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The European Conference on Education

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The European Conference on Education

Conference Proceedings 2013

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Learning Agency: The Interactional Negotiation of Difference and Identity in Group Work

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0014

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Abstract

The paper draws on mediative research analysing interaction between home, European and international students in a London university through observations, interviews, and workshops. It argues for an integrative approach to mediative research into student interaction combining insights from interactional discourse approaches with consideration of world-system and postcolonial contexts as they articulate with subject area – here fashion – as a means to transformative intervention. Internationalisation for home students is seen to mean moving from Eurocentric to inter-/transnational frames of reference but also interactional styles, and for institutions, to include developing the outlook, practices and curricula to mediate that.

Keywords

internationalisation; conversation analysis; intercultural communication; de-Westernisation

Introduction

The following is a consideration of implications for internationalisation of curriculum content of interaction patterns of students involved in group project work, and the need for an interdisciplinarity of research and delivery able to intervene transformatively among them. Within the local London context, this meant seeking to foster globally outward-looking student behaviours, so it is fitting that I should return to at the end to a discussion of just how much a consideration of the entirely different, but nevertheless intimately related issues presented by others at this conference from locations around the world help situate it.

The project focus was on the interaction between what are called within the British HE system home, international, and European students. In this institutional usage, 'international' means not British or European in citizenship, and 'European' refers, not to the continent, but the political union. Each of the terms is problematic, however. As Bourdieu points out, such ethnic or regional terms being objectifying constructions, their use by researchers can never pretend to neutrality, objectivity being better sought in a description of the symbolic and material uses made of them (1982: 140-141). 'Home' may potentially imply territorial rights, for instance, and the term 'local' that Chinese students, particularly, often use to refer to British peers may be preferable in that respect. Similarly, to deny the status of European to a student from outside the European *Union* may play into essentialist discourses around membership bids – of Turkey, for instance – making 'European Union student' preferable. The restricted use of the term 'international' potentially articulates with prevalent hegemonic Western discourses according to which only the ethnic 'other' has identifiable culture (Baumann 1996; Wetherell and Potter 1992), and may feed the complacency concerning the need to adopt global outlooks on the part of some local students (or indeed staff/curricula).

However, the power in naming does not belong equally to all, and the sense of the terms (the groups defined) is part of the institutional situation of students and staff alike, embedded in fee structures, attendance policies and resource allocations, including to the research funding behind the present project. My approach within this article, then, will be to problematise them, but, importantly, not to pretend that this can occur merely at the descriptive level, or that they do not refer to institutional realities and connect, at times, with students' own categories. It is also worth noting that behaviour is frequently on the basis categories which remain at once fuzzy, vague, fluid (contextually mobilised), and tacit. One and the same student may at one point be oriented to as 'international', at another as 'marketing student' (rather than design), another 'East Asian', and another 'slightly older', 'female' or whatever. Thus the terms that I will use as a researcher will also be fluid, frequently a best guess based on what can be observed on the moment combined with interview data, but necessarily informed also by the research agenda.

For the project arose within the institutional context of the categories themselves and from the groups that they constitute. It was prompted by anecdotes in the language support context, - classes provided specifically (differentially) for international students, that is – who had frequently reported feeling sidelined from decision making in the group project work on their main courses by local students. Reflecting

anecdotal and other evidence from elsewhere in the university, this was the basis of a funding bid for strands explicitly supporting the ‘international student experience’.

The aim of the project was to identify issues causing difficulty, dissatisfaction, or impeded outcomes within group work and to share the findings with the students so as improve communication through awareness and skills work. Specifically, since international students were already having classes targeted at helping them to adapt to the culture of the college as new to them, the idea was extend the principle to all students: to ensure that local students, too, learned to adopt appropriate communication practices to an environment which, to them, too, was novel.

Literature and Methodology

The methodology has three strands, roughly equating with the levels of intervention that this paper suggests, but also disciplinary divisions. I will not try to be exhaustive within any one, the aim being specifically to argue for a disciplinarily integrative approach. Theoretical issues related to linguistics models have been tested in conferences, and the intention is to do so further in independent articles.

In the literature on internationalisation, there is a growing body of data from research in comparable HE institutions (for example, Australia and the U.S.; that is, both nations with English language dominance, whose international academic capital is connected to a position at the economic core, Western cultural traditions, and a colonising rather than colonised history), frequently replicating the sorts of feelings expressed by students prior to, and then within, the present project. Brown (2009), Lee and Rice (2007), Volet (2004), for instance, discuss international students’ feeling sidelined in group project work in findings that are concerningly typical.

Observational data from previous studies is more rare. Leki (2001) corroborates similar interview findings with observation of a small group in an American university (though, in a common limitation, only interviews international students). Jones *et al.* (1995) found related domination in experimental situations by Australian male home students with Chinese peers (the findings did not replicate for females, the gender of the vast majority of students in the present project, and all transcriptions here). However, this was limited by the artificial nature of the experimental approach. More problematically still, and not untypically of the field, the research accepts national and cultural identities at face value treating them as an independent variable, rather than questioning these as constructions, and so fails to respond to the formidable gauntlet cast by Said at the feet of the researcher, including of ‘home’ / ‘international’ student relations: ‘Can one divide human reality [...] into clearly different cultures [...] and survive the consequences humanly?’ (1995: 45)

Observationally, a methodology with particularly fine tools to avoid this is Conversation Analysis, which allows a focus on how (and if) participants themselves orient to, and so interactionally accomplish ethnic type identity (I use this term to cover the range of identifications from ‘international’ and ‘home’ to ‘western versus eastern’ (to quote interview data) that students mobilise). To take a typical example, Mori (2003) discusses how American and Japanese students in self-initiated informal language learning encounters in Japan engage in ‘conversational procedures [which] often, but not always, exhibit the participants’ orientation to the “interculturality” of

these interactions, and at the same time, how this interculturality is used as a resource for organizing the interaction' (2003: 144). The methodological procedures in this sort of work allowed me as a researcher to seek to avoid simply projecting the 'international', 'home', or related categories onto students regardless of interactional relevance.

However, Conversation Analysis, with its exclusive focus on the interactional moment, cannot alone account for orientations to macro environmental phenomena. If, and when, student 'members' did 'accomplish' ethnic identity (in the terms of the discipline), this by no means appeared to be on the basis of self-presence or overt willing alone, but was a response to contextual features over which their control was limited.

Rampton (2005) and Bucholtz (2011) are useful in conceiving ways of addressing external agencies within interactions. They furnish complimentary examples of interdisciplinary linguistic methodologies drawing on ethnographic, discourse based, and cultural studies approaches, for instance, to trace how students negotiate - produce and reproduce, but also challenge - hegemonic discourses and practices of ethnicity embedded within contexts, including the educational.

However, what also emerged from the data was that macro features, even of a 'world system' sort (Wallerstein 2004), though they clearly related to the local interactional level, never did so by some direct and massive determinism, but always on the terms of what was locally going on. And what was locally going on, of course, much of the time, was teaching and learning of a specific subject: fashion. For, as Bourdieu and Delsaut (1975) identified, the field of fashion has its own very specific logics characterised by homologies with but also differences from other fields. To identify the strategic ends to which the mobilisation of identifications such as ethnicity could be put in the competition for symbolic capital required, as will be seen, consideration not of an abstract or merely economic system, for instance, but also fashion as a context of culture.

The argument of this paper, supported by the interactional data, is that straddling these disciplinary divisions is not only of theoretical, but also practical importance, allowing effective research, but also transformation. 'Transformative learning [...] is the process of effecting change in a frame of reference', with 'ethnocentrism' one such frame (Mezirow 1997: 5). The theme of the present conference leads me to reflect on this change in three areas, only one directly students.

Hymes, an ethnographer of communication with an eye always on the interface of structure and interaction (frequently within educational contexts), suggests that 'The proper role [of the researcher] should not be "extractive" but mediative. It should be to help communities be ethnographers of their own situations, to relate their knowledge usefully to general knowledge' (1996: 1528). This was a principle at the heart of the project: to transform the students' understandings of themselves and each other, and so their behaviour, by sharing observational research among them with them in mediative interventions. What I perhaps could not have predicted was the degree of transformation in my own understanding of the students as well as of culture more generally and its research. For this I am undoubtedly as indebted to the

participants who shared their experiences and understanding with me as they are, I hope, to me for my analyses and advice.

But there is also a third area of change. As Ryan and Carroll suggest: ‘The presence of increased numbers of international students presents opportunities to re-assess not just how we teach but also the role and functions of the university as institution’ (2005: 9). Transformative learning, that is, must occur at the institutional level. The college initiatives forming the context of the present research (including the funding offer in the first place and changes put in place as a response, but also entirely independent work by colleagues, whether piecemeal or, increasingly, in co-ordination) bear witness to the fact that the conference theme is as applicable to pedagogical institutions seeking to address ethnocentric academic frameworks as to the increasingly diverse students they teach. On one level, this means internationalised curriculum content of the sort outlined by Leask (2013) or in Thussu (2009), say. But what I hope to establish here is that this can best be accompanied by mediative research-end efforts to relate it right back down to the face-to-face.

Observations Discussion

The research involved eighteen hours of observation, interviews and mediative workshops, mostly recorded and transcribed. Further, more have been conducted since, broadly confirming the patterns outlined here. Participants were Year 1 FDA students (roughly equivalent to BA Year 1) of fashion business, including design, marketing, and buying and merchandising, for instance, engaged in group project work. Throughout, I use a simplified version of the full transcription system used for research/presentation in specialist linguistics contexts:

IS/HS	International/Home Student
[square brackets]	parallel speech (interruptions), numbers showing order
(round brackets)	inaudible words/ best guess
{braces}	researcher comments
..	short pause
bold	emphatic stress
. Capital,	this punctuation approximately represents spoken sense

Though some truly exciting group work in which out of internationally and ethnically diverse groups, fluid relations and identifications emerged, and genuinely open collaboration, in the worst scenarios more rigid identifications of in- and outgroups helped to construct strong culture-based ‘barriers’ (a frequent interviewee term) in the mobilisation of or amenable to mobilisation for symbolic (fashion) capital. Here, international students had no, or almost no active part in discussion and no, or inadequate attempts were made by others to involve them, leaving them frequently sidelined from decisions.

The focus here will be on features of those more problematic scenarios. The following example is from a seminar. Five students (two British, three Chinese) are brainstorming the relative advantages (presumably for Europeans) of using European and non-European suppliers. IS2 takes notes for the group on an A3 tear sheet for presentation to the class at the end. At one point, IS2 asks for an explanation of a note during which HS2 turns to HS1 and mentions being hungry in a very short extraneous

conversation. The Chinese students continue the brainstorming in English, before whole-group talk begins again. I show the break with parallel columns.

IS2: you can get maybe the [sheeping shipping fee]

IS 1: {Mandarin, asking Int Student 3 what she's written}

HS 2: I'm hungry I'm **starving** {quietly and aside}

IS 2: shipping

H S 2: we can **go** (to eat after)

IS 2: Um long lead time

H S 1: I need to go to H&M to get clothes so is it okay if I just

H S 2: yeah sure

HS 1: um the lead time of course

This 'schisming' (Heritage and Clayman 2010: 8895) revealed itself as a pattern, which the tools of Conversation Analysis helped to identify and explain. The talk that occurs between all students, represented by the left hand column, addresses the set seminar topic alone, with restricted topics and predefined speaker roles, matching what is referred to as 'institutional' talk (Heritage and Clayman 2010 is a thorough overview). Another type of interaction is 'lifeworld' or 'ordinary' conversation: freer, not set by the tutor, this was discussion of topics ranging from food to music and light flirtation or dating news. In the observations that I made of seminars, this was exclusively the domain of home/home or roughly equivalent (for participants) groups. Using interviewees' terms, this equivalence mapped 'West versus East' patterns, appearance ('we don't look the same'), for instance, or first language (or rather assumptions about these themselves formed presumably on the basis of the previous categories and accent, in the case of some Singaporean students wrongly believed not to be first language speakers of English).

I selected a banal, short, and independently benign example of schisming. What was problematic was firstly that the pattern was remarkably rigid, to the point of inscribing itself even into the seating plan that emerged, seemingly by unspoken mutual consent at the beginning of each session: the groups sat opposite each other in an alignment such that institutional talk occurred across the table, tying home/international talk to the axis of the AV instructions and the tutor at the top, while lifeworld 'asides' occurred in parallel to, and independently of this axis, between in-group neighbours only. On occasions with less seminar work, there could be almost no cross-group interaction. In one observation of over twenty minutes, the only interruption of largely lifeworld conversation exclusively between home students consisted of two failed attempts by a Chinese peer to join in with a return to institutional talk.

Further, this connection to degrees of participation in social reproduction – lifeworld – was by no means only about discourse style, but was almost always also caught up in aspects of the fashion subject matter as that itself articulated with the global industry and, thereby, aspects of the world economic system. An example occurred when an international student (implicitly identified as ethnically other, being 'touristy' in fashion initiative, earlier in the meeting) offered to show her home peers

a marketing video she and an international peer had made to represent the ‘lifestyle’ of the group’s design. She is about to show it on her iPad when a change to lifeworld chat about British bands occurs, during which she finds herself instructed to search out music videos on the internet. Her joint idea is never again discussed in the following two-and-a-half hours observed:

- I1: we don’t wanna show the entire thing// just like.. **parts** of it\ or maybe the [()]
 I4: [()] part\=
 I1: The **production** process
 H1: Are you **literally** gonna do that.. Are you gonn[a do a video or]?
 I2: [Um]
 H2: [Are you planning on video cause I think video’s the way forward?]
 H3: [Oh can I watch the video did you come up with that?]
 I2: [Yah].
 H2: [Have you] seen um have you checked Wipe Out? um by a band called (band name).
 H1: Er **ah** I’ll tell you a **good** one. What’s what’s a [what’s the Peters’ one]?
 H2: [ah hah hah (?) about today. Heh heh heh]
 H1: The {acquaintance name}’s one? you know {acquaintance name}.
 H3: Coeur C O E U R
 H1: Yeah. Look on C O
 {...}
 H1: **This** shows lifestyle

In the competition for power over decision-making, the structural division institutional/lifeworld participation by group membership is mobilised to sideline an idea from international students (here East Asian) as somehow inherently less able to deal effectively in lifestyle.

The connection to the concept of ‘lifeworld’ is not terminological coincidence – both represent the ability to pass beyond a mere business-like approach to fashion to one where ideas come from the spontaneity of life experience in the authentic high-fashion capital urban environment itself. This clearly maps onto wider factors relating world systemic inequalities and what Hardt and Negri identify as a ‘fundamental division of labor within the realm of [the new industries of] immaterial production’ (2000: 3372) - a realm clearly including the production of fashion as symbolic culture. Within this division, affective labour, or production of and from lifestyle capital, becomes associated with economic (and cultural) centres, while the more menial tasks (from manual labour to simple data input) fall to peripheries.

Various theorists have identified this tendency within fashion, its particular re-inscription, as Kondo (1997) discusses with reference to Japanese designers, of the global inequalities onto individuals via, for instance, differential access to the status of design leader on unwillingly ethnicised subjects. Similarly, Skov discusses the tendency of fashion to ‘fill a cosmopolitan form with local content’ (2011: 139), with designers from peripheral cities attributed lower fashion capital. With fashion a central apparatus in articulating identities and roles, spaces and practices, it’s no coincidence, then, that we saw it defining groups in the first extract by lifeworld/institutional differentiation through talk of shopping together at H&M, or, in the second, London heritage mobilised for ‘lifestyle’ capital.

These re-territorialising forces within the field of fashion are not exclusive of deterritorialising, exploratory and creative tendencies, and if, frequently, strategic constructions of difference resulted in the sidelining of international students *as such*, at other times the students would produce more genuinely – and excitingly – international outcomes together. Focus on the more problematic observational data reflects the greater urgency for intervention.

Interview data

Striking in the interview data was the degree to which they not only corroborated what we see in the interactions, but draw on it as evidence of what would frequently be attributed to an essentialised culture as its origin; not as something that groups – including themselves – interactionally produce, but as a deep and unavoidable essence governing them.

Thus a Korean student:

I18: But .. you know Asian people .. they're like.. they listen to people first and decide together everything. .hh but if .. when I talk with home students .. sometimes I can see that they are arguing, like something like EU student and home student or home student and home student, because like .hh you know no 'I think this is this is right', and they they never say oh 'okay'.. then you know just talk and you know .. make it goes right. They always say you know, 'no this is right this is right' and .. like I'm I'm just looking at them and let them you know finish their kind of little arguing, and, yeah that's all and like it's all about we have different culture. [...] they are too different and I I don't understand their thing or their style or even how they handle their coursework, you know in a group or yeah things like that.

This, of course, describes exactly the sort of scenarios in the observations, where behaviour of mostly home students produces precisely what can look like 'just talk'. This interactionally accomplished in- and outgroup construction then itself becomes evidence of essential and deep divisions.

The pattern is mirrored by home students discussing those from the 'Far East':

HS4: And we noticed it um a bit in our halls as well, 'cause we live in the same halls. .hh There is definitely a lot of like the Chinese students .. They all seem to gravitate together but I live with um in my flat there's me, South African girl, Chinese guy, and a Korean guy. .hh And .. I get on with the South African girl very well, a- we never spend any time together, at all

Researcher: [right]

HS4: [but] if I see her in the kitchen we'll have a chat or whatever but if the boys come in I'll chat to the Chinese guy for a bit, but the Korean guy, just like doesn't say hi anything like that .. he's just very very closed off.

A lack of interaction is taken as evidence of deep cultural differences, and the lack of communication *between* groups a feature of 'closed off' East Asians alone 'gravitating' together. Interestingly (in a contradiction common in the data), this is despite elsewhere implicitly acknowledging a part in that lack of interaction:

H4: I would never dream of hanging **out** with them .. At **all**.

Of course, the agency of these participants should not be over-emphasised: as we've seen, their interactions themselves are to some degree determined by massive scale socio-historical factors as well as institutional ones, and this discourse of cliquiness (the most common student term) is not a student innovation, but part of a hegemonic discourse. Baumann, for instance, would have had no difficulty recognising it from his research in West London nearly twenty years ago: "The Muslims always stick together," is a stereotype that I encountered time and again even among children and teenagers.' (1996: 83), or Blommaert and Verschuere in Belgium, encountering accusations of immigrant 'clannishness' (1988: 2055). Acknowledging that the 'accomplishment' of discursive hegemony is never interactional alone is important both for intervention and in terms of research ethics. It was clear to me in this instance that laying responsibility for structural patterns at the feet of individuals alone would have been both inaccurate and ungenerous. That identification of patterns required transcription, coding, sifting and consultation of theoretical literature attests that much of what occurred was unconscious: a product of habitus.

Workshops

And yet there clearly is some balance between agency at this micro level and that at the macro which it invokes, and that, surely, is the basis on which the notion of transformative intervention depends. Certainly this was the aim of the workshops: to help students to identify, articulate and contextualise the patterns, and to develop the means to break them. Without going into details, the workshop process involved discussion of interaction between students, including by reference to observation and interview findings, and identification together, in their working groups, of weaknesses and their causes, and ways that communication could be improved.

Some students in the workshops simply adopted a winner-takes all approach in which involvement of each was the individual's personal responsibility, and nothing to do with the group, as the quote below illustrates:

H6: well I mean I'm .. maybe it is arrogant but .. I feel that I speak .. pretty good English, therefore .. if someone doesn't understand I've got no if someone wants to like say .. what did what was that word, then I will try and explain it (I know) but I wouldn't personally ask everyone oh did you all

This was part of a superficially liberal egalitarian discourse, where difference was seen to be a matter of individuals alone, rather than a structural issue that placed some at a systematic disadvantage. Observationally, within this group, I had watched it lead to the utter exclusion of some students. But behind it is the extremely illiberal notion that English communicative behaviour is utterly normative, and no accommodation to others is worth contemplating. Without countenancing the view, though, I will again acknowledge the limitation in the student's agency here: one key research finding was the difficulty for students of changing communicative practice which, naturally enough, appeared 'natural'.

