the class is speaking.

In Institut Teknologi Telkom (ITTelkom), we have 50-60 students in a class with varied language proficiency levels. This is applied to English 1 (focusing on reading skills), English 2 (focusing on writing skills, and English 3 (focusing on speaking skills). Consequently, it is difficult to have everyone equal chances to speak in class activities during the 100-minute class time in English 3 classes. Thus, more effective strategy to make everyone speak is urgently needed.

A solution to this problem is video project. Dufon cited in Hanson-Smith and Rilling (2006) argued that video project can be a means to investigate second language interaction. Hoelker, Nimmannit, and Namakmura (in Hanson-Smith and Rilling, 2006) supported Dufon's idea and they added that video project can be used to observe students' verbal expression and body language. Thus, video making project has been suggested as a teaching strategy in foreign language classes (Kondo, 2002; Ryan, 2003 in Hanson-Smith and Rilling, 2006).

Filming and editing are perceived as the most preferable project-based approaches to motivate students to utilize their prior knowledge and experience in English. Moreover, this project provides a conducive environment to gain and develop computer skills in a task-based, cognitively challenging setting (Hanson-Smith and Rilling, 2006) in which students are able to gain a learning experience that is influential for life.

For the reasons above, this study investigated (1) whether home-video strategy gave equal opportunity to both low and high achievers to perform the speaking tasks and (2) whether it improved students' ability to use proper expressions in the context of student's life in campus.

2. Theoretical Foundations
2.1 Speaking in EFL Context
Related to EFL context, ACTFL (Oclarith, 2008) provides seven general speaking levels description: (1) Low Beginners can't produce a sentence, but if guided by questions, they can produce common words, tell name or exchange greeting. (2) Mid Beginners takes time for them to produce a simple sentence and still commit grammatical errors and can't respond correctly to question. (3) High Beginners can talk about topics that are familiar to them. However, their sentences are short and erroneous. (4) Lower Intermediates can ask and answer questions about activities and family. They also know how to use languages in ordering foods and making purchases. (5) Mid Intermediates can talk about basic topics and could talk about topics beyond their basic needs. They can make longer sentences; however, their sentences are still erroneous. There is till long pauses between sentences and

pronunciation is still influenced by first language. (6) High Intermediates can initiate simple conversations. Their interlocutor could understand them better. But still, they have limited vocabulary. (7) Advanced can participate meaningfully in a conversation. They can make paragraph-length utterances. They can also narrate and describe events. Native speaker can understand them well.

It is essential that EFL language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge: (1) mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary). This involves the use of the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation; (2) functions (transaction and interaction). This covers knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building); (3) social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants). This deals with understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

Adapting from several resources, Brown (2001) set out eight characteristics of spoken language, which influence the process of EFL speaking production. The first characteristic is clustering: some learners can pick up a whole sentence, but there are also learners who can only pick up clauses or even only in form of phrases. The second one is redundancy through rephrasing, repetitions, elaborating and insertions. The third one is reduced forms, which can be phonological, morphological, syntactic, and pragmatic. The fourth characteristic is performance variables including hesitations, false starts, pauses, and corrections for grammar. The fifth one is colloquial language, such as idiom, slang, reduced forms, and shared cultural knowledge. The sixth one is the rate of delivery because second or foreign language learners think that native speakers always speak fast. The seventh one is stress, rhythm, and intonation. The eight one is the rule interaction including negotiation, clarification, attending signals, turn-taking, and topic nomination, maintenance, and termination that determine meaning negotiation.

Moreover, the goal of teaching speaking skills in EFL context is communicative efficiency. To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output. Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/goalsspeak.htm). Structured output focuses on correct form in which may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced. In communicative output, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. Speaking evaluation should cover (1) pronunciation, (2) fluency, (3) vocabulary and circumlocution, (4) accuracy and comprehensibility, (5) content, and (6) comprehension and strategic competence (Montgomery, 2000).

For a communicative, learner-centered learning, there are ten useful guidelines for teachers: (1) provide appropriate input; (2) use language in authentic ways; (3) provide context; (4) design activities with a purpose; (5) use task-based activities; (6) encourage collaboration; (7) use an integrated approach; (8) address grammar consciously; (9) adjust feedback/error correction to the situation; and (10) include awareness of cultural aspects of language use.
(http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/goalsmethods/guidelines.htm)

2.2 Video-Making Projects to Promote Communicative, Learner-Centered Speaking Activities
As it is mentioned earlier, video making project has been suggested as a teaching strategy in foreign language classes. Actually, it is also a means to investigate second language interactions, including verbal expression and body language (Dufon 2002; Hoelker, Nimnannit, and Nakamura 1999 in Hanson-Smith and Rilling, 2006). To make a project which is communicative and learner-centered, Hanson-Smith and Rilling (2006) suggested some ways including film project suggestion, organizing and evaluating the project shown in Table 1, 2, and 3.

Table 1 Film project suggestion

Student level before the course	Teaching Strategy	Types of Projects	Further Reading
Intermediate: knowledge of equipment and software operation	1. Self-guided study of software potential and video recording	1. Select a genre (e.g. game show, documentary), and film with local	Sherman 2003

| | 2. Exposure to scriptwriting and film genre
3. School or Web presentation | color.
2. Create a mood to illustrate vocabulary using music and images.
3. Write and dramatize a story | |

Table 2 Organizing a film project by using self-directed learning

Objective	Filming	Editing
Planning	Storyboard, dialogue, props, location, weather, time, camera	View and select best performance
Monitoring (analyze, refine, become more fluent)	Practice, role play, rewrite, film scene more than once	Explore effects of music, pictures, titles, and transitions
Evaluation	Discuss performance in groups	Discuss editing strategy outcomes in groups

Table 3 Rubric to assess student video projects

Steps	Needs improvement	Satisfactory	Accomplished	Excellent
Planning: research, script, and storyboarding	Students need help to research and write a script. The storyboard is basic, with limited evidence of planning.	Students need some help to research and write a script. The storyboard follows a logical structure but remains very limited	Students research and write a clear and purposeful script. The storyboard is carefully designed with some short explanations.	Students research independently and write a clear and purposeful script. The storyboard is drawn carefully, with set design and shot explanations.
Production: technical use of equipment and strategies for conveying meaning	The final production ahs technical errors. Students do not appear to have any clear acting or composing strategies (e.g., back to the camera, forgotten lines, unclear speech poor framing)	The final production has some technical errors. Students are familiar with the script but still display lack of acting or visual strategies.	The final production is free of technical errors. Students display familiarity with the script and acting strategies. They use some visuals and audio effects to convey meaning.	The final production is free of technical errors. Students display knowledge of scripting and acting. Students reveal consideration for such audio and video details as music selection and camera placement.
Content: topic of the presentation	The film is confusing and does not follow a logical structure. Factual content maybe inaccurate.	The film is confusing, but individual sequences seem logically structured. Factual content is	The film is coherent. Planning and production render a well-balanced outcome. Factual content is accurate and well	Planning and production render a coherent and original production. Factual content is well researched

		mostly accurate and researched.	researched.	and used to good effect.

3.   Research Method

This was a case study employing qualitative and quantitative method combining action research and quasi experimental procedure to discover whether home-video strategy is an effective EFL approach to teach large speaking classes. The cycle of action research was adapted from "Steps in the Action Research Cycle" designed by Nunan (1994). The quasi experimental was employed for the reason that the participants were not randomly selected.

3.1 Research Site and Participants

The site was at *Institut Teknologi Telkom* located in Bandung, Indonesia. The participants were 100 Informatics Engineering students taking English 3 class. These students were chosen as participants because Electrical-Communication Faculty and Industrial Engineering Faculty do not assign their students to take English 3. In addition, these students were grouped into classes based on semester registration, not based on their speaking level. Regarding to familiarity with multimedia tools, these students are able to operate video camera and computer software for editing movies. To assist the researchers, two lecturers were involved each was assigned to experimental and control group.

3.2 Research Procedure

The data was collected starting from August 2008 to January 2009 using students' home video, student's pre-test and post-test. In addition, questionnaire and interview were also used to reveal students' perception toward home-video project. A complete design of the study is presented in the following figure.

Table 4 Research Procedure

Stages	Description

1	Planning: a. problem identification: pre-test
	             b. observing and recording classroom interactions
	             c. setting a hypothesis

2	Acting and Observing: Conducting intervention: lecturer assigned students
	     a. to do home-video making project (experimental group).
	     b. to do role play as a project (control group)

3	Reflecting: a. presenting the projects
	             b. distributing questionnaires and conducting interviews.
	             c. post-test

4   Results and Discussion

4.1 Planning

In this stage, there were three main activities. The first activity was problem identification. There were 28 meetings for English 3 divided into two terms with mid-term and final exams. The first two meetings were used for classroom introduction and learning contract. 3rd and 4th meetings were used for conducting the pre-test through speaking test in interview format to check the use of expressions about opinion and suggestions to 50 students in the experimental group and other 50 students in the control group. The speaking evaluation score ranging from 1-4 was based on (1) pronunciation, (2) fluency, (3) vocabulary and circumlocution, (4) accuracy and comprehensibility, (5) content, and (6) comprehension and strategic competence (Montgomery, 2000).

Once the scores were listed, two tests were employed to determine normal distribution. Based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test, the result for the control group was 0.200 and the experimental group was 0.200. Meanwhile, using Shapiro-Wilk's test, the result for the control group was 0.269 and the experimental group was 0.624. They were above the probability of 0.05; therefore, the distribution in both the control and the experimental group was normal.

Further, T-Test was employed to compare the results of pre-test of the experimental and control groups. The critical value of t with df of 18 was 2.101. The t value of the pre-test score was .152, which was below the critical value of t. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted meaning that there was no significant difference between the mean of the control group's pre-test and the experimental group's

pre-test. This indicated that both groups have similar diversity in terms of speaking level, which was from High Beginner to High Intermediate.

Second, for preliminary observation, in the next four meetings, students in both groups were assigned to group works with discussions and impromptu speeches as main speaking activities in the classrooms. They were monitored to generate a hypothesis, which was the third activity in the planning. Based on the preliminary observations, it was revealed that through discussions and impromptu speeches, the High Intermediate students dominated the speaking activities, whist, the Mid Intermediate students only gave short responses, and the Low Intermediate and High Beginner students kept silent most of the time. Thus, it was discovered that discussion and impromptu speech did not provide equal talk time to all students and that more effective strategy to make everyone speak was urgently needed.

4.2 Acting and Observing

Based on the hypothesis generated in the planning stage, students in the experimental group were assigned to make 15-minute home-video project, while students in the control group were assigned to perform a role play for 15 minutes as their project. Students were grouped into seven with each consisting seven to eight people. In the next two meetings, students were introduced to expressions related to expressing and responding to opinions and suggestions. Then, in the 11[th] and 12[th] meetings, students got acquainted with script writing and story board.

In the next two meetings, students in both groups had mid-term exam to evaluate whether they are able to use the expressions learned in the previous meeting in the form dialogue. After the mid-term, students in the experimental group organized a film project using self-directed learning (Hanson-Smith and Rilling, 2006). This included writing script, making story board, recording and editing the movie. On the other hand, students in the control group wrote scripts and rehearsed for the role plays. All these occurred in seven weeks.

Based on weekly observations, it was found that throughout the seven weeks, students in the experimental group showed enthusiasm not only in the making of script and story board, and playing the roles in their movies, but also on the using of video camera and software to edit their movies. In the making script, each group ensured all members had equal talk-time in the movie. They showed eagerness throughout the seven weeks of movie making process. Meanwhile, students in the control groups were excited to do their projects in the first three meetings after the project was assigned. They lost interest for the next four weeks.

4.3 Reflecting

In this stage, there were three activities: project presentation, questionnaire distribution and post-testing conducted in three meetings. In the two meetings, students in the experimental group showed their movies, while students in the control group performed their plays. During these meetings, questionnaires were also distributed at the end of each session to discover students' perceptions toward their projects.

To answer the first research question, from the project presentations, it was discovered that students in the experimental group had equal talk-time. This was due to recording and editing process made them able to constantly change their scripts in order to have equal talk time. On the other case, most students in the control group showed the phenomena in which the High Intermediate students dominated the speaking activities, whist, the Mid Intermediate students only gave short responses, and the Low Intermediate and High Beginner students kept silent most of the time. This was similar to discussion and impromptu speech activities. Since they did not have repeated editing process, the equality of talk time was difficult to achieve.

In addition, it was found that students in the experimental group consider their home-movie project challenging because not only they could improve their speaking skills, but also were able to apply their prior knowledge on multimedia technology. In their movie, all members in each group. On the other hand, students in the control group viewed the role play as monotonous activity.

To answer the second research question, post-test were given in the form of interview to see the improvement of students' ability to use proper expressions in the context of student's life in campus, in this case expressions related to opinions and suggestions.

Once again to ensure the normal distribution, two test were employed. The result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test for the control group was 0.200 and the experimental group was 0.200. The result of Shapiro-Wilk's test for the control group was 0.450 and the experimental group was 0.181. They were above the probability of 0.05; therefore, the distribution in both the control and the experimental group was normal.

Then, T-Test was employed to compare the results of post-test of the experimental and control groups. The critical value of t with df of 18 was -2.101 and 2.101. The t value of the post-test score was -7.399, which was outside of the critical value of t. Therefore, there was a significant difference between the mean of the control group's post-test and the experimental group's post-test.

5   Conclusion

This study showed that home-movie project provided equal time talk for all students in the experimental group because they were given opportunity to constantly edit both their script and recorded movie. On the other hand, in the case students in control group, the fact that some students dominated and others lacked of time to talked was do to the inability to edit during their live performances.

Since the scores of the experimental group were higher, it can be concluded that home-movie is more effective than role play activity. In our context, video-making project is effective strategy for students to combine what they have learned in their real-life experience, and most importantly to make everyone speak in the context provided.

There are a multitude of benefits of using a task-based approach to teaching EFL. Our video project sought to solve the aforementioned problems by creating student produced videos, while at the same time increasing student motivation by giving them the opportunity to express their original ideas and creativity. Using scaffolding to support students during the creative process, the teacher can provide the language and writing support necessary to for students to create a coherent and entertaining video. This type of project also incorporates critical and creative thinking as well as risk-taking, elements of successful language teaching and learning that are otherwise overlooked in large, overcrowded classrooms.

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Getting Feedback from the Unresponsives:
When Students Can't Tell If They Do (Not) Understand

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Abstract

Feedback is key factor in learning without which learning will be meaningless. Instead of asking student's feedback conventionally like "Do you understand?", one best practice offers three sub-methods to maximize feedback communication in large classes, i.e. seating adjustment, tardiness management, and traffic-light cards. This paper reports that students and lecturers responded positively toward F2M; students achieving A and B grades increased from 45% to 58%, while those achieving D and E decreased from 35% to 21%.

Keywords: feedback communication, material comprehension, student's achievement

A. Introduction

"Do you understand?" and "Any questions?" are possibly two of mostly asked questions that mostly remained unanswered when university teachers try to communicate with students in classroom. It seems that many of university teachers do not really realize that the two expressions may not quite the successful ways of obtaining proper feedback on material comprehension. If lecturers are lucky enough to teach high-achievers or highly curious students, they may respond well to "Any questions?". However, in all levels of education, the "Do you understand?" seems to be 'must-be-avoided' type of question due to its potential failure to engage students in responding to materials comprehension. Especially in large classes, students may have various responses in mind, none of which is likely to be communicated to the lecturer. Such responses may be well represented in the following excerpt, showing what comes to students' mind when lecturers ask whether students understand.

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Do You Understand?

'Do you understand?' lecturer asks student.

 'Understand what?' thinks student.
 'What am I supposed to understand?'
 'What will my lecturer think of me if I say "no"?'
 'If I say "yes" will my lecturer ask me a difficult question to catch me out?'
 'Why am I being asked this anyway?'
 'Is it going to be important for me to understand this?'.
 'How will I know when I understand it?'.
 'What will I be able to do when I understand it?'.
 'How will I be able to demonstrate my understanding of it?'.
 'Do I actually have to understand it, or will it be enough simply to demonstrate my understanding of it, by doing something I can do, even when I don't understand it?'.
 'Does my lecturer understand it, anyway?'.

'Mmmm…' replies student (as soon as possible after all that thinking).
'So you don't understand it then?' alleges lecturer.
'Well, …' replies student.
'So you understand it well?' smiles lecturer.
'Just about' replies student.
'Ah, good' says lecturer. 'I made myself clear then?'
'Of course' replies student.

[Because of things like this, the word is best avoided in intended learning outcomes – and in life in general, except to get people thinking]

              (from Race, 2000; with minor editing)

Burning issues thus arise as how to help classroom communication successful and mutually useful? What is to be communicated, instead of asking "Do you understand", when university teachers want to know if their students really understand? What are possible ways of knowing students' comprehension without test, and even without asking?

To begin with all this issue, among matters and manners of communication that may take place in class, communicating feedback can be the most useful for learning. Feedback is said to be 'the most influential factor in learning' (Black and William in Harmer 2007), without which teaching/learning process will be meaningless (Taylor 2006, Mink et al 1993). Such important is constructive feedback that William and Black (1998) believe it as "at the heart of teaching" (Harmer 2007 p. 137).

Therefore, in attempts to respond the above three issues, we focus to design one method of obtaining student' feedback and manage it to be used right away as feedforward for lecturers. We call the method Feedback-Feedforward Mechanism (F2M). This way, after learning or doing some materials, students will give feedback on their material comprehension and lecturers will immediately use the information to adjust the teaching techniques for the same session. The expected outcome of this method is that not only communication will take place successfully but also it will be used to increase the quality and achievement of learning process.

Although F2M can potentially be applied in large classes in general, but as initial implementation we select two Calculus-I classes in one engineering institute in Indonesia. There are at least three reasons for the selection. First is that Calculus-I is one of the four compulsory subjects in the Preparatory Year that usually has low level of achievement. Data from three previous years shows that 51% Calculus-I students in average got C or lower. The three others subjects are Calculus-II, Physics-I, and Physics-II, with achievement of $\leq$ C are 58%, 69%, and 79% respectively (www.itttelkom.ac.id/intranet). These students whose grade C or less will very likely repeat the subjects in the following semesters, including in the 6-week 'Short Semester' inserted between academic years as remedial semester for 'repeaters'. Some of them even take it for the third or fourth time in order to escape the Drop-Out at the end of the 4th semester for those with GPA less than 2.0 (at the scale of 4).

The second is that Calculus-I, to be taken in first semester, trains mathematic-analytical skills that is crucial for most engineering and science subjects in the following semesters. Its load of 4 credit hours per week also adds importance to this Calculus subject, compared with Physics I and II which only worth 3 credit hours. Increasing students' achievement in Claculus will more significantly improve students' Grade Point Average (GPA).

The last reason is obtained from preliminary questionnaire about learning math. Students' response to the questionnaire shows that 32% students have anxiety when learning math. Some 28% students think that learning math is dull and boring. These findings help lecturers to introspectively examine the existing practices in math classes, motivating the lecturers to think of ways in improving achievement and learning satisfaction. Added with the perceived needs to obtain information on students' level of understanding before tests, a mechanism on how to get students feedback is needed. This mechanism is expected to get feedback from all students rather than just from the active ones, so that even the most unresponsive in class will participate and benefit from it.

B. The Existing Condition

Observation in three different Calculus-I classes provides information on the existing condition of typical Calculus class. Such information is necessary prior to any design of mechanism. Three main characteristics on classroom, leacturer, and students are observed and examined as follows.

The typical classroom in the campus site of study is 9m x 18m room equipped with white&blackboard at the center of the front walls, LCD-projector, OverHead Projector, and 100 seats. It usually provides room for 70-85 students. The seatings are 7-aisle-7, with all seats facing the front wall. This setting does not quite help students nor lecturers. Students sitting next to side walls will have less clear and comfortable views toward the whiteboard. Lecturers will also not be able to reach students sitting next to side walls, areas where students will easily find a 'refuge' to escape lecturers' attention. At the same time, the rear of the classroom is usually left empty.

Fig 1. Floor of typical class (7-A-7)

Lecturers mostly use conventional teaching method, resulting in 'board-to-projector oriented' lecturing. The flow of teaching is generally in 'one-size-fits-all' approach, thus lecturer will very likely aim to teach the 'middle students', i.e. those who are not very strong nor very weak in learning. This approach is taken since these lecturers think that normally middle students will constitute the greater number of students in the class. This way will very likely bore the stronger students while at the same time is less helpful for weaker ones. Combined with the seating explained above, this approach will increase the possibility of 'undetected failure of learning' during the process.

Students are less responsive in terms of voluntarily doing problems on board, asking questions, and responding to lecturer's prompts. The seating may also influence this condition since not only the lecturer find it difficult to reach all students, but also it is difficult for students to get themselves out of their seats to go to the board. Further, students rarely communicate their difficulty in understanding the material. As mentioned at the beginning of this report, students will unlikely respond well to questions like "do you understand?" or "any question. Lecturers may then come up with tests and quizzes to measure students' comprehension, ways which may adversely increase students' anxiety in learning math. Such anxiety may even be greater in classes with very discipline lecturers, resulting in lower attendance or even complete withdraw of weaker students.

Having observed the existing condition, four problems are identified and thus formulated as follow:
1. seating in the class is not optimal for mutual engangement and feedback communication.
2. conventional lecturing leads to monotonous and repetitive learning process, mostly without sufficient feedback.
3. ratio on lecturer-students does not help lecturer to respond to heterogenous level of understanding, particularly in the absence of students' feedback
4. anxieties hinders students from communicating difficulties or feedback to lecturers, decreases class attendance, and may lead to complete withdraw from class activities.

In attempts to solve these problems, F2M is designed and implemented on two classes of Calculus-I during one semester. Thus the F2M aims at general improvement of feedback communication take place in class, with particular goals to cope with classroom problems mentioned earlier. Thus, more specifically the aims of designing F2M are:
1. to condition classroom physical environment as to help students-lecturer to communicate better,
2. to offer inexpensive, quick-and-easy method to encourage feedback communication in classroom,
3. to respond to students with greater difficulty in understanding material without reducing the size of class,
4. to deal with students' anxiety in attending learning and in communicating difficulties.

The ultimate goal of this method is thus increasing students achievement as a result of better feedback communication happening in class.

C. The F2M

We design an alternative method to promote feedback communication which in turn is intended to increase overall students's achievement. This method, called Feedback-Feedforward Mechanism (F2M) consists of three sub-methods, i.e. seating adjustment, tardiness management, and traffic-light cards.

1. Seating adjustment (3-6-3 setting)

Seating adjustment is perhaps one of fundamental modifications in daily classroom practices in the site institution. For about seventeen years, the 7-aisle-7 (7A7) seat arrangement (see Fig. 1) has been used with no complains nor retrospective examination. One among reasons why seating arrangement deserves better attention is that the current arrangement does not provide equally clear views to whiteboard nor give sufficient room for lining up and exiting the room as two of main criterias of good classroom arrangement (Pitner, 2009). The 7-aisle-7 seat arrangement practically has given up the center space of classroom, that with best views, to the aisle. With only one aisle, lecturer may not find it inviting to come to reach all students up to those at the back of the class. This single aisle may in many cases even disappear due to students' moving their chairs to fill in all front row spaces available.

Therefore, F2M requires readjustment of seating first by dedicating the best center column for students. Secondly, adding more aisles will likely ease lecturer to move around the class to get 100% coverage on students. The last, the rear space of the class should be utilized to allow greater amount of movement and circulation within classroom. Thus the new arrangement will be best illustrated in the following figure.

Fig. 2. The floor of 3-6-3 arrangement

In this new setting, seats are arranged in 3 seats – aisle – 6 seats – aisle – 3 seats. Such setting dedicates the central column of the class, the area with best view toward board/screen, to 50% of total students. The remaining half of students seatings are divided into two on each sides, facing 45^{o} toward board/screen. This way, all students will get the best available views with less muscular strain. Besides, if lecturer can only reach and distribute attention to 3 students at each sides of the aisle, this new setting with two aisles will naturaly provide 100% coverage to all students. Although having 70-85 students in one classroom may not the best practice for teaching math, this 3-6-3 setting allows better sirculation of people and air. Thus, within all the limitations at hand, this setting may help creating a better learning environment.

In short, compared with the previous 7A7 seating, there are at least three advantages of the proposed 3-6-3 setting, i.e. (a) providing better and more confortable view, (b) allowing 100% coverage of lecturer toward the students, and (c) allowing better air and people sisculation. This setting is not complicated and thus can be well prepared by the cleaning service and become the default setting in the site campus.

Pic 1. 100% lecturer-coverage on students

This 3-6-3 setting has also been implemented as pre-condition for the last sub-method of F2M, namely the traffic-light cards. Later the rear space of the class is used for grouping and regrouping students for different instruction based on the traffic-light card that students acknowledge. Further about traffic-light card will be explained later. At this point, below in Fig. 3 is the complete setting of 3-6-3 with view of the rear side of classroom.

Fig 3. Complete setting of 3-6-3 with rear space for on-carpet activities

2. Tardiness management (MMS rule)

Preliminary study and observation show that lower achievment in Calculus-I classes (very likely in other classes as well) is partly due to lower attendance. Most of lower attendances are caused by tardiness, in which lecturers decline students coming into class if they are late. It will be unlikely for such students to keep up their pace with other fellow students, at least for the days they come late. In the long run, it will disadvantage these students as they will become illegible to sit for exam when their atendance is less than 80%. If late students do not have access to learning in classroom then they will also have no access to any feedback taking place in classroom. The number of late students, however, tend to be increasing as students may become busier with all intra and extra academic activities including the process of adjusting to new life as university student.

Hence a mechanism to teach discipline to students with greater access for them to attend class is necessary. F2M comes up with a rule for students to wait outside for a while if they come late. This rule is dubbed MMS (in Indonesian/Malay: 'Mohon Menunggu Sebentar', which means 'please wait a while'). Applying MMS, lecturer in the course introduction will explicitly ask that late students should not knock on the door nor enter the classroom until the lecturer lets them in. Late students must wait outside in order, without distracting attention. This way, lecturer will be able to finish explaining parts of material and to find pause to open the door and allow late students to attend the rest of materials for the day.

Variations to this rule can be numerous. For lecturers who wish to promote discipline, the attendance of late students may not be taken despite the rights given to follow classrooms. For lecturers with greater interest to train students through exercise drills, they may give additional assignement for late students while suspending the attendance for the day until the assignement is turned in. Still some other variation may apply to this rule.

There are at least three advantages from applying this rule. First is that all students will maximally be exposed to classroom learning and feedback. This will help them keep up with learning materials and get direct assistance from lecturer when they find difficulties. Secondly, this MMS rule will allow lecturer to treat students' tardiness porpotionaly with the amount of their tardiness. The rigid regimen of discipline will not be able to respond differently to students' 1-minute or 1-hour lateness, that like on/off button the class is started and ended. MMS will naturally treat students who are 2-minute late differently from those who are 20-minute late, that they will likely have different waiting time. The last is that this rule cater all interests playing in classroom: teacher can still promote discipline and order, on-time students will not be much interrupted by the late-comers, and still late students will hve access to classroom learning and feedback.

3. Traffic-light cards (TLC)

One crucial part in obtaining feedback during the learning process is when materials have been delivered and there comes the time to know whether students understand it or not. As an alternative to replace the conventional way of "Do you understand?", F2M uses three colored-cards as a means of assessing students' comprehension (Pic 2). Although such cards can appear in any colors, they are usually in red-yelow-green similar to those of traffic light and therefore are conveniently called Traffic-Light Cards (TLC).

Pic 2. Trafic-Light Cards (TLC)

Traffic-light cards (TLC) are not new idea in learning method, especially in K-9 education. They are flexible and can be used in various subjects from English to Chemistry. Among ways of using it is when teachers ask questions with A-B-C of answers, students may respond by raising red card for A, yellow for B, and green for C (Traffic card as Starter, www.lancsngfl.ac.uk). Another example is using the cards for ordering class, i.e. teacher may lift red card to 'stop all activities', yellow card 'to prepare starting activities', and green card 'to start activities' (www.ehow.com). Also, TLC can be used similar to its purpose in soccer: as punishment and reward for students.

In university Calculus class, one application of TLC is to help students communicating their level of material comprehension. Each color represents certain percentage of comprehension, e.g. red card for up to 50%, yellow card for 50-75%, and green card for 75-100% comprehension. This way, after a portion of material delivery, lecturer will ask students to assess themselves as to measure how many percent they think they understand the material. It is important to notice that TLC will be useless if lecturer does not quantify the worth of each card. If each card simply represents 'understand', 'half understand', and 'not-understand', TLC will only confuse students. In turn the result will confuse the lecturer since students may have misunderstood their level of comprehension, or the way students interpret the level of 'understand', 'half understand', and 'not-understand' may be different from that of lecturer's.

TLC may appear in any dimension as long as they are easy to hold. In this, study we use 10 cm x 7,5 cm cards of green-yelow-red and blue-white-pink. We observed that both sets of colors worked well. Questionnaire from two classes show that none of the 109 students feel embarrassed in using the cards, either in sessions with green-yelow-red cards or those with blue-white-pink ones. However, further trial on this method show that TLC canot be replaced by raising hands. Most students find that raising hands when lecturer ask their level of comprehension is somewhat embarrassing. Therefore, TLC have helped students to eliminate embarrasement in communicating their level of understanding.

Mechanism in using TLC is easy and quick. The method is also highly flexible in terms of time allocation, allowing lecturer to adjust TLC to respond to students' need. As a model implemented for 100-minute session, the scenario and time allotment can be illustrated as follows.

Fig. 5. Scenario of using TLC

Time	Step
20 minutes	1. Lecturer delivers material in 20 minutes. This limited span of material delivery will hopefully encourage students to come on-time and learn the materials before attending class.
10 minutes	2. Lecturer distributes TLC and quantifies them (writing the value of each card on whiteboard: red card for up to 50%, yellow card for 50-75%, and green card for 75-100%) 3. Students all at once lift the card relevant to their comprehension level. Lecturer counts for the reds and the greens. 4. Lecturer extracts the reds from the population, and groups them at the rear space of classroom for on-carpet activity. In cases where reds do not appear, greens can be separated and grouped for on-carpet activity.

30 minutes	5. Students with yellow cards are grouped with the greens, with ratio of for example 5 yellows for 1 green. The ratio can be adjusted to class situation. These groups will independently (without much of lecturer's help) discuss and do calculus problem given by lecturer on tranparent mica, using whiteboard marker as the pen and tissue paper as the eraser. The solution on transparent mica will be presented by the greens in front of the class after the class resumes. 6. Students with reds will receive full assistance from the lecturer and do calculus problem more suitable with their capability. (In these pictures, the reds are none. Therefore the greens are grouped at the rear space of class, doing calculus problems independently with their peer-greens while the yellow groups are receiving lecturer's assistance. The calculus problems done by the greens are still those that may appear in Calculus exam. This way, when the solution is presented in front of the yellows, there will be not much gap between the greens and the yellows).
30 minutes	7. Class is resumed and the greens present the solution to their problems on the OHP. Lecturer gives feedback on their creativity and analysis.
10 minute	8. Lecturer distributes cek-out papers on which students can communicate additional difficulty found in the session. Written feedback will allow all students to communicate their ideas/problems at once in shorter span of time rather than allowing students to communicate it orally.

D. Conclusion

Implementing F2M, 109 students and their lecturers found it useful in communicating feedback about material comprehension. Students responses on Likert-scale classroom questionnaire revealed that 63% supported the tardiness management and 78% found traffic-light card helpful or very helpful. None of the 109 students in two classes think that F2M, especially the traffic-light cards, embarrassing. Assuming that calculus classes have typical students inputs and they learn same materials, comparison between year prior to F2M and that after F2M showed increase in student achievement: students achieving A and B grades increased from 45% to 58%, while those achieving D and E decreased from 35% to 21%.

We believe that due to its flexibility and effectivity in obtaining feedback for quality teaching and learning, F2M can be well responded in other classes especially those involving problem solving. Classes with full lecturing, such as Civics, may not be really benefitted from F2M. However, application on other science classes such as Calculus-II, Physics-I, and Physics-II can be considered. This way, overall achievement especially for students in their Preparatory Year (first year) is expected to increase and will help students to achieve greater success the following years.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TURKISH UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY STUDENTS' READINESS FOR LEARNER AUTONOMY

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Abstract

The applicability of learner autonomy in different cultural contexts has been widely researched in the literature in recent years. However, the studies investigating the connection between culture and learner autonomy in Asian cultures have been inconclusive as they revealed contradictory findings about Asian students' reactions to autonomous learning. Taking this inconclusiveness as an impetus, this study aimed to investigate Turkish university learners' readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with learners' culture of learning to explore whether learners' approaches to learner autonomy were based on their culturally predetermined learning behaviors or could be explained on the basis of differences in their educational backgrounds and experiences.

This study implied that national and ethnic definitions of culture may not sufficiently explain the differences in learners' autonomous behaviors. Therefore, learners' previous learning experiences - culture of learning- along with other individual factors should be taken into account in any attempts to promote learner autonomy.

This study gathered data from 408 students from the preparatory schools of seven universities in Turkey. The data were collected through questionnaires, and analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics, a one-way ANOVA, cross tabulations and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

Analysis of the quantitative data revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the participants' culture of learning and their readiness for learner autonomy, which suggested that the extent of exposure to autonomous activities in the high schools in which the participants studied had an effect on their subsequent perceptions and behaviors related to learner autonomy.

TEACHER EVALUATION IN GHANAIAN POLYTECHNICS – SOME EXPERIENCES FROM TAKORADI POLYTECHNIC

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Abstract

Student's evaluation of teacher performance is one of the most controversial techniques used to identify teacher effectiveness. Many question and challenge the usefulness of students' ratings in providing feedback that can lead to improved instruction by teachers and learning by students.The concept of school self evaluation is quite new in most Ghanaian Polytechnics. In fact, ensuring the quality of Polytechnic education internally has had a checkered history in most Ghanaian Polytechnics and Takoradi Polytechnic is no exception. In recent times however, Takoradi Polytechnic has put in place several interventions meant to improve its educational quality. Among these interventions has been teacher assessment which is an important component of school self evaluation. Teacher assessment at the polytechnic is aimed at improving teaching and learning but, the exercise is faced with many challenges. Hence, the main objective of this research was to find how teachers and students of the Polytechnic perceive teacher assessment, the challenges associated with the exercise and how it can be improved.

To effectively investigate this, data was collected from the Rector of the Polytechnic, 4 staff members of the Academic Quality Assurance Unit, fifty lecturers and three hundred students. In all, three hundred and fifty-four respondents were involved in the research. The following aspects were investigated using structured questionnaire and an interview guide: the value of the assessment, the consequences of it on teachers and students, challenges associated with the exercise and areas for improvement. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the analysis and the results were presented using descriptive statistics.

The results of the study revealed that assessment of lecturers is very much valued by most lecturers and is not seen as 'attacking'. In fact, many of the lecturers were willing to effect the needed changes revealed through the assessment. Unfortunately, few students entertained fear of being victimised, while others were not motivated to participate in the exercise because of the perception that the exercise had no punishing consequence. Some students were also not very cooperative during the exercise due to the fact that they lacked adequate education on the exercise. Interestingly, the majority of the concerns raised by the students had to do with facilities and the management of the polytechnic. Details and possible explanations to these, and their implications for Polytechnics and researchers are presented in this report.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATION IN GHANAIAN POLYTECHNICS -

CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

Many of the problems that occur in organizations are the direct result of faulty communication. Hence, many agree that without good communication, organizations develop nasty grapevines and employees feel excluded and kept at an arm's length from work. In fact, for any effective work process aimed at achieving clearly set out goals, the important role of communication cannot be over emphasized. This is because work is first and foremost about communication/relationship with others - bosses, coworkers, clients etc. Communication problems at work can suck the energy of workers and affect the productivity of staff and the quality of students produced. Lack of communication problems however, results in the accumulation of energies toward the achievement of set goals and results in increased productivity. It was therefore for a good reason that, the purpose of the study was to explore the challenges associated with internal within Ghanaian polytechnics and how these can be improved in order to increase productivity.

The respondents of the study were in total 120; 66 males and 54 females. Administrative staff from all ten polytechnics in Ghana was used for the research. A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect data collection, SPSS 12.0 computer programme was used to analyze the data and descriptive statistics was then used for the presentation of the results.

The results of the study showed that quite a significant number (40%) of Ghanaian polytechnic workers were not satisfied with internal communication within their polytechnics. Among the many challenges were: much use of the grapevine; perceived favoritism; inadequate communication gadgets and malfunctioning or absence of effective print media in communication. The causes of these challenges

and how they can be handled are also presented in this report. The research results further form a basis

for future research and many academic arguments.

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT, JOB SATISFACTION AND LABOUR TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG TEACHERS

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Abstract
Examining the extent at which work-family conflict and job satisfaction could predict the labour turnover intentions among Nigerian secondary school teachers is the purpose of this study. 229 (95%) respondents out of 240 returned their copies of the questionnaire for data analysis. The results reveal that there was a statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) influence of work-family conflict, and job satisfaction on labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers in Ogun State, Nigeria, as perceived.

Key Words: Work-family conflict, job satisfaction, labour turnover, secondary school, Nigeria

Introduction

Work-family conflict is an inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Carmeli, 2003). That is, the participation in the work -family role is affected by participation in the family -work role. Work-family conflict is a common problem among employees; it is an undesirable situation and it negatively affects quite a number of other areas within and outside the family, these include: an increase in prolong fatigue, high level of absenteeism at the work, and labour turnover intentions, among others (Nicole, 2003). The most common outcomes associated with work-family conflict are higher instances of job and family distress, poor health outcomes, and decreased job and life satisfaction (Warner, 2005). Sometimes, it leads to broken homes, and polygamy or an unexpected marriage. Nicole (2003) reveals that work-family conflict is caused by factors from both the work and home situations. The role of work time arrangement in the development of such a conflict is particularly striking; for example, working shifts, sudden transfer, frequent overtime, and change of working hours all increase the risk of conflict. Both the organization and the employee have the responsibilities of eliminating work-family conflict. Empirical evidence shows that individuals with high emotional intelligence are able to balance family interference with work and vice-versa (Brett & Stroh, 1995; Clarke, 2000; Carmeli, 2003; Nicole, 2003).

There is a growing body of research that reveals that work-family conflict is more prevalent than family-work conflict (Warner, 2005). This is not surprising given that these pressures continue; the experience of employees' work life interfering with their family is almost inevitable. Warner further says that the most significant determinant of work-family conflict is found in the work domain. Therefore, it is critical for employers to become aware of practices that can be implemented in order to reduce employees' work-family conflicts.

Clarke (2000) cites Minuchin proposed family systems theory, which suggests that families are cultural systems that go through developmental stages. This tries to maintain a sense of continuity and equilibrium and enhance each member's growth. The theory and the related concept of family equilibrium suggest that pressures both outside and within the family can disturb the equilibrium of the family (Brett & Stroh, 1995). Clarke reflects on the double ABCX Theory and suggests that three factors interact to produce a family's well-being: the stressor, the family's resources or characteristics to cope with the stressor, and the family's ability to cope with the stressor. Wiggins and Sheham (1994) proceed to identify family support, family adaptability and family communication as predominant among characteristics that facilitate coping, with family communication identified as the characteristic that enables the evolution of the other two attributes of family functioning.

Job satisfaction is a psychological concept and, therefore, giving it a precise and single scientific definition might be nearly impossible, since the nature and concept are somehow abstract. However, job satisfaction could be defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job, an effective reaction or an attitude towards one's job. In other words, job satisfaction implies the extent to which people like their job and dislike it. Weiss (2002) argues that job satisfaction is an attitude; it refers to how content an individual is with his or her job. Job satisfaction is a relatively recent term in the Nigerian context since in previous centuries; the job available to a person was often predetermined by the parents' occupation. Job satisfaction is very crucial to the long-term growth of any organisation. Job satisfaction is closely related to efficacy, and, it has been identified that many teachers lose or fail to develop self-efficacy within educational settings (Dweck, 1999). Various researches have been carried out on factors that could influence teachers' job satisfaction (Evans, 1998; Mäenpää, 2005). Those factors include: school-specific factors like availability of material resources, teacher-students ratio, school environment, and school culture, prompt payment of salary, and feelings of successful teaching, among others. Interestingly, teachers have different factors that could influence their job satisfaction. For instance, prompt payment of salary might be an influencing factor to a teacher while school environment might be an influence factor to another. Job satisfaction has been demonstrated to be closely related to commitment, turnover, job performance, productivity and burnout (Khaleque, Hossain, & Hoque, 1992; Cooper & Kelly, 1993).