However, others had much more pro-active response: acknowledging difference, but without construing it as a deep essential thing, rather as open to strategies by the group as a whole to respond to. Here the point is made by a British student:

HS9: People are obviously going to separate out like that. It's natural. I'm the sort of person who speaks to people easily, but some people have a fear of that, and it's not their fault. {...} It's all about give and take. Everybody has to make the effort, and that means being ready to wait. If some people are nervous, you have to be that much more patient, and that helps them be more confident. It's just like taking the time to say to someone who's quieter 'what do you think?' and involve the person. Power comes with responsibility.

Noticeable is that differences in style of the participants are seen not as essential traits, but something that emerges from the group: if someone doesn't speak, this is not because they come from some cliquey culture, but from the behaviour of all interactants – from the community, not of origin, but of practice, the students as a group.

Further, implicitly, what produces the difference in the first place – the more shy and the less shy – is seen, again, not as an inherent cause, but as a result of power. Here is a beginning of the discussion of the collection of factors – language practices, fashion capital relevant to the institutional curriculum, and world systemic features – that load the interactional footing from the start.

Conclusion

This conference, both formally and informally, has provided invaluable opportunities to identify connections to issues elsewhere in the world, whose differences can be as illuminating as the similarities. To pick out a strand of work relating most directly to my own, hearing of an innovation in New Zealand to rethink the boundaries between the animate and inanimate to accommodate Maori knowledge within the science curriculum; attempts to imagine and pedagogically enact conceptions of space non-exclusively of the knowledge and practices of indigenous peoples in India; a project to make Australian students Aboriginal studies aware of the embedding of the privilege of whiteness in their everyday talk; work in Johannesburg aimed at empowering marginalised groups to engage in the production of legitimate knowledge of their culture as a means to inclusion in and reshaping of the democratic environment post-Apartheid: all of these were somehow both excitingly new, different and entirely contextual, and yet, as was clear from the sense of common purpose referred to in formal and informal discussions, linked by strong connections, clearly a great part of which was the shared need to deal with the very various legacies of colonialism.

The conference, then, has helped me to identify still further with Chakrabarty's project of *Provincializing Europe*, as one that can be local at one and the same time to his writing of Bengali history and yet also to the specific situation of a London college:

To "provincialize" Europe was precisely to find out how and in what sense European ideas that were universal were also, at one and the same time, drawn from very particular intellectual and historical traditions that could not claim any universal validity. (2000: 125)

And in fact, that transformational project is, of course, the same that I needed to share with the students, where ‘international’ would not only be a categorisation of some, but what all needed to become. In this sense, to ‘provincialize’ the home student – to allow them to see, for instance, that British-like communication patterns or London lifestyle capitals were not universally normative – would also be to help them to internationalize.

The frame which Mezirow suggests is the object of transformation includes ‘cognitive, conative, and emotional components, and is composed of two dimensions: *habits of mind* and a *point of view*.’ (Mezirow 1997: 5), the habits of mind including ways not only of thinking, but also of acting. What I hope to have shown is that research-led transformational intervention can be most effective by integrating these analytically and in practice: investigating the patterns of action that students habitually employ; relating to those practices to structural factors, though always with a close eye on their articulation with contextual features including subject area; and, finally, helping students both critically to identify those articulations (to situate, at the cognitive level, their own perspectives and practices relatively to wider factors, for instance), and to develop most accommodating interactional behaviours – perhaps thereby also attaining greater agency.

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Visualizing World University Rankings: A Novel Algorithm

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Abstract

The ranking of different universities the world over has always been a topic of great interest. Rankings are used by students to find the best university for their studies, by faculty to choose the right university to teach, and, by university administrators in their decision making. However, rankings in the form of scores are hard to comprehend and are rather drab. In today's tech savvy world, a pie chart or a histogram would not warrant even a cursory glance on a search engine. There is a need to represent data in a more understandable visual format-this is a completely non-trivial enterprise and subsumes technical knowledge from across three intellectual domains-information technology, computer graphics and educational technology. In particular, the application demonstrated in this paper uses aggregation algorithms, z-scores and cumulative probability scores to grade and visualize data. The evaluation criteria include indicators such as teaching and learning, research productivity, publications and patents, employability, regional outreach and multiculturalism amongst many others. To our knowledge, this first analysis yields visualizations with clarity and insight, far superior to the usual sunburst diagrams used by most multiranking systems. This application is further being customized so that it is easily downloadable as a user friendly applet. To our knowledge, this has not been done before in the field of Educational Technology.

1. Introduction

Ranking methodologies can never be a perfect representation of the quality of an institution. It is only meant to be used as a guideline for students, faculty and the university administration. At the same time, they provide valuable insight into where a student is placed among his/her competitors around the world, which universities provide the best career prospects for teaching staff, and in which fields a university is lacking. The essence of these rankings lies in the aggregation of data provided by a large number of universities all around the world. Thus, there is a need to quickly grasp the required information from the data without having to perform tedious calculations. Graphical representation of the information will thus be ideal to quickly assess a university in different fields of study.

2. Current Scenario

Over the years, different organizations have attempted to rank the universities of the world. 3 of them have now emerged as globally accepted rankings – The QS World University Rankings (QS), The Times Higher Education World University Rankings (THE) and the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU).

The QS World University Rankings currently considers over 2000 and evaluates over 700 universities in the world, ranking the top 400.

The ranking criterion used by QS is^[4]:

- Academic Reputation – 40%
- Employer Reputation – 10%
- Citations per Faculty – 20%
- Faculty-student Ratio – 20%
- Proportion of International Students – 5%
- Proportion of International Faculty – 5%

Times Higher Education created a new ranking methodology with Thomson Reuters, published as Times Higher Education World University Rankings. It uses 13 performance indicators, which are then grouped into 5 broad areas. The 5 areas of classification as of October 2012 are^[5]:

- Teaching: the learning environment – 30%
- Research: volume, income and reputation – 30%
- Citations: research influence – 30%
- Industry income: innovation – 2.5%
- International outlook: staff, students and research – 7.5%

The Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) was first published in June 2003 by the Center for World-Class Universities (CWCU), Graduate School of Education (formerly the Institute of Higher Education) of Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China. ARWU uses six objective indicators to rank world universities, which are^[1]:

- Alumni of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals – 10%
- Staff of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals – 20%
- Highly cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories – 20%
- Papers published in Nature and Science – 20%

- Papers indexed in Science Citation Index-expanded and Social Science Citation Index – 20%
- Per capita academic performance of an institution – 10%

3. Need for Alternative Ranking Systems

The “Berlin Principles” published in the IHEP (Institute for Higher Education Policy) was independently derived by an ad hoc group of analysts and ranking entities known as the International Rankings Expert Group (IREG). It was released in May 2006 to wide acclaim.

According to the Berlin Principles^[3], rankings should

“Be clear about their purpose and their target groups. Rankings have to be designed with due regard to their purpose. Indicators designed to meet a particular objective or to inform one target group may not be adequate for different purposes or target groups.”

Taking this principle of good ranking practice seriously means that defined rankings should include and compare similar and comparable programmes or institutions in terms of their missions and profiles. There is no one-size-fits-all-approach for rankings. It does not make sense to compare study programmes, say, in engineering in a small regional-oriented institution focusing on undergraduate education with an internationally oriented research university where graduate education (Master, PhD) is a central element of the profile.

The QS ranking has been criticized for relying too heavily on anonymous feedback reviews for their academic reputation scores, which constitutes 40% of the total score.

THE puts less emphasis on reputation and heritage and instead looks at harder measures of excellence like research, teaching and knowledge transfer. The increased emphasis on teaching, which is a very subjective aspect, creates a new point of unreliability.

By the ARWU ranking methodology, almost 90% of a university’s score is a reflection of its research undertaking. This seems to be a rather narrow criterion for ranking. These ranking components undervalue some universities, particularly those strong in arts and humanities, as these subject fields are not research oriented.

Thus, it is clear that a paradigm shift is needed in the way universities are understood to impart knowledge and life skills to students. Using common measures to rank universities, regardless of their areas of focus and style of teaching, is not the right strategy to truly understand where they stand.

4. U-Multirank

On 2 June 2009 the European Commission announced the launch of a feasibility study to develop a multi-dimensional global university ranking. Its aims were to be^[2]:

- Multi-dimensional: Covering the various missions of institutions, such as education, research, innovation, internationalization, and community outreach.
- Transparent: it should provide users with a clear understanding of all the factors used to measure performance and offer them the possibility to consult the ranking according to their needs.

- Global: covering institutions inside and outside Europe (in particular those in the US, Asia and Australia).

U-Multirank developed a new international ranking instrument that is user-driven, multi-dimensional and methodologically robust on the basis of a carefully selected set of design principles. This new on-line instrument enables its users first to identify institutions that are sufficiently comparable to be ranked and, second, to design a personalised ranking by selecting the indicators of particular relevance to them. U-Multirank enables such comparisons to be made both at the level of institutions as a whole and in the broad disciplinary fields in which they are active.

The developed tool takes the name ‘U-Multirank’ as it stresses three fundamental points of departure:

- It is multi-dimensional, recognizing that higher education institutions serve multiple purposes and perform a range of different activities.
- It is a ranking of university performances (although not in the sense of an aggregated league table like other global rankings).
- It is user-driven (as a stakeholder with particular interests, you are enabled to rank institutions with comparable profiles according to the criteria important to you).

U-Multirank includes a range of indicators that will enable users to compare the performance of institutions across five dimensions of higher education and research activities:

- Teaching and learning
- Research
- Knowledge transfer
- International orientation
- Regional engagement

On the basis of data gathered on these indicators across the five performance dimensions, U-Multirank could provide its users with the on-line functionality to create two general types of rankings:

- Focused institutional ranking
- Field based ranking

4.1 Focused institutional ranking

U-Multirank believes that a focused institutional ranking relates to a particular dimension of the classification and allows comparisons of institutions along a single aspect of institutional activity. According to its multidimensional approach, a focused ranking does not collapse all dimensions into one single rank, but will instead provide a fair picture of institutions (‘zooming in’) within the multi-dimensional context provided by the full set of dimensions. Thus, multiple viewpoints of a higher education institution may be presented—viewpoints that bear relevance to the various users of the classification, for instance academics, students, administrators, policy-makers on various levels, providers of funding, business leaders, researchers, or the general public. The implication of this approach is that institutions can be expected to have different comparative results on different dimensions and thus that a multi-

dimensional institutional ranking approach implies different outcomes for different institutions on different dimensions.

Individual institutions can of course be expected to ‘score’ differently on different dimensions. The set of the ‘scores’ of an individual institution on the whole set of dimensions of the classification defines the institution’s profile.



Fig 1. Sunburst Diagrams–Focused Institutional Ranking Visualizations used by U-Multirank

4.2 Field based ranking

A field-based ranking is a multi-dimensional ranking of a set of study programmes in a specific field or discipline of higher education. Rankings of study programmes can only be meaningfully interpreted within the wider context provided by the multi-dimensional classification of entire institutions.

U-Multirank provides visualizations of university performance in the form of ‘Sunburst Diagrams’ at the institutional level and ‘field tables’ at the field level. In the sunburst diagrams, the performance on all indicators at the institutional level is represented by the size of the rays of the ‘sun’. A larger ray means a higher performance on that indicator. The color of a ray reflects the field to which it belongs.

	Personalised ranking				
	international academic staff	research publication	doctorate productivity	student internships in	CPD courses offered
Institution 8	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 1	●	-	-	●	●
Institution 3	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 9	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 7	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 5	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 2	●	●	●	●	●
Institution 6	●	●	●	●	●

Fig 2. Tabular approach to Field Based Rankings used by U-Multirank

The visualizations however were found to have a few crucial drawbacks. The sunburst diagram, for example, had the following shortcomings:

- The sectors of the sunburst diagram did not accurately represent their respective scores. Different scores that varied by small amounts were found to ‘snap’ to a specific sector length, giving the appearance that they are all the same value.
- Universities with a score of zero in a certain field were shown to have a certain minimum score in that field. This was quite misleading.

As for the field based representation:

- The table format is cluttered and does not provide a clean and intuitive visualization of the data
- Institutions are categorized into 3 groups marked by green, yellow and red. Although this does give a general idea of the performance of an institution, it abstracts away a lot of details about the extent to which a university excels.

5 Our Novel Visualisation:

Thus, it became immediately clear that a new form of visualization is required to do full justice to the high quality data compiled by U-Multirank. In keeping with the aims of U-Multirank, two forms of visualization were developed, one each for Focused Institutional Rankings and Field Based Rankings. They were developed from scratch keeping in mind the defects of U-Multirank’s visualizations. Creation of clear and concise graphics was the topmost priority for the design of the application.

5.1 Focused Institutional Rankings (StarChart)

In order to provide detailed information for a single university, we implemented a star chart visualization as opposed to the sunburst diagram used by U-Multirank. The star chart allows for a detailed overview of the performance of a university in a similar way to the sunburst diagram. However, instead of providing all the details in one chart, the information is split into two dynamic graphs. While the star chart

provides aggregate scores of a university in a major field, the bargraph allows for detailed scrutiny of the data, shedding light on what components affect the score of that university in that field.

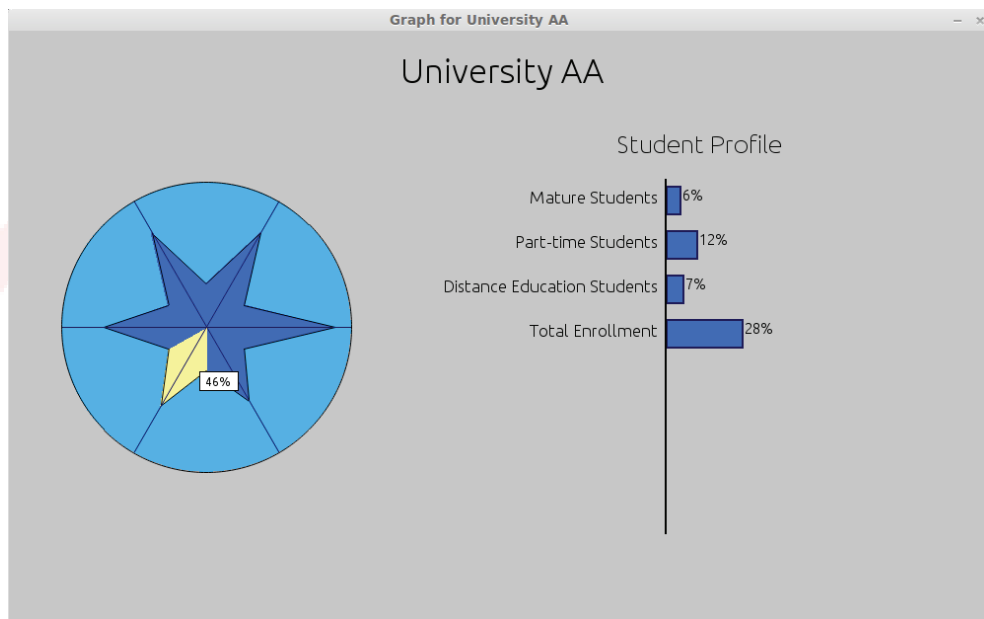


Fig 3.Star chart of a university providing in-depth information of its Student Profile. The Star on the left shows the aggregate score in the field while the bar graph shows the constituents of that score.

5.2 Field Based Rankings (Bar Graph):

In order to visualize field based rankings (relative performance of all universities in a particular field of interest), we chose a bar graph representation in place of the tabular representation used by U-Multirank. Bargraphs allow for comparison between universities to a much finer degree. The extent by which a university is ahead or behind others is very intuitively conveyed using bargraphs, whereas this information is completely hidden in tabular representations. The bargraph was designed to dynamically provide additional text information about each university (brief descriptions, QS ranks etc.), augmenting the information gained from the graph itself. Additionally, the application allows for the color of the bar to be changed to represent further information. In Fig 3. Below, a gray shade is used to represent universities that have been ranked by QS.

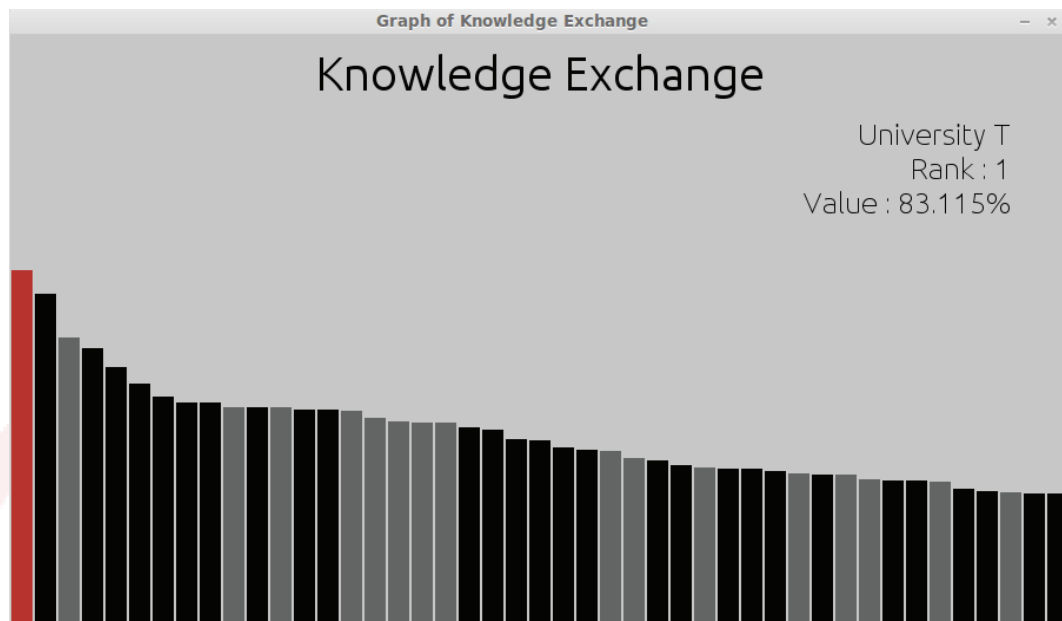


Fig 4. Bar graph of knowledge exchange. Each bar represents a university. It can be seen that the first two universities are significantly ahead of the competition. In the tabular representation of U-Multirank, the first 10 universities would all be colored green.

6 Conclusion

The new visualizations provide a stunning graphical representation of the data, throwing light on aspects that were not visible with those provided by U-Multirank. The core of the U-Multirank philosophy, the Multi-dimensional approach to ranking, provides a new perspective to university performance. This is clearly depicted by the visualizations.

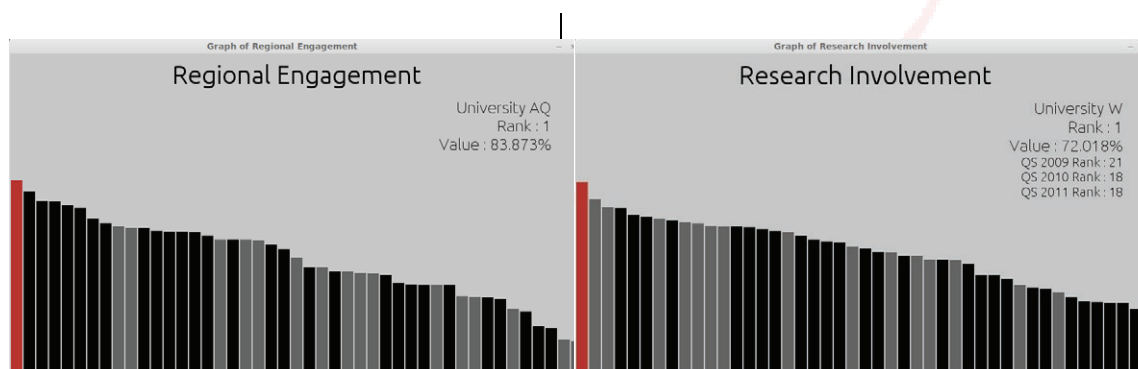


Fig 5. Bar graphs showing performance of universities in two fields – Regional Engagement and Research Involvement. The gray bars represent those universities that have been ranked by QS.