Labour turnover is the voluntary or involuntary termination of an individual's employment with a given organization. Labour turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market, between firms, jobs and occupations, and between the states of employment and unemployment (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Each time a position is voluntary or involuntary created, a new employee might be replaced, this replacement cycle is known as turnover (Woods, 1995). Labour turnover is a much studied phenomenon (Lam, Foong, & Moo, 1995; Shaw, John, Jerkins, & Nina, 1998; Booth & Hamer, 2007). Labour turnover or 'brain drain' as it is being referred to in tertiary institutions is one of the major challenges facing education in Nigeria today. Labour turnover intentions seem to be very prevalent in private secondary schools than in public schools, and this might be due to some physical or social influences. The physical influences include poor salary, school environment, and delay in payment of salary among others. Social influence on the other hand is the shared cognition by friends or organizational members that influence people's decision on job movement (Albeson, 1993). The social influence makes hopping from one job to another an acceptable behaviour (Naresh, Pawan & Chong 2003), thus, if an individual has not changed his/ her job for a long time, he/she feels an increasing pressure to do so because of social influence. In some countries in Asia, it has been observed that labour turnover intentions is giving sleepless nights to human resource managers, and employees have developed bad attitudes due to labour shortage (Naresh, Pawan & Chong 2003). But in Nigeria, the Guardian newspaper an editorial of noted that in the last 20 years, a sizeable number of Nigerian academics have migrated abroad in search of greener pastures.

Statement of the Problem
It is observed that there is a growing labour turnover intention among secondary school teachers especially in private secondary schools and this in turn results to frequent in change of teachers even within an academic session.
This study therefore examines the extent at which work-family conflict and job satisfaction could predict the labour turnover intentions among Nigerian secondary school teachers. Also, the study investigates the relationship between work-family conflict, job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions among Nigerian secondary school teachers. Gender influence on work-family conflict, job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers were examined as well.

Research Questions
To this end, the study focuses on answering the following research questions:
- What are the perceived causes of work-family conflicts?
- To what extent would composite influence of work-family conflict and job satisfaction predict secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions?
- Is there any statistically significant relationship between work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?
- Is there any statistically significant gender influence on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?
- Is there any statistically significant difference between private and public secondary schools on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?

Method

Design

The research is to elicit information on work-family conflict and job satisfaction as predictors of labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers. The study is purely a descriptive survey research where variables in this study had already occurred and are not subject to manipulations. Work-family conflict and teachers' job satisfaction are the independent variables while labour turnover intention is the dependent variable.

Participant

The participants in this study were drawn from the private and public secondary schools in all the 20 Local Governments in Ogun State, Nigeria. The Local Governments were clustered into four groups based on the geographical location. Schools Two secondary schools were randomly selected from private and public secondary schools from each of the four groups based on the year of establishment, making 8 private and 8 public selected secondary schools. From each selected secondary school, 15 teachers were randomly selected based on their work experience; making 120 private school teachers and 120 public secondary schools teachers, also, 238 (99%) of the participants returned their copies of the questionnaire for the study, 118 (99%) teachers from the private, and 120 (100%) teachers from the public secondary schools respectively.

Instrumentation

The development of the questionnaire was guided by a literature review. A structured Personal and Organizational Factors of Teachers' Turnover Intentions Questionnaire (POFTIQ) was adopted for the study. The instrument used has four sections: A, B, C & D. Section A aims at seeking information of a background nature, including age, gender, name of the school, location, year of establishment, work experience, and marital status, among others. Section B elicits responses on the teachers' job satisfaction, using a 4-point scale ranging from *strongly agree to strongly disagree*. The focus of sections C and D are on work-family conflict and labour turnover intentions. Section C and D comprises 10 structured items each with a 4-point scale ranging from *strongly agree to strongly disagree.* The instrument was first administered to 10 teachers (alpha = 0.85) as pilot survey.

Procedure

Participants responded anonymously to the questionnaire given to them. All data collected were grouped based on the various research questions formulated for testing in this study. The data was subjected to statistical test and analysis. Descriptive statistics, Correlation, Regression analysis and t-test were used to calculate the research data.

Results

Research Question 1: What are the perceived causes of work-family conflicts?

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on the Perceived Causes of Work-Family Conflicts

Perceived Causes	N	Mean	SD	%
Stress from work	238	3.22	0.51	9.88
Lack of good parental care	238	3.35	0.70	10.26
Love of money	238	3.19	0.77	9.77
Nature of job	238	3.37	0.72	10.32
Poor remuneration	238	2.93	0.92	8.97
Job insecurity	238	3.58	0.61	10.96
Lack of understanding between couple and extended family	238	3.27	0.64	10.01
Extra marital affairs	238	3.41	0.59	10.44
Family background	238	2.93	0.90	8.97

Cultural belief	238	3.41	0.59	10.44

Table 1 above reveals that job insecurity is the perceived highest cause of work-family conflicts among secondary school teachers with the percentage of 10.96. Cultural belief and extra marital affairs are the next perceived causes of work-family conflicts among selected secondary school teachers with the same percentage of 10.44. Next to cultural belief and extra marital affairs is the nature of job (10.32%), like jobs that involve transfer, or shift. For instance, transfer as in the case of teachers, shift as in the case of nurses. Poor remuneration and family background are the least perceived causes of work-family conflicts among selected secondary school teachers with the same percentage of 8.97. This shows that poor remuneration and family background are not really the cause of work-family conflict among teachers compared with the teachers' job insecurity as it often take place in private secondary schools.

Research Question 2: To what extent would composite influence of work-family conflict and job satisfaction predict secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions?

Table 2:   **Analysis of Variance**

Variables	Sums of Square	DF	Mean Squares	F-value	Prob>F
Regression	2201.583	2	1100.792		
	5039.413	235	21.444	51.33	.000*
Residual	7240.996	237			
Total					
R= 0 .551					
R^2= 0.304					
SE= 4.611					
R^2 (adj.)= 0.298					
DurbinWatson=1.543					

* Sig. at p<0.05

Table 2 above presents the regression analysis on the composite influence of work-family conflict and job satisfaction on secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions. Since $\alpha = 0.05$ exceed the observed significance level, p = 0.000, the data provide strong evidence that at least one of the coefficients (independent variables) is non zero. The overall independent variables (work-family conflicts, and job satisfaction) appears to be statistically useful for predicting the dependent variable (teachers' turnover intentions) This implies that work-family conflict and job satisfaction have statistically significant composite influence on secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions. The R^2=0.304, that is, the explanatory variables (work-family conflict and teachers' job satisfaction) capture about 30% variation in the endogenous variable (secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions). Also, it implies that work-family conflict and teachers' job satisfaction exert a significant relationship with secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions (table 3).

Research Question 3: Is there any statistically significant relationship between work family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?

Table 3:   **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix**

	Mean SD	1	2	3	4
1. LTOI	58.87 5.50	1.00			
2. TJS	41.55 3.48	0 .66*	1.00		
3. WFC	46.49 4.01	0.78*	0.60*	1.00	

*P<0.05   WFC= Work-family Conflict; TJS= Teachers' Job Satisfaction;
          LTOI= Labour Turnover Intentions.

Results in table 3 above show that work-family conflict has the highest mean of 46.49, while teachers' job satisfaction has the least mean of 41.55. Also, the table reveals there is positive relationship between the variables and it is discovered that the highest positive relationship is between work-family conflict and labour turnover intention (r=0.78). This implies that work-family conflict can easily influence the labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers. Also, teachers' job satisfaction has a positive relationship (r=0.66) with labour turnover intentions. This implies that increase in work-family conflicts and teachers' job satisfaction could culminate in increase in labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers. Furthermore, work-family conflicts have a positive significant relationship with teachers' job satisfaction, that is, work-family conflicts and teachers' job satisfaction are significantly related to labour turnover intentions among secondary school teachers.

Research Question 4: Is there any statistically significant gender influence on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?

Table 4:   **T-Test on Gender Influence**

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE	t-value	p-value
Work-Family Conflict	Male	149	46.52	4.04	0.33		
	Female	89	46.46	3.97	0.42	0.104	0.713
Teachers' Job Satisfaction	Male	149	41.45	3.57	0.29		
	Female	89	41.73	3.33	0.35	-0.612	0.615
Labour Turnover Intentions	Male	149	58.56	5.61	0.46		
	Female	89	59.40	5.29	0.56	-1.172	0.628

Not Sig. at p>0.05

Table 4 above reveals that there is no significant gender influence on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions. Since α = 0.05 does not exceed the observed significance level, p = 0.713, p = 0.615, and p = 0.628 respectively. This implies that both male and female teachers have the intentions of changing their jobs. Also, both female and male teachers have the same level of job satisfaction, and work-family conflicts affect both male and female teachers the same way.

Research Question 5:   Is there any statistically significant difference between private and public secondary schools on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions?

Table 5:   **T-Test on School Type Influence**

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE	t-value	p-value
Work-Family Conflict	Private	118	46.43	4.04	0.37		
	Public	120	46.57	3.99	0.36	-0.273	0.955
Teachers' Job Satisfaction	Private	118	41.05	3.62	0.33		
	Public	120	41.66	3.35	0.31	4.463	0.017*
Labour Turnover Intentions	Private	118	58.93	5.71	0.52		
	Public	120	58.18	5.32	0.49	6.176	0.008*

Table 5 above reveals that there is no significant school type influence on work-family conflict, since α = 0.05 does not exceed the observed significance level, p = 0.955, while the teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions are significant, since α = 0.05 exceed the observed significance level, p = 0.008 respectively. This implies that both private and public secondary school teachers have experience of work-family conflict. Public secondary school teachers are more satisfied with their job

than their counterparts in the public secondary schools. This may be due to lack of prompt payment of salary, being made to teach many subjects, and employers undue desire to exploit their employees among others. Also, the rate of labour turnover intentions is higher in the private secondary schools than in the public secondary schools.

Discussion

The findings of this study show that stress from work, lack of good parental care, love of money, nature of job, poor remuneration, job insecurity, lack of understanding between couple and the extended family, extra marital affair, family background, and cultural belief are perceived causes of work-family conflicts among secondary school teachers. The stress from work could be the demands on the job. These may include: dealing with students' disciplines, large classes, teaching new courses, frequent changes of timetable or courses, increased workload, need to hit targets or deadlines, long working hours, and lack of regular breaks (Oredein, 2009). During the study, it was observed that stress from work is high in private secondary schools than their counterpart in public schools, though public secondary schools still have with large classes than private secondary schools.

Also, the results reveal that there is composite influence of work-family conflict and job satisfaction on secondary school teachers' labour turnover intentions. Both work-family conflict and teachers' job satisfaction have a positive relationship with labour turnover intentions. Although, this study is on permanent secondary school teachers, the result is not in consistent with Slattery & Rajan Selvarajan's (2005) work on temporary employees, that job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intentions with temporary agency. But it is in tandem with Lindsey (2007), who identifies in his study that job satisfaction is one of the factors that could contribute to turnover rates in organizations. Slattery and Rajan Selvarajan's (2005) suggest that job satisfaction is a more distant cause than commitment when it comes to turnover intentions. But this study as well shows that work-family conflict is more related to labour turnover intentions than teachers' job satisfaction. Nevertheless, one strong message that could be relayed from this study is that teachers' job satisfaction may be a more distant cause of labour turnover intentions than work-family conflicts. Moreover, work-family conflicts have a positive significant relationship with teachers' labour turnover intentions. This is in consistency with Lindsey (2007) which avers that the relationship between conflicts and turnover intentions is linear and significant. Conflicts generally have been recognized as pervasive issues within organization, with effects that contribute to the strongest turnover predictors (Frone, 2000; Medina, Munduate, Dorado, Martinez, & Guerra, 2005).

Furthermore, the results reveal that gender has no significant influence on work-family conflict, teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions. That is, gender has nothing to do with turnover intentions of secondary school teachers. Male and female teachers have the same level of job satisfaction, and both experience work-family conflicts. This is in consistency with Onovoh (2000), who identifies in his study that male and female teachers experience the same level of job satisfaction. This study also shows that school type has no significant influence on work-family conflict, while the teachers' job satisfaction and labour turnover intentions are significant. Teachers in both private and public secondary schools experience work-family conflicts. Teachers in the public secondary schools are more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts in the private secondary schools. Labour turnover intentions are higher in private secondary schools than in the public secondary schools.

Recommendations

Secondary school education serves as a bridge between primary and tertiary education, thus the need to reduce the rate of teachers' turnover intentions in secondary schools. Based on the outcomes of this study, it is therefore recommended that government, proprietors, and proprietresses, should take a look at what they can do to reduce work-family conflicts. For instances, they can give preference to married people when conducting any transfer, and they should hold the well-being of teachers paramount. In other words, government, proprietors, and proprietresses should treat teachers as an asset which needs a lot of attention. Teachers are nation builders; hence they need to be motivated and compensated adequately. Government, proprietors, and proprietress should examine the sources of labour turnover intentions among teachers and recommend the best approach to fill the gap of the sources so that teachers can be retained in the teaching profession. Besides, teachers should be paid regularly as and when due, in addition, incentives should be given to teachers. Academics should have regular breaks or annual leave. A good working environment should be provided. Government, proprietors, and proprietresses should consider the methods of allocating work and associated administrative

arrangements. Moreover, the rate of labour turnover intentions can be brought down by focusing on teachers' job satisfaction, and working on ways whereby work-family conflicts can be reduced.

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RADIO-LEARNING[1]

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Abstract

The radio as a vehicle of mass communication has undergone many changes over the years through the development of informatics and cybernetics. The process of digitization suffered by conventional broadcasters and the availability of its content on the Internet, produced the latest step in the recent history of media - the Web Radio In turn, the education has been used in the new technological resources to produce educational programs multidisciplinary in several areas of knowledge and in different parts of the world. Therefore, the present educational-communicative paradigm requires a new way of thought about the pedagogic models and new intervention strategies in society, which are able to respond to contemporary educational and intervenient processes. In this sense, the radio has been a great ally for Education for over one hundred and fifty years, taking the information and knowledge to the most inhospitable places. Nowadays, with a web format, the radio makes available, in virtual space, an ample group of technological interfaces with an alternative and complementary environment of teaching-learning. Appears, therefore, learning through the Internet radio - the Radio-learning, providing the virtual space and a set of interfaces for technology that teachers can disseminate their scientific work, suggest readings, stimulate debate on issues related to discipline (forums discussion), information notes, reviews, interviews with local experts and invited, promotion of academic events (congresses, seminars, lectures, conferences or meetings), lessons in podcast, beyond the possibility of synchronous communication with the network, through email, blog, messenger, chat, myspace, twiiter and others. In this communication, we will make a reflection about the web radio and the concept of radio-learning, showing its present panorama as an educational-communicative media and highlighting the case study of the Rádio Universitária do Minho.

Key-Words: Radio Web, E-Learning, Collaboration, Multimedia Sharing, Interactivity.

1. Introduction

The possibilities of information and communication with the evolution of the media on the Internet changed our way of thought, act, work, relate, teach, and learn, that is, our whole life in society (Sampaio, 2008). In other words, it is what Castells (2002) denominates "Network Society".

This new communicational and social order is presented through the cyber culture, which inter-relates information, communication and technology generated by the inter-connection of computers, on which a communication destitute of corporeal presence is consolidated (Roesler, 2007). Arises, then, the culture of networks, appearing contemporarily as a metaphor to translate the sense of the interaction, communicability and sociability experiences of people with the virtual word (Paiva, 2004).

To Lévy (1994), the World Wide Web universe favors a collective intelligence on the educative domain and cooperative learning, producing a cyberculture on the information society. Castells (2002:463-464) adds to that, asserting that "the web allowed interest groups and network projects to

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[1]Text produced under the individual program Doctor Foundation for Science and Technology of Portugal (FCT), integrated in the Center for Research in Education (CIED) - Universidade do Minho. Project: Information Society, Innovation and educational processes.

overcome time-costs problems associated to the chaotic pre-www information, as, in this basis, groups, individuals and organizations could interact significantly with what has become, literally, a wide world web of interactive and individualized communication", reinforcing the formation of virtual learning communities in education.

The "Web" not only amplifies the formation of social communication fields as a "media", but is capable of creating new cultural and social constructions, acquiring its own life in cyberspace (Maccormack & Jones, 1998; Bochmann, 1995). Thence, a new social conscience is created, which will be used by an information society, at local and global levels, crossing both communication contexts, constituting a global network (Tapscott & Williams, 2008).

On the educational field, the cyberspace has enabled the development of virtual learning environments, focused on the utilization of interaction software and the Internet itself as a pedagogic interface potentially capable of decreasing geographical distances and increasing interaction between student and instructor pairs, above all those who act on the distance education modality (Palloff & Pratt, 2000; Lévy, 1997).

In this sense, the radio found on the Internet the possibility to acquire another temporality, when it makes available multimedia files, asynchronous transmission, flexibility, and then, straiten the relationship between listener/user. According to Alves (2003), within the new digital environment new patterns of communication and activities appear. According to the author, the cyberspace connects users and institutions, making available to both a great range of opportunities and services. Then, discussion lists, chats, video-conferences, audio-conferences, podcasts emerge, which now merge to the radio for the offer of content and participation of the audience on the web program.

In this communication, we will make a reflection on the web radio, presenting its present panorama as an educational-communicative media and highlighting the case study of the Rádio Universitária do Minho (RUM), and present the concept of radio-learning as the new tendency of web radio.

2. Methodology Adopted in the Investigation

The investigation from which this communication originated considered important to analyze the educational potentialities of the web radio, more specifically on the Portuguese Undergraduate courses, being described in more detail on the Rádio Universitária do Minho case study.

Investigations through case studies contemplate multiple sources of evidence and different techniques of field research, which could involve the observation of the phenomenon during its occurrence, studies and document analysis, interviews, measurements and qualitative and quantitative surveys inherent to the case (Yin, 2003; Stake, 1995; Bassey, 1999; Punch, 1998; Merriam, 1998; Fabrício, 2000).

In the present investigation, we used, as techniques and instruments for data collection: information survey on the web; document analysis (through the technique of content analysis – program grids); the observation of Portuguese university radio programs, and the analysis of the formative tendency of RUM (including semi-structured interviews to the radio's director).

We also used the classification of radio-phonic categories from Filho (2003), which could be categorized in: *Journalistic* (note, news, bulletin, reporting, interview, comment, editorial, chronicle, journalistic documentary, round-tables or debates, police program, sportive and techno-scientific programs); *Educative-Cultural* (autobiography, educative-cultural documentary, thematic program); *Entertainment* (musical program, fictional program and artistic event); *Publicity* (spot, jingle, testimonial, promotion piece); *Advertising* (public action radio-phonic piece, electoral and religious programs); *Service* (notes of public utility and service); *Special* (children's program, varieties program).

3. Results on the Web Radio

With regards to the mass media that develop social-cultural activities of formal and informal education, it almost always includes formal programs, being directly focused to the school curriculum (Trilla, 1998). It is the case of the various university radios on the web of informative character, but with a strong formative tendency, establishing mixed educational-communicative configurations. Perona & Veloso (2007:18) establish a typology for radios with cultural and educative tendency – community,

popular, formative, municipal, scholar and university – asserting, quoting Merayo (2000), that "Even though, all seem to share a common line: they attempt to reach non-commercial objectives and are guided especially and directly to a social character purpose".

According to Correia & Tomé (2007), the informal and non-formal contexts provide a great source of knowledge, always constituting an important source of innovation and stimulus to the search for knowledge, through methods and techniques that deviate from the traditional means of educational formation. As education and communication are indissoluble concepts, the institutions are intensively using the technological resources, aiming at the transformation of information in knowledge, now more than ever, in virtual educational environments (Lévy, 1990).

With the online emission, the radio developed another language, through the incorporation of new elements to its discursive structure, and through the way the listener/user takes a pro-active attitude of investigation and use of contents. In parallel, the scheme of emission and reception had to follow this evolution, favoring the fragmentation of audiences in function of their specific interests (Cordeiro, 2005; Leão, 2007). This way, the educational-communicative potentialities of the web radio started to be found by lecturers, school managers, educational institutions and university radios, based on successful experiences with the use of the interface in different parts of the world.

Contrary to traditional radio, the radio through the Internet is not restricted to audio, neither imposes limits to geographical reach (Lee, 2005). Its transmission could come followed by images, videos, texts, pictures, and links or through message boxes and chats (Priestman, 2002). This advance allows the listener to do much more than just listen, making communication much more dynamic. Today, it is possible to conduct an online formation, offering didactic material in PDF files or Word document, video, podcast, and have access to up-to-date information through the RSS feed, clear doubts with the instructor / educator through messenger, e-mail, chat, forums, besides the interactivity in real time, through audio-conference or video-conference.

Based on a cooperative work, with interactivity among the participants and sharing of ideas, the interface "web radio" is presented as a mean through which the students feel an important and active part of the educational-communicative process. "This takes us to a proposal of rupture from the traditional educational model based on a linear transmission of discipline content, in which emission and reception are separate" (Fernandes & Silva, 2004:379).

4. The concept of Radio-Learning

The concept of Radio-Learning or R-Learning follows from social, educative and formative characteristics of the radio on the Internet, as an object of learning. It is about the combination of various elements common to the web radio: the ubiquity (accessible everywhere) – the flexibility – the low cost of production and program broadcasting – the emission in real time (integral) – the synchronous communication (communication intermediated by computers in a simultaneous way) – the multi-directed connectivity – the multimedia sharing – the streaming (listen/see directly from the Internet) – the collaboration (exchange of information in cyberspace) – and the interactivity, integrated to e-learning (system of learning on the Internet).

According to Silva (2001:130): "The new technological supports brought the facility of access to information, namely by the increase of storage capacity, by the processing speed and by the compatibility between the systems".

The schools through a web radio can provide educational programs with different themes for different courses and disciplines, which will be available online and can be accessed at anytime and anywhere in the world. Through this technological resource, there is no possibility of losing the program if the person is busy, the programs are available online and can be accessed when necessary or possible (Suanno, 2003). This model of educational web radio is what we call **Radio-Learning**, actually expanding in many parts of the world.

Fig.2 – Elements of Radio-Learning

5. The Experiences of University Radios in Portugal

In Portugal, contrary to in other European countries, the university radios on the web appeared at the end of the 90's, and today, after almost two decades, few remain active in the national scenario.

The radio researcher Paula Cordeiro, says that, in Portugal, in 2005, there were four university radios with FM emission and few projects of university radios in the web (Cordeiro, 2005). Leão (2007) also shares the same information, identifying the *Rádio Universitária de Coimbra* (www.ruc.pt) – from Universidade de Coimbra; the *Rádio Universitária do Marão* (www.universidade.fm) – from the Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro Region; the *Rádio Universitária do Algarve* (www.rua.pt) – from the Universidade do Algarve; and the *Rádio Universitária do Minho* (www.rum.pt) – from the Universidade do Minho, as the portuguese university web radios.

Besides these, from the research performed for this work, we have identified the presence of other two university radios – the *Rádio Universitária Beira do Interior* (www.rubi.ubi.pt) – from the Universidade Beira do Interior, and the *Radio Zero* – from the Instituto Superior Técnico (www.radiozero.pt). In global terms, it is possible to assert that they share similar objectives, but have different and heterogeneous structures and program typologies (Cordeiro, 2005). However, among the mentioned radios, the *Rádio Universitária do Minho* stands out presently for its diverse and segmented program on the web, dedicated to the promotion and divulgation of cultural, scientific and support activities to the lectures of the Universidade do Minho, representing, at the same time, some of its departments and academic unities, besides a strong cultural intervention in the local communities of the Braga and Porto Districts.

The Rádio Universitária de Coimbra (RUC) exists since 1986 and was one of the first university radios in Portugal with web emission. Nowadays, it develops its activities based on the following categories: the formative, the informative, the academic and the cultural-educative. The formative category is established through periodic courses of formation and recycling for speakers, editors/speakers and technicians, besides the realization of didactic programs in collaboration with public and private institutions. The informative category is a space focused on the debate of questions related to the Universidade de Coimbra and to up-to-date news. About the academic life at the Universidade de Coimbra, the RUC dedicates an ample space in its program grid, transmitting the main occurrences of the learning institution. Finally, the cultural category is responsible for the divulging of various cultural activities going on in Coimbra, at the North Region or in the rest of the country, with programs dedicated to music, theater, cinema, poetry, literature and the transmission of concerts, shows and popular festivals.

The Rádio Universidade do Marão (FM Universidade) gave its first steps in the virtual world in 2000 (Cordeiro 2005), and since then the objective of the broadcasting station was to become the first university radio totally digital in Portugal. However, for technical reasons, this evolution to the web was only firmed in posterior years (Leão, 2007). Presently, the Rádio Universidade do Marão is focused on the academic public of the Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro Region, with a purely informative focus.

In 2003, the Rádio Universitária do Algarve (RUA) arouse in a partnership between the Academic Association and the Universidade do Algarve. In the web, it has as an objective to divulge and promote the academic activities and cultural and musical events of the South Region in Portugal. Different from "RUC" and "RUA", it is grounded in three pillars to develop its activities: the Academy, the Culture and Alternative Music. The objective of the programs directed to the Academy is to show to the national Portuguese community the contributions that the Universidade do Algarve offers to the region and to the country, related to teaching and research. The Culture is centered on the promotion and divulging of cultural events that take place in the Algarve Region (popular festivals, concerts, shows, cinema, literature, theater). The Alternative Music programs promote the work of artists and bands unknown to the public in general and to the communication means.

Still in 2003 the Rádio Universitária Beira do Interior (RUBI) was created as a laboratory of the discipline radio-phonic Journalism at the Universidade Beira do Interior, only with an internal character. In 2004, the RUBI starts to emit its radio-phonic program on the web, and started to be called "RUBIweb". But only in 2006 that the RUBI decided to bet on the diversity of categories in its program grid, aggregating multimedia interfaces to its web radio platform, such as the podcast and e-mail.

According to the Filho's (2003), radio-phonic classification of categories, Rádio Universitária Beira do Interior is exclusively generalist and informative, functioning as the "voice" of the Departments from the Universidade Beira do Interior, as well as of the local community, Covilhã.

The Radio Zero is part of the Association of the Instituto Superior Técnico (IST), with its headquarters in Lisbon (before 2006 it was called RIIST – Internal Radio of IST). Being originally a radio of university character, its objectives are centered in offering radio-phonic formation to the students interested in working in radio, as well as inform the "IST" academic community about the main events going on at the university, in a cultural, scientific and educative ambit (http://www.radiozero.pt/projecto/). It has more than 40 programs on its online program grid of journalistic, cultural-educative and entertainment character (in its majority).

The Rádio Universitária do Minho (RUM) exists since 1989, and since 2006 it started to transmit via web, with a clearly heterogeneous program offer, on which spaces of purely formative-instructive character are mixed with others that explore different categories and formats, closer to some ongoing experiences in Europe. According to Leão (2007), the RUM launched two crucial interfaces in the context of its strategy to conquer and gain the loyalty of new public: the website and the online emission. The consolidation of the online emission, particularly, revealed as an alternative to the "conventional receptors", emphasizing culture, debates on education, science, economy, politics, news, local informs, chronicles, interviews, and specialized reports.

In its relationship to the Universidade do Minho, the RUM makes available the virtual space and a group of technological interfaces for the lecturers to divulge their scientific works, suggest readings, stimulate the debate on themes related to their disciplines (discussion forums), to inform grades, tests, interviews, divulge local, national and international academic events (congresses, seminars, talks, colloquiums, meetings…), store lectures in podcast (in a way that the student can have access to the discipline contents in any part of the world), besides the possibilities of synchronous communication with the broadcasting station, through e-mail, *blog*, messenger or *myspace*.

Besides, it is on the program grid that the RUM is most different from the other portuguese university radios, for its thematic diversity of the programs dedicated to the educative-cultural and journalistic categories: *Magazine da Educação* (Education Magazine) and the *Livros com RUM* (Books with RUM) – information and reflection on the Portuguese and international literary situation, with interview from critics, authors and specialists in literature; *Ciência para Todos* (Science for All) and the *Universidade Sem-Muros;* (No boundaries University) at the *Democracia Viva* (Living Democracy) – promotion and divulging of the university's cultural and scientific activities; *Praça Município/Café com Blogs* (Municipal Square/Coffee with Blogs) – debate about the Portuguese political scenario; *Campus Verbal* (serves as a radio-phonic laboratory, where the students from the Institute of Literature and Science of the Universidade do Minho, of French and German areas, produce radio programs based on what they have learned in the lecture rooms, and store the contents at the university's website in a podcast format; *Olhar no Feminino* (Look on the Female) – discusses themes related to the female world; *Rumo Económico* (Economic Route) – interviews and reports on the national and international economic panorama; *ECO RUM* – program focused on the protection and conservation of the environment; *Cultura Impressa* (Printed Culture) – the main topics of printed media are debated on the program; *Caixa de Ferramentas* (Tool Box) and the *Diferença em 1° Plano* (Difference in 1st Level) – debates and interviews and the promotion of specialized support services to attend the peculiarities of people with special needs; *Cultura Crónica* (Chronic Culture) – program focused on stage arts, cinema, literature and shows; and the *Escola de Rádio* (Radio School), where courses on the radio-phonic universe are developed (the courses are given by communication experts from the Rádio Universitária do Minho and lecturers of the Universidade do Minho.

According to (Geller, 2007:5):"If you can create quality programming, and consistently stick a host, program, or format over the time it takes to find its audience, you will likely have your own sucess story".

This is the case of Rádio Universitária do Minho, with more than 60 specialized programs, divided by categories, and for all public.

Fig. 2 – Program Grid of the RUM

It is this way that the university radios work in Portugal, functioning as a social communication vehicle of local communities and as a valuable space for the divulgation, socialization and popularization of science and technology, produced by different departments at the teaching institutions.

To Cordeiro (2005:10): "The contribution and influence of university radios in the development of the future professionals' formation, allied to the importance in the context of radio-phonic communication in general are incontestable, and, in a context where the main concern is the profit-making of the station, university radios appear as elements that offer alternatives of program and formation".

6. Final Considerations

According to the preliminary results of this investigation, the university radios are not restricted to generalist or informative functions anymore, but figure as a complementary or alternative mean for people's formation.

Such tendency is present in the objectives of the Rádio Universitária do Minho, through its social, cultural, educative and formative activities, both on conventional and web formats.

However, the understanding of the web radio as an educational-communicative media has been followed by some difficulties related to the international academic community, in face of the still restricted investigation about the potentialities of online radio. Besides that, due to the similarity of its basic characteristics, it is common for the student public to confound podcast with web radio.

Another question to be considered is the need to create its own identity as a means of mass communication on the web, once it comes from a traditional media format. Even though it is still in need of a solid methodological-theoretical basis, the use of the web radio as a formative interface has been expanding significantly in the world.

Despite the abovementioned obstacles, any course or discipline in school or at university, made available in a virtual learning environment, could use the radio-phonic program, or produce, in a local radio station, contents to be shared by the students. It is only question of believing in the potential of the radio on the Internet and its potentialities, to make the dream of Roquete Pinto (considered the father of broadcasting in Brazil) worth, transforming it definitively in an educational mean (Souza & Souza, 2007).

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Peace Begins With Me… and Continues to Exist Because of Me!

Bonnie Lee Rabe, Ph.D.

If we wish to create a lasting peace we must begin with the children.

Mahatma Gandhi

Peace programs and much of the Peace Education training focuses on theory, practice, and advocacy. In reality, we attempt to understand and prevent violence, resolve conflict between and among people, and become more knowledgeable of other cultures and peoples through these programs. To instill in children a natural and peaceful response to the challenges of life, we must begin early.

As defined by the United Nations, the culture of peace is a set of values, attitudes, modes of behavior, and ways of life that reject violence and prevent conflicts by tackling their root causes to solve problems through dialogue and negotiation among individuals, groups, and nations.[2]

The United Nations model promotes the *teacher as learner* as the theory of peace unfolds, and the *learner as teacher* in the development of a peace curriculum. The United Nations, in an effort to promote Peace Education[3], has identified themes that are appropriate for different developmental levels. If those basic themes are analyzed and early developmental strategies identified, we have the basis for early Peace Education dealing with more than multiculturalism and conflict resolution; but dealing with building the basis for a peaceful existence.

Can the elements of peacefulness, if they are incorporated into the education of a child and extended into the home, truly become a way of being?

The Academy of International Studies, a Connecticut interdistrict magnet school in Danbury, Connecticut, USA has implemented and is institutionalizing a Peace Curriculum as a way of life. An important development as implementation continues, is the logistics of the dual language component of the program.

We create wonderful frameworks based on quality thought and theory yet we encounter unexpected blocks to our efforts. Even in the most disappointing conditions, creative administrators find ways around these blocks and ultimately create wonderful learning environments focused on the development of a culture of peace and conscience.

WHAT IS PEACE EDUCATION?

Peace Education takes many forms: conflict resolution, building character, democratic education, and learning about war and peace. Often programs address the outcome of non-peaceful ways, i.e. resolving conflict, consensus building, bullying, and mediation.

At the core, the very essence of personality development, our children often do not have the information or skill sets to make informed decisions as they grow. They hear and observe violent actions at home, in the media, and among their peers.

In her book, *It Takes a Village to Raise a Child* (1996), Hilary Rodham Clinton states:
Children are not rugged individualists. They depend on the adults they know and on thousands more who make decisions every day that affect their well-being. All of us, whether we acknowledge it or not, are responsible for deciding whether our children are raised in a nation that just doesn't espouse family values, but values families and children. (p. 7).

Imagine a microcosm of encouragement where children make their own decisions based on the basic tenants of peaceful living; reinforced through the encouragement of teachers, custodians, secretaries, nurses, bus drivers , and parents who all do the same!

By constructing an environment of love and support which looks at the unique differences in children as opportunities to stimulate a range of interests, encouraging and rewarding rather than stifling and controlling could we make a better world?

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[2] UN Resolution A/RES/53/243: Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace.

[3] United Nations cyberschoolbus.org

Certainly the Montessori and Waldorf models addressed issues of peace, but how can being at peace with oneself and others be brought to the mainstream?

THE BASIS OF PEACE EDUCATION

The history of Peace Education has attempted to be all encompassing. Peace Education has broadly been referred to as theoretical, philosophical, multicultural, conflict resolving, and political. It deals with education, conflict resolution, and theory within multiple languages and cultures.

Because the frames of peace keep changing as we struggle to describe the illusive and ephemeral state, it becomes increasingly difficult to describe what it is to be at peace… both to ourselves and our students.

John Galtung

John Galtung, a Norwegian sociologist, is credited as being a principal founder of peace and conflict theory movement. He developed the first academic journal devoted to Peace Studies, *The Journal of Peace Research*. His theoretical works address four levels: conflicts internal to a person or between persons; conflicts between races, generations, sexes, or classes: conflicts between states; and conflicts between civilizations or multi- state regions. He originated the concept of peace in journalism, which has become influential in journalism and communications studies.

According to The Peace Education Center at Columbia University's Teachers' College:

> Violence in its multiple forms at all levels of the global social order is a major problem. For nearly five decades educators concerned with this problem have argued that education has a responsibility to address the related issues through instruction in the school system, in the education of teachers, and, theoretically in the carving out of appropriate knowledge and in the development of pedagogies which are both relevant to the substance in achieving the learning goals of the field.
>
> Peace Education is now the subject of UN policy, research and training by UNESCO, the Council of Europe and ministries of education, various universities throughout the world and a worldwide trans-nationally conceived and conducted NGO Global Campaign for Peace Education. [4]

To educate for peace means building the capacity for peace.http://www.gse.harvard.edu/~t656_web/peace/Articles_Spring_2004/ - _edn2 Building capacity for anything is a slow process, requiring dialogue, establishment of a common language, and commitment. "These skills and values are essential for survival in an increasingly interdependent world, where violence has become an instrument of policy, yet still breeds more violence."[5]

THE CONNECTION WITH MORAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH
Jean Piaget

Piaget studied moral judgment in children. His findings fit into a two-stage theory: 10 or 11 year old children think about moral dilemmas in the context that rules are absolute; older children take the dilemma in the context of relativity.

Lawrence Kohlberg conceived a theory of moral adequacy to explain the development of moral reasoning. Although it has been questioned as to whether it applied equally to different genders and different cultures, Kohlberg's (1973) stages of moral development goes. In his interviews of both children and adolescents about moral dilemmas, he discovered stages that went well beyond the stages of moral development identified by Piaget (Craine, 1985). In his model, moral reasoning which is the basis of ethical behavior, identifies six developmental stages where the individual becomes increasingly more adequate in responding to moral dilemmas. Piaget, in researching the development of logic and morality, focused on early child development. Kohberg expanded Piaget's initial work,

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[4] Peace Education Center. Teachers College, Columbia University. Retrieved on March 12, 2008 from http://www.tc.columbia.edu/PeaceEd/philosophy.htm.

[5] *Educating for Peace, Global Education Network*. Retreived on March 12, 2008 from http://www.global-ed.org/e4p/index.htm.

determining the process of moral development continued over a lifetime and concerned itself with justice.

In Level I: *Pre-conventional Morality*, Kohberg notes that very young children are moral in a rather primitive way described in two stages: 1) the r*eward and punishment stage* (Does the action lead to punishment or reward?) and 2) the *exchange stage* is based simply on one's own pain and pleasure. There is, however, increased recognition that others have their own interests and should be taken into account.

Level II: *Conventional Morality*, kicks in by the time children enter elementary school. They are usually capable of conventional morality, although they may often slip back into This is also the level within which most adults function. In the two convention morality stages: 3) the *good boy/good girl stage* - the child tries to live up to the expectations of others, and to seek their approval and 4) the *law and order stage* where the point of view includes the social system as a whole where the rules of society are the bases for right and wrong. Doing one's duty and showing respect for authority are important.

Some adolescents and adults go a step further and rise above to moralities based on reason. Level III is therefore referred to as *Post-conventional Morality*. The two stages include 5) the social contract stage where the relative value of an act is determined by "the greatest good for the greatest number." At this level, morality is a matter of entering into a rational contract with one's fellow human beings to be kind to each other, respect authority, and follow laws to the extent that they respect and promote those universal values; 6) is referred to as the stage of *universal principles*. At this point, the person makes a personal commitment to universal principles of equal rights and respect, and social contract takes a clear back-seat: If there is a conflict between a social law or custom and universal principles, the universal principles take precedence

Lawrence Kohlberg

Kohberg, developed a moral system of development based on a study of lower and middle income boys in Chicago in the late 1950's ages 10, 13, and 16; and through the 1970's expanded the study to include girls, delinquent children, and children from other countries. In the interviews, Kohlberg asked the subjects to respond to a series of dilemmas. He analyzed the responses, specifically looking at the reasoning behind the answers given. He analyzed the responses into 6 categories. He then had other researchers score the protocols to establish interrater reliability.

    Level 1: Preconventional Morality
        Stage 1: Obedience and Punishment Orientation (avoid punishment)
        Stage 2: Individualism and Exchange (making deals)
    Level 2: Conventional Morality
        Stage 3: Good Interpersonal Relationships (being good)
        Stage 4: Maintaining Social Order (move from thinking of self to society)
    Level 3: Postconventional Morality
        Stage 5: Social Contract and Individual Rights (individual basic rights)
        Stage 6: Universal Principals (principals of justice)

According to Kohlberg, social experiences do promote development but emerge from thinking about moral problems. The 6 stages come into play as we find our views questioned and challenged. When our thinking and beliefs change we move into new stages that reflect our broader viewpoints. (Kohlberg, 1975).

Carol Gilligan

Carol Gilligan, a research assistant for Kohberg, disagreed with some elements of his moral system. Kohlberg's approach is based on Piaget's cognitive developmental model, whereas Gilligan's is based on a modified version of Freud's approach to ego development combined with the Kohlberg & Piaget models.

She criticized Kohlberg for studying only privileged white males and found, in some of Kohlberg's investigations, women turned out to score lower – and therefore were considered less developed - than men. Gilligan asserted that women, contrary to the beliefs of some theorists of the day, were not inferior in their personal or moral development, but that they were different. She is known as the founder of "difference feminism".

In 1982 Gilligan published her *Stages of the Ethic of Care*. Like Kohlberg, her model has three major divisions: *Preconventional*, *Conventional,* and *Post Conventiona*l. Gilligan, however, came to the realization that the transitions between the stages are fueled by changes in the sense of self rather than in changes in cognitive capability. In the *Preconventional* stage, the goal is individual survival. Transitioning from selfishness to responsibility to others, the individual then moves to the

Conventional stage where self sacrifice is goodness. As one transitions to the next stage from goodness to the truth that she is a person, too; one arrives at the *Postconventional* stage where the principle of nonviolence dominates - do not hurt others or self.

Paolo Freire

Most often Peace Education in schools encourages children to practice cooperation and collaboration in solving problems, make responsible decisions, clearly articulate feelings and communicate effectively. One of the most powerful figures in forming the foundation of Peace Education is Paolo Freire. Part political philosopher, part educational theorist - Freire merges theory with practical experience. Friere, a 1986 United Nations Education Science and Cultural Organization's Peace Prize awardee, suggests we explore a deeper reciprocity between teachers and students. He challenges us to think in terms of the teacher as a student and student as a teacher. Children and teachers learning together, building the basics of peace!