Fig. 5 Above depicts an interesting contrast. Universities ranked by QS (having gray colored bars) are predominantly on the higher range of the graph of Research Involvement (Right), whereas the graph of Regional Engagement has only 2 QS ranked universities within the top 10.

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The Bologna Process and a Reconstituted Local Education Policy Field at UCD

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Abstract

This article investigates the policy process at University College Dublin (UCD) and its constituent School of Business when it modularised its programmes from 2005. The introduction of a policy of modularisation was used to investigate how supranational agencies interact with national policy entities and individual institutions in Ireland. This paper reviews how regional and supranational processes and discourses (including European integration and the work of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) affected UCD's institutional dynamics and policy production. The production of this modular policy suggests that policy is shaped predominantly by local policy actors and global influences situated, suggesting that the nation-state's role in some cases may be overstated in debates in some circumstances. This paper sustains the suggestion of a global policy field (Lingard, Rawolle & Taylor, 2005) and proposes a reconstitution of the local education policy field.

Keywords: Europeanisation; global policy field; vernacular globalisation; Bourdieu; modularisation; Bologna Process.

Introduction

The rise of the 'European Education Space' signifies that trans-national governance has altered the roles of national system policy actors (Lawn, 2006). Enders (2004) noted the impact of such governance changes for the micro/institutional policy processes has been under-researched. In light of a European/global dimension to the policy cycle, the political structures operating beyond the nation state, namely the European Union (EU) and Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) are increasingly acknowledged. As a result, this concept of a 'global education policy field' was developed from Bourdieu's (2003) concept of a global economic field (Rawolle and Lingard, 2008: 736). Shifts in the development and institutional implementation of education policies, as the values promoted by national systems of education are not just established by the policy actors within the nation state but forged through transnational and global entities (Rizvi and Lingard, 2010). There are often reductionist accounts of global effects on education policy which do not take account of historical context.

Modularisation provided a tangible policy outcome to review how supranational agencies arbitrate national policy entities and individual institutions. From 2005, there has been an unprecedented change in the nature, role and purpose of the policy capacity at University College Dublin (UCD). UCD provides an outward-focused case study to explore such relationships at a micro level. The pursuit and implementation of modular policy demonstrates the capacity of non-national political structures, particularly the Bologna Process to shape not only national policy (Henry, Lingard, Rizvi, and Taylor, 2001) but also institutional governance and policy. Neither the convergence or divergence theses of globalisation provide sufficient insight into this process, suggesting evidence of a vernacular globalisation, in this case of education policy outcomes (Appadurai, 1996). While this literature is useful, often it is explored without historical context and neglects the institutional policy transfer arising from European integration.

Globalising Education Policy: the Literature

The globalising of the policy cycle was acknowledged to reflect the global diaspora of policy ideas (Lingard, 2000). The assumption that the state always retains political authority may be questionable. For example, Ireland might be exceptional as in this case local and national processes are contested at a particular time in matters governing globalisation processes. The construction of a global education agenda (Dale, 2009; Lawn & Lingard, 2002) reconfigures the state's authority and instigates new communication models which permeate across national boundaries. More generally, national policy responding to global pressures, is increasingly a process of bricolage, where policy is borrowed and copied from elsewhere, drawing on and amending locally approaches (Ball, 2008:30). The process of globalisation exports ideas, trends and policy.

From the global education policy discourse emerges the pursuit of restructuring based upon neo-liberal tenets, e.g. accountability, lifelong learning, international competitiveness, etc., (Ozga & Lingard, 2006). Nations have different capacities to mediate and ameliorate the effects of global pressures and globalised education policy discourses produced by supranational agencies (Ozga & Lingard, 2006). For example, the OECD's ability to set the agenda for national education systems was recognised, though less documented (Rinne, Kallio & Hokka, 2003). The OECD has

no legal power over states, yet exerts influence on the policies of its member in a variety of different, indirect fashions. The EU also demonstrates a capacity to reorient national systems. Its multilevel governance is not a deterministic model, but a complex web of policy-making involving agents across the local, national and global policy landscapes (Brine, 2006). Endorsing education policies is formally beyond the EU's responsibility, to the principle of subsidiarity¹. Instead the EU uses 'Open Method of Coordination' (OMC) to collaborate with member states on economic and social objectives (Ball, 2008). Resulting from such soft law mechanisms, there are no official sanctions for those who do not attain the goals.

Of particular interest is the Bologna Process. The Bologna Process commenced in 1999 and is an ongoing process of ministerial meetings and agreements between European countries. Its objective is to provide comparability in the standards and quality of higher education qualification in Europe. European ministers responsible for higher education met in Bologna to lay the basis for establishing a European Higher Education Area by 2010 and promote the European system of higher education globally. It based upon six key objectives to;

1. adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
 2. adopt a system with two main cycles (undergraduate/graduate)
 3. establish a system of credits (such as ECTS)
 4. promote mobility by overcoming legal recognition and administrative obstacles
 5. promote European co-operation in quality assurance
 6. promote a European dimension in higher education
- (Joint Declaration of the European Ministers for Education, 1999)

The Bucharest Communiqué extended the Process until 2020, recognising the Bologna Process as an element of a wider initiative for the European knowledge based economy and supports EU initiatives, e.g. the Europe 2020 strategy and Strategic framework for the Open Method of Coordination in Education and Training (ET2020). The Bologna Process itself is endorsed by the European Ministers of Education (Robertson, 2009). Inter-ministerial meetings were set-up on a biennial basis. Outside of these meetings, the Bologna Process was managed through the Bologna Follow-up Group (BFUG) and supported by the member states and consultative members including the EC, The Council of Europe, the EUA, EURASHE (European Association of Institutions of Higher Education), ESIB (European Students Information Bureau – now European Students Union) and UNESCO/CEPES (Centre for Higher Education). The role of the EU in the process is important, as the Commission are sensitive to claims of interfering in 'national' affairs.

Conceptualising Policy with Bourdieu

Bourdieu highlighted the effects of policies produced by agencies external to the nation within different nations possessing varying amounts of national capital. Bourdieu's concepts of capital, practice field and habitus have contributed to understanding education policy sociology in the global context (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008). Some construe it as deterministic, nebulous and tenuous. However, Bourdieu's tools permit empirical investigation of the construction of the global economic market. Bourdieu helped with the deliberations of education policy as a

text, which was produced in a field of policy text, underpinned by its specific logics and operationalised in a professional practice field with different logics of practice (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008).

Using Bourdieu's concept of capital, Lingard, *et al.*, (2005) suggest the amount of 'national capital' held by a nation within the global field helps determine its resistance to autonomy. The amount of economic, political or cultural national capital retained by a nation within these global fields contributes to the spaces of resistance and degree of autonomy for policy development within the nation. As Rizvi and Lingard (2010) suggest that the Global South (i.e. the developing world) is positioned differently from the Global North (i.e. the developed world) regarding the effects of education policy from international agencies. National capital can mediate the amount to which nations are able to be what Appadurai (1996) called 'context generative' in the global field. Each state manages differently its 'national interests' and utilises diverse capacities to manage its interests in higher education. Bourdieu called the environment of an agent's habitus is expressed in practice the 'Social Field'. Within such 'fields', agents fight for unequally distributed resources of 'capital'. Social fields conceptualise social arrangements as various quasi-autonomous fields informed by their own logic of practice, spanned by a field of power, connected to the field of economics and a field of gender (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Bourdieu spoke of a university field, which

... is, like any other field, the locus of a struggle to determine the conditions and the criteria of legitimate membership and legitimate hierarchy, ... (Bourdieu, 1984:11).

Bourdieu's concept of a social field has also primarily a national focus but Rawolle and Lingard (2008) suggested that the concept can be applied to social structures operating beyond the nation-state. Within the global policy field, the national fields of power in the education policy field have become more heteronomous (Maton, 2005). Educational policy appears to be less independent and driven by an economic agenda advocated by supranational agencies, (which would seem to support the observations above regarding the Bologna Process in particular). Nation states developed mechanisms regarding the process of globalisation through various interactions with the emergent education field. What appears to determine the nation's response is the extent of national capital which a nation had and drew upon to mediate the global field. This assumes that the nation (i.e. national government and its agencies) were the locus of origin for public policies in education. The case of UCD suggests that this is not always so.

Methodology

Insight into UCD's process was evidenced by collecting data through textual analysis of fifteen policy documents and the semi-structured interviewing of 23 key policy actors at UCD and other influential national and global policy agencies between 2008 and 2010. The content of the policy documents were analysed using Nvivo software: common phrases and key themes were identified and used for content analysis purposes.

Organisations who participated in this study included Irish Universities Association, Higher Education Authority, Department of Education and Science, European Universities Association, European Commission and Organisation for Economic and Cooperation Development. Research commenced with those working at UCD and

progressed as key policy makers were identified as influential. Interviewing commenced with staff involved at UCD's School of Business and progressed some months later to those working with the European Commission, European Universities Association (EUA) and the OECD. In terms of textual analysis, the UCD 2005-8 Strategic Plan as the first document analysed and any document referenced by it were then also analysed itself. This approach helped provide insight into the parameters of the policy field within UCD.

Global Vernacularisation?

UCD is Ireland's largest university with over 25,000 students. Since 2005, UCD reorganised its internal structures, modularised its programmes and increased research income, exemplifying the agenda to restructure Irish higher education (Barrett, 2006). Prior to 2005, UCD was perceived to be under-performing and the 'sleeping giant' of Irish universities (Irish Times, 2004). UCD's history, its size and its influence on Irish higher education promoted its selection as a site to study the policy process between an institution, the nation and supranational agencies. In his 2004 inaugural speech, UCD's President Dr Brady outlined a plan premised on the institution's internationalisation. He outlined the need to become one of the top universities in Europe and a university where 'international competition is the benchmark for everything ...' (UCD, 2005a:4). Subsequently, UCD experienced highly publicised changes to its statutes and structures (Lynch, 2006), with its 11 faculties being reconstituted into 5 colleges¹ UCD's reforms occurred in an environment of wider sectoral development. Other intended university reforms included a organisational restructuring and the alteration of the internal and external relations of university power and governance. UCD branded its new modularised undergraduate programme initiative, 'UCD Horizons'. A key message of Horizons was the opportunity for students to shape 'their own degree' by selecting modules of interest, coupled with study abroad. Modularisation offered UCD the opportunity to capitalise on its unique disciplinary diversity to reposition itself within Irish higher education and introduce a unified university curricular framework. It also supported UCD's goal to further compete internationally and implement a number of the Bologna Process objectives ubiquitously. Policy analysis found modularisation was advocated by the recommendations of a number of institutional reviews completed by various external bodies, including the European Universities Association. Modularisation is defined as:

...the process by which educational awards are broken up into component parts of a more or less standard size. These parts may then be assessed separately and independently, so that students can study individual modules in a variety of different sequences (Morris, 2000:240).

Modularisation has the capacity to broaden access and facilitate part-time and student-paced study (Thorne, 1991). Others (Brecher, 2005) are more critical of modularisation and suggest that it supports standardisation. Henkel (2000) observed that modularisation was a sign of power transfer from academics and their departments to the institution.

When asked about the origins of modularisation and semesterisation, UCD interviewees associated modularisation directly with the Bologna Process, as illustrate below.

I suppose from a university perspective, I guess modularisation was, as I understand it, was Bologna and the need to have conformity in terms of the curriculum, and programmes and credits, in universities in Ireland, so that students could transfer between universities within Ireland but also outside within the EU.

UCD staff outlined there was little direct pressure on UCD to reform pre-2005. This was echoed by the Director of Academic Affairs at the Irish University Association, who indicated:

UCD had developed into a multi-speed, fragmented institution. That would be my assessment of it and not everyone had kept up with anywhere near the times. Some had and some were trying and some might not have been trying very hard. There was little pressure on them, as the perceived national leader in most areas, at least at undergraduate level and they were the first choice for many students across the country, so there was little impetus or external impetus for change.

Pre-2005, the policy process was described as 'bottom-up': individuals aware of Bologna *'had a go'*. Post-2005, interviewees acknowledged a top down approach was required to avail of the full strengths of modularisation. While modularisation was associated with a 'top-down' approach, a UCD Teaching Development Officer perceived more autonomy was awarded to individuals concurrently

... there is an interesting thing about autonomy because in one way it was very top down, in other words, it is was very like 'you have to have five credit [ECTS] modules, you have to have so many core, you have to write the module descriptor form in this way'. So that was prescriptive, no doubt and I suppose it had to be to all, again, to be equal.... But there was huge flexibility. In fact, it was very encouraged to choose whatever teaching and learning methods and assessment you wanted, within that. And in fact, I think all of staff were quite liberated within that structure...

Prior to modularisation, academic governance was the responsibility of the School. UCD's *'fragmented, multi-speed'* approach meant that then 11 'faculties' individually managed their programmes' duration, regulations and structure differently. Pre-2005, some Faculties introduced their own version of modularisation. There were pockets of modularisation but no unified university modular curriculum. Modularisation was the first widespread academic process, connecting academic and professional staff across all the disciplinary boundaries and levels of UCD. Due to the 'concurrent implementation' of the new modular curriculum and academic structures, 'opportunities and challenges' were presented (UCD, 2005c:1). Simultaneously, the eleven faculties were restructured. While modularisation was considered a programmatic initiative, it demanded centralised governance to exploit its full advantages. Pre-2005, each Faculty decided upon its programme structures at periodic Faculty meetings autonomously and made decisions regarding new programmes,

changes to programme regulations, etc. During the process of modularisation, School autonomy was devolved to a School Programme Board regarding low level decisions e.g. admissions, delivery, assessment and quality assurance. All programmes then had to be approved by a central body, the University Programme Board and then Academic Council (UCD School of Business, 2005).

The 'concurrent implementation' of a new modular curriculum and new academic structures, created different 'opportunities and challenges' for UCD and its management (UCD, 2005b:1). According to staff at the School of Business, the introduction of modularisation was associated with a more complex internal policy environment which was top-down, centrally driven and specifically associated with the appointment of a new Registrar. Despite a perceived strong identity within the university, interviewees at the UCD School of Business reported governance changes, including a more complex policy process, more bureaucracy, less flexibility for students and decreased School autonomy. The central university authorities became more involved, overseeing all academic governance. UCD staff interviewed reported a reconstitution at institutional level of policy capacity as the modular framework was constructed. Traditionally, power and authority in universities are dispersed (Birnbaum, 1991) but strategic changes at UCD, including its modular framework, facilitated the redirection of power centrally. As outlined, the policy process was fragmented with each Faculty managing its own rules and regulations, with no centralised policy core, facilitating a bottom-up approach to policy development by individuals. As the modular framework became more sophisticated, policy became centralised and driven from the top-down. Specific policy units and the development of a university policy capacity were developed and expertise recruited to formulate the modular framework, as outlined by the then Registrar:

The rationale for professionalizing the support of policy development in the university was to enable some strategic initiatives, such as, we want to modularise.

Governance for more routine policy areas was awarded at School level, with more strategic policy areas becoming the responsibility of central university units, as outlined in Table I.

**Table I - Governance Before and After Modularisation
At UCD School of Business**

In reviewing this policy's development, there is a notable absence of Irish national agencies, e.g. the Department of Education and Science (DES) and national Higher Education Authority. In this vacuum, UCD drew upon international agencies to inform its policy trajectory. Key policies underpinning UCD's reform included the EUA 2005 Sectoral Review and the 2004 OECD Review of Higher Education which were commissioned by the state agencies in the perceived absence of a national state policy field. The EC was also notable by being implicitly and explicitly involved in the dissemination of the Bologna agenda e.g. through staff engagement with the Tuning Process, EUA workshops, etc. Policies from 'benchmark' universities in the UK, USA and Canada, were also particularly influential. Despite an apparent vacuum state policy capacity encased by the DES and the HEA, UCD's modularisation led to the advancement of the institutional implementation of the Bologna Objectives. The

Bologna Objectives were perceived to be of critical importance by staff and in some cases, so pervasive that it was assumed to have a legislative mandate, as the dialogue with a senior member of staff here highlights:

Interviewee: I thought it [the Bologna Process] was legal? Is it not?

Interviewer: No, there is no legal mandate over education in the European Union, at all. It is through soft methods of compliance essentially.

Interviewee: No. Why were we signing up? No, why were we signing up to it. What was the big deal? That was the carrot, or thing or wand that was thrown by us that Bologna, was that we had to comply with.

Discussion

This paper recognises national, European and global policy fields. The evidence of the globalisation phenomenon within local and national contexts demonstrates how the policy process is affected from a bottom-up and top-down perspective and facilitates study of the 'pays réel' of the Bologna Process (Neave, 2005). Bourdieu's tools illuminate the reconstitution of policy fields outlined above. Lingard *et al.* (2005) argued that the quantity of 'national capital' retained by a nation is a determining factor in the resistance to the global field. This study highlights that the state passively engaged with external agencies, instigating reviews which premised national and institutional policy development. These external influences affected UCD to the extent that there was scope to negotiate an institutional response, of UCD as an institution and individual staff members, to these international organisations, e.g. OECD and the Bologna Process. It implies there was a way for UCD to respect the role of these institutions without accepting their entire ideological agenda. It implies that the agenda is not entirely defined by these external agencies, but also by the capital of UCD as an institution. To date, the concept of institutional capital has not been proposed in the literature. It captures how an institution with a strong historical background and relative autonomy from the state engaged directly with the global and European policy fields. Institutional capital describes the capital retained by UCD contributing to its actions; including its resistance and advances in policy development.

If the argument of the constituted global policy field is sustained (and it appears it is), this research proposes a consequent reconstitution of the local education policy field. UCD's policy capacity and at least one of its schools was reconstituted as the university responded to internal and external policy agendas. In reviewing the different policy spaces or 'policy fields', Bourdieu's concepts provides tools to investigate this complex dynamic. The use of Bourdieu's concepts of field convey a sense of determinism, overlooking the role of key individuals. The introduction of modularisation to UCD demonstrates that the agency of individuals, still wield some 'willful power' in policy production (Ritzer & Goodman, 2003:534), despite the global educational policy field's influence. This study highlights the reconstitution of the local policy field and rescaled institutional governance, resulting from engagement with the global and regional higher education policy fields. It provides empirical evidence that Irish higher education is not primarily shaped by the nation state, as suggested by de Wit (2002) and Enders (2004). UCD had a significant amount of institutional capital and autonomy to determine its policy trajectory, particularly within the Bologna Process. For example, UCD leveraged its strengths,

including its size and disciplinary breadth, to develop its brand of modularisation called 'UCD Horizons' compatible with the Bologna objectives.

The policy 'harmonisation' of module offerings brought about convergence of policy and practice (McNeeley & Yun-Kyung, 1994; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). The process of modularisation inculcated consistency across the university to ensure transfer across programmes but also the potential for module transfer at a national and international level. Here a 'vernacular globalisation' (Appadurai, 1996) appeared in two phases: first as the university's developed its model of modularisation; and second when modularisation encountered existing programmes in the respective students. Often the term vernacular globalisation insinuates the national adaption of a global policy in a top down fashion and might be used to label UCD's experience. However, modularisation is the domestication of a global policy by an institution in a bottom-up fashion; the policy agenda was set by the Senior Management Team at UCD in response to local, national, international and global pressures. This occurred in a national context where the state was not a dominant actor. This current utilisation of the term vernacular globalisation does not capture this dimension as it often refers to the nation state's adaptation of a global fashion, not an institution's. A university appears to be a unique entity in the Irish education field context, as apart from universities, very few institutions have the necessary autonomy and resources to initiate and implement 'vernacularisation' of policy. Here, the conceptual device 'global vernacularisation' is a more appropriate description to highlight the influence of a global process at the level of the institution and within certain parts of the institution. UCD adopted the policy of modularisation and instituted it into the organisation, in response to a largely internally generated reform agenda.