Friere's theories provide the basic assumption of The United Nations Peace Education Teacher as Learner (representing theory) and Learner as Teacher (representing curriculum). The United Nations Peace Education initiative has identified themes: ecological thinking and respect for life (ages 8-12), tolerance and respect for dignity and family (ages 11-16), critical thinking active non-violence (focusing on ages 12+), social justice and civic responsibility (ages 14+) and leadership and global community (ages 16+).

As exceptional as the philosophical underpinnings of this United Nations approach are, they do not address the early exposure to the concepts of Peace. Would the incorporation of the elements of peace earlier in a child's learning make a difference in their moral development? Would building foundations of a peaceful existence early in life reduce the frequency of problems and, in turn, the necessity of intervention?

AN INTEGRATED PEACE CURRICULUM

Danbury, Connecticut is located at the edge of the New York metropolitan area. According to the Danbury History Project files: Danbury, covering over 42 square miles, is the seventh largest city in Connecticut with a population of over 75,000 people. 58 different languages are spoken in Danbury, which is rich with immigrant history - 27% of the current population was born in other countries. Once a great hatting center, Danbury today makes electronic equipment, plastics, machinery, and furniture.

Dr. William Glass, Deputy Superintendent for Danbury Public Schools has long been an advocate for Peace Education. Recently, his efforts with Peace Education were honored by the U Thant Institute. A long-time advocate for the development of the language of peace in the educational experience, Dr. Glass consistently modeled for staff and students, reinforcing the presence of peace as elements emerge.

Our conversation began innocently enough, discussing curricular issues that improve the quality of education. Carefully probing each others' belief systems over the past several years, Bill broached an idea. Can the elements of peacefulness, if they are incorporated into the education of a child and extended into the home, truly become a way of being? Thus began a collaboration leading to the exploration of development of peacefulness in children.

Working together, beginning at the entry level to school, could children and teachers create an environment that promotes natural and peaceful responses to the challenges of life? Assuming that early exposure to a peaceful environment, language and expectations will make a difference in children's values and attitudes, a plan began to emerge. It begins with building a common language. Expanding from the basic United Nations themes, a unifying theme of Peace evolved, connected and supported transparently by the curricula taught within the school.

> A people's beliefs and values, and their ideas, about the qualities children have to
> develop in order to function effectively as adults in the society, influence the ways in
> which people raise their children and interact with them. The requirements of life in a
> particular society, the skills and abilities valued by that society also influence their
> child-rearing practices. All these factors constitute a most important set of influences

on the child's development. These factors make up the child's social environment, and they differ from one cultural group to another.[6]

Linking Danbury's well-established *The Learning Tree Curriculum,* with the international studies enhanced curriculum, and a Peace Education theme was a logical next step. Building on the roots of *The Learning Tree Curriculum,* the UN themes were identified: ecological thinking and respect for life, tolerance and respect for dignity and identity, critical thinking active nonviolence, social justice and civic responsibility, and leadership and global citizenship; were enhanced at appropriate developmental levels, and essential questions developed. The Peace Curriculum began to emerge.

The five curriculum themes link across grade levels from Kindergarten to Grade 5 and connect within subject areas in each grade. The themes are connected to state standards and sample activities, related books and web links provided. Each of the five themes are addressed and revisited periodically throughout the year at each grade level as appropriate linkages appear. (See Appendix A for the initial Peace Curriculum Map Overview for Grade 5.)

BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND - The Moral Imperative
The first element of the curriculum is the Moral Imperative, the end result that is desirable in all children. Focusing on the essential question *How does one perpetuate peace?* Teachers and students work backwards from this goal to deconstruct and identify elements of peace to be analyzed.

Fifth graders will award an Academy Peace Award to a community member who has contributed to the community. They will develop the criteria for the award based on what they have learned about peace. The script for the Academy Peace Prize Ceremony is their statement of belief, the moral imperative.

KNOW ONESELF - The Why: Respect for Dignity & Identity
Turning inward, the student begins to study peace by asking, "*Why is peace important?"* The exploration of the child's belief systems and values in comparison to peers, and what is socially acceptable in their school society, neighborhood, and in other cultures occurs in a safe and supportive environment.

5[th] grade students begin to develop respect for dignity and identify as they begin to study historical periods, issues and trends affect our understanding of the past, present and future.

SHAPE ONSELF – The What: Ecological Thinking & Respect for Life
Students have developed a sense of who they are in relationship to others as well as a set of expectations. They now ask the bigger question, "What is peace?", a question that has perplexed philosophers throughout recorded history.

In the United Nations unit on ecological thinking and respect for life. The knowledge, skills, and attitudes stressed in peace education link together through a holistic appreciation for the value of life and the interdependence of living systems on the planet. The concept of one person making a difference in the world evolves.

This curriculum theme is addressed and revisited periodically throughout the year as appropriate linkages appear. Teaching about the environment and the notion of environmental responsibility is a crucial component of education for peace.

As the Academy Peace Prize develops, 5[th] grade students develop a press release announcing the acceptance of nominations and the criteria for which the nominees will be judged.

SHAPE ONSELF – The How: Critical Thinking & Active Non-Violence… and How does one live a peaceful life?

Originally peace education began as a response to violence and war. As stated in the "Since wars began in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men [and women] that the defenses of peace must

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[6] Apanpa, Olasumbo S. *Linking theories of child development to child-rearing practices: A trans-cultural perspective on early education and culture.* World Forum on Early Childcare and Education.

be constructed."[7] The components that are essential in educating for peace include knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to prevent violence and promote the non-violent resolution of conflict.

> Peacemaking, peacekeeping, and peace-building are complex and important responses to the proliferation of violent conflict. The root of these approaches lies in the basic knowledge and commitment to the practice of non-violence and critical thinking. When we eliminate violence as an option for resolving conflicts, we make room for creative alternatives. Co-operation, critical thinking, communication and problem-solving become essential tools. Conflict itself can be viewed as an opportunity for growth and expanded communication rather than a precursor to violence and a threat to dignity, security and life. Peace educators are developing tools to help transform the current "culture of violence" in which hurt and harm are advocated and glorified to a "culture of peace" in which the preservation of life and human dignity are the central guiding principles for living together in a secure world.[8]

Adapted from this concept from the United Nations curriculum and linking with the award-winning Danbury Public Schools Learning Tree Curriculum, students begin to *Shape* themselves to lead a peaceful life.

Fifth graders demonstrate their skill in Spanish and understanding of the culture by promoting a celebration of Peace. They plan and create an invitation for the Academy Peace Award Celebration in Spanish and English.

SHARE ONESELF - The End Product/Result: Social Justice & Civic Responsibility How does one bring peace to others?

The seeds of Peace need to be sown "in every relationship and in all learning communities around the globe"[9]. Combining the root element of Share Oneself from the Learning Tree Curriculum, students extend beyond the self. They look at issues such as philanthropic giving and assisting others.

In a direct application of this concept, the 5th grade curriculum component, students in the arts integrate technology as they plan the logistics of videotaping the Academy Peace Prize Award Ceremony.

IMPLEMENTATION

The faculty and staff were acclimated to the philosophy behind this *way of being* from the interview process through the present. It has become a strong, integral part of the system.

As this curriculum and *way of being* continues to roll out, students are observed to be a little different. Anecdotal notations include comments from parents about their child's previous school isolation and how, in this school, they now have established friendships. In another observation an occasional energy-filled student makes the choice to run in the hallway. The adult response is not, "Don't run!" but is more morally-directed, "At AIS we walk in the hallways so everyone is safe!" This simple shift in approach is typical of the positive expectation of all school community members.

The principal, Helena Nitowski does a monthly Town Meeting by grade level in which students engage in an interactive discussion of a topic of importance to the children. Components of the peace curriculum continue to be discussed and reinforced by all: teachers, support staff, students, and parents.

The curriculum moves into its' fourth year and has continued to develop, a direct result of the dedication of the teachers. Each grade level focuses on a continent as an extension of the Learning

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[7] Preamble of the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO).

[8] Unit Three Critical Thinking and Active Non-violence. Cyberschoolbus. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/cyberschoolbus/peace/frame3_3.htm on April 1, 2007.

[9] Unit Four Social Justice and Civic Responsibility. Cyberschoolbus. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/cyberschoolbus/peace/frame3_4.htm on April 1, 2007.

Tree curriculum. The curricular design was intended to be a seemless, curricular overlay that easily integrated with the daily expectations of the school. The Peace curriculum, Learning Tree curriculum, and an international thematic focus through continents have become intertwined, closely coupled, and institutionalized.

The most complex component remains the broadest sense of the term curriculum: all the experiences of a student. A group of dedicated and resourceful teachers have taken the lead in the further development and integration of curriculum.

THE SHAPE OF THINGS TO COME… A PRIMARY AREA OF FOCUS

The peace curriculum has been integrated into the daily school community experience at AIS.

As a complimentary component to this initiative, a unique dual-language strand has been introduced in this school. Initiated, because shaping oneself - by broadening skills and knowledge of other cultures and peoples - and reaching out to others (share oneself) are experiential priorities and research supporting early language acquisition. Cazabon, Lambert, & Heise-Baigorria, (2002) note that as students gain a second language they broaden their vocabulary as well as developing multiple views of the world.

(Connecticut Council of Language Teachers Position Paper, . A result of extensive research and discourse, including discussion about the 56 languages/dialects which are spoken in the Danbury Public Schools, English-Spanish were selected as the dual languages

Beginning in Kindergarten students and their parents could opt for a dual-language experience. Students would be grouped with half native speakers and half with no experience in a second language, continuing as a cohort through the elementary grades. The classes would be taught with the teacher speaking in both languages.

Initially, the Danbury teachers' union and district administrators collaborated and agreed upon a plan for posting the positions at the new school and interviewing candidates. It was determined that 60% of the staffing would come from current Danbury teachers, and the other positions would be open.

In the first three years, the school gradually increased staffing based on the grade roll-out (the school opened with K-2 and added a grade each year through grade 5). This model worked well for the first three years, until a budget reduction began.

As the 2008-2009 school year approached, reality hit AIS. Budget cuts and a resulting reduction in force prohibited the hiring of a bilingual teacher in grade 3, resulting in a reduction in force which caused a "bumping" process (based on seniority) to occur. This was of great concern, because the students currently in grade 2 who had received dual language instruction in Kindergarten, first, and second grade, would no longer have access to a dual language teacher. The end result is there were no bilingual teachers placed in grades 3, 4, (and ultimately 5).

Some initial questions surfaced during the 2008-2009 school year: *Does student participation in the partial immersion Spanish language program result in a different set of skills from those students receiving traditional Spanish lessons? If the partial immersion program is related to positive academic performance and attitudes, then will students enrolled in these programs have a higher level of academic performance and more positive attitudes? How do we best measure these changes? Will the daily exposure to Spanish as a second language, for those students performing at a high level of reading, narrow the second language acquisition gap between the fourth grade dual language group and the fifth grade group who will be receiving daily instruction?* If so, this model could change best practices in elementary second language acquisition.

Administrative decisions affecting the program design will continue to be analyzed.

Rosenbusch (1992) recommends that the minimum time recommended for an elementary foreign language class is 75 minutes per week with classes meeting at least every other day. According to Met and Rhodes (1990) "foreign language instruction should be scheduled daily for no less than 30 minutes" (p. 438). These strategies will provide periods that are long enough for activities to be motivational without teacher burnout (Rosenbusch, 1995).

In June 2009 the principal and staff met and discussed how to track the acquisition of a second language and student performance. Restricted to the collection of data and teacher logs in the form of action research in this initial year, when the health of a key Central Office administrator and staffing issues interfered, those data will be reviewed in the coming year.

Of the fourth grade classes, the dual language student group has been together from Kindergarten, through third grade. Because there is no bilingual teacher for the fourth or fifth grades, the resources have been reconfigured so that fourth and fifth grade classes have 30 minutes of Spanish instruction daily.

Surprisingly, a review of current best practices in elementary second language acquisition yielded information centering around the speed of language acquisition: it appears that the new model at AIS is out-pacing other models of elementary second language acquisition. Armed with this information, the principal and staff have re-focused their attention and concentrated their resources on grades four and five for the next two years. In the next year, the original dual language cohort will be divided among the three fourth grade classes, receiving daily Spanish instruction.

The three fifth grade classes will receive traditional Spanish instruction daily. All fourth and fifth grade students will be tracked for second language acquisition as well as reading performance.

Among data tracked with these students were reading performance and second language acquisition. 90% of the high performing, dual language students were also high scoring in state and district reading tests. A possible correlation will be explored.

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SUMMARY

The peace curriculum has been integrated and institutionalized in three years at the Academy for International Studies in Danbury, Connecticut, USA. The success of this way of being is a direct tribute to the dedicated and talented teachers, staff, administrators, and parents who share these beliefs with the students who are fortunate to have been selected by lottery to attend this wonderful school!

Tracking the outcomes of this initiative in peace is a worthy task, but in the public setting with so many interfering variables is a challenge. As a more formalized study unfolds and, as more data are collected and analyzed over time, the successful growth of this initiative will be documented. The value is in whether this initiative may be replicated into other settings.

We need to teach the next generation of children from Day One that they are responsible for their lives. Mankind's greatest gift, also its greatest curse, is that we have free choice. We can make our choices built from love or from fear…
Dr. Elizabeth Kubler-Ross

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Appendix A: Initial Danbury Public Schools *Peace Curriculum* Mapping Overview - Grade 5*

*Adapted from Danbury Public Schools Learning Tree and Instructional Philosophy by Bonnie Lee Rabe, Ph. D. 2006

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
Content Area: English/ Language Arts	**Reading and Responding:** Students read, comprehend and respond in individual, literal, critical and evaluative ways to literary, informational and persuasive texts in multi-media formats. **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Respect** *Activity:* *Write the script for the Ceremony to Award the Peace Prize.* **Resource:** Plan a Successful Award Ceremony http://www.crystalartusa.com/index.asp?PageAction=Custom&ID=65	**Reading and Responding:** Students read, comprehend and respond in individual, literal, critical and evaluative ways to literary, informational and persuasive texts in multi-media formats. **Exploring and Responding to Literature:** Students read and respond to classical and contemporary texts from many cultures and literary periods. **Root Concept: Positive Identity – Sense of Purpose** *Activities:* *Who was Alfred Nobel?* *Research and write a biography of a Nobel Peace Prize winner.* **Resources:** Nobel Prize http://nobelprize.org/alfred_nobe	**Reading and Responding:** Students read, comprehend and respond in individual, literal, critical and evaluative ways to literary, informational and persuasive texts in multi-media formats. **Communicating with Others**: Students produce written, oral, and visual texts to express, develop, and substantiate ideas and experiences. **Root Concept: Reflection Self-Talk** *Activity:* *Develop a press release for the acceptance of nominations for the Academy Peace Prize.*	**Reading and Responding:** Students read, comprehend and respond in individual, literal, critical and evaluative ways to literary, informational and persuasive texts in multi-media formats. **Root Concept: Resiliency** **Communicating with Others**: Students produce written, oral, and visual texts to express, develop, and substantiate ideas and experiences. **Root Concept: Reflection - Self-Talk** *Activity:* *Compare the acceptance speeches of two Nobel*	**Communicating with Others**: Students produce written, oral, and visual texts to express, develop, and substantiate ideas and experiences. **English Language Conventions:** Students apply the conventions of Standard English in oral and written communication. **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Responsibility, Listening with Empathy** *Activity:* *Students will practice for the Peace Award Ceremony by holding Figurative Language*

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	**How does one perpetuate peace?**	**Why is peace important?**	**What is peace?**	**How does one live a peaceful life?**	**How does one bring peace to others?**
		l/ Nobel Peace Prize Winners: http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/peace/laureates/ Microsoft Office Press Release Template	**Resources:** Microsoft Office Press Release Template	*Peace Prize recipients.* **Resources:** Martin Luther King's Nobel Prize Acceptance Speech http://www.almaz.com/nobel/peace/MLK-nobel.html Nelson Mandela's Nobel Peace Prize Address http://www.anc.org.za/ancdocs/speeches/nobelnrm.html	*Awards in the classroom (focused on their work with figurative language, metaphor, simile and personification).* **Resource:** Figurative Language Awards Ceremony Lesson Plan http://www.readwritethink.org/lessons/lesson_view.asp?id=115
Content Area: Social Studies	**Historical Thinking:** How does history affect our understanding of the past, present and future? **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Responsibility** *Activities:* *Create a Peace Prize tradition for the Academy.* *Research people in the*	**Local, State and United States History:** How does study of historical periods, issues and trends affect our understanding of the past, present and future? **Root Concept: Reflection – Thinking about Thinking** *Activity:* *Play the "Peace Doves" game.* **Resource:** Nobel Prize Peace Doves Game http://nobelprize.org/educational	**Human and Environmental Interaction:** How does human and environment interaction change our lives? **Root Concept: Reflection - Awareness** **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Responsibility** *Activity:*	**Limited Resources:** How do limited Resources affect choices by individuals, households, businesses and governments? **Rights and Responsibilities of Citizens**: How can citizens shape and influence democratic processes and government?	**International Relations:** How do global affairs impact the lives of all people? **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Interdependent Thinking** *Activity:* *Develop the criteria for selecting the winning of the Academy Peace Prize.*

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
	community who have made a great contribution to peace. *Design a Ceremony to Award the Peace Prize.* **Resources:** Nobel Prizes (what they receive) http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/ Nobel Prize Ceremonies http://nobelprize.org/award_ceremonies/	_games/peace/nuclear_weapons/index.html	*When people feel threatened, they often act. Example from our own past: Taxation without Representation Activity (Discovery School We The People: A History Teacher's Guide: http://school.discovery.com/teachersguides/pdf/ushistory/ds/we_the_people.pdf)* **Resources:** Discovery School Lesson Plans http://school.discovery.com/lessonplans/ Discovery School Lesson Plans: We The People, A History http://school.discovery.com/lessonplans/programs/weThePeople/ About: Primary Sources (American Revolution) http://712educators.about.com/od/historyardocs/index.htm?terms=patriots+of	**Root Concept: Self-Direction - Work Ethic** *Activities:* *The Development and Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons are threatening people in modern times* *Expert Learner Jigsaw: What have Nobel Peace Prize winners done to counter the build up of weapons that threaten peace?* **Resource:** *The Development and Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* http://nobelprize.org/educational_games/peace/nuclear_weapons/readmore.html	**Resource:** Sample Award Selection Criteria http://hr.truman.edu/excellence/criteria.asp

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
		+the+American+revolution			
Content Area: Science	**Core Scientific Inquiry, Literacy and Numeracy** How is scientific knowledge created and communicated? **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Interdependent Thinking & Conflict Resolution** *Activity:* *Hubble Deep Field Academy – (Link with Math) Simulation: Experience what scientists go through to organize and synthesize new information* **Resources:** Hubble Deep Field Academy Lesson Plan http://amazing-space.stsci.edu/resources/explorations/hdf/hdf-details.htm#goal Hubble Deep Field	**Structure and Function** – How are organisms structured to ensure efficiency and survival? **Root Concept: Positive Identity - Integrity** *Activities:* *Compare and contrast the functioning of the human eye with the camera.* *Design a "space suit" for the moon that allows the astronaut to move more freely than current models. In the development of a space suit, special attentions should be given to the development of a device that both protects the eye and allows the eye to "zoom in" on distant objects.* **Resources:** PBS - Why Wear a Spacesuit? http://www.pbs.org/spacestation/station/living_spacesuit.htm How Stuff Works.com: How Spacesuits Work	**Earth in the Solar System** – How does the position of Earth in the solar system affect conditions on our planet? **Root Concept: Resiliency - Commitment** *Activity:* *Keep an Astronaut Journal* **Resources:** *Discovery School Lesson Plans* http://school.discovery.com/lessonplans / *Discovery School - Stargazing* http://school.discovery.com/lessonplans/programs/stargazing	**Energy Transfer and Transformations** – What is the role of energy in our world? **Root Concept: Reflection - Mindfulness** *Activity:* *Expert Learner Jigsaw – Three groups:* *1. Moon impacts tides on Earth* *2. Sound travels differently* *3. Light travels differently* *Design a PowerPoint Presentation to inform classmates about their subject using authentic photos and videos imported from the NASA site.* **Resources:** Enchanted Learning – Tides http://www.enchantedlearning.com/subjects/astronomy/moon/Tides.shtml	**Science and Technology in Society** – How do science and technology affect the quality of our lives? **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation – Interdependent Thinking** *Activity:* *Explore the history of the International Space Station, a collaborative space effort.* **Resource:** NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) - The International Space Station http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/main/index.html NASA The Moon, Mars, and Beyond http://www.nasa.gov/mis

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
	Academy Lesson (Computer) http://amazing-space.stsci.edu/resources/explorations/hdf/index.html Life in Space http://www.discovery.com/stories/science/iss/enterstation.html	http://science.howstuffworks.com/space-suit.htm NASA - The Space Suit http://www.hq.nasa.gov/pao/History/SP-4026/noord47.html Space.com – High Tech Space Suits http://www.space.com/businesstechnology/technology/spacesuit_innovations_050126.html		NASA Image & Video Galeries http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/multimedia/index.html Space Station Galery http://spaceflight.nasa.gov/gallery/images/station/index.html Astronaut and Wife Work Together to Educate Children About Living in Space http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/behindscenes/the_mcarthurs.html	sion_pages/exploration/mmb/index.html The Case for Mars http://spot.colorado.edu/~marscase/Home.html
Content Area: Mathematics	**Working with Data: Probability and Statistics** Data can be analyzed to make informed decisions using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Root Concept: Service/ Citizenship –**	**Algebraic Reasoning: Patterns and Functions:** Patterns and functional relationships can be represented and analyzed using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Geometry and Measurement:** Shapes and structures can be analyzed, visualized, measured	**Numerical and Proportional Reasoning:** Quantitative relationships can be expressed numerically in multiple ways in order to make connections and simplify calculations using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies.	**Working with Data: Probability and Statistics** Data can be analyzed to make informed decisions using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Geometry and Measurement:** Shapes	**Working with Data: Probability and Statistics** Data can be analyzed to make informed decisions using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Root Concept: Celebration of**

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
	Committed Involvement *Activity:* Assemble facts about the Nobel Prize winners and create a few slides demonstrating the data (in table and/or graphic form) for a PowerPoint presentation at the Peace Award ceremony. **Resource:** Prize Winner Facts http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/nobelprize_facts.html	and transformed using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Root Concept: Positive Identity – Self-Respect** *Activity: Exploring Pascal's Triangles* **Resource:** Pascal's Triangles http://mathforum.org/workshops/usi/pascal/pascal_lessons.html	**Root Concept: Reflection - Awareness** *Activities: Hubble Deep Field Academy – Simulation: (Link with Science) to experience what scientists go through to organize and synthesize new information.* *Identify trends and make predictions…* **Resource:** Hubble Deep Field Academy Lesson (Computer) http://amazing-space.stsci.edu/resources/explorations/hdf/index.html	and structures can be analyzed, visualized, measured and transformed using a variety of strategies, tools and technologies. **Root Concept: Resiliency - Motivation** *Activity: Select a coastal region and locate a tidal chart for that area. Identify patterns in the tides such as the occurrence of spring tide and neap tide.* **Resources:** Enchanted Learning – Tides http://www.enchantedlearning.com/subjects/astronomy/moon/Tides.shtml NOAA – Tides Online http://tidesonline.nos.noaa.gov NOAA Photo Site http://www.photolib.noaa.gov/search.html	**Diversity – Tolerance and Caring Cooperation – Interdependent Thinking** *Activity: Create a multimedia presentation about the a selected coastline….Locate and interpret tidal water levels – identify emerging patterns and Integrate photos from NOAA Photo Site* **Resources:** NOAA – Tides Online http://tidesonline.nos.noaa.gov NOAA Photo Site http://www.photolib.noaa.gov/search.html

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	**How does one perpetuate peace?**	**Why is peace important?**	**What is peace?**	**How does one live a peaceful life?**	**How does one bring peace to others?**
Content Area: World Language	**Connections** (Intradisciplinary Mode) *How do I use my understanding of another language and culture to broaden and deepen my understanding of that language and culture and access and use information that would otherwise be unavailable to me?* **Root Concept: Celebration of Diversity - Tolerance** *Activity:* Create a salutation (greeting) to the audience of the Academy Peace Award Ceremony en Español (in Spanish), then translate into English. **Resource:** Nobel Prize http://nobelprize.org	**Communication** (Interpersonal Mode) *How do I use another language to communicate with others?* **Communication** (Interpretive Mode) *How do I understand what others are trying to communicate in another language?* **Root Concept: Positive Attitude - Humor** *Activity:* *Learn the vocabulary of space exploration in Spanish.* *Design a simple brochure in Spanish demonstrating an aspect of space exploration.* **Resource:** Enchanted Learning – Astronomy and Space Exploration http://www.enchantedlearning.com/languages/spanish/subjects/astronomy.shtml	**Communication**(Presentational Mode) *How do I present information, concepts and ideas in another language in a way that is understood?* **Connections** (Interdisciplinary Mode) *How do I use my understanding of another language and culture to reinforce and expand my knowledge of other disciplines, and vice versa?* **Root Concept: Reflection - Mindfullness** *Activity:* *Communicate with children from a Spanish-speaking country (another magnet or sister school) about the process of creating the Academy Peace Award.*	**Comparisons Among Languages** *How do I demonstrate an understanding of the similarities, differences and interactions across languages?* **Cultures** *How do I use my understanding of culture to communicate and function appropriately in another culture?* **Root Concept: Resiliency - Persistence** *Activity:* *Create an invitation for the Academy Peace Award Celebration in Spanish and English.* **Resources:** Creative Pro.com http://www.creativepro.com/story/feature/18226.html	**Comparisons Among Cultures** *How do I demonstrate an understanding of the similarities, differences and interactions across cultures?* **Communities** *How do I use my knowledge of language and culture to enrich my life and broaden my opportunities?* **Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Responsibility** *Activity:* *With teacher assistance, translate the Academy Peace Award Program into Spanish and publish.*

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
		Microsoft Office Brochure Template		Paper Direct (Samples) http://www.paperdirect.com/Build+Your+Own+Invitations/id=69/shop.axd/Content	
Content Area: The Arts	History and Cultures (Theater): Students will demonstrate an understanding of context by analyzing and comparing theater in various cultures and historical periods. Root Concept: Caring Cooperation - Respect *Activity: Stage and choreograph the Peace Award Ceremony*	Healthful Living (Dance): Students will make connections between dance and healthful living. Root Concept: Wellness - All *Activity: Choreograph (and perform) a dance demonstrating the celebration of many cultures for the Peace Award Ceremony*	History and Cultures (Music): Students will understand music in relation to history and culture. Connections (Dance): Students will make connections between dance, other disciplines and daily life. Root Concept: Celebration of Diversity - Fairness *Activity: Create a theme song and perform it at the Academy Awards Ceremony.*	Visual Arts (Media): Students will understand, select and apply media, techniques and processes. Root Concept: Service/ Citizenship- Consideration *Activities: Design the Academy Peace Award diploma and Peace metal.* *Have a contest to select the winning Peace Award design.* *Design the program for the Academy Peace Award.* Resources: The Nobel Diplomas http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/diplomas/	Analysis, Interpretation and Evaluation (Visual Arts): Students will reflect upon, describe, analyze, interpret and evaluate their own and others' work. Root Concept: Resiliency- Commitment *Activity: Learn the basics of videotaping. Plan the logistics of videotaping the Academy Peace Prize Award Ceremony*

ROOTS OF THE LEARNING TREE	BEGIN WITH THE END IN MIND	KNOW ONESELF	SHAPE ONESELF		SHARE ONESELF
UNITED NATIONS THEME LINK	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP*	*THE WHY: RESPECT FOR DIGNITY AND IDENTITY*	*THE WHAT: ECOLOGICAL THINKING AND RESPECT FOR LIFE*	*THE HOW: CRITICAL THINKING AND ACTIVE NON-VIOLENCE*	*THE END PRODUCT/RESULT: SOCIAL JUSTICE AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
				The Nobel Medals http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/medals/	
Content Area: Wellness	**Analyzing Internal and External Influences**: What influences my healthy behaviors and decisions? **Root Concept: Resiliency** **Goal-Setting:** How do I use the goal-setting process to improve my health? **Root Concept: Self-Direction – Initiative** *Activity:* *On the international space station how are astronauts able to keep their bodies functioning properly in space?* **Resource:** NASA's Floating	**Core Concepts**: What do I need to know to stay healthy? **Root Concept: Wellness** **Decision-Making Skills**: How do I make good decisions to keep myself healthy? **Root Concept: Positive Identity – Self Respect** *Activity:* *Decision making lesson (life Kills 4 Kids)* **Resource:** University of Florida - Decision Making Skills http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/HE691 Life Skills 4 Kids.com Lesson Plans http://www.lifeskills4kids.com/Sample%20Lessons/K3decisionmaking.pdf	**Physical Fitness:** Why is it important to be physically fit and how can I stay fit? **Root Concept: Self-Direction- Initiative** *Activity:* Play the Fitness Challenge and chart results in a log. Compare progress over time **Resource:** Kid Connect Fitness Challenge (and other games) http://www.kidnetic.com	**Advocacy:** What can I do to promote accurate health information and healthy behaviors? **Root Concept: Resiliency-Persistence** *Activities:* *Media Smart Youth - 10 Lessons* *Media Smart Youth Big Production* **Resources:** Media Smart Youth: Eat, Think and be Active http://www.nichd.nih.gov/msy Media Smart Youth: Eat, Think and be Active Lessons http://www.nichd.nih.gov/	**Responsible Behavior:** How do I interact with others during physical activity? **Root Concept: Self-Direction- Taking Responsible Risks** *Activity:* *Build relationships through team-building skills.* **Resources:** Team Building Activities http://wilderdom.com/games/InitiativeGames.html Team Building Activities http://www.youthlearn.org/learning/teaching/community.asp

The Asian Conference on Education 2009 · Osaka, Japan

Roots of the Learning Tree	Begin with the End in Mind	Know Oneself	Shape Oneself		Share Oneself
United Nations Theme Link	*The MORAL IMPERATIVE: Leadership and Global Citizenship*	*The WHY: Respect for Dignity and Identity*	*The WHAT: Ecological Thinking and Respect for Life*	*The HOW: Critical Thinking and Active Non-Violence*	*The END PRODUCT/RESULT: Social Justice and Civic Responsibility*
Essential Questions	How does one perpetuate peace?	Why is peace important?	What is peace?	How does one live a peaceful life?	How does one bring peace to others?
	Treadmill http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/science/eZLS_treadmill_010306.html			msy/pdf/MSY_intro_overview.pdf	Project Adventure http://www.pa.org/
Culminating Activity	Academy Peace Prize Award Ceremony	Space Expo to Demonstrate Student Designs and Presentations	Ecological Plan: Trace Ecological Succession of Site Over Time		Project Adventure Trust Walk

Differentiated Instruction Program

Dr Zaha Alsuwailan,

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The potential possibilities of any child are the most intriguing and stimulating in all Creation

Ray L. Wilber

One of the major problems confronting the teacher in the classroom is how to deal with students with different abilities. The teacher works so hard and divides his time and energy to recognize the students' interests and needs in order to be capable to work with them according to their readiness. For that reason, differentiated Instruction was designed to help the teacher gain better understanding of students' Individual differences. It provides the students with different abilities various options for taking the information, understanding the ideas, and expressing what they learn. The teacher interacts with different learners in the classroom to achieve their needs. He attempts to deal with the input of the content to understand what students learn; the learning process to examine how the students make sense of the ideas and information; and the output of the learning profile to measure how students use what they have acquired in the classroom (Tomlinson, 1995). Differentiated Instruction then was an answer to the problem of dealing with students with different abilities.

In this paper, I intend to redesign the Differentiated Instruction Program (DIP) for the preservice teachers in Kuwait. The main purpose behind this program is to help the teacher to deal with students as individuals. I will first provide a theoretical framework about differentiated Instruction. Then I will investigate the objectives of DIP. Accordingly, I will propose a method and evaluation for the redesigned program as well as a vision of the participant that I wish to involve.

The Differentiated Instruction's Theoretical Framework:

I believe that any program must be divided into two phases, which are theory and practice in order to offer an inclusive knowledge for the learners. In theory, the learners need to be provided with various concepts that help them increase their understandings about students' abilities. To do so, they need to be provided with a wide background of differentiated Instruction before they start their student teaching. In practice, they will be given the chance to examine what they have learned.

<u>Why Differentiated Instruction?</u>

Differentiated program refers to the conscious attempt by the instructor to meet student learning needs that fit with individual abilities (Sherman, 1978). It is a way of thinking that challenges how educators typically envision students, assessment teaching, learning, classroom roles, use of time, and curriculum (Tomlinson, 1999). It emphasizes the importance of organization in each curriculum area in a manner that allows each student to move at his own pace under the supervision and guidance of his teacher. In Differentiated Instruction, "teachers begin where students are, not the front of curriculum guide" (Tomlinson, 1999, p.2). They must provide techniques that accommodate with each individual to learn as deeply as impossible.

Differentiated Instruction requires focusing on students' learning characteristics' and strategies rather than pedagogical differences, in discovering how to support students with different abilities. It also requires that each teacher establish his goals that regard the individual differences (Porter, 2001) as well as develop an appropriate learning plan to help the student develop skills and knowledge which meets his needs (churton&Cranston et al, 1998).

Hull (1974) mentioned that educators like Search, Burk, and Skinner pursed what we call today Differentiated Instruction long time ago. Their studies have concluded that differentiated Instruction has to focus on several concepts. First, Instruction is individual when it gives the opportunity to the learner to proceed through content materials at the pace that is comfortable for them. Second, the learner should be free to work at times convenient to him. Third, the learner should start instruction based on his experiences. Fourth, the teacher is occupied by small numbers of skills and knowledge that are needed to be considered. Finally, the learner must be introduced to various activities according to his ability (Hull, 1974).

We should know that differentiated is not a method (Talbert&Frase, 1972). It is a way of dealing with students so that each student has his own turn and share of the teacher. The teacher needs to acknowledge the differences of his students and what make them special is their differences.

Tomlinson (2000) states, "Differentiated Instruction is not a strategy. It is a total way of thinking about learners, teaching, and learning. It is, in essence, growth toward professional expertise. There is no such thing as expert teacher who is insensitive to individual need and ineffective in adapting instruction in response to learner need" (Tomlinson,2000).

Furthermore, Tomlinson explained that when a student experiences a learning situation, the brain responds with the release of the chemical noradrenalin, causing the brain to be over stimulated.

Attention is diverted from learning and focused on self-protection, resulting misbehavior or withdrawal, with more time being spent on learning to cope rather than learning concepts. On the contrary, if student readiness is beyond what needed for a particular task, the brain is, quite literally, not engaged, releasing fewer neurochemicals. The advanced student often feels lethargic because his or her brain under-stimulated (Tomlinson, 1998). Teachers should realize this fact before they teach in the classroom. They must be prepared not only for the classroom but also for the students.

The Role of the Teacher in Differentiated Classroom

In differentiated classroom, the teachers have the ability to:

1- Asses student readiness through a variety of means.
2- "Read" and interpret student clues about learning needs and preferences.
3- Create a variety of ways students can gather information and ideas.
4- Develop varied ways students can explore and "own" ideas.
5- Press varied channels through which students can express and expand understandings (Tomlinson, 1999, p.19).

The teachers must understand before modifying the content to be clear on the key concepts and generalizations or principles that give meaning and structure to the topic, chapter, unit, or lesson. They are planning in order to help the students gain better understandings of the course. Another thing, the teacher should emphasize critical thinking. It encourages the students to reflect over things rather than memorize information. Moreover, the teacher must not forget to engage students in each activity and be careful that all students are learning.

In differentiated classroom, the teachers should accommodate their teaching strategies to students' selection. The students should have the right to choose the teaching profile that fit with his needs (Ibid).

Differentiated Instruction Programs

Differentiated programs are the tool that can assist the teacher to explore his students' abilities and to divide his time probably in order to meet their needs. They provide the teacher with different activities that enable him to work individually with each student. They also provide multiple approaches to content and learning process. Differentiated programs according to Tomlinson can make substantial differences in classrooms and teachers' relations with their students (Tomlinson, 1995). Davalos and Griffin (1999) pointed out the importance of differentiated programs to both teachers and students. They conducted a study to see whether differentiated instruction can meet the needs of gifted students. They spent more than 150 hours observing teachers while they were being trained to individualized instruction. They found out that it is fundamental in classroom and it can meet the gifted students needs as long as there are well prepared teachers who know how to use individualization as an instructional

technique and understand the academic, social, and emotional needs of gifted learners and be prepared to support these needs (Davalos&Griffin, 1999). Another study was conducted by Wertheim and Leyser (2002) to measure the efficacy of Differentiated Instruction in classrooms. The participant included 191 Israeli prospective teachers. They responded to a modified form of the Teacher Efficacy Scale and a 59 item instructional strategies scale. They responded positively toward communicating and interacting with students but they showed less willingness to use differentiated instruction. Wertheim and Leyser suggested the importance of making the teachers aware of the significant of differentiated strategies. They believed there should be more focus on the development of skills that are required for successful teaching of students with diverse learning and behavior needs. They also suggested an extensive training and practice in the areas of individualized and differentiated instructional techniques (Wertheim and Leyser, 2002).

On the other hand, Tomlinson believes that teacher-education programs in general fail to address adequately the necessity of differentiated instruction for the diverse classrooms and they are not preparing the preservice teachers probably to face this problem. She discovered that preservice rarely experience differentiated instruction in their teacher preparation programs. They only take a course about the exceptional children to help them understand the needs of academically diverse learners; nevertheless, the preservice teachers reported that it dealt exclusively with learner trait, not with methods of teaching. They also indicated that education professors, university supervisors, or master teachers hardly ever promote to actively differentiate instruction. During their training, they were actually advised by their master teacher to "keep every one together." In addition, they rarely had instructional strategies that interested them. Therefore, they did not have enough strategies for addressing students' diverse needs.

  Tomlinson discovered,

    Once in their classrooms, the undertow for new teachers to "teach to the middle"

    is profound both because of complexity of teaching and because of peer pressure

    to conform to "the way we do school here. The few novice teachers who had

    master teachers who differentiated instruction were far more likely to do so their

    first teaching placements than their classmates (Tomlinson,155,p.115).

  To manipulate these problems, Tomlinson (1999) recommends that teacher-education programs and school districts should:

- Set clear expectations for the novice's growth in student-centered, responsive instruction.
- Provide clear models of differentiated curriculum and differentiated instruction in action.
- Provide mentoring that helps teachers reflect on student needs and appropriate responses to those needs.

- Ensure teachers' comfort in implementing a growing range of instructional strategies that invite differentiation and facilitate its management.
- Provide early partnerships with teachers who practice differentiation.
- Provide time and structure for reflecting on and planning for student needs.
- Recognize growth toward responsive instruction in meaningful ways. (Tomlinson,1999, p.115)

Accordingly, differentiated instruction programs should set clear objectives to help the preservice teacher understand better how to work in diverse classrooms.

Objectives:

The differentiated Instruction program major purposes are to help the preservice teachers during their student teaching to plan for a diverse classroom; acquire classroom management skills; help students and parents prepare for differentiated classroom; and asses the students' progress (Tomlinson, 1995). The program must give the preservice teachers a clear vision to what differentiated instruction is. It is also should provide them with methods used in differentiated instruction. They must understand that these methods are suggested ones and they have either to choose or create the methods that suit their students' need. This will give the preservice teachers the freedom of creativity.

Methods & Techniques

Before the preservice teachers design a method, they should realize that differentiated instruction curriculum must adjust the students' capabilities and needs. It also should be based on the students' past performance in the content or subject; the students' special interest in topics within the content; and the students' abilities to deal with available instructional material (Hull, 1974). Furthermore, to enrich the curriculum, the teacher must add activities from the same subject-matter field or problem area where students can proceed according to their own pace (Thomas, 1965). It is desirable that the teacher creates his own materials and activities that cope with his students demands (Kelly,1975). Karlin and Berger (1974) have identified a method to individualize that curriculum. He suggested to the 'preparation of contracts', which is "a series of questions and problems that the student must solve by finding answers for himself." This can be accomplished by dividing the students into groups and by preparing a contract for each group. The benefit of this method is that the student looks for information on his own and by his own readiness as well as it enables him to think and learn and be able to participate actively (Karlin & Berger, 1974).

On the other hand, Tomlinson (1995) recently identified learning contract between teacher and students as a method allows the students some freedom in their use of class time in exchanging and in doing responsible and effective work. Contracts can contain both skills and content components, and help in managing the classrooms because their components vary with students needs (Tomlinson, 1995). It

reinforced students' knowledge and skills and enable students to see their peers as knowledgeable instructors and collaborators in the learning process (Fahey, 2000). For example, a student in contract put his plan of actions for the weak; decide which tasks will be done in school and which at home. Therefore, learning contract would save the students' time and teach them self-management. The teacher may give them more work if they don't follow their week plan properly (Tomlinson, 1995).