Vernacularised education policy (Ozga and Lingard, 2006) suggests a divergence thesis where international policies are mediated by the nation to provide a unique policy and presumes evidence of a strong national field. They argued that nation states develop mechanisms in relation to the process of globalisation by engaging with the developing logic of the education field. This presupposes the national field as the primary point of response, rather than the institution. This case demonstrates how an apparently weak national state policy field existed during a strong institutional response due to institutional capital. It could highlight that institutional policy and national policy did not kept pace with each other. Equally, it could be that national governments are happy to sign up to the Bologna Process as a means of bringing external pressure/rationalisation to bring about domestic changes that they could not otherwise have achieved.

Perhaps Ireland experienced the lack of a policy capacity for multiple reasons, as a small peripheral country which traditionally was intrinsically influenced by the production of policy by external influences, the protection of university autonomy in the Universities Act 1997 or third level education was seen as of less political importance than other education sectors and was accordingly less well resourced to formulate policy. This coupled with the universities' statutory autonomy and national disposition to look externally for policy developments, contributed to its delicate national higher education policy field. In this study, the state itself reacted to the competitive global higher education market by seeking a policy agenda from external agencies operating at European and global level. Ireland experienced the lack of a policy capacity for multiple reasons, perhaps including the habitus of Ireland, as a

small peripheral country which traditionally was intrinsically influenced by the production of policy by external influences, the protection of university autonomy in the Universities Act 1997 or third level education was seen as of less political importance than other education sectors and was accordingly less well resourced to formulate policy. This coupled with the universities' statutory autonomy and a national disposition to look externally for policy developments, contributed to its delicate national higher education policy field.

Conclusion

This research investigated how supranational processes and policy making affected UCD's policy production as it implemented a policy of modularisation. This case demonstrates the embedding of a policy of internationalisation arising from a global discourse and the pursuit of the 'European Education Space', demonstrating trans-national changes in governance of national system policy actors. It shows the effects of globalisation manifest in UCD's modular policy responded to internally generated reform and agencies external to the state. The pursuit and implementation of this policy demonstrates the capacity of non-national political structures, e.g. the EUA, OECD and Bologna Process, to shape not only national policy (Henry, *et al.*, 2001) but also institutional policy. This study highlights the fluid nature of policy making, involving diffuse actors from within and outside of the nation-state and demonstrating the Irish nation-state's increasingly nuanced role. In this case, this role may be less influential than anticipated in the literature for a number of reasons, particularly the Universities Act 1997.

As this university engaged with dominant global discourses, specifically internationalisation, they had a tangible effect on UCD's policy process. Modularisation, as a policy originating outside of the state, was endorsed by a number of external agencies and was perceived to attend to a number of national and institutional policy agendas, including internationalisation. In response to modularisation and a number of associated reforms, academic governance was rescaled at UCD. A reconstitution of the local policy field was instituted, as UCD engaged with the global policy field. A recalibration in the power relations within the university also ensued impacting on university governance and its policy capacity. Thus, the policy of modularisation was not only about pedagogical programmatic developments but changes in academic governance. Researching the local policy process provided empirical evidence of the policy relationship between the university and national, regional and global policy agents. This revealed a complex policy process predicated upon an intricate web of influences from within and outside the state. This transverse sectional approach highlights the university's autonomy from the state, especially regarding teaching and learning policy, and emphasises the absence of explicit state involvement from this publicly funded institution. This autonomy from the educational national state field occurred for a number of likely reasons: primarily the statutory independence of Irish universities and institutional habitus. This study demonstrates that Appadurai's (1996) term 'vernacular globalisation' does not sufficiently reflect UCD's experience, as it tends to refer to the state's adaption of a global policy. It assumes a more active state involvement in the policy process. Consequently, the term 'global vernacularisation' captures how an institution adapts a policy originating outside of the nation. This research reconceptualises the effects of globalisation with a 'bottom-up' approach to highlight the effect of the global and European fields on the local policy process. It

demonstrates the need for investigations into education policy processes and their ramifications in light of the increasingly pervasive global policy agenda affecting higher education institutions, not only in Europe but worldwide.

Notes

'Faculties' existed in UCD until 2005. In 2005, the university was restructured and the number of faculties reduced. The Faculty of Commerce became the School of Business in 2005.

In Ireland, under the Universities Act 1997, universities retain autonomy for management of their own affairs. The Higher Education Authority is a statutory body under this Act and the Higher Education Authority Act 1971. The HEA Act (S3, a-e) awards general functions for higher education development and assisting in the co-ordination of State investment in higher education.

The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, light blue circular arc that is partially visible, suggesting a larger circle. There are also some faint, overlapping red and blue curved lines in the background of the page.

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Table 1 Governance Before and After Modularisation

Policy Process	Before	After
Responsibility for Policy Production	At School level in consultation with the Registrar's Office (i.e. 'Centre').	Centrally reviewed in conjunction with School.
Support of policy centrally	Ad hoc between School and 'Centre'	Policy Officers appointed centrally. Academic and Policy Development Unit' established. Vice-Principals for Teaching and Learning appointed.
Uniformity of Programme Structure	Fragmented and varied per programme	Generally uniform; some opportunity for derogations
Involvement of Academic Staff	All academic staff	Restricted to Programme Board members and election to university committees
Regulatory Framework	Regulations for each academic programme	Single University Regulations with limited derogations
School Governance	Through a School Faculty meeting and then centrally approved	More centrally focused with devolution of responsibility for issues, e.g. admissions; leave of absence, etc. through a Programme Board. Greater central responsibility and involvement in programme governance and development
Programmes consistent with Bologna objectives and ECTS	Ad hoc across programmes and Faculties.	Yes

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1. Introduction

Exposure to multicultural children's literature has been shown to be important to bolster the self-esteem and the cultural identity of children from diverse ethnic backgrounds (Louie 2006). It can also have a marking influence on their success when they are learning to read (Hughes-Hassell & Cox 2010). Moreover, for all children, including natives, images that are embedded in stories and illustrations of multicultural books can contribute to define their beliefs and attitudes regarding diversity (Yenika-Agbaw 2011). Hence, well chosen, multicultural literature can be profitable for all children.

During the last thirty years, the demographics of the French Canadian population have been through tremendous changes due in great part to immigration from all around the world. But despite the increasing diversity that came to enrich the cultural mosaic of Canada, little is known about the representations of multiculturalism in French Canadian children's literature. Multicultural literature "refers to books about specific cultural groups considered to be outside of the dominant sociopolitical culture" (Yoon, Simpson & Haag 2010, p. 110). In the present study, we refer more specifically to picture books in which representations of people who are part of visible minorities can be found. Those picture books can be the work of authors and illustrators who are themselves representatives of a visible minority or part of the mainstream culture (Ritcher 2011).

Bourdieu & Passeron (1977) sustain that the ideologies of the society are embedded in children's literature. Hence, through their exposure to multicultural picture books, youngsters can be exposed to ideologies concerning multiculturalism which may have a marking influence on their developing mind. Being exposed to cultural diversity, even through picture books, can bring children to reassess their opinions, doubts or fears towards those who are different from them (Nieto & Bode 2012). For those reason, when choosing multicultural books for children, it is important to take a critical stance toward the ideologies that they are conveying in regard to multiculturalism.

The present study aimed to analyse picture books published by French Canadian editors between 2003 and 2012. First, we evaluated the occurrences of the representations of people from visible minorities. Then we identified the ideologies conveyed in picture books in which they were represented. After exposing the context and the theoretical framework of this study, we will present the methodology, followed by the results, the discussion and the concluding comments.

2. Context

Since the 1980's, French Canadian children's literature has seen an unprecedented growth with more and more editors showing an interest in this part of the literary market. This period coincides with a growing awareness of the multicultural composition of

Canadian society and the rapid demographic changes that have occurred in Canada. According to Statistics Canada (2009), an important influx of migration from Asia, Africa, South and Central America, the Caribbean and the Oceania has taken place over the last three decades. With respect to linguistic diversity, Canada has two official languages – French and English. Even if the English language is predominant, many newcomers are joining the francophone communities to live their lives. As for its ideology of multiculturalism, Canada prides itself at home and abroad as a country made up of a cultural mosaic. The mosaic metaphor is based on the belief that Canada as a whole becomes stronger by having immigrants bring with them their cultural diversity for all Canadians to learn from (Levine & Serbeh-Dunn 1999).

If children's literature is a reflexion of society (Bourdieu & Passeron 1977), it is not surprising that some researchers have found that the French Canadian children's literature of the past decades has been influenced by the new realities regarding Canada's cultural diversity. Altogether, these studies sustain that there is an increasing representation of visible minorities in French Canadian children's literature and that those protagonists are most often represented in positive manners. However, those conclusions have been drawn from only a few studies that were conducted with samples of novels for the intermediate or adolescent readers (Pouliot 1994; Romney 2005; Sorin 2004). Therefore, they are offering an optimistic, but incomplete portrait of multiculturalism in French Canadian children's literature.

Picture books, usually intended to youngsters, also convey ideologies regarding multiculturalism (McNair & Brooks 2012). In fact, picture books are considered to be important social tools at a time when attitudes and stereotypes towards others begin to take form in the developing minds of young children. It has been shown that they are particularly influenced by implicit ideologies that can be found in the texts and images of picture books (Nieto & Bode 2012). However, research on Canadian children's literature fails to inform us in regards to ideologies that are conveyed in picture books, especially in picture books that have been published recently in the French language.

3. Theoretical framework

The foundation of the present study is anchored in two theories that are recognized as being significant in the field of multicultural education. Bringing them together offers a larger spectrum in order to get a deeper understanding of multicultural ideologies that can be found in picture books.

a. The assimilationist ideology and the pluralistic ideologies

The work of Grant, and Sleeter (Sleeter & Grant 1987, Grant & Sleeter 2009), considered as a cornerstone in the field of multicultural education, provides a framework that identifies the ideologies presented by the multicultural literature. The authors describe five approaches to multicultural education that commonly occur in educational settings. But like Yoon et al. (2010), we used only the two that were more aligned with the study of multicultural representations in literature. Those two approaches are clearly rooted in

distinctive ideologies. The first approach is the assimilationist ideology, while the second one is the pluralistic ideology.

The assimilationist ideology gives rise to educational practices that help visible minority students master the elements of the traditional school curriculum destined to everyone. The main principle of this approach is to encourage visible minority students to adjust to prevailing standards in the ultimate goal of taking part in the economic development of society. This ideology stresses the importance of fairness, but it is attainable only if visible minorities acquire the knowledge and skills that allow them to blend in with the dominant culture. This approach is not addressed to all students, but only those who are "culturally different." Such an ideology can be recognized in children's books that feature visible minorities characters. It is expressed by the development of conformity to prevailing norms for achieving success or, for deterrence to use the specific culture of origin.

Unlike the assimilationist ideology, the ideology of cultural pluralism takes into account the education of all students, indifferently of their cultural and ethnic background. According to Grant and Sleeter (2009), such an ideology sometimes requires significant changes in the school environment so that all stakeholders and all students can be made aware of the importance of human diversity to society. This ideology is also concerned with equity. To achieve that goal, it promotes dialogue that challenges hegemonic values. Discussions on the cultural identity of minority groups, as well as that of the dominant groups are encouraged and are designed to promote understanding of others for all students. Multicultural youth literature that supports the ideology of cultural pluralism presents characters of visible minorities that is free of stereotypes. In these books, the cultural differences that are specific to each group in question are valued.

b. Bishop's typology

The work of Bishop (1982, 2003), although dealing more specifically with children's literature for African Americans in the United States, provides a complementary aspect for identifying the ideologies promoted by the multicultural children's literature in which minority groups are represented. In his seminal study, Bishop (1982) developed a typology that took into account the cultural background of the authors and their ideological intent, that is to say, the prospect for which their work is produced. This typology includes three main categories that are used to classify literary works as they promote social consciousness, the melting pot or cultural consciousness.

According to Bishop (1982), the children's books that focus on the development of social consciousness present characters of colour, but they are written by white adults for the benefit of white children in order to help them understand children of colour. Written from an "outsider" perspective, these books sometimes lack authenticity, in addition to portraying stereotypes vis-à-vis minority groups.

Children's books that are promoting a melting pot ideology are also written by the authors of the majority, from an "outsider" perspective. These books, in which the characters of colour are found alongside white people, deal with universal themes such as friendship,

family, school and daily activities. The books depict whites and non-whites together without differentiating among them and show people of colour to be no different than whites other than skin colour. Moreover, these books often lack of authenticity regarding expressive language, references to religion or food. In fact, only the illustrations are showing some ethnic or racial differences, which are often largely exaggerated in a stereotypical manner. Based on the text alone, these differences would not be noticeable.

Finally, books that are promoting cultural consciousness are written by authors that are themselves from minority groups. They are written from an “insider” perspective, intended primarily for minorities’ children. These books carefully and authentically describe their life experiences. The authors refer to the culture in their writings by including songs, sayings, phrases, names and nicknames specific to the culture of the group represented.

4. Research questions

The first part of this research was basically a quantitative analysis. This was done mainly in order to seek the occurrence of representations of visible minorities in French Canadian picture books. As for the second part, qualitative analysis of picture books in which visible minorities were represented was used to identify the ideologies that were conveyed. More specifically, we intended to answer the following questions:

- 1) What percentage of picture books published by French Canadian editors from 2003 to 2012 feature people from visible minorities? What groups are represented and to what extent?
- 2) What is the racial or ethnic background of the authors and illustrators of these picture books?
- 3) In picture books in which there are members of visible minorities, what are the ideologies that are conveyed regarding multiculturalism?

5. Methodology

Content analysis was the method retained for this study. The unit of analysis was the individual picture book. From a quarterly journal dedicated to reviewing all the French children’s books published in Canada, we were able to make a list of the picture books published by French Canadian editors between 2003 and 2012. As much as 1,132 books were identified.

In order to answer the first two questions of the study, each picture book was analysed independently by two assistants and the researcher to record the following information: race or ethnicity of the characters, race or ethnicity of the authors and the illustrators (mostly obtained by online research) as well as bibliographic information. Following a classification developed by Hughes-Hassell and Cox (2010), the picture books were then classified into categories regarding the representations of different races and ethnicities. Inter-rater agreements for those categories were between 88.7 and 100 per cent.

To answer the third question of the research, only the picture books in which there were multicultural representations were considered. A first analysis of those picture books was conducted in light of Sleeter and Grant's framework (Sleeter & Grant 2009). To do so, the assistants and the researcher work independently to retrieve excerpts from each picture book in order to determine which ideology was prevailing: the assimilationist ideology or the pluralistic ideology. In cases where neither of those ideologies was clearly prevailing, picture books were classified as being neutral. A second analysis was done by using Bishop's typology (Bishop 1982). Picture books were classified into three categories, being social conscious, melting pot or culturally conscious. Again, some excerpts were retrieved in order to demonstrate which ideology was predominant. To validate their judgements, the three evaluators held a meeting to discuss their classifications. Disagreements among evaluators were resolved by discussion.

6. Results

Descriptive data, reported in form of frequencies and percentages, are presented to answer the two first questions of the study. To answer the third question, we are presenting the results of our classifications and we are giving a few examples of excerpts from the picture books.

For answering the first question of the study, 338 picture books were excluded from the sample of 1,132 picture books because they did not show human figures. Thus, only 794 picture books were considered to enable us to answer this question which aims to determine the proportion of picture books in which there were representations of visible minorities. Data that are presented in Table 1 are showing that in the 794 picture books in which there were human beings, people of visible minorities were represented in 43 (5.4 %) picture books altogether. The details regarding the distribution of those 43 picture books between different racial or ethnic backgrounds appear in the table. It is to be noted that white people were present in 756 (95.21 %) picture books that were analysed. For 20 (2.52 %) picture books, we were unable to identify which racial or ethnic groups were represented.

- Insert Table 1 -

The data in Table 2 give us answers to the second research question regarding racial or ethnic background of the authors and illustrators. Data were computed from the 1,132 picture books in order to take into account the work of most of the creators involved in the production of French Canadian picture books. We can see that only 16 (1.41 %) picture books were written by authors that are part of a visible minority group and that 30 (2.65 %) of them were illustrated by a member of a visible minority. On the other hand, 1,087 (96 %) of those picture books were written by a white author and 1 060 (93.6 %) were illustrated by a white illustrator.

- Insert Table 2 -

The third question of the study brings us to consider the multicultural ideologies conveyed in the 43 picture books in which visible minorities were found. As mentioned earlier, two classification systems have enabled us to answer this last question.

We made a first classification of the 43 picture books according to their dominant ideology, as defined by Grant & Sleeter (2009). We found eight picture books (18.6%) that promoted assimilationist ideology while 21 others (48.8%) supported the ideology of cultural pluralism. Fourteen picture books (32.6%) were considered to be neutral because no ideologies seemed to be predominant.

The assimilationist ideology was clearly illustrated in *Château de neige* [*Snow castle*] (Bolté 2005) when Aïxa, a young girl from Haïti, arrived in Canada in the dead of winter. At school, she was told by the teacher that to be accepted by her classmates, she would have to pronounce her words by taking the accent of her new country. The assimilation to the linguistic norm is evident when, after a few weeks of practice, Aïxa expresses her joy that at last, she is speaking like everybody else in the classroom. The assimilation of the young girl is a sure thing, but to the detriment of her own cultural background.

An example of cultural pluralism can be found in *Le kimono de Suki* [*Suki's kimono*] (Uegaki 2003). Suki, a second generation Canadian of Japanese descent, decides to wear the kimono she just received from her grandmother for the first day of school. As soon as she arrives at school, she gets teased by other children. In class, the teacher asks every kid to talk about a special thing they did during summer time. Then, Suki has the opportunity to talk about her costume and to teach her classmates a traditional dance that she learned from her grandmother. Her classmates applaud with admiration and join her in her dance. At the end of the story, we can see that the young girl is very proud of her cultural origins. This picture book, written from an “insider” perspective, is a celebration of a minority’s culture.

The second classification in regard to multiculturalism ideologies was made according to the work of Bishop (1982). The picture books were classified as being part of social consciousness, melting pot or cultural consciousness. In all, there were 31 picture books (72.1%) supporting the development of social consciousness, eight picture books (18.6%) promoting the melting pot and four picture books (9.3%) promoting the development of cultural consciousness.

Une petite bouteille jaune [*A small yellow bottle*] (Delaunoy 2010) is an example of a picture book conveying a social consciousness ideology. Through the words of a child from the Middle East, the story tells the sad reality of children who are victims of anti-personnel bombs. The French Canadian author (with French European origins) provides an “outsider” perspective of an important issue that has a marking influence on the lives of children from a foreign country. It is to be noted that this picture book does not seem to convey any stereotypical images even if it is written from an “outsider” perspective. The accent is not on cultural differences, but on the courage of those young victims.

Three picture books from the same collection are examples of the melting pot ideology. In *La promenade* [*The stroll*] (Brière 2006), *La sieste* [*Nap time*] (Brière 2007) and *La*

collation [Lunch time] (Brière 2008), activities of children in a daycare centre are described. In each of those picture books, we can see a young Asian girl and a young Black girl among other children. However, no mention of their cultural origins can be found in the texts. It is noteworthy that at nap time, the young Black girl holds a white doll dearly to her heart. As for the young Asian girl, she invents a bedtime story, but the characters we see in cartoons, are all whites. Those picture books, written from an “outsider” perspective, do not value the cultural diversity of the visible minorities’ characters.

Cultural consciousness ideology can be found in *Je suis fou de Vava [I am crazy about Vava]* (Laferrière, 2006). The renowned Canadian author, originally from Haïti, relates the life of a young haïtian boy and his grandmother living in the village of Petit-Goâve, the town where the author was born. Written from an “insider” perspective, the descriptions of events, both in text and illustrations, seem to reflect the personal experiences of the characters with authenticity. For example, numbers of sayings are reflecting the grandmother’s wisdom.

7. Discussion

By conducting this research, we wanted to know if the Canadian multicultural mosaic was reflected in children’s picture books that were published in the French language from 2003 to 2012. We took into account the representativeness of the visible minorities in those picture books as well as the cultural origins of their authors and illustrators. In Canada, people who are part of a visible minority represent 20 % of the population. Since only 5.4 % of the picture books are showing people from visible minorities, it can be said that there is an important gap between Canada’s demographic reality and the representativeness of diversity in the French Canadian picture books.

Romney (2005) sustained that in the 1990’s it was possible to witness a growing representation of people from visible minorities in children’s literature. As for Sorin (2004), she underlined that many books for the youth that were written by authors from various cultural backgrounds were published by French Canadian editors. We can rejoice to the fact that those studies, conducted on novels for intermediate and adolescent readers, could underline the multicultural spirit of the French Canadian children’s literature. However, the cultural mosaic of Canada does not seem to express itself with as much emphasis in picture books that were edited between 2003 and 2012. In fact, our results sustain that chances are slim for French Canadian youngsters who are part of the visible minorities to come across a French Canadian picture book in which their cultural origins are celebrated; in short, a picture book in which they can recognize themselves.

Results of this study are showing a scarcity of authors and illustrators that are themselves part of minority groups. As stated by McNair & Brook (2012) cultural background of the author and the illustrator is an important factor to consider in view of the quality of picture books, since it can influence the cultural authenticity of their work. For this reason, it seems sensible to encourage editors to publish more works from multicultural authors and illustrators. Nevertheless, mainstream authors and illustrators who are

conscientious about authentic representations of multiculturalism are also able to produce high-quality multicultural picture books, as long as their work is grounded in well documented research (Louie 2006).

Our findings bring us to underline the need to heighten public awareness, in particular for parents and educators, of the important impact that under representations of the visible minorities can have on children. The effects are not only related to their developing ideologies about multiculturalism, but also to the success of minorities' children who are learning to read.

Influences of multicultural literature on minorities' children's reading abilities

The role of the motivation in learning to read has been demonstrated many times (e.i. Guthrie, Klauda & Ho 2013). In this regard, it is well known that readers are more interested in texts that are reflecting their personal experiences. Hence, reading could be considered as an irrelevant activity for readers that are rarely able to relate to the characters, as it could be the case for the French Canadian youngsters that are part of visible minorities. It is possible to see disengagement from literacy activities in these children if they never have the chance to recognize themselves in picture books that are presented to them. On the other hand, when picture books are showing characters that look like them and whose stories are reflecting their own cultural or personal experiences, they can relate to reading as a reflection of their own life, which could be a motivational factor in learning to read. Multicultural literature has also been shown to be related to children's reading comprehension. As any other readers, to understand a text, minorities' children have to be able to establish some links between what they are reading and their prior knowledge. In fact, Gangi (2008) has shown that when they interact with texts that are reflecting their cultural experiences, reading performance of minorities' children improves significantly.

Given the influences of multicultural literature on children, we can only wish for more high-quality multicultural picture books in the French language. In the mean time, it is important to consider what can be done to compensate for the paucity that is observed in that area. Parents and educators have to be advocates on behalf of the children in demanding for more multicultural children's literature in the French language. By providing an access to multicultural literature, minorities' children will succeed both socially and educationally. In the spirit of the cultural mosaic of Canada, they will feel included and valued in the Canadian society. Also, all Canadian children are enriched by having access to a multicultural literature. However, awareness of these matters seems to be lacking in the part of French Canadians editors that are publishing children's picture books.

8. Conclusion

Imagine a child who, throughout his childhood, does not encounter any books in which he can identify with the characters. Imagine also that the books that are presented to him tirelessly tell him that white people are the heroes of this world. Being unable to identify

with books, the message he receives is clear: his story and the one of his peers are not important enough to be written in books. We know that the effects on the development of self-concept and self-esteem (Hughes-Hassell & Cox 2010) as well as his learning to read (Gangi 2008) can be devastating. Yet despite the growing number of young Canadians who are part of visible minorities, the production of children's literature over the past decade does not reflect this evolution of Canadian society. The gap is such that drastic measures would be necessary to achieve a fair representation of visible minorities in the picture books. One can only hope that authors and illustrators, being from visible minorities or not, would be aware of the urgency of the situation and that they will react by creating more picture books of high quality in order to give visible minorities their rightful place. All Canadian children would benefit from this, especially visible minority children.

Finally, we can say that in Canada, there are few French picture books published from 2003 to 2012 that are representing members of visible minorities. In addition, minority authors and illustrators are not legion. Regarding the ideologies conveyed in picture books vis-à-vis multiculturalism, some promote cultural pluralism, cultural consciousness and social consciousness. However, some hold assimilationist ideologies while others present cultural diversity as a melting pot, which does not correspond to the values of Canadian multicultural mosaic society. We believe it is important to get children to think critically against ideologies that are proposed in multicultural books. As Cai (2008) pointed out, literature can help children to understand themselves and to be open to cultural diversity. In this regard, the role of parents, teachers and educators who are choosing children's books can be decisive. Adults should be well advised in order to support the development of critical thinking of the children they are responsible for.

Further research is needed to better define the ideologies that drive literature towards multiculturalism. This aspect of the research seems to have been largely neglected by Canadian researchers. In particular, it seems imperative to focus on the representation of First Nation people in children's literature. Being excluded from visible minorities, it seems that they deserve special attention in order to achieve a greater understanding of cultural representations in Canadian children's literature. Finally, since reading is a process of constructing meaning, it is important to conduct research with an interest in interpretations made by children who have the opportunity to be exposed to multicultural books. Since this literature leads to an opening to others, it would be interesting to see how it can influence social relationships in an environment where multicultural perspective is highly diversified.

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Table 1
Racial / Ethnic groups represented in picture books

Racial or ethnic group	Number of picture books (N=794)	
	n	(%)
Black	11	(1.39)
Hispanic	2	(0.25)
Maghrebi	4	(0.50)
Japanese	2	(0.25)
Chinese	4	(0.50)
Philippino	5	(0.63)
South-East Asian	4	(0.50)
West Asian	4	(0.50)
South Asian	0	(0.00)
Koreans	0	(0.00)
Multiples representations	7	(0.88)
White	731	(92.01)
Unknown	20	(2.52)

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Table 2
Racial or ethnic origins of authors and illustrators

Racial or ethnic group	Author N=1,132 n (%)	Illustrator N=1,132 n (%)
Chinese	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
South Asian	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Philippino	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
South-East Asian	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
West Asian	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Korean	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Japanese	1 (0.09)	2 (0.18)
Black	3 (0.27)	1 (0.09)
Hispanic	4 (0.35)	7 (0.62)
Maghrebi	8 (0.71)	20 (1.77)
White	1,086 (95.94)	1,060 (93.64)
Unknown	30 (2.65)	42(3.71)

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*Academic Writing in Computer-mediated Communication:
Student Attitudes and Expectations*

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Introduction

Information and communication technology has dramatically changed how information is being exchanged and the way we communicate. People are using their computers, tablets or phones while surfing the Internet, replying emails, visiting websites, looking for information and so on. Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter and WeChat are also used as a global tool for communication. When digital devices are so popular everywhere, they have also changed the way we teach and learn gradually. Educational institutions have introduced a wide range of technological learning equipment/platform and teachers have tried to organize various kinds of online learning activities for students. A new teaching and learning mode has thus emerged and will continue to evolve. While everyone is so keen on digital devices for various purposes like learning and fun, it is also important to understand how these devices help students learn and whether they are effective to learning. Therefore, this paper aims to investigate the student attitudes towards and expectation of language learning with the use of the digital devices and online activities.

Theoretical Framework

In this research, constructivism and interactivity are the key principles of using technologies to create a good pedagogical environment for language teaching and learning. In constructivist theory of learning, there are Piaget's cognitive constructivism, Dewey's theory of experiential education, Bruner's theory of active learning, and Vygotsky's social constructivism. Piaget's theory (1973) stated that learners learn 'naturally' through their interaction with the environment but not through information given by the teacher. Another theory suggested by Dewey (1963) pointed out that knowledge is created by the learners themselves, but is not the result of Piaget's cognitive development. In addition to Dewey, Bruner (1990) also stressed that learners construct new ideas based upon their current/past knowledge while Vygotsky (1978) emphasized that learning must be taken place in a social environment.

Since 'knowledge cannot be taught but must be constructed by the learner' (Candy, 1991, p.35), it is important to provide an appropriate environment where learners can interact with others so as to gain knowledge. This corresponds to the distinguishing features of ICT. With ICT's five distinguishing features (i.e. text-based and computer-mediated interaction, many-to-many communication, time- and place-independence, long distance exchanges, and hypermedia links) (Warschauer, 1997), teachers can make good use of computer/online activities to provide the learning environment for students to learn because 'Computer activities can serve as a catalyst that brings students together to interact, negotiate meaning, and negotiate strategies related to the task at hand' (Johnson, 1985, p.5). From the perspective of second language learning,

computer activities especially writing are crucial and effective. For instance, “when students have daily access to Internet-connected laptops, they conduct more background research for their writing; they write, revise, and publish more; they get more feedback on their writing; they write in a wider variety of genres and formats; and they produce higher quality writing” (Warschauer, 2010, p.221). Computer activities, in this regard, can help students construct their knowledge. This corresponds to the fact that constructivist theory views effective learning as ‘active’ learning. If knowledge is constructed uniquely within each individual through processes of social interaction, learning will be most effective especially when students are fully involved in decisions about the content and processes of learning and engaged in communicative activities (Benson, 2001). In this sense, social interaction can be appropriately provided with the virtual learning platform through which students can take charge of their learning content and process. They can determine when, what and how to do with the provided online resources and gradually construct their knowledge.

It is not uncommon to integrate online activities into traditional teaching and learning. While we believe that computer activities can help students learn better, it is essential to examine their attitudes and expectations because researches showed that student attitudes towards web-based learning are important to effective web-based instruction (Peng et al., 2006, Tsai, 2009, Tsai et al., 2001 and Yang and Tsai, 2008). In order to understand the effectiveness of the computer activities, the objective of this research is to investigate student perceptions of the application of digital devices and online activities, and their expectation in using ICT for learning. Since constructivist theory view teachers as facilitators, it is also significant to study the role of teachers in the application of ICT for teaching and learning.

Background

A group of 22 students studying English for Academic Studies II (EAS II) in a tertiary institution was chosen as the subjects for the research. The module is a core subject for all students during their first year and they are required to complete an academic research project, which is the main assessment component of the course. To help them collect relevant information, read relevant literature and write the research paper, a series of related online activities including posting & sharing relevant online articles, discussion, writing activities (i.e. reading articles, exchanging opinions and giving comments) and grammar exercises was designed and implemented in the second semester of their study. To align with constructivism and interactivity, the students were given freedom to choose what to study, how to investigate, and what to write. All the activities were not compulsory but strongly recommended to complete

according to their own pace. By working in a group of four or five, they could exchange information/ideas and enjoy all benefits of group work.

This research is designed to:

- examine students perceptions of using ICT for doing the research paper
- find out their expectation of learning with ICT
- study their perceptions of the role of teachers during their learning process

A questionnaire was distributed to a class of 22 business students at the end of the semester. The questionnaire, which was modified from the questionnaire developed by Gregor et al (2008), includes 55 closed- and open- ended questions and covers 3 sections including students' perception of ICT, their expectation of learning through ICT and the role of the teacher. The questionnaire was designed with reference to Likert scale. 1 stands for 'Strongly Agree', 2 'Agree', 3 'Disagree' and 4 'Strongly Disagree'.

Results & Discussion

Student Perception of ICT

Students have favorable attitudes towards using ICT for their study. As showed in Table 1, students agreed to the statements. ICT could help enhance their pace of work, make it easier for them to follow the course and pass the course. Besides, they had a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom and developed social relationship with their group with the use of ICT. Above all, they thought that ICT helped them do their academic homework better and faster. In a nutshell, these not only reflected the effectiveness of ICT in teaching and learning but also showed the advantages of using ICT in teaching and learning. In addition to Warschauer's comments about ICT's features, ICT can act as a good tool to help create a pleasant learning environment/classroom and build up social relationship among students. These are extremely important to motivate students to learn.

Table 1: Student Perception of ICT

	Mean
1. ICT help to generate a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom	2.3
2. ICT allow me to publicly show what I do for the subjects.	2
3. ICT can enhance the pace of work.	1.9
4. ICT facilitate my social relationship with the group	2.1
5. ICT help me to follow the course	2.2
6. ICT make it easier for me to pass the course.	2.3
7. ICT help me do my academic homework better.	1.7
8. ICT help me do my academic homework faster.	1.8

Needless to say, ICT have positive impacts on teaching and learning. But how can ICT be used to facilitate students' learning? In this research, a virtual learning platform, Moodle, was used. This platform contains a lot of common functions such as bulletin board, forum, message, resources storage, communication and so on. In the open-ended questions, students pointed out that there were many useful functions in Moodle. Table 2 summarized all favorite functions students had mentioned. Among all, they liked to download notes and exercises and check latest information most when they accessed to Moodle. And the common functions they like to use included checking emails and downloading notes and exercises.

Table 2: Functions Students like to use

Upload notes and exercises	Message function
Check latest information	Exam papers (a link to official college database)
Download notes	Online exercises
Forum	Well-organized notes
Instant communication	Record of notes and materials
Library (a link to official college library)	View online notes

With the functions Moodle can provide, they liked using Moodle for learning as reflected in Table 3. They also thought that Moodle could make their learning easier and better. Moreover, Moodle was useful for them to learn the subject and facilitated their overall learning. More importantly, they found the pre-designed online activities placed into Moodle useful and effective for their study, especially research project. The online activities included searching for relevant online articles, sharing and discussion, writing comments and summary about the articles and grammar exercises.

In other words, they thought that the online exercises and task could help them to study better in the module.

Table 3: Student Perception of Moodle

	Mean
10. I like using Moodle for learning.	2.2
11. Moodle is useful for me to learn the subject.	2.3
12. Moodle makes my learning easier.	2.2
13. Moodle makes my learning better.	2.3
14. Moodle facilitates my overall learning.	2.2
15. The online task (i.e. searching for secondary resources, discussion and writing) is helpful for me to do the research project.	1.9
16. The online exercises (i.e. language skills) can help consolidate my knowledge.	2.1

One important point worthy to note is that students thought that their success relied on what the teacher did through ICT and in the classroom (See Table 4). More students thought that their success of learning relied much more on the teacher rather than themselves or their classmates (group mates). This reflects that students are dependent learners and they did not think that they were solely responsible for their studies. This then not only undermines their willingness to study but also impairs their learning. As Candy (1991) said, active learning means effective learning. If they put the responsibility on their teachers, it is difficult for them to achieve good learning outcomes. Especially when we talk about language learning, it requires a lot of personal effort and time. To rectify students' perception about learning or success of learning, teachers may need to design exercises or tasks which can gradually lead them to take charge of their own learning. Independent language learning should be applied in this regard.

Table 4: Student Perception of Success

	Mean
17. I believe the success of my learning depends on what I do with ICT.	2.5
18. I believe the success of my learning depends on what my classmates do with ICT.	2.5
19. I believe the success of my learning depends on what the teacher does in the classroom.	2.2
20. I believe the success of my learning depends on what the teacher does through ICT.	2.2

Students' Expectation of Learning with ICT

Students generally liked to use ICT for learning and they want to use various digital devices including computer, tablet, mobile phone, and the web to help them to study in the college. As showed in Table 5, students liked to use a computer or a tablet for English study and to create documents and multimedia presentations. In addition, they liked to use a mobile phone for various functions such as sending or receiving messages/emails and accessing web based information or services. Other than the hardware and software, they also liked to use the web and Moodle for learning. Among all functions that the web offers, they usually liked to use online dictionaries and Google to look up or search for information. It is clear that they have favorable attitudes towards using ICT for learning. However, one point worthy for noting is that, comparatively speaking, they did not enjoy building a website or writing a blog for learning much. Therefore, it is important for teachers to consider what activities are truly favored by their students when they try to integrate online activities to formal teaching and learning.

Table 5: Students' Expectation of Learning with ICT – A computer/ a tablet

	Mean
34. A computer / a tablet (e.g. I-pad) for English study	1.6
35. A computer / a tablet to create documents (e.g. using Word, Excel, PDFs)	1.6
36. A computer / a tablet to create web pages (e.g. using Dreamweaver, FrontPage)	2.3
37. A computer / a tablet to create multimedia presentations (e.g. PowerPoint, Director)	1.6
38. The web to access a learning portal (e.g. Moodle)	1.6
39. The web to look up or search for information (e.g. online dictionaries, Google)	1.5
40. The web for instant messaging/ chat (e.g. MSN, Yahoo, ICQ)	2.2
41. The web to build and maintain a website	2.3
42. The web to download audio or video files (e.g. YouTube, podcasts, iTunes)	2.0
43. The web for web conferencing (e.g. using a webcam)	2.6
44. The web to read RSS feeds (e.g. news feeds)	2.5
45. The web to keep my own blog or vlog	2.8
46. Social networking software on the web (e.g. MySpace, Trendster)	2.2
47. A mobile phone to send or receive text messages/ SMSs	1.7
48. A mobile phone as a personal organizer (e.g. diary, address book)	2.0
49. A mobile phone to access web based information or services	1.6
50. A mobile phone to send or receive email	1.6

Students' Perception of the Role of Teacher

Broadly speaking, students believed that the role of teacher was helpful and vital to their study. As showed in Table 6, the students thought that the teacher could make good use of ICT like Moodle and online activities to help them learn effectively and complete their research project. Moreover, ICT made the communication among the teacher and students better. ICT helped students to explain their problems to the teacher who could guide them to do the group projects. Furthermore, the teacher provided various online activities including homework, exercises and readings and opportunities to students to learn English and complete the research project. From that we can see, when teachers can provide a social environment for students to interact and learn together, students can learn satisfactorily and independently with the resources provided. This directly corresponds to constructivism that students can construct knowledge through the interaction with the environment and others. Besides, ITC have also played a significant role in effective learning when the teacher can make good use of it.

Table 6: Role of Teachers

	Mean
21. ICT allow me to better communicate with my teacher.	2.1
22. ICT enable the teacher to pay more attention to us.	2.5
23. ICT help me to explain my problems to the teacher.	2.3
24. ICT help the teacher to guide the group projects.	2.2
25. The teacher can guide me to do the project better with ICT.	2.0
26. The teacher can help me learn with ICT effectively.	2.0
27. The teacher can use ICT to help me to learn better.	2.0
28. The teacher can use online activities to help me complete the research project.	2.1
29. The teacher can use various online activities to help me learn English.	1.9
30. The teacher creates opportunities for me to use English through ICT.	2.0
31. The teacher gives me online homework, exercises and readings.	2.2
32. The teacher makes good use of ICT for teaching.	2.0
33. The teacher makes good use of Moodle for teaching and learning.	2.0

The answers that the students gave in the open-ended questions could fairly explain why they had positive attitudes towards the role of teachers in using ICT for teaching and learning. Firstly, students agreed that teachers should use ICT for teaching and learning because of ICT can “be interesting”, “be convenient”, “be easy to use”, “be

efficient”, “be effective, especially when there are lots of students”, “attract attention from students”, “have better communication”, “allow students to learn at home”, “make it faster to upload exercises”, “ be more interactive”, “allow students to learn better” and “ be useful for learning”. From that we can see, ICT can really facilitate students to learn better with the help of the teacher.

To further perfect the learning process, students suggested that teachers could further enhance their study by doing the following:

- provide more online exercises and sample questions
- create more group forums for discussion and sharing
- provide useful links
- provide marking scheme of assignments

Conclusion

The favorable results of this research show that constructivism and interactivity are crucial elements in effective language teaching and learning when information and communication technology are applied. As learners can only construct knowledge by themselves through the social environment, computer activities play a significant role because they can really bring students together to work towards a common goal – the research paper in this case. To further strengthen their competence, a wide range of online exercises and useful links for learning should be provided. In addition to online activities, the virtual learning platform also contributes to the successful use of ICT in teaching and learning because it provides a lot of useful functions for students to learn faster and better. In the 21st century, it seems that ICT becomes indispensable when we talk about the provision of an enjoyable learning environment for students to learn. Nevertheless, the appropriate online activities are also imperative.