Tomlinson (1999) also proposed other methods such as content-based method. She thinks that it helps the student understands the information and not to memorizes them. She believes that in most today's classrooms, students are meant to memorize vocabulary, names, dates, and rules. As a result, they forget a large amount of what they've memorized. Consequently, she suggested content-based method that directs the students more toward thinking and predicting. This will enable students to understand rather than memorize; retain ideas and facts longer because they are more meaningful; make connections between subjects and facts of a single subject; relate ideas to their own lives; and build networks of meaning for effectively dealing with future knowledge. In this case, the students will focus on concepts and principles rather than memorizing the facts (p.46).

Another method is curriculum compacting. It is a process which contains of three phases. In the first phase, the teacher assigns students for compacting and helps evaluate their understanding about specific topic or chapter. There are formal evaluation as in a written post-test, and informal one as the teacher and student discussing the subject being studied. In the second phase, the teacher may give homework or ask the student to work with other classmates when he thinks that the student did not understand the lesson well. In the final phase, the teacher and student design a study for the student to engage in while others are working with the general lessons. The student decide under the teacher guidance the project goals, time, and procedures. For example, a student who compacts out of math may develop a plan for using advanced mathematics software available in the class (Tomlinson, 1999, p.48).

Moreover, Tomlinson (1999) provided multiple resources material methods by creating classroom library from discarded texts of different levels , and by gathering magazines, newspapers, and brochures. The students are asked to use multiple texts and combining them with a wide variety of other materials of their interests (p.50).

Suggested Method

Being a teacher for six years in government schools and a professor in the university has given me a chance to be closer to students with different abilities. I believe that differentiated Instruction programs

do not make a good and a talented teacher who knows how to deal with students, a teacher can only make himself. The importance of DIP program; however, relies on giving the tools for the teacher and teaches him how to use them probably. Tomlinson and other scholars have proposed different methods regarding how teacher can present the lesson as well as presenting different approaches to help student acquire the information according to their own pace. The suggested method; on the other hand, deals with the obstacles that student face in understanding the lesson. Before we deal with students with different abilities, we need to understand the reasons behind making them different. Psychologically, each student has his own way of grasping the information. Some students may understand the lesson by analyzing the facts; others by memorizing or using their imagination. Thus, understanding what goes in students' mind helps us deal with them more easily.

There are three ways that can help us understand our students. First, giving them quiz at the beginning of the year to test their abilities. Second, involve the students in a general discussion to understand their personalities. Finally, asking them to write their likes and dislikes of the subject. This can build a close bond between a student and a teacher and help the teacher deals with the students' subject problems.

However, there is an important fact that we should all know. Before we teach our students the subject, we need to teach them how to study the subject by proposing different methods of studying. As we have mentioned above, students differ in how they gain the information. We need to make use of their own abilities and help them learn how to deal with the information. If they are lean to imagination, we need to use that in our teaching methods and plans. In other words, we need to transform their abilities into our lesson plans to give the students equal opportunities to obtain and encompass the information according to their own capacity.

In DIP, the preservice teacher need to learn the different methods of differentiated instruction to choose what is best for his students. The teacher needs to be armed with different methods that can help him deal with different students in different classes he teaches.

The preservice teachers should know how to satisfy their students' individual needs. In order to help them achieve this concept, they must be prepared to identify students' individual interests, build an appropriate curriculum plan that fit with their level and design the activities that suit their abilities. While they design their activities, they should ask themselves what the students need to know, what the students like to know and what the students already know.

The Participant

The suggested differentiated program includes 20 preservice teachers during their student teaching. They will be divided into four groups. Each group consists of five students and each group teaches different grade. The group needs to design their own plans, methods and activities.

The participants should be as Tomlinson describes "hunters and gathers" who actively continue to find out all they can about students' current readiness, interest, and learning profile and look for suitable activities for their students. They must understand that learning activities are task to help the student develop the "knowledge, understanding, and skills specified in the content goals" (Tomlinson et al, 2002, p.56). At the end of each week, the students must meet with their group and write a report about effectiveness of their method on their students' development.

The participant should spend the first semester in school in order to have time to understand the students and be capable to identify their needs. The preservice teachers in school will be embedded in individualization problem. They have to understand how to deal with it and to be able to use adequately the methods in differentiated instruction. After they finish the first semester in school, each group should present a report about the strength and weakness of the plan, the method, and the activities that they have applied. They also should share their experiences with other groups in order to increase their knowledge.

The journey to differentiated instruction needs careful planning. The teacher educators must recommend the participants to follow the following steps before they start teaching in the classroom in order to comprehend what, who, and how they will teach.

Step 1. *Activities prior to the first session*. There are many activities to plan and many decisions in learning experiences to be made prior to the first meeting. Typically, instructors start by developing a rationale statement that describes why the participants should be interested in the learning experience, how it will help them professionally, and what instructional process will be. Additional activities include determining suggested leaning competencies and requirements, identifying necessary support material such as books, articles, and audiotapes, and security needed learning resources. Another useful thing is a preparation of a workbook or study guide of supplement materials that will include any necessary syllabus information (Hiemstra&Sisco,1990,p.45).

Step 2. *Creating Learning environment*. Once the beginning experience is under way, several activities will help in creating a good learning environment like caring for the tidiness of the classroom

by asking the students to arrange their stuff before they leave the classroom. This will create the sense of responsibility within the students (Ibid).

Step 3. *Developing the instructional plan*. This is an important step in differentiated instruction, which is the main concern in our program. The teachers need to spend more time in mapping his plan by specifying the topics, activities, and objectives that they intend to use in their lesson (Ibid).\

Step 4. *Learning activity identification*. The teachers must be familiar with various learning activities, techniques, and approaches so that they can choose the appropriate ones to their students. They must also be aware of the time of the activity that they wish to use in their classroom. They must also be aware of the time of the activity that they wish to use in their classroom. They must concentrate on the activities that meet with their students' needs which help them develop their individual abilities (Ibid).

Step5. *Mentoring students' progress*. The teachers can monitor the students' progress through engaging them in small or large groups. This way will enable the teachers to monitor their students' progress and to give them a feedback.

Step 6. *Evaluating individual learner outcomes*. The teacher must evaluate his students' development through observing and testing their abilities (Ibid).

Program Evaluation

The purpose of training program is to make the participant aware of the DIP requirements regarding participation and accommodation; give the participant the opportunity to study theories related to differentiated Instruction; increase awareness of DIP activities and methods; and enable the learner assess and document a students' participation in differentiated instruction environment (Shriner&Destefano, 2003).

In DIP, it is important to examine the goals, the methods, the activities, and the participants' progress. The participant must be examined pre and post training for measuring the quality of the program. The pre-tests are exams given to the participants to measure their knowledge about differentiated instruction. These exams are diagnostic ones that investigate the participants' willingness to teach in diverse classroom as well as to make sure of their understanding of differentiated instruction. Whereas, post-tests examine the participants mastery or at least comprehension of differentiated instruction after they finish their semester teaching. The pre and post tests are written exams that diagnose the quantity of knowledge that the participants gain.

Resources:

- A model for differentiated instruction program.
- A plan for teacher in DIP.
- Activities for teachers.

In conclusion, I've attempted to transform differentiated instruction into a program that can give the teacher the tools to deal with students with diverse abilities. The program is divided into two phases. In the first phase, the preservice teachers are introduced to the meaning of differentiated instruction, the importance of applying it in the classrooms, and their prospective roles in differentiated classrooms. In the second phase, the preservice teachers practice what they have learned about differentiate instruction. They need to understand how to plan, manage the classroom, and create activities.

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The integration of law and Engineering education

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Abstract

The education of today engineers is being challenged today to integrate technical and non-technical issues in order to serve the employment market.   Thailand is a developing country and the place where many industries invest their manufacturing. The engineering is the top study major for students in universities at all time.   Both government or private universities offer many different engineering education program all over country.   There are more than 51 institutes offer engineering programs.   The job market for engineers is appealing.   Engineering is essentially the use of scientific and mathematical tools in real life applications. Over the years, the profession of engineering has been separated itself into different fields based on society's needs and technological advances, and on how engineers apply science to solve technical problems.   In this paper, the case of integration of engineering and law is described, illustrating how to implement such integration in engineering education. These cases refer to graduate and continuing education in Thailand. A theoretical framework for a holistic approach to engineering education has been suggested. It is based on a comprehensive analysis undertaken.

1. INTRODUCTION

The education of today engineers is being challenged today to integrate technical and non-technical issues in order to serve the employment market.   Thailand is a developing country and the place where many industries invest their manufacturing. The engineering is the top study major for students in universities at all time.   Both government or private universities offer many different engineering education programs all over country.   There are more than 51 institutes offer engineering programs.   The job market for engineers is appealing.   Engineering is essentially the use of scientific and mathematical tools in real life applications. Over the years, the profession of engineering has been separated itself into different fields based on society's needs and technological advances, and on how engineers apply science to solve technical problems.   Each engineering discipline however has its own characteristics that distinguish it from other engineering fields. Nonetheless, different engineering fields overlap with each other in many and interesting ways. In addition, the engineering knowledge alone cannot be enough for worker to be sufficient and satisfy employers without other knowledge. Examples include the two sets of engineering fields: civil and environmental engineering , and business administration and law. Sometimes, the overlap involves more than two engineering fields. In this paper, the case of integration of engineering and law is described, illustrating how to implement such integration in engineering education. These cases refer to graduate and continuing education in Thailand. A theoretical framework for a holistic approach to engineering education has been suggested. It is based on a comprehensive analysis undertaken.

2. Law in engineering study

2.1 Engineering liability

Engineers are not aware of liability law when they receive their engineering degrees. the elements of engineering malpractice causes of action against engineers are obvious when law is becoming more familiar to people and going to court is more common in modern life. Therefore, the raises the awareness of our students to their legal responsibilities to their employers and to society is needed. The common form of legal issue for engineers is negligence.   The concept of negligence developed under common law and the meaning of legal liability for a failure to act. Originally liability for failing to act was imposed on those who undertook to perform some service and breached a promise to exercise care or skill in performing that service. Gradually the law began to imply a promise to exercise care or skill in the performance of certain services. This promise to exercise care, whether express or implied, formed the origins of the modern concept of "duty." For example, Civil engineers have a duty to responsible for the design of the building. In a negligence suit, the plaintiff has the burden of proving that the defendant did not act as a reasonable person would have acted under the circumstances. The court will consider the facts. The defense of the case by A defendant who is not liable in negligence, even if she did not act with reasonable care, if she did not owe a duty to the plaintiff. In general, a person is under a duty to all persons at all times to exercise reasonable care for their physical safety and the safety of their property. The application to engineering is engineering malpractice. Engineering malpractice liability is a subset of professional liability directed towards engineers. Engineering malpractice uses the same concepts of negligence to determine liability. Specifically, if an engineer is negligent, and this negligent conduct is the proximate cause of the injuries, then the engineer is liable for engineering malpractice. Malpractice Examples:

There are numerous examples of engineering malpractice in published court opinions. Many of these cases involve civil engineering practice as these engineering practitioners commonly are accused of malpractice.

2.2. INTERDISCIPLINARY ENGINEERING EDUCATION

Industry increasingly demands that an engineer have the ability to work outside the boundaries defined by a single field. The interdisciplinary engineering program is designed to achieve the breadth of education necessary for engineers to function in such assignments, while providing a high level of technical expertise and practice in modern design methodology. Team projects are an integral part of the program, and students should expect to become proficient at working and communicating with a design team. Engineers also need to know the relevant law such as criminal law, Patent law, liability law, and environmental law. This section describes the involvement of graduate engineering students in interdisciplinary education.   In order to deal with such broad issues in engineering education, the university has set up new department which is engineering law graduate study department.   It is unusual to involve engineers in organizational development. However, technology as developed by engineers is intended to be used within a complex organizational framework. Thus, it is essential for engineers to obtain direct knowledge and experience about such organizations. The best learning process to address this aim is to participate in a genuine project involving organizational development. Today such projects always comprise the implementation of new technology. In the project described here, however, the emphasis of innovation is on organization rather than on technology: redesigning the organization in a large hospital. Large hospitals are highly complex systems in terms of the dynamic interrelations between people, the organization they work in and the technology they work with. Such complex social systems must continuously develop and redesign themselves to meet all the requirements of their tasks.   A strong background in design techniques applicable to a wide variety of complex problems is in demand along with engineers who understand more than one discipline and are prepared to work at the intersection of two or more engineering disciplines.

3. The graduate study program in Engineering Law

        The need of integration of law knowledge for engineers initiates the curriculum of Master of Engineering in Engineering law and inspection. The program was designed and evaluated by the experience educators and supreme court judges.   The program was approved and accredited by The board of higher education, the ministry of Education.

The total credits of completed degree are 36 credits. The subjects are grouped as follow:

The general education:

RU600   Knowledge and Morality

RU603   Graduate Study

EL609   Research and Decision Making for Engineering Work

The engineering core courses

EL610   Conceptual Principal in Infrastructure Development Engineering

EL611   Management and Engineering Organizational Development

EL612   Maintenance and Inspection in Engineering

Law and Inspection core courses

EL620   Project Administration and Engineering Law

EL621   Law Concerning Building Inspection

EL622   Environmental Management and Energy Conservation Law

EL623   Industrial and Labor Law

EL624   Seminar in Inspection and Engineering Law

EL630   Environmental Impact Analysis

EL631   Land Development, Urban Plan and Law

EL632   Industrial Standard and Quality Assurance

EL633   Risk Administration and Safety

EL634   Inspection, Energy Management System Standard and Law

EL635   Intellectual Property and Information Technology Law

EL636   Professional Law and Engineer Ethics

EL637   Logistics Engineering Law

EL638   Commercial Law and International Industrial

EL639   Draft and Format Law in Engineering Work

EL640   Special Topics in Inspection and Engineering Law

EL636   Professional Law and Engineer Ethics

EL637   Logistics Engineering Law

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Explaining variability in article production by Korean speakers of English

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Abstract:

The Syntactic Misanalysis Hypothesis (SMH) (Trenkic 2007) aims to explain article-drop in second-language English by speakers of article-less native languages. We tested the SMH by having ten intermediate Korean speakers take part in a story-recall task. The results not only support the SMH, but show that this hypothesis is applicable to 'the + Adj + N' contexts in which the adjective has a non-identifying function.

It has long been recognized that second-language speakers (L2ers) of English are especially likely to omit articles if their native languages (L1s) lack this type of item (e.g., Goad & White 2004, Snape 2007). One recent attempt to explain article-drop in L2 English by speakers of article-less L1s is the Syntactic Misanalysis Hypothesis (SMH) (Trenkic 2007), a theory of morphological variability which receives compelling validation from Serbian speakers in the study reported in Trenkic's own work. In the current paper, we present further evidence in support of the SMH, this time using data gathered from Korean speakers. We also show, however, that Trenkic's hypothesis needs to be formulated in slightly more precise terms if it is to provide us with a satisfactory account of this particular interlanguage phenomenon.

The SMH is predicated on two related assumptions. The first assumption is that L2ers of English whose L1s lack articles will misanalyze this item as an adjective.[1] For example, a noun phrase containing an article such as 'the chair' will be taken to mean something like 'identifiable chair'.[2] Second, under the cognitive demands of spoken-language production, information which is necessary for successful communication will be allocated more attentional resources than information which can be omitted without significant risk of a breakdown in communication. To clarify what she means by the relative importance of certain types of information, Trenkic uses the following sort of example. Suppose there are two chairs in front of you, one green and one blue, and you are required to sit in the blue chair, not the green chair. In this scenario, it would be felicitous for someone to say (1a) to you. It is also likely that, despite the obvious ungrammaticality of (1b), the desired outcome could still be achieved if this person said (1b) to you. This is because the adjective 'blue' tells you which chair you must sit in—a crucial detail. By comparison, the article is not essential to the outcome of the

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[1] We follow Trenkic in limiting our analysis to definite articles.

[2] By extension, this principle applies to a noun phrase such as 'the blue chair' as well, so that this particular noun phrase will be taken to mean something like 'identifiable blue chair'.

interaction, and can therefore be omitted. However, if the person said (1c) to you, there would undoubtedly be a breakdown in communication, and you would be left standing as a result.

(1) (a)   Please sit in the *blue* chair.[3]

     (b)   Please sit in *blue* chair.

     (c)   Please sit in the chair.

Accordingly, when an L2er tries to produce a noun phrase such as 'the blue chair' in the situation described above, Trenkic hypothesizes that the L2er will attend to the adjective 'blue' more closely than to the article-as-adjective 'the'.

These two assumptions have key implications for the production of articles in the context 'the + Adj + N' versus in the context 'the + N'. Specifically, when the L2er is confronted with the task of producing 'the blue chair', the article will be supplied at a relatively low rate because the adjective 'blue' uses up more attentional resources than the article-as-adjective 'the'. In contrast, when the L2er has to produce the noun phrase 'the chair', the article is produced at a high rate because there is no competition for attentional resources here between a true adjective and an article-as-adjective. Rather, the article-as-adjective 'wins' by default.

Now compare (2) and (3).

(2) Sally has two cats, a *thin* cat and a *fat* cat. The *thin* cat is friendly, but the *fat* cat attacks people.

(3) I met a man yesterday. He helped me to carry a heavy box. Then I bought the kind man a drink.

As we saw in (1), the adjectives 'thin' and 'fat' in (2) enable us to identify which cat is being referred to. In (3), however, the adjective 'kind' does not have an identifying function: since there is only one man in the story, there is no need to distinguish him from another man. Rather, the adjective 'kind' is (optionally) included only because, in the course of the story, the man is shown to possess this trait. Hence, whereas identifying adjectives are necessary, non-identifying adjectives can be omitted without causing confusion. This can be verified by comparing (4) and (5).

??   (4) Sally bought two cats, a ~~thin~~ cat and a ~~fat~~ cat. The ~~thin~~ cat is very friendly, but the ~~fat~~ cat often attacks people.

(5) I met a man yesterday. He gave me $500. Then the ~~kind~~ man went away.

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[3] In spoken language, this identifying function of an adjective is typically accompanied by increased word-stress, indicated here by italics.

This distinction between identifying and non-identifying adjectives is noteworthy because Trenkic does not draw an explicit dichotomy between these two types of adjective anywhere in her explanation of the SMH. Moreover, with one possible exception, the adjectives in her examples are all clearly of the identifying variety. Granted, it does not necessarily follow that the SMH can be applied *only* to noun phrases with the structure 'the + Adj + N' in which the adjective has an identifying function; after all, Trenkic's reliance on noun phrases containing identifying-type adjectives for illustrative purposes may simply be accidental. Even so, we suggest that it is worth determining whether the SMH can be applied to 'the + Adj + N' noun phrases containing identifying adjectives only, or is applicable to 'the + Adj + N' noun phrases containing *non*-identifying adjectives as well. This seems a reasonable position to adopt on the grounds that, despite the optionality of the adjective 'kind' in (5), the production of a non-identifying adjective (when it is included) must surely use up at least *some* of the attentional resources allocated to the noun phrase in which it occurs. Thus, we make the same prediction re article suppliance in noun phrases containing non-identifying adjectives as the one that Trenkic made re article suppliance in noun phrases containing identifying adjectives: articles will be dropped more often in the context 'the + Adj + N' than in the context 'the + N'.

In order to test this prediction, we had ten intermediate Korean speakers of English take part in a story-recall task loosely adapted from Snape (2007). The texts were seeded with noun phrases of the relevant types. It turned out that the rate of article suppliance in 'the + Adj + Adj + N' contexts was 32/69 (46.4%), while the rate was 52/61 (85.2%) in 'the + N' contexts.[4] Following Trenkic, we used the formula utilized by Woods *et al.* (1986) to verify that this difference is statistically significant, $z = 4.44$, $p < .001$. In short, our research suggests that the SMH is applicable to 'the + Adj + N' contexts in which the adjective has a non-identifying function.

To conclude, the findings of this investigation offer broad support for the SMH, but they also highlight the importance of specifying the types of noun phrase covered by the hypothesis. This outcome has implications for future research on the SMH. The most obvious of these implications is that we need a study to be conducted which directly compares the rates of article suppliance in 'the + Adj + N' contexts when the adjective is non-identifying versus identifying. In keeping with the argumentation presented in this paper, our prediction is that article suppliance will be higher when the adjective is non-identifying than when it is identifying. However, this prediction will of course remain only speculation on our part until it is tested empirically.