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*Development of Romantic Relational Aggression Scale (RRAS) for
University Students*

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Since aggression is pervasive all over the world, it has been investigated more thoroughly and more frequently by means of various researches. Although physically aggressive behaviors have been investigated initially, in recent years aggressive behaviors other than physical ones have been examined (Ellis, Crooks, & Wolfe, 2008: 2). Relational aggression is one of these nonphysical aggressive behaviors that harm individuals through their relationships and feelings of acceptance. Perpetrators damage victim's relationships and/or acceptance feelings by means of relational aggression (Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002: 70). Perpetrator may disrupt his/her own relationship with the victim or victim's relationship with others (Ellis, Crooks & Wolfe, 2008: 2) by means of manipulation, exclusion, etc. Relational aggression is preferred frequently not only in peer but also in romantic relationships (Werner & Crick, 1999), relationally aggressive behaviors in romantic relationships include interpersonally manipulative behaviors (Murray-Close, 2011: 29) directed to partners (Coyne et al., 2011: 57). These manipulative behaviors in romantic relationships harm young adults seriously because young adults have a vested interest in romantic relationships. Therefore, they are much more devastated when they have problems in their romantic relationships. Despite this, relational aggression in romantic relationships has been overlooked until recent years (Bagner, Storch, & Preston, 2007:19, Ellis, Crooks & Wolfe, 2008: 2). Therefore, the description of relationally aggressive behaviors in romantic relationships was a little bit complicated (Ellis, Crooks, & Wolfe, 2008: 2), but nowadays it is more refined. Manipulative behaviors in romantic relationships include giving his/her partner cold shoulder, rejecting to communicate with him/her, flirting with others to make him/her jealous (Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002: 70).

Romantic partners stated that they exhibit these kinds of behaviors classified as relationally aggressive behaviors to maintain their relationships without recognizing these are aggressive behaviors. Some of them realize that their behaviors are aggressive but they keep on using them because physical aggression or direct aggression is not sanctioned by social norms (Kurtyilmaz & Can, 2009). In addition to societal constraints on direct aggression, young adulthood's major developmental task of establishing intimate relationship may also explain the frequent use of relational aggression in romantic relationships (Roisman et al., 2004: 123).

Since intimate relationship is very important and critical issue for young adults, they are directed to their romantic partners and devote themselves, their time and energy to their romantic relationships. Thus, because of large emotional investments to romantic relationships (Bagner, Storch, & Preston, 2007:19), young adults try all the way to sustain romantic relationships and not to lose their partners at all costs. Some of these ways involve relationally aggressive behaviors that are carried out by means of manipulation of the partner, and at the end, these manipulative behaviors impair the romantic relationship quality. Romantic relationships that are ruled by relationally aggressive behaviors are characterized by frustration, anxious clinging, jealousy, and distrustfulness (Linder, Crick, & Collins, 2002:76). In other words, these behaviors to sustain relationship and put the partners in hand affect not only their relationships but also turn back to perpetrator. That is, relational aggression in romantic relationships affects not only victims but also perpetrators negatively (Schad et al., 2008).

Thus, relationally aggressive behaviors affect the partners in romantic relationships negatively and lead to adjustment problems (Bagner, Storch, & Preston, 2007:19;

Goldstein, Chesir-Teran, & McFaul, 2008) though these behaviors are used to keep the relationship intact. Relationally aggressive young adults were found to exhibit symptoms of antisocial and borderline personality characteristics (Werner & Crick, 1999) and depression, loneliness (Bagner, Storch, & Preston, 2007: 23). Schad et al. (2008) indicated that romantic relational aggression of adolescents was found to be related with depression and alcohol use. Furthermore, it was also pointed out that psychological aggression in dating relationships predicts later physical aggression (Ronfeldt, Kimerling, & Arias, 1998: 75). Thus, relational aggression in romantic relationships results in adjustment difficulties and at the same time impairs dyadic functioning of individuals. In addition, psychological aggression precedes physical violence. Therefore, preventing relational aggression becomes a critical issue for both individuals and societies at large. The success of implementation of prevention programs depends on the good grasp of relational aggression. As a result, the detailed investigation and scrutiny of romantic relational aggression comes into prominence. Although it is thought that relational aggression in romantic relationship is prevalent in Turkey, there is few research in this subject matter, even there is no scale for assessing relational aggression in romantic relationships. Therefore, in this study it was intended to develop a scale for measuring relational aggression in romantic relationships of university students.

Method

Participants

Participants were 421 voluntary university students attending to Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey. 250 (%59.40) of participants were females and remaining 170 (%40.4) were males and one participant did not point his/her gender. 92 participants were freshmen, 108 of them were sophomores, 101 of them were juniors and 120 of them were seniors. Ages of the participants changed between 17 and 32.

Instruments

Romantic Relational Aggression Scale Development

Scale development process was started with literature review, and similar scales in literature were reviewed. After literature review, semi structured interviews were conducted by the researcher to understand subjective experiences of university students about relational aggression in romantic relationships. Based on the literature and analysis of interviews, initial pool of 39 items were prepared by the researcher. After that, for content validity eight experts evaluate items and they gave feedback about the validity and comprehensibility of items. According to these feedbacks, some reductions were carried out and one item was omitted, and some other items were rearranged. Finally, a-38 item rough draft scale for pilot study was obtained. Then, pilot study was conducted with 91 university students but no negative feedback was given by participants. Eventually, the final scale for validity and reliability studies was obtained.

For concurrent validity of Romantic Relational Aggression Scale (RRAS), subscales of other two previously developed instruments were used. These two scales were Buss and Perry's Aggression Scale and Kiper (1984)'s Aggression Inventory.

Indirect Aggression Subscale of Aggression Scale: The scale was developed by Buss and Perry and adapted to Turkish culture by Can (2002). It is a five-point Likert type scale that consists of five subscales called as *physical aggression*, *verbal aggression*, *anger*, *hostility* and *indirect aggression*. Since relational aggression was thought to be more related with indirect aggression, in this study indirect aggression subscale was used. Indirect aggression subscale is made up of six items. Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as 0.92. For reliability, test-retest reliability was utilized and data was collected from 300 individuals. Correlation coefficient between two measurements were found as 0.74 for indirect aggression subscale, and as 0.86 for the scale as a whole (Can, 2002).

Passive Aggression Dimension of Aggression Inventory: Aggression inventory was developed by Kiper (1984). Three dimensions and 30 items (10 items per subscale) comprised the inventory. Subscales of the inventory are called as destructive aggression, assertiveness and passive aggression. It is a self-report seven-point Likert type scale. Reliability of the scale was found as 0.80 and validity was found as 0.51.

Procedure

After ethical permissions were obtained from Anadolu University, to be able to collect data academics and instructors were interviewed and permission was also obtained from them before their classes. Data was collected from the voluntary participants and the researcher informed the participants about the research in general and data collection process and what would be done with collected data. Filling out the instrument booklet took about 20-25 minutes.

Findings

To examine the psychometric properties of the scale, various validity and reliability studies were conducted.

Validity Findings of Romantic Relational Aggression Scale for University Students

Construct validity and concurrent validity were carried out to examine the validity of RRAS.

Construct Validity

Examining the underlying dimensionality of the item set, *Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)* and *Principal Components Analysis* as an extraction method were used and factors were rotated by means of Direct Oblimin technique.

Exploratory Factor Analysis: EFA was carried out by means of following four steps: Assessing factorability of correlation matrix, obtaining factors, rotation of factor and naming of factors (Kalaycı, 2005).

Initially, data was checked whether items and data meet the required assumptions of factor analysis. Firstly, correlation matrix of all items was obtained to determine whether data of RRAS is appropriate for factor analysis. Was the correlation matrix investigated, it was seen that correlation coefficients change between -0.01 and 0.67. As the item-correlations were examined, it was inferred that some items that are

strongly correlated would be grouped under a common factor. In this context, Barlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sample adequacy were conducted. Chi-square value obtained as a result of Barlett's test of sphericity was found significant ($\chi^2=9154.437$ $sd=703$, $p<.001$), and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was found as 0.95. These two criteria indicated that items were appropriate for factor analysis (Field, 2005).

Moreover, the appropriateness of each item for factor analysis was examined through anti-image correlation, and measures of items' sample adequacies were seen to change between 0.83 and 0.97. Since these measures are higher than the reference point of 0.50 (Field, 2005), it was inferred that all items are appropriate for factor analysis.

Next, to specify the factor structure of RRAS, exploratory factor analysis and the most frequently used technique of Principal Components Analysis were utilized. Initially, unrotated factor solution was carried out and a seven factor structure was obtained when the factors having eigenvalues greater than one were taken into account (Field, 2005). A seven factor structure explained 62.79% of the total variance. Each of these seven factors accounted for 38.53%, 7.92%, 4.18%, 3.59%, 3.07%, 2.84% and 2.66% of the total variance, respectively. When the factor loadings of items were investigated, some cross-loadings were observed and it was seen that some items were loaded on more than one factor. For this reason, scree plot was also examined to determine the number of factors more accurately (Büyüköztürk, 2002). As a result of investigating scree plot, it was concluded that factor structure of RRAS can be limited to two factors. At the same time, previous literature review also confirmed these two factor structure. Thus, a two factor construct was analyzed.

In an analysis of a-two factor RRAS by means of principle components analysis, rotation technique was applied to gather the items that are highly correlated and to ensure clarity and meaningfulness in an interpretation of factor structures. Since the factor structures were thought to be related, it was decided that oblimin technique that is one kind of oblique rotation is more appropriate in an analysis (Field, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this framework, the correlation matrix was investigated and it was observed that most items' correlations with other items were above 0.32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Furthermore, it was seen in structure matrix that two factors are related with each other. Therefore, as a result of oblimin technique of principal component analysis, two factors explaining 46.45% of the total variance were obtained. To determine which items should be deleted or retained in the scale, two criteria were adopted. The first one is that factor loading of the item in one factor should be at least 0.40 and the second one is that the difference between the factor loading of any item above 0.40 in one factor and the factor loading of the same item in other factors should be at least 0.10. According to these two criteria, the items of 3, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 30, 31, 34, 37 and 38 were omitted. Furthermore, the items of 7 and 33 were deleted because these items were not loaded on an expected factor and the analysis was repeated and results are presented in Table1.

As it is seen from Table 1, a two factor scale that consists of 22 items and explains 51.58% of the total variance is obtained. The first factor explains 40.86% of the total variance and includes 18 items. Factor loadings of the items in this factor change between 0.83 and 0.46. The first factor includes the items related with threatening to

end relationship and decreases in sincerity and sharing therefore it is called as *manipulation*. The second factor including four items explains 10.72% of the total variance. Since the items in this factor in general are related with making her/his partner jealous, the factor is called as *jealousy*. Factor loadings of items in jealousy factor change between 0.79 and 0.74. Thus, it can be stated that a two factor structure of RRAS is validated.

Concurrent Validity of RRAS

For concurrent validity, data was collected from 60 university students by means of RRAS, indirect aggression subscale of aggression scale adapted to Turkish culture by Can (2002) and passive aggression subscale of Kiper (1984)'s aggression inventory. When data set was revised, it was detected that eleven participants did not fill the questionnaires properly so analysis was carried out with the responses of 49 participants. Correlation coefficients between RRAS and indirect aggression and passive aggression were found as 0.70 and 0.70, respectively.

Reliability Studies

Internal Consistency of RRAS (Cronbach Alpha Coefficient)

As a result of analysis of 421 participants' responses to 22 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as 0.93. Internal consistency coefficients of *manipulation* and *jealousy* factors were found as 0.93 and 0.79 respectively. These results indicated that internal consistency of RRAS is quite high and reliable.

Table 1. Pattern Matrix of RRSA

Item Number	Factor Loadings of RRSA Items After Rotation	
	Factor I	Factor II
16	.83	.00
6	.81	-.13
28	.81	-.02
10	.81	-.11
36	.80	-.03
26	.78	-.14
13	.77	-.04
5	.74	-.22
4	.70	.06
8	.67	.06
35	.66	-.10
15	.61	.13
29	.61	.20
32	.59	.07
12	.51	.11
11	.50	.32
23	.50	.27
1	.46	.13
9	-.03	.79
27	.01	.77
21	.10	.77
2	-.03	.74
Explained Variance	40.86%	10.72%

Bold factor loadings refer to the items of which factor loadings in one factor are higher than 0.40 and the difference with another factor is at least 0.10

Item Total Correlation of RRAS

Item total correlations obtained by means of the relationships between 421 participants' points from each item and their total points from the scale were also computed. Corrected item total correlation, scale mean if item deleted, Cronbach's alpha if item deleted were also obtained and presented in Table2.

As it is seen from the Table2, corrected item total correlation coefficients range from 0.30 to 0.77. For the first subscale, corrected item total correlation coefficients change between 0.46 and 0.77, for the second one they change between 0.30 and 0.43. Since corrected item total correlation coefficients are 0.30 and over (Field, 2005), item total correlation coefficients of items in each factor were stated as significant. Moreover, scale means if item deleted change between 59.88 and 60.95 for the first factor (1st Factor M=57.24, s=15.58) and between 61.83 and 62.19 for the second factor (2nd Factor M=6.42, s=3.38). It was seen that all Cronbach's alphas if items deleted are not higher than that of the scale as a whole. Since the items do not change the reliability of the scale, it can be concluded that all items support the scale and should be included in the scale (Field, 2005). As a result of these findings, it can be stated that all items are highly correlated with the rest of items in the scale.

Comparison of the First and the Fourth Percentiles

In this process, all participants' (421) points were arranged in a descending order at first and then the first 114 participants (upper 27% of the participants) and the last 114 participants (lower 27% of the participants) were taken as two groups. And these two groups were compared with each other in terms of the means of the points they got from each item by means of t-test. As a result of the comparison of the 228 participants' scores, t values of all items of the scale were found significant. That is, all items can discriminate the individuals whose scores were at high end from the individuals whose scores were at low end.

Table2. RRAS's Items Corrected Item Total Correlation, Scale Mean and Cronbach's α If Item Deleted

Factors & Item Number	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Scale Mean If Item Deleted	Cronbach's α If Item Deleted
FACTOR I: Manipulation ($\alpha=0.93$)			
16	.77	60.40	0.92
6	.69	59.90	0.92
28	.73	60.43	0.92
10	.69	60.03	0.92
36	.73	60.21	0.92
26	.65	60.21	0.92
13	.68	59.99	0.92
5	.57	59.88	0.92
4	.66	60.53	0.92
8	.64	60.77	0.92
35	.55	60.82	0.92
15	.62	60.92	0.92
29	.65	60.94	0.92
32	.57	60.40	0.92
12	.51	60.45	0.93
11	.60	60.95	0.92
23	.57	61.22	0.92
1	.46	60.56	0.93
FACTOR II: Jealousy ($\alpha=0.79$)			
9	.32	62.19	0.93
27	.35	62.02	0.93
21	.43	61.83	0.93
2	.30	62.18	0.93

Split-Half Reliability

For reliability of RRAS, technique of split-half reliability was also used. The correlation between two halves of the scale was found as 0.83. For each half, Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as 0.85 and 0.88 respectively. In addition, unequal length of Spearman Brown coefficient was found as 0.91 and Guttman split-half reliability was 0.91. These results indicated that reliabilities for each half were close to each other and high.

Test-Retest Reliability

For test-retest reliability, data was collected from 92 participants with a 15 day interval, but in the second phase, 26 participants can not be reached. When the data was reviewed, it was detected that seven of the remaining 66 participants did not fill data set properly so they were omitted. As a result, test-retest reliability analysis was carried out with 59 participants' scores and the correlation coefficient between two measures was found as 0.92.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, the scale development process was presented in detail. Different psychometric assessments were carried out and according to findings of validity and reliability studies, RRAS is found reliable and valid. A two-factor construct (RRAS) is obtained and the factors of *manipulation* and *jealousy* account for 51.58% of the total variance. The first factor explaining 40.86% of the total variance consists of 18 items and the four item jealousy factor account for 10.72% of the total variance. In addition, as a result of concurrent validity analysis, RRAS can be said to be significantly correlated with the previously developed valid and reliable two aggression instruments. Various reliability studies indicated that all items of RRAS are correlated with each other and internally consistent, and RRAS is reliable across time and individuals. Thus, it can be concluded that RRAS for university students is valid and reliable.

Although RRAS is found reliable and valid, this study has some limitations. Participants of the study were 421 university students. Therefore, this study can be replicated with larger samples, high school students or married couples. Moreover, this construct can be confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis with a different sample. Victimization scale in romantic relationships can also be developed and gender difference can be investigated in terms of perpetration and victimization.

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*The Importance of Industrial Visit to Enhance Student's learning in Process
Instrumentation and Control Unit of Engineering Courses*

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Abstract

The objective of this plant visit is to help students gain first-hand information regarding application of instrumentation and control in process industry. In this paper the author presented the effectiveness of an industry visit in the process of learning process instrumentation and control in a 3rd year undergraduate Chemical Engineering core unit of Curtin University, Western Australia. This also demonstrated that the industrial visit is an integral part of this unit to achieve the learning outcomes. The unit is divided into lecture class, laboratory, mini-project and a site visit. Due to the large enrolment in this unit and also due to limitation of plant's capacity, the two different plant visits was conducted by three afternoon sessions. The plants were (1) Alcoa Kwinana Refinery and (2) Coogee Chlor-Alkali Pty Ltd, Kwinana, WA. These plants were chosen because both the plants are dealing with large processes with various automatic control system and also location wise they are closer to Curtin University. Three guides from each plant explained the various process sections of plant including control room. In a week after the visit, an anonymous questionnaires survey was conducted where they were asked to put their level of agreement with statement about (i) motivation, (ii) role of process control engineer, (iii) effective unit learning through plant visit, (iv), coordination of the site visit, (v) resources and (vi) overall satisfaction. The survey results indicated that the percentage of agreement on overall learning unit outcomes through integral plant visit was 78%. The average agreement for all the items was found as 66%. The percentage agreement on all items varied from 48% to 80% which indicate overall student's positive learning experience at the end of plant visit and this activity should be retained with the unit learning outcomes.

1. Introduction

Industrial visit is a vital part of engineering courses. It helps to bridge the gap between classroom and the real field world. Students are benefited to learn about “real life” examples of business and engineering management. According to Sanroman pazos and Longo (2010), industrial visits give students insight into their future professions by giving them the opportunity to observe industrial processes in operation. In addition to benefiting the student, industrial visits also benefit stakeholders by bringing them into contact with prospective employees (Nyamaptene, 2012). Moreover, industrial visits give universities to fulfil the accreditation requirements imposed by various professional bodies for engineering education (JBM 2009; Nyamaptene, 2012). One of important objectives of engineering course is desire to prepare graduates to quickly become productive upon entering the workforce. Therefore industrial visit make students understand the subject to its core and its deeper practical experiences in real field situation. Universities apply different methods to incorporate practical experiences and real world applications into their curricula to prepare students for the technical challenges they might face in workplace (Frempong et al., 2005). Such methods include “project-based learning”, “virtual teaching”, laboratory-based teaching, student’s internship etc (Faisal, 2012; Sen, 2012; Frempong et al., 2005). Chanson (2001) was the first to address the importance of site visit in enhancing learning of undergraduate engineering unit. Further studies by Forest and Rayne (2009) reported that field trip is an excellent way to reinforce concepts learned in lecture and laboratory sessions and stimulate student interest in continuing their life-long unit learning. There are also few studies reported the ineffectiveness of industry visit on student’s learning (Dewitt and Storcksdierk, 2008). Lecture-based education can provide solutions to some of the problems. The use of slides, video and computer simulation, laboratory experiment can assist by creating a learning experience which does have some positive (Mills and Ashford, 2003). However, in spite of the success of this approach a belief remained that some site visits are still essential for engineering education. This has led to a closer evaluation of their full potential.

In this paper the author presented the effectiveness of an industry visit in the process of learning process instrumentation and control in a 3rd year undergraduate Chemical Engineering core unit of Curtin University, Western Australia. There were two different process plants visits, which were conducted towards the end of lecture class of process instrumentation & control. An anonymous questionnaire survey was conducted just after their industry visit and results were analysed to evaluate the effectiveness of field visit on their overall learning process in process instrumentation and control unit. This also demonstrated that the industrial visit is a vital part of this unit to achieve the learning outcomes. The unit is divided into lecture class, laboratory, mini-project and a compulsory site visit on overall student’s learning. This study also reflected that industry visit give an idea to students about their job profile once they start working as ‘process control engineer’.

2.0 Methodology and data collection

2.1 *Participants from the unit process instrumentation & control 328*

Curtin University of Technology, Perth is offering four year engineering undergraduate programme and two years post graduate programme. There are many

core engineering units that students have to complete during their course of study. This study was conducted on undergraduate students taking 3rd year core unit "Process instrumentation and control 328 at semester 2, 2012. The students taking this unit are assumed that they have already learned the fundamentals of process principles, various unit operations in mass transfer processes, process heat transfer, reaction engineering. Therefore this unit is designed for the application of various instrumentation and control in process industry to get various operational objectives. This unit syllabus covers the dynamics of various processes, equipment's and their control of operations, design of a control system etc. The unit is divided into lecture class, laboratory, mini-project and a site visit. Lecture class gives the solid foundation of theory. Laboratory experiments provide some small scale application of theory. Mini-project that is designed to include substantial practical application of equipment is useful in institutions. However field trips to process industries always allow the students to appreciate the relevance of the technological theory discussed in class and to experience their large scale application in real industrial situations. Effective learning occurs when the students are given opportunity to reflect on their real practical experiences. In order to provide such a practice-based active learning experience, an industrial visit to process industry was organized towards the end of the lecture class. Due to the large enrolment in this unit and also due to limitation of plant's capacity, the two different plant visits had conducted by three afternoon sessions. The plants were (1) Alcoa Kwinana Refinery and (2) Coogee Chlor-Alkali Pty Ltd, Kwinana, WA. These plants were chosen because both the plants are dealing with large processes with various automatic control system and also location wise they are closer to Curtin University. The students were both male and female with similar educational background.

2.2 Industry visit and data collection

Two different plant visits, namely Alcoa Kwinana Refinery WA and Coogee Chlor-Alkali Pty Ltd were organized towards in the month of Sept 2012. Prior to an agreed visit, lecturer has to organize transport for the visit and do all the security-related paperwork required by the host company. Due to the large enrolment in this unit and also due to limitation of plant's capacity, the two different plant visits had conducted by three afternoon sessions. The plants were (1) Alcoa Kwinana Refinery and (2) Coogee Chlor-Alkali Pty Ltd, Kwinana, WA. These plants were chosen because both the plants are dealing with large processes with various automatic control system and also location wise they are closer to Curtin University. One hundred and twenty five out of 145 students were taken part industry visit during three different afternoon sessions. As a general rule, no lectures classes are scheduled on site visit day. Students were taken by two buses for two different plants and it took one hour to reach the site from Curtin University. The plant visit took place for two hours and two guides from each plant helped students to understand various sections of the plant. Initially a group of 20 students were entered into control room of the plant and a demonstrator was showed various processes with fully control system PI diagram. After that students were divided into two groups of 10 students each and visited the different sections of plant with guide. These activities have led the students to observe closely the real application of instrumentation and control to process industry. The students are able to correlate the relevance of the technologies discussed in class and to experience their application in industry and finally their professional role in an industry. A paper based anonymous questionnaire survey on industry visit was conducted after one week of industry visit. The survey has 9 quantitative and one

qualitative item. The quantitative items were asked students to put their level of agreement with statement about (i) role of process control engineer (Q1), (ii) effective unit learning through plant visit (Q2-Q5), (iii) motivation (Q6), (iv), coordination of the site visit (Q7), and (v) overall satisfaction & site visit is an integral part of their learning (Q8-Q9). The anonymous answering style was used similar to the Curtin University online evaluating system- "eVALUate". Students may indicate Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree or Unable to Judge for each item. In addition, students were asked to put constructive comments on the qualitative item in order to improve learning outcomes from the plant visit. The survey was a volunteer participation and 50 students (35%) took part in the survey day. Large number of students were absent on that day because of their examination of other unit. Usually, more than 35% student's participation for a large unit is considered as representative on any feedback survey (Sen, 2012).

3.0 Data analysis and Discussion

3.1 Student Perception based on Quantitative Survey

The feedback gathered from students was examined for comparative analysis and understanding of perceptions. Table 1 shows the responses on each question from survey questionnaires. The detailed results on individual questions are shown in Figure 1-9. The results revealed that, an average 66.2% of agreement were recorded from the feedbacks gathered for Question 1 to Question 9 of the survey, with the majority of responses (48%) classified under the "Agree" scale. The teacher's role is as supporter and facilitator of the student's new learning experience. Were the students motivated and inspired to learn through plant visit? Therefore responses on motivation of Question 6 (Table 1) received the percentage of agreement with a total rate of 70%. Industrial visit make students understand the subject to its core. It also gives idea to students about their job profile once they start working. To know the student's learning experience it was asked question 1 i.e. from the plant visit, I could understand the job of a process control engineer and the percentage agreement was total 80%(Figure 1 & Table 1) Responses on question 1 also received the highest rate of agreement among the respondents with a total rate of 80%. A significant number of students (78%) on Q9 of Table 1 perceived the plant visit is an important part of their unit learning and it should retain with the unit outcome. Feedback related to the bridge between classroom theory and real world on positive students learning experience has been reflected by the responses of Q 1 to Q5 with total agreement of 48% to 80%. Response to Q 4 records the lowest rate of agreement with a total rate of 48%. This is because of high percentage of student's absentee in the survey as well as in lecture class. The agreement level of Q 3 (58%) which indicated that the students got sufficient lecture materials on PI & C to understand the different aspect of a plant. This result fairly coincided with the percentage of absent students in the lecture class. The main reason of these absentee was the late hour Friday lecture schedule for this unit (4-6 pm). However, significant level of total agreement (76%) on overall satisfaction with the plant visit was obtained. The level of satisfaction on the plant visit coordination (Q7) was 72%.

There was one qualitative item in the survey i.e. "How do you think that plant visit might improve your learning outcomes? Followings are few comments to response of this question-

- *A better coordination is needed between the lecturer of PIC unit and the person who is in charge in the plant, so that a more detailed explanation about the controller at the plant can be provided during the visit*
- *The presenter spoke to one person at a time was quiet and did not explain the process*
- *Our guide was not loud enough for everyone to hear over the noise. So I did not gain a full understanding of what happened at the plant*
- *I was motivated and did learn about the plant and day to day life of an engineer which was good*
- *While I am happy with the plant visit, it is only giving me some overall look of what PIC real life applications one. Some of the explanations given onsite are just too complex to understand*
- *Learn how they control the process in real life*
- *Help me learn about process control*
- *General understanding of what a process engineer working environment*
- *Dividing into many groups so that demonstrator's voice can be heard clear*
- *The plant visit helped to put the unit materials into context-especially in regard to the limitations of some types of control*
- *Helps to give an idea of the applications for the theory putting it in content, makes it seem more relevant and important*
- *It helps the practical side of the unit. It makes easier to understand the concept and ideas that I learned in PIC unit. Real world example of theory learnt in class, seeing the process helps to visible problems*
- *Get to understand the control system used in industry*
- *It makes us understand better and clear on the real plant. Overall I am happy with it and should continue next time onwards*
- *It shows us the application of different control systems over both a plant scale and for individual pieces of equipment*
- *Would be interesting to see the design work and troubleshooting aspects of a process control engineer role.*

Therefore, qualitative feedback also clearly reflected the student's very high positive learning experience from industry visit on PI & C unit. However, there are very few issues such as more efficient coordination between lecturer and plant demonstrator, more visit time, more professional demonstrator with loud voice are required in order to get more positive learning experience.

4. Conclusion

Survey results provide that industry visit is an important part of student's overall learning on process instrumentation and control unit 328. This is because industry visit tend to reinforce the theoretical knowledge that has been acquired while offering students the opportunity to experience real world situations in their chosen careers. This has been supported not only by student's quantitative feedback but also by qualitative statements. The overall satisfaction of learning process instrumentation and control 328 from industry visit was found 78% with an average agreement for all the items of 66%. A total of 70% agreement was found for their motivation and learning this unit through industry visit. This study clearly demonstrated that students understand their job profile as a process control engineer for which highest level of student's agreement 80% was obtained. A significant number of students (78%)

agreement perceived the plant visit is an important part of their unit learning and it should be retain with the unit outcome.

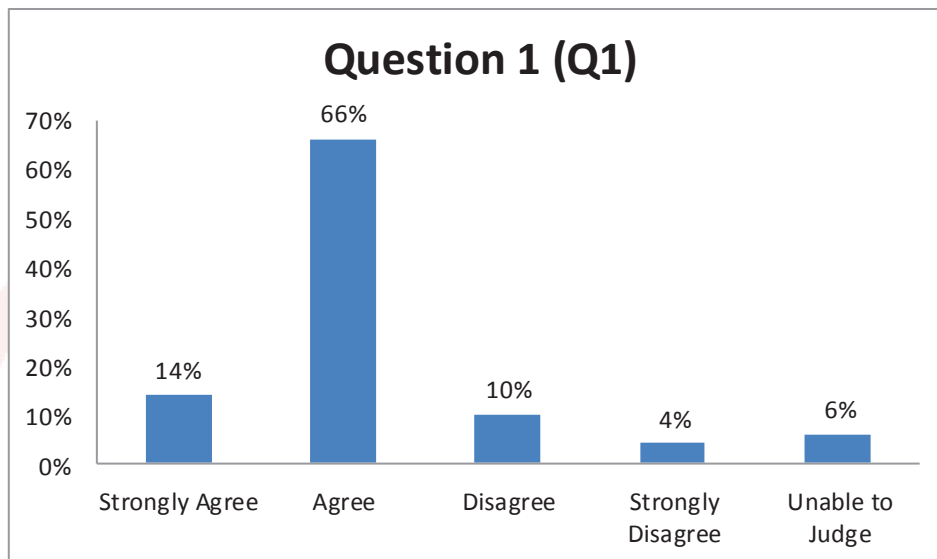


Figure 1

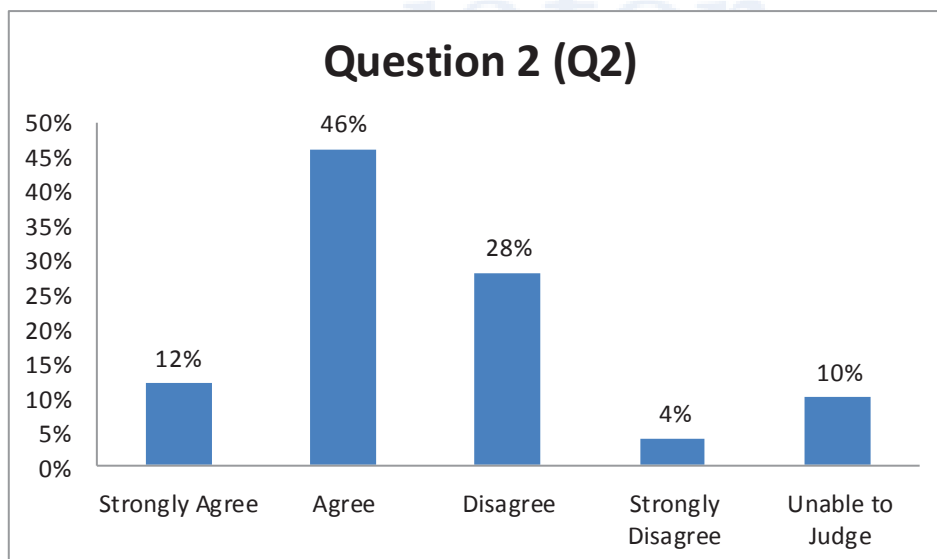


Figure 2

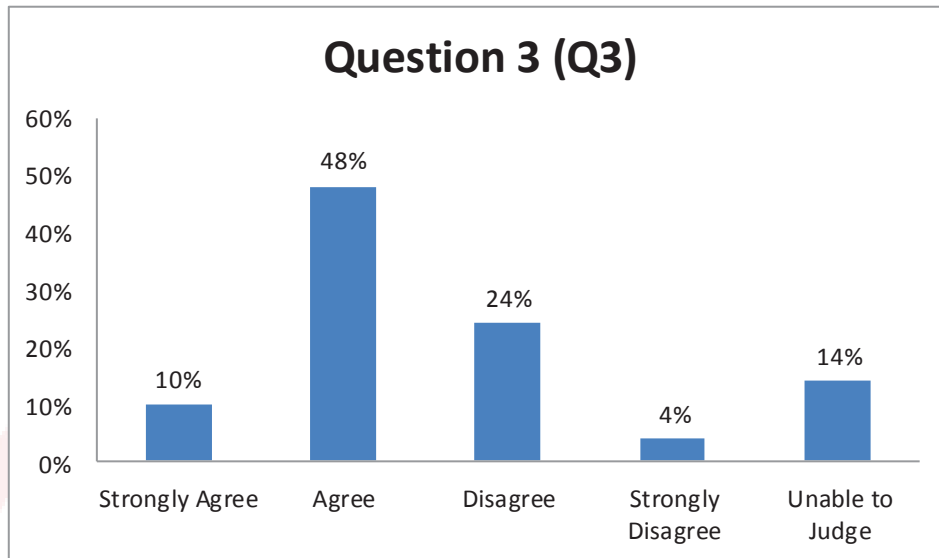


Figure 3

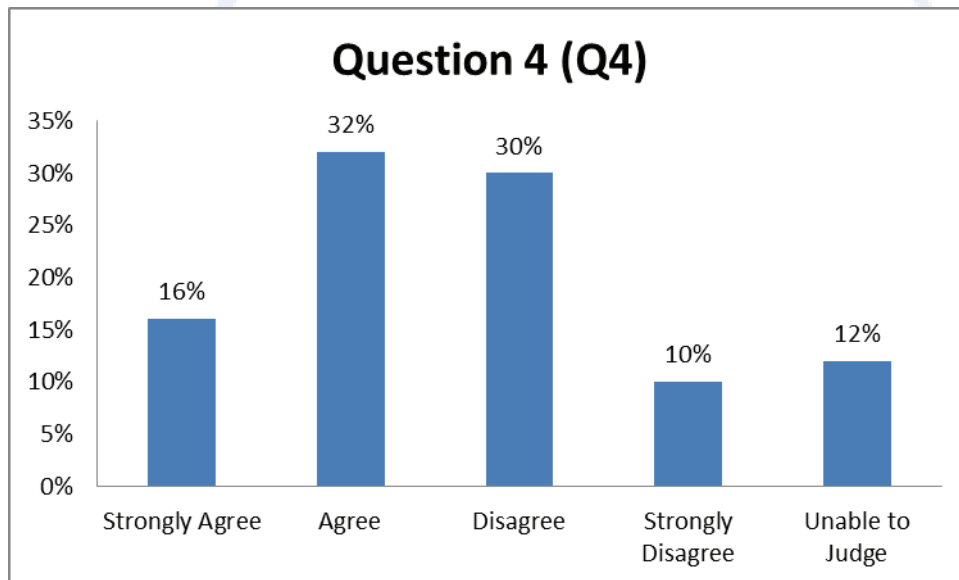


Figure 4

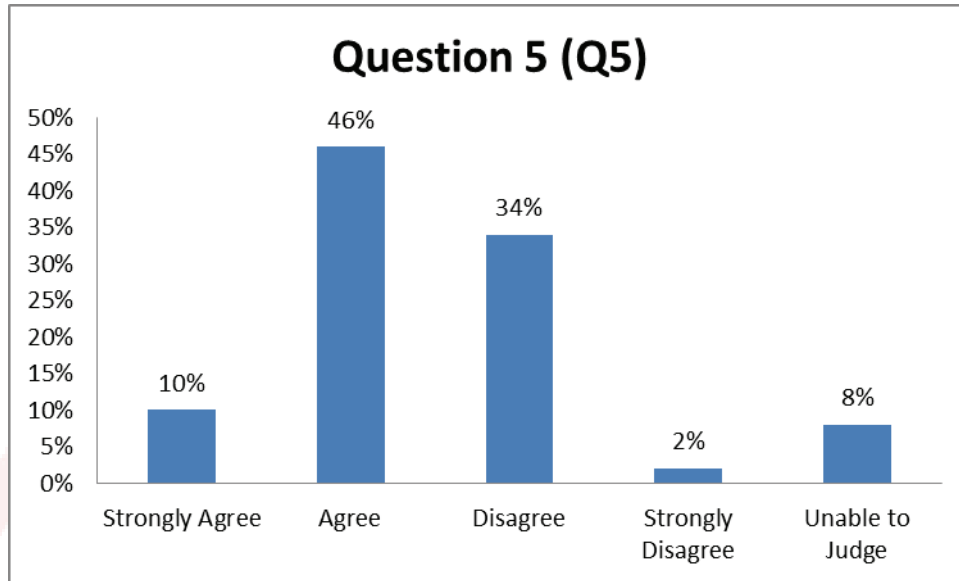


Figure 5

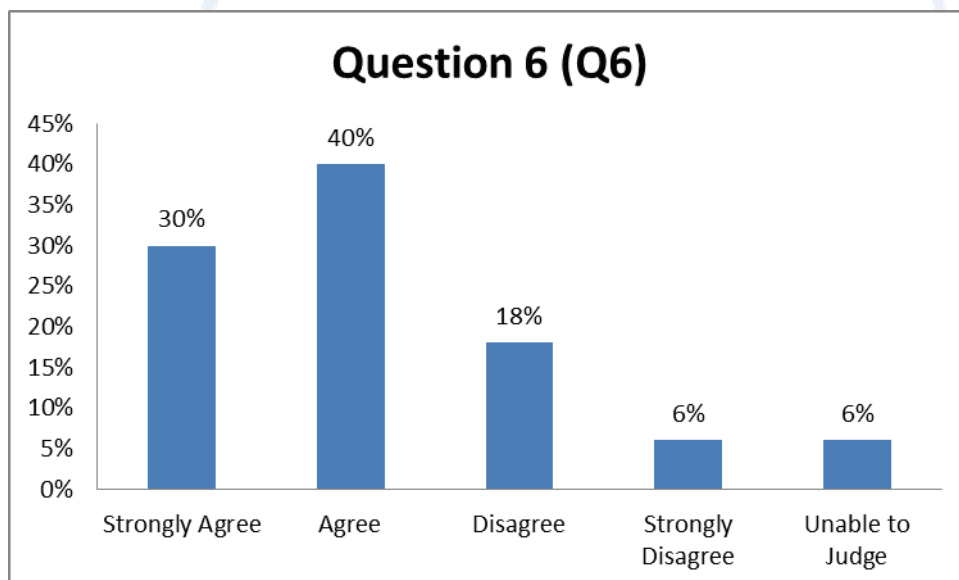


Figure 6

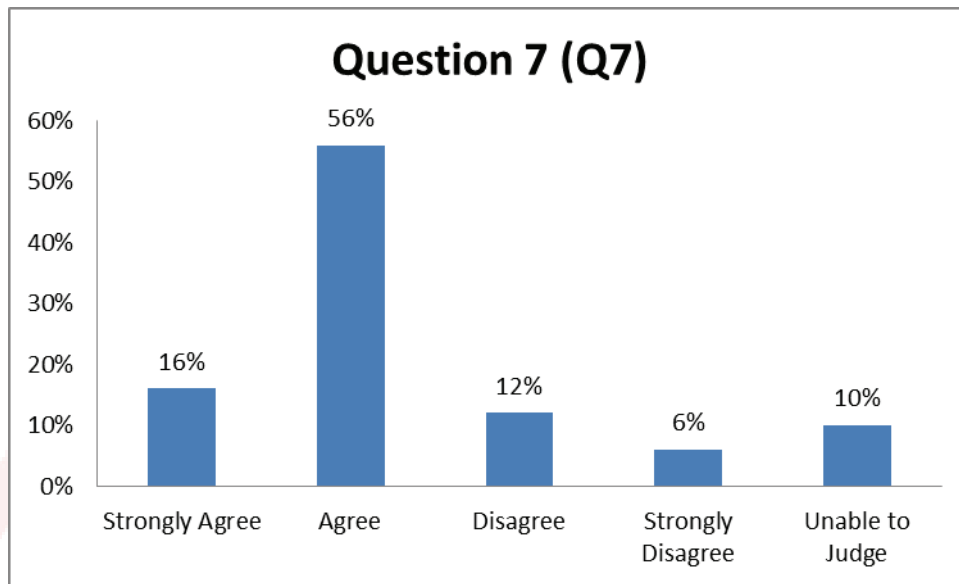


Figure 7

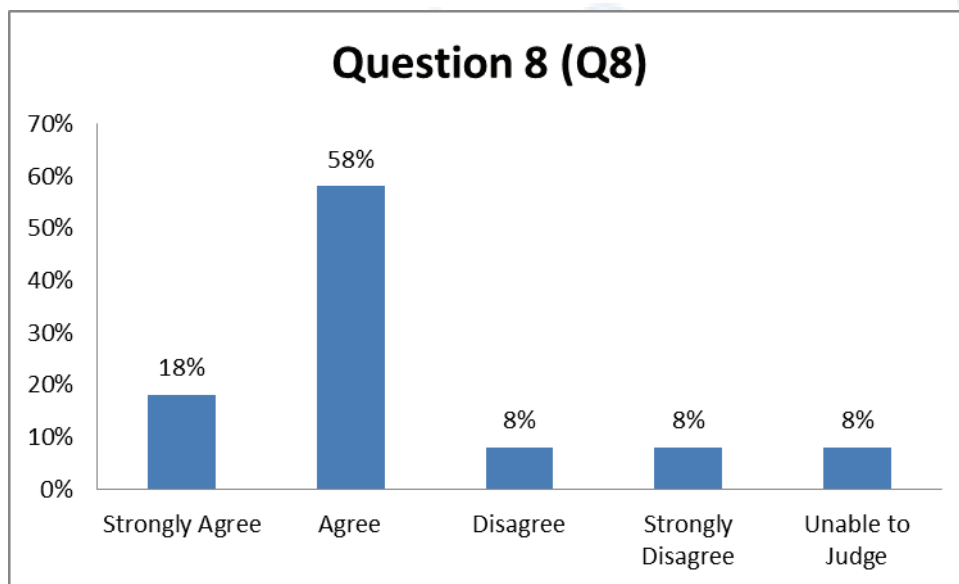


Figure 8

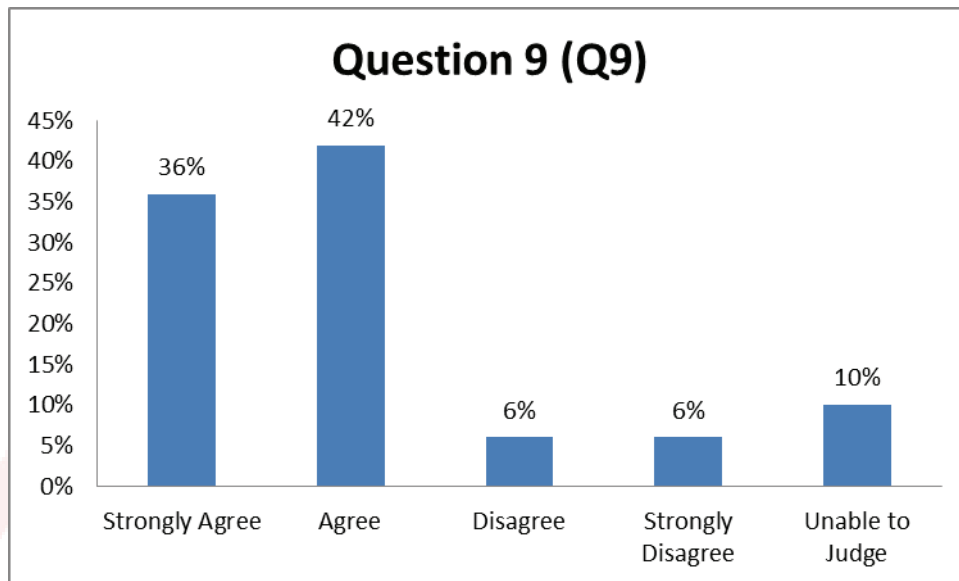


Figure 9

Table 1: Total Responses (35%) on each question from survey

Q1 (From plant visit I understand the job of a process control engineer)	Scale	Value	Frequency	Percentage , %	Cumulative , %
	Strongly agree	1	7	14	14
	Agree	2	33	66	80
	Disagree	3	5	10	90
	Strongly disagree	4	2	4	94
	Unable to Judge	5	3	6	100
Q2 (I understand the practical application of theories that I learned in lecture class)	Strongly agree	1	6	12	12
	Agree	2	23	46	58
	Disagree	3	14	28	86
	Strongly disagree	4	2	4	90
	Unable to Judge	5	5	10	100
			50	100	
Q3 (The lecture materials on PI&C are sufficient to understand the different aspects of a plant)	Strongly agree	1	5	10	10
	Agree	2	24	48	58
	Disagree	3	12	24	82
	Strongly disagree	4	2	4	86
	Unable to Judge	5	7	14	100
			50	100	
Q4 (I could learn PI & C more effectively through this plant visit)	Strongly agree	1	8	16	16
	Agree	2	16	32	48
	Disagree	3	15	30	78
	Strongly disagree	4	5	10	88
	Unable to Judge	5	6	12	100
			50	100	
Q5 (Plant visit helps me to achieve the overall learning outcomes of this	Strongly agree	1	5	10	10
	Agree	2	23	46	56
	Disagree	3	17	34	90
	Strongly disagree	4	1	2	92
	Unable to Judge	5	4	8	100

part of the unit)			50	100	
Q6 (I am motivated to take part of this plant visit)	Strongly agree	1	15	30	30
	Agree	2	20	40	70
	Disagree	3	9	18	88
	Strongly disagree	4	3	6	94
	Unable to Judge	5	3	6	100
			50	100	
Q7 (Coordination of the plant visit was appropriate)	Strongly agree	1	8	16	16
	Agree	2	28	56	72
	Disagree	3	6	12	84
	Strongly disagree	4	3	6	90
	Unable to Judge	5	5	10	100
			50	100	
Q8 (Overall I am happy with this plant visit)	Strongly agree	1	9	18	18
	Agree	2	29	58	76
	Disagree	3	4	8	84
	Strongly disagree	4	4	8	92
	Unable to Judge	5	4	8	100
Q9 (Plant visit is an important part of this unit and it should retained with the unit outcomes)	Strongly agree	1	18	36	36
	Agree	2	21	42	78
	Disagree	3	3	6	84
	Strongly disagree	4	3	6	90
	Unable to Judge	5	5	10	100
			50	100	

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*Influence Of Italian Language On Slovene Language In The Case Of Slovene
Minority Living In Italy*

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Abstract

It is possible to detect language interference among bilingual speakers as a consequence of language contact. Interference can occur only if there is open cultural and linguistic communication between the two linguistic communities, and it can be divided in four groups relative to phonetics, word formation and morphology and syntax. This is the case of the Slovene minority that lives in Italy and is daily exposed at the influence of Italian language on their mother language.

The Slovene minority living in Italy has various printed media. In the present paper I analyse some articles written by bilingual speakers, members of the Slovene minority in Italy. The present paper presents the violation of the norms of the Slovene standard language as a consequence of living and learning in a bilingual environment.

Key words: interference, Slovene, Italian, bilingual

1 Introduction

According to the Slovenian Government Communication Office, there are around 100,000 Slovenes living in Italy nowadays, although the estimations of their number vary (The Slovene Ethnic Minority In The Republic Of Italy 1999). This minority group lives in the region Friuli-Venezia Giulia, mainly in the towns of Trieste, Gorizia and Udine, a border area between Slovenia and Italy. Because of this, the Slovene minority in Italy lives in a society where the national language (Italian) is not their mother language (Slovene). Consequently, those Slovenes are exposed to the impact of Italian language on a daily basis. A long-term and strong impact of one language on another, in this case the impact of Italian on Slovene, forms various language interferences that can be seen in the language used by bilingual speakers. The present paper deals only with the impact of Italian language on Slovene language in the Trieste area. It takes into account some issues of the *Mladika* magazine and the newspaper *Primorski dnevnik* to show the most common examples of interferences arisen from the language contact of the language pair Slovene – Italian.

2 Education And Bilingualism

Skutnabb-Kangass (1981) systematically defines bilingualism and points out the importance of education for a successful bilingualism. The two most important aspects are the role of the language of the majority, and the language of the minority in the educational process and the aim of education. The models of education, therefore, are the education that aims towards a strong preservation of bilingualism, and the education that aims towards a weak preservation of bilingualism. The goal of bilingual education – to preserve bilingualism – is oriented towards the majority population, the minority or both. School legislation that allows the members of ethnic communities to preserve their maintenance and development of language and culture is one of the human rights.

The Slovene national community in Italy has been under protective legislation since 2001, while the Italian minority living in Slovenia has been fully protected from the time of the existence of the ex Yugoslavia. The Slovene national community in Italy has several schools in which the teaching language has been Slovene since the time of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy in 1774 (except in the fascism era between 1927-1945), and which are included in the Italian school system. The education in these schools is based on the same curriculum as it is provided for the Italian majority school. The only difference is in the use of Slovene language as the teaching language. Here Italian language is taught as the second language. In the Trieste and Gorizia areas it is possible to attend school in Slovene language from kindergarten until the end of high school. Minority schools deal with the problem of a decreasing number of children and the political decisions of the Italian government regarding the allocation of financial resources. In Italian schools Slovene language is not present as a teaching language. The Slovene schools in Italy play an important role also in the preservation of the identity and culture besides language (Pertot 2009). Bufon (1998) claims that minority schools are a reflection of cultural specificities of the minority population and an important factor for building European coexistence and integration, and therefore play an irreplaceable role in society.

3 Language Interferences

Weinreich (2008) uses the term *languages in contact* when the same persons use two or more languages for their communication, and this can generate some interferences

in bilingual speakers. When referring to the so called language interference, we usually think of those cases in which there is a deviation from the norm. Language interference can be divided in four groups relative to phonetics, word formation and morphology and syntax.

The appearance of interferences is subject to the “constructive coexistence” (Zuljan Kumar 2003). Because of this, interferences are not easy to prove, i.e. all the deviations from the norms of a given language among bilingual speakers do not occur as a consequence of language contact. An open communication between the two groups of language speakers is the prerequisite for the occurrence of interferences. Thus, interference is not a consequence of poor language skills.

Weinreich (2008) also points out the significance of extra linguistic factors like homogeneity, sociological and cultural differentiation of the bilingual group, demographic factors, political and social relationships between the two groups, stereotypes, the attitude towards bilingualism in a society etc. A language contact can be understood only if we place it in a wider psychological and sociological context. The direction of interference depends on which language is dominant in a certain society.

4 Corpora and Methodology

Members of the Slovene minority living in Italy publish several printed media. Those with the highest number of readers are the *Primorski dnevnik*, a daily newspaper founded in 1945 and with 8,500 print editions and the monthly magazine *Mladika*. Founded in 1957 in Trieste, *Mladika* was first meant to be a magazine for filling in the emptiness that was a consequence of fascism dictatorship during the Second World War. A group of intellectuals decided to create a magazine in which the Slovenes living in Italy could publish their literary work and follow the cultural development in Slovenia and at Italy’s border. The authors of the analyzed articles taken from *Mladika* (hereinafter referred to as *M*) and *Primorski dnevnik* (hereinafter referred to as *PD*) are Slovenes that live in Italy, this means bilingual speakers.

The present paper deals only with written language as, like Caharija Pizzolito (1991) argues, in written language it is easier to see the impact of a “dominant” language on another language. Because of the time gap between the thought and writing, defensive mechanisms can be activated to prevent those interferences of which the writer is aware of.

Deviations from the Slovene language standard were reviewed and only those frequent cases that could be a consequence of language interferences were commented in the present paper. Every section has an explanation of Slovene language rules, an example of deviation due to the interferences found in the corpora, and a possible translation in Italian language that shows why the chosen example might be the result of language interference. It is not possible to generalize the results to all the language used in the magazine or even less to the language of all Slovenes living in Italy. The present paper is part of a larger research about interferences for the Slovene-Italian language pair that is still developing.

5 Analysis

There are several deviations from the Slovene language norm that might result from interference as a consequence of the language contact between Slovene and Italian language. According to Skubic (1997), we can see a lot of syntax influence of Italian language on Slovene, which is more important than the influence of vocabulary as it requires a close coexistence between the two ethnic groups. The most frequent examples found in the examined corpora are related to the sentence word order regarding the functional sentence perspective, deviations of the Slovene reflexive verb form, negation, position of the adjective following the noun. In his research, Skubic (1997) also points out the loss of the dual form, the use of the preposition “*od*”, noun deviations in the genre, number and the declination of the noun etc.

Word Order

Word order is determined by relatively accurate rules in every language. The basic word order in Slovene and Italian is the same, subject – verb – object. However, syntax requirements in the two languages differ from each other. Slovene as a synthetic language has flexible word order, Italian is an analytical language and its word order is less flexible.

Every language, according to Mathesius (1975) and the Prague School, uses certain sentence patterns. The patterning of the sentence into theme (the element about which something is stated and the basis of the sentence) and rheme (what is stated about the basis of the sentence) is called functional sentence perspective and it is determined by the functional approach of the speaker. If seen in the functional sentence perspective we can assume that in Slovene the perspective can change according to the communicative value of sentence parts with the changing of word order in the sentence. In Italian, on the contrary, the grammatical function of language has a greater impact on sentence patterns.

The basic norm for sentence word order is the same in Italian and Slovene and it follows the subject – verb – object order. Slovene language is, as said before, very flexible and the change of word order can impact the meaning of the sentence itself. The functional sentence perspective probably has a greater impact on Slovene word order than the grammatical principle. In Italian we assume that the factor with the major influence is the grammatical principle as the language is less flexible.

In Slovene language the subordinate clause does not begin with a subject if it is not strictly necessary for the functional sentence perspective of the sentence. In Italian the word order in the subordinate clause can be the same as the order in the main clause; it begins with a subject. In the analysed texts we found an example in which the subject is at the beginning of the subordinate clause, but this word order is in contrast with the Slovene grammatical principle as this order is not necessary for the functional sentence perspective: *V znameniti razpravi iz leta 1967 o osnovah kolektivnega vedenja Nesposobnost žalovanja prof. Alexader Mitscherilch in dr. Margarete Mitscherlich-Nielsen pišeta, da se Nemčija zdi izčrpana ter da nima moči, da bi priklicala na dan učinkovite politične ideje, ker večina prebivalstva se je strinjala z rasističnimi idejami nacistične oblasti. (M 5-6)*

Possible Italian version: *Nella nota discussione del 1967 sui fondamenti del comportamento collettivo L'incapacità di essere in lutto il prof. Alexander Mitscherlich e la dott.ssa Margarete Mitscherlich-Nielsen dicono, che la Germania sembra esausta e che non ha più forza per trovare idee politiche efficaci perché la maggior parte della popolazione era d'accordo con le idee delle autorità razziste.*

(English: *In the famous discussion in 1967 on the foundations of collective behaviour The inability to be in mourning, prof. Alexander Mitscherlich and dr. Margarete Mitscherlich-Nielsen said that Germany seems exhausted and that has no more strength to find effective political ideas because most of the population was in agreement with the ideas of the racist authorities.*)

Reflexive Verb

A very typical influence of Italian language can be seen in the use of Slovene reflexive verbs. The examined language pair does not have the same reflexive verbs, and therefore we can find examples in which the use of the reflexive verb form, where the Slovene norm would expect an intransitive or a transitive verb, is only used because the same verb in Italian can be used in its reflexive form:

Boljšega začetka si zares ni bilo mogoče pričakovati: v istem večeru sta obiskovalce goriškega Kulturnega doma nagovorila tako italijanski premier kot papež. (PD 4.2.2011)

Possible Italian translation: *Non si sarebbe potuto immaginare un inizio migliore: gli spettatori della Casa di cultura goriziana sono stati indirizzati sia dal premier italiano che dal Papa. (One could not imagine a better start: viewers in the House of culture of Gorizia were addressed by the Italian prime minister and the Pope).*

Slovene language does know the verb *pričakovati*, but not its reflexive form *pričakovati si*.

Negation

Another frequent group of examples of deviation from the Slovene grammatical norm in the examined corpus is the formation of negative sentences. In Slovene language they can be formulated by using the double negative, whether in Italian this is not possible (Dardano & Trifone 2001). We can find sentences where there is only one negative element if placed before the verb (as is the norm in Italian):

Nič manj oster je bil odziv Sredinske unije, po oceni katere je vladni sklep "vulgaren in nasilen" in je bil sprejet izven ustavne legalnosti. (PD 4.2.2011)

Possible Italian version: *Non è stata meno recisa la risposta dell'Unione di Centro secondo il parere della quale la decisione del governo "vulgare e bviolenta" ed è stata presa al di fuori della legalità costituzionale. (It was no less blunt the response of 'Union of the Centre regarding the opinion of the government's decision as "vulgar and violent" and it was not part of the constitutional legality)*

Slovene standard language would require a double negation like: *Nič manj oster ni bil odziv...*

Relative Pronoun

Bilingual authors frequently use a calque – this means an invisible word-for-word translation as a consequence of a process of strong bilingualism – without knowing it. One of the possible examples concerns the use of the Slovene relative pronoun *ki*. In Slovene, this noun can be lean declined, but the Italian form *che/chi* cannot be flexed.

Tako za Ščeka ne more biti ideološka pripadnost tisto, ki narod ločuje na skupine in skupinice. (M 7)

Possible Italian version: *Così per Šček l'appartenenza ideologica non può essere quello che divide il popolo in gruppi e gruppetti.*

(Thus, for Šček the ideological belonging can't be what divides the nation in groups and little groups.)

In the example above also the relative pronoun should refer to the neutral gender (*tisto*), and therefore the Slovene linguistic standard would require the substantival pronoun for the neutral gender *kar*.

Adjective

In Italian the adjective can precede or follow the noun, depending of its distinctive or denotative function. The Slovene language norm requires the adjective before the noun if the utterance is not strongly emphatic.

Ti se niti ne zavedaš, da kjer ni sence cenikov, ampak ti ob pultu sedi slavni filmski igravec, so cene stratosferske. (M 4) in Italian: *Tu non ti rendi nemmeno conto che laddove non c'è neanche l'ombra di listini, ma siede al banco un attore famoso, i prezzi sono stratosferici.* *(You do not even realize that where there is not even a shadow of price lists, but sits at the desk a famous actor, the prices are stratospheric).*

In the stated example we can see also a calque regarding meaning. The adjective *stratosferski* can be used also in Slovene language, but it is not as frequent as *astronomski* when referring to prices.

Conclusion

The present paper presents some deviations from the Slovene language standard due to interferences caused by language contact of Italian and Slovene language on the borderline territory. The analysis has to be further expanded with an enlargement of corpora that will allow a deeper functional sentence perspective view and will permit to generalize the results. It now proves the existence of interferences and shows the most common and the most numerous groups of this phenomenon. It can be pointed out that also due to the possibility of the Slovene minority to have its schools, media and rights, the Slovene language, even if under a big impact of Italian, persists and does maintain some of its most difficult and particular features as the dual form for nouns, verbs and adjectives and the declination of the noun.

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To Build an Activist Educator: The Importance of Modeling Innovative and Culturally Sensitive ESL Strategies in Early Field Placement Education Classes

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Abstract

With the growth of diversity in twenty first century classrooms, teachers increasingly need to demonstrate and understanding of cultural dimensions, particularly