On a more general level, we take the view that the results of the present study also have some modest implications for English-language instruction, teaching-materials design and language-proficiency assessment. All too often, the results of a study such as ours remain confined to the domain of 'pure' science, and their practical relevance goes not merely unrecognized but unexplored. However, if we reach a better understanding of the factors which influence article production in L2 English, it surely follows that this especially subtle and complex feature of English can be taught to L2ers with article-less L1s more effectively, or evaluated in the speech of such L2ers more accurately. For instance, in light of the findings of the present study, it would clearly be advisable to eschew examples such as 'the red car' or 'the beautiful green house' when teaching this type of L2er how to use English articles in the appropriate manner. Likewise, if an L2er omits articles often in these contexts, it seems reasonable that such omissions should be penalized relatively lightly when this L2er's English is being assessed.

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[4] The fact that we used 'the + Adj + Adj + N' contexts rather than 'the + Adj + N' contexts is not important.

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The Zone of Proximal Development and Its Application to

Writing Instruction: Focusing on the Aspect of Affect

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Abstract

While the cognitive and social aspects of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) have been the focal point in language teaching and learning, the affective aspect of ZPD has not received much attention. According to recent research, however, Vygotsky refers to affect and its relation to thought in the consciousness of the learner. Thus, this article illuminates the role of affective aspect in the overall framework of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, and that the affective ZPD is important for writing instruction, in addition to cognitive and motivational factors. It also proposes an affective diary as a mediation tool to create the emotional ZPD in the writing process.

1. Introduction

ZPD is a concept which reflects the affect of humans, and that promoting social interaction in collaborative activities between the teacher and the learner, and among learners by focusing on the affective aspect of ZPD is needed to enhance the effect of ZPD. This also implies that there exist complementary relationship between affective aspect, and motivational, cognitive, and social aspects, and that these aspects contribute to the establishment of ZPD.

It is also necessary that affect, including anxiety in the writing process are reconsidered in terms of the affective ZPD. The concept of affective ZPD needs to be incorporated into collaborative learning from the outset of the writing process. Also, a diary is a useful tool for the learner to record real-time affective states, such as emotions and feelings. After learners in a group are involved in collaborative dialogue to exchange and share emotions with regard to writing activities, they need to record the emotions, using collaborative affective diaries.

2. Affective ZPD in Vygotsky's theory

Vygotsky defines ZPD as 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, p.86).

In this definition, cognitive and social dimensions of ZPD as well as scaffolding are emphasized. These aspects of ZPD have already been dealt with in the research and practice of language learning.

The notion of ZPD is also described by Vygotsky as an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development; that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental process that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Only these processes are internalized, they become part the child's independent developmental achievement (Vygotsky, 1978, p.90).

In this notion of ZPD, both interpsychological and intrapsychological (internal) processes of development are highlighted.

According to Kinginger (2002), the above concept of ZPD has been defined and interpreted in various ways in the context of US foreign language education. On the whole, however, there are three interpretations; the skills interpretation, the scaffolding interpretation, and metalinguistic interpretation. The skills interpretation tends to emphasize input processing (internalization of skills) in social interaction, and the task level (ZPD), which is a little over the learner's current ability. The scaffolding interpretation is that the teacher assists learners' performance as they move toward the level of ZPD in terms of cognition. The metalinguistic interpretation stresses the positive role of the learner in the production of language output in collaborative dialogue and the learner's reflection on his/her language production. Additionally, there are conservative and progressive trends in the interpretation of ZPD. The scaffolding and metalinguistic interpretations can be categorized into the progressive trend because they aim to transfer the locus of control to the learner. In these interpretations, however, cognitive and metalinguistic (language awareness) aspects of ZPD are underscored, and the affective aspect of ZPD is not included.

Mahn & John-Steiner (2000) argues that the concept of ZPD is expanded so that it involves the affective aspect by pointing out that the affective ZPD is constructed in affective interaction and scaffolding among the teacher and learners. Furthermore, Mahn & John-Steiner (2002) claim that affective factors, such as fear and anxiety influence the level of ZPD and propose that dialogue journals as written dialogues be used in the development of writing because caring support and emotional interaction through affective language in the process of writing the dialogue journals will help establish the foundation for the collective and affective ZPD of the learners as a whole. They further contend that the affective ZPD created through the dialogue journals will help the learners raise the metacognitive awareness of their own writing process as well. Thus, it can be suggested that the mutually reinforced relations between affect and cognition in social interaction are important for expanding the notion of ZPD, and that the affective ZPD can contribute to the remediation of emotions and the subsequent development of motivation and cognition in the writing process. It should also be noted that the learners can transform the writing process toward the affective ZPD by exchanging emotions and feelings through affective language in the dialogue journals, receiving affective scaffolding from the teacher.

On the other hand, Levykh (2008) argues that the conservative features of ZPD (social, cultural, and historical features) have already involved affective and cognitive aspects, and that the expanded concept of ZPD is not needed. This conceptualization of ZPD seems to be different from the extended concept of ZPD proposed by Mahn & John-Steiner (2002). because Levykh (2008) underscores the affective genesis of ZPD and the role of culturally and historically developed emotions in the effective establishment and maintenance of ZPD. Levykh (2008) also maintains that an emotionally positive collaboration between the teacher and the learner in a caring environment has to be created from the initial stage of the learning process. Thus, the teacher is expected to play a more substantial role in providing affective scaffolding for the learner. In this conceptualization, scaffolding from the teacher is considered to be more important than interpersonal scaffolding among learners to establish the holistic ZPD which encompasses affective, cognitive, social, cultural, and historical features. That is, the active role of the learner who can remediate emotions and transform the learning process and environment as an agency is less emphasized. Also, affect includes not only feelings exchanged among learners but also culturally developed emotions in art, which lead to the cultural development of the learner.

Therefore, we need to place greater emphasis on the emotions and feelings exchanged and shared among learners in addition to affective scaffolding from the teacher by further developing the concept of affective ZPD because the learner as an agency should be able to actively transform the learning process collaboratively in terms of affect, motivation, and cognition.

3. Affect, motivation, and cognition in Vygotsky's sociocultural approach

Cognition and motivation have been important constructs in mainstream educational psychology. According to Meyer & Turner (2002), in the prevalent cognitive conceptions of motivation, cognition

and motivation are only two components of learning, and affect has not been a central component of major motivation theories, such as goal theory, expectancy-value theory, and self-efficacy theory. That is, there is a tendency that affect has not been a major source of motivation. Instead, cognition is thought to be a more contributory factor to motivation. That is, the cognitive appraisal of the object and situation by the learner has been regarded as the main source of motivation and affect. However, as Linnenbrink (2006, p. 311) points out, some scholars claim that affect is an important factor to motivational processes, and that affect may influence how information is stored, retrieved, and processed and how one appraises a specific situation. Hence, affect can lead to motivation and cognition although this directionality is not dominant in educational psychology.

In the fields of second language acquisition (SLA) and language learning, there has not been a coherent and consistent theory of affect, compared with the construct of cognition although the role of affect is becoming more important in the field. Also, affect is regarded as a broad and vague concept which tends to encompass learner characteristics, such as attitude, personality, motivation, self-esteem, anxiety, tolerance for ambiguity, and so on, excluding cognition (Arnold, 1999). Therefore, it is significant to reconceptualize the construct of affect in relation to motivation and cognition.

It is postulated in Vygotskian sociocultural theory that affect, motivation, and cognition are thought to be developed as part of social interaction. This differs from the above conceptions of educational psychology, which have a tendency to place more emphasis on the individualized aspect of learning. Also, affect in addition to motivation and cognition plays an important role in social interaction. It can be suggested that affect has a significant effect on motivation and cognition although this directionality is not central in the current theories of educational psychology and SLA. Furthermore, there is a possibility that the establishment of the affective ZPD in collaborative learning will lead to the creation of affect to promote and develop the aspects of motivation and cognition as well.

Damasio (2000) claims that affect in the consciousness of humans is linked to brain structures and essential to the cognitive and reasoning processes of inference and decision-making, from the viewpoint of neuroscience and proposes the somatic marker hypothesis, which emphasizes embodied subjectivity formed by real-time bodily information and the somatic and physiological aspects of affect. His conception of affect is also implicated in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. Although Vygotsky does not explain the role of affect in detail, he conceptualizes the relationship between affect and thought as follows:

> Thought has its origins in the motivational sphere of consciousness, a sphere that includes our inclinations and needs, our interests and impulses, and our affect and emotions. The affective and volitional tendency stands behind thought. Only here do we find the answer to the final 'why' in the analysis of thinking (Vygotsky, 1987, p.282).

In this conceptualization, affect is considered to influence thought. Cromby (2007, p. 107) argues that Vygotsky underline the close relation between feelings and inner speech, which is the unspoken comment on one's and others' activities. He further points out that inner feelings as embodied subjectivity through inner speech and outer socialized feelings through language (outer speech) create thought, which consists of affective tendencies that are completed and internalized by inner speech. Hence, Vygotsky's conceptualization of affect seems to be in contrast to the current dominant conception of cognitive appraisal in educational psychology. We need to focus more attention on complementary and reciprocal relations between affect and cognition (thought) in social interaction. It should be noted that inner speech and language have a function to mediate affect intrapsychologicaly and interpsychologicaly in relation to the affective ZPD. This also means that language plays an important role in the communicative exchange and sharing of emotions in collaborative learning to create the collective and affective ZPD.

4. Practical application of Vygotskian sociocultural approach

There is little practical and empirical research to apply the affective aspect of Vygotskian sociocultural approach to language learning.

As mentioned above, Mahn & John-Steiner (2002) propose the effective use of dialogue journals in collaborative learning to create the affective ZPD. In addition, Le (2003) focuses on the affective aspect of Vygotskian sociocultural theory and applies it to peer scaffolding in group interaction of EFL learners. In this study, qualitative research methods of journals, interviews, audio-recordings, and video recordings are used. In the journals in response to questions, emotions, such as enjoyment and stress are expressed with regard to peer scaffolding and assistance in group work. There is a possibility that the dialogue journals will contribute to the further development of the emotional aspect of collaborative learning, and the transformation of the learning process and environment if emotions and feelings expressed in the journals are shared and understood among the learners.

Dipardo & Schnack (2004) investigate learners' experiences in a reading and writing program in which eighth-grade language arts students are paired with elderly volunteers, using collaborative journals, interviews, and questionnaires This qualitative study, which is based on Vygotskian sociocultural approach, emphasizes the role of emotion in the co-construction of meaning and the establishment of trust and support among the participants. Also, they report that emotion is integrated with cognition in this study.

In these studies founded on Vygotskian theory, which underscores the collaborative and affective aspects of learning, dialogue and collaborative journals are utilized. It can be suggested that collaborative journals among learners will be effective for practicing and investigating the affective aspect of collaborative learning because emotions and feelings in the journals are exchanged and shared among the learners.

5. How to investigate affect in relation to motivation and cognition
Several types of studies have been conducted to investigate affect, motivation, and cognition in the fields of SLA and language learning. In addition to quantitative approaches, such as questionnaires, qualitative approaches, such as learning histories, autobiographies, learning diaries, journals, interviews, and verbal protocols have been mainly utilized as tools of the studies.

Oxford (1995) employs leaning histories to examine the cognitive, motivational, and affective aspects of language learning, including learning styles, learning strategies, motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety in a learning community, using learners' introspective narratives in specific contexts and their content analysis. In this study, however, the affective aspect is not clearly distinguished from the cognitive and motivational aspects. Also, the cognitive appraisal of one's language performance in relation to learning styles and strategies is considered to be a major contributing factor to motivation and affect, and the metacognitive awareness of the learner's past learning processes is emphasized. Furthermore, emotions, such as anxiety, anger, frustration, discomfort are not central in this study, which depends on the learner's memory. Also, the learning histories do not seem to be appropriate to measure emotions and feelings to be exchanged and shared in the on-going process of social interaction while it is suitable for investigating longitudinal changes in constructs, such as cognition and motivation qualitatively.

Tse (2000) analyzes learners' perceptions of foreign language study qualitatively, using foreign language autobiographies. Based on the autobiographical writings of the participants in response to open-ended questions, this study centers on the attribution of success and failure (e.g. effort, ability,

learning environment) in the participants' language learning. Thus, this study is founded on attribution theory, which is one of the major motivation theories, and cognitive appraisal. That is, effort and ability attributions are considered to have psychological effects on self-esteem, expectancy of success, and affect (e.g. gratitude, anger). Like the study using a learning history, the affective and social aspects of language learning are not the main focus of this study because affect is thought be the result of cognitive appraisal by the learner.

So & Dominguez (2004) also employ an interpretive biography written by a learner and analyzes the learner's emotional processes and episodes, including fear, anxiety, and stress. In this study, emotion regulatory strategies, such as situation selection, cognitive change, and response modulation are underscored. Cognitive change is to adjust the learner's interpretation of one's own proficiency, and response modulation is to encourage more positive emotional response of the learner. This study centers on the individual aspect of language learning in terms of emotion regulation. Thus, the social aspect of affect is less emphasized. Also, affect is thought to be caused by cognitive appraisal. Furthermore, the interpretive biography needs to be used cautiously in investigating emotions because emotions tend to be subject to reappraisal and retrospective selective memory.

Porto (2007) uses learning diaries to qualitatively investigate how EFL learners experience language learning and how learners' introspection and reflection in the diaries lead to the development of self-determination and learner autonomy over time. In this study, the learners' perceptions of the learning environment and the prevalent feelings of the learners are coded and categorized. The prevalent feelings include disenchantment, fear of failure, dissatisfaction, appreciation, interest, relevance, self-esteem, enthusiasm, self-confidence, and so on. with the result that the affective and motivational aspects of language learning are elicited and identified. Also, as the learning diaries are collected in the period of more than 3 years, they can be analyzed systematically from a long-term perspective in terms of affect and motivation. However, this study does not focus its attention on emotions and feelings exchanged and shared among learners.

Consequently, on the whole, the learning histories, autobiographies, and interpretive biography employed in the above-mentioned studies are basically founded on cognitive appraisal, which is dominant in the current theories of educational psychology and SLA. Also, they can be used for the investigation of changes in the cognitive and motivational aspects of language learning over time, from a longer range viewpoint. However, they are not suitable for measuring emotional changes in the learning process, and real-time emotions and feelings exchanged through language in social interaction.

In addition to the journal studies employed by Mahn & John-Steiner (2002), Le (2003), and Dipardo & Schnack (2004), a learning diary (affective diary), which focuses on the affective aspect of language learning, is thought to be an effective tool to record and examine the on-going emotions exchanged and shared among learners, toward the creation of the collective and affective ZPD. If affective diaries are collected for a longer period of time continuously, they could contribute to the improvement and transformation of the affective aspect of collaborative learning. Verbal protocols and interviews can also be utilized after video-recording emotional interactions. Moreover, learning histories and autobiographies could be used with affective diaries because the complementary relations between affect and cognition are important in the learning process.

6. Affective intersubjectivity and ZPD in writing instruction
Previous writing models have a tendency to center on the cognitive aspect of the writing process of the individual learner. Sasaki (2002) argues that future studies should examine how affective and emotional aspects are associated with the writing process in the reconceptualization of writing models, and that the sociocultural contexts of the writing process should be considered. Cumming (2001) also suggests that situated interactions and scaffolding toward ZPD can contribute to the improvement of the writing process and the promotion of learning to write in a second language. He also points out that

a few studies have adopted Vygotskian sociocultural approach in the research and practice of writing instruction.

In recent years, in writing instruction, affect and motivation have received increased attention in addition to cognition. Writing anxiety (apprehension), which is a negative affect toward writing, has been an object of recent research. The research of writing anxiety focuses on how to reduce the anxiety and improve writing skills by intervention, based on a questionnaire survey (self-report). Also, according to Cheng (2002), writing anxiety tends to be related to self-efficacy, which is influenced by the self-rating of one's proficiency. Cheng (2004) develops SLWAI (Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory) as a questionnaire to survey the writing anxiety of the learner, making it distinct from factors, such as self-efficacy and self-confidence. The items of SLWAI are categorized into cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and avoidance behavior. Cognitive anxiety is the mental aspect of anxiety experience (e.g. preoccupation with performance), and somatic anxiety is one's perception of physiological effects of anxiety experience. On the whole, however, SLWAI is developed, founded on the conception of cognitive appraisal, which is prevalent in the current theories of educational psychology and SLA. That is, cognitive appraisal is regarded as the underlying factor of writing anxiety. Besides, SLWAI, which is a self-report measure of writing anxiety, is not necessarily an appropriate tool to investigate on-going emotional experiences in the particular context of the writing process because it depends on the memory of the learner and tends to be subject to forgetting.

Affect consists of various kinds of emotions, such as enjoyment, pleasure, relief, contentment, comfort, hope, gratitude, discomfort, anger, boredom, tension, frustration, shame, and so forth. These emotions have not been dealt with as the main objects of research in SLA and language learning. Also, in recent writing research, emotions except for writing anxiety have not been fully investigated. In addition, cognitive appraisal, which focuses on the causal and unidirectional relationship between cognition and affect, has been mainly employed in the research. While it is necessary to examine cognitive appraisal in the mental aspect of the individual learner with respect to writing anxiety by using a certain scale, we also need to consider a diversity of real-time emotional experiences in the collaborative learning of writing as an alternative method of research. It should be noted that emotional experiences in the writing process can also influence motivation and cognition. Furthermore, we should pay more attention to the social aspect of affect, which is suggested in the concept of affective ZPD although ZPD has been primarily investigated from sociocognitive perspective in writing research (Guerrero & Villamil, 2000).

Imai (2009, p.3) introduces the concept of affective intersubjectivity proposed by Denzin (1984), which means the level of how learners interpret and understand the emotions expressed in social interaction (socialized emotions) with each other. This concept has been examined from several theoretical approaches, including phenomenology. In Vygotskian sociocultural theory, the concept has been discussed from social and cognitive aspects, such as co-construction of knowledge and shared problem-solving (Hausfather, 2001). It can be suggested, however, that affective intersubjectivity will reinforce cognitive intersubjectivity in the collaborative writing process. The affective ZPD should also be reconceptualized in light of affective intersubjectivity, in relation to the theory and practice of writing instruction.

Learners can exchange and share various kinds of emotions in a group through language toward the affective intersubjectivity and ZPD after collaborative and cognitive writing activities, such as planning, idea generation, concept mapping, and formulation. The learner records his/her emotional experiences, using an affective diary in each process of these activities. Based on the affective diaries, learners can be involved in collaborative dialogue to establish the affective intersubjectivity and ZPD. Also, learners in a group can record the results of the sharing of emotions and feelings, employing a collaborative affective diary. These kinds of diaries can record more real-time emotional experiences, as compared with other introspective tools, such as learning histories and autobiographies. They will be effective mediation tools, and appropriate for investigating emotions to be expressed through affective

language in the specific contexts of the writing process. Besides these affective diaries, collaborative journals can also be employed to exchange and share emotions.

Through these activities, the learner as an agency can participate in the improvement of the affective aspect of the collaborative writing process, which is expected to lead to changing and promoting the motivational and cognitive aspects of learning as well. Moreover, affective scaffolding as well as cognitive scaffolding from the teacher is important for the facilitation of the above activities. The teacher should provide support and encouragement for the learner from the outset of the writing process, directing the learner's attention to the affective intersubjectivity and ZPD. The teacher who is a researcher as well as a practitioner, will not distinguish between positive emotions and negative emotions in terms of emotion regulation, based on a predetermined measure of emotions. Instead, emotions expressed in the affective diaries as mediation tools will be examined in light of the affective intersubjectivity and ZPD. As Imai (2009) argues, besides the generalized affective concept of anxiety, the interpreted and shared meaning of emotions among learners in specific contexts of social interaction is significant for the research and practice of language learning. This can also be applied to the collaborative development of writing to create the affective ZPD.

7.   Conclusion
This article could make it clear that the affective intersubjectivity and ZPD suggested in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory have significant implications for the emotional aspect of writing development as an alternative to the current prevailing theories of educational psychology and language learning. It could also elucidate that it is important to focus more attention on the complementary relations among affect, motivation, and cognition in the collaborative process of writing. However, as mentioned above, there seems to be little empirical research, based on the conception of affective ZPD at this point. Although it is essential to synthesize psychological categories among affect, motivation, and cognition, it is also necessary to further illuminate the reciprocal categorical relations both theoretically and empirically in the framework of Vygotskian sociocultural approach, referring to other related theories in the fields of educational psychology and SLA.

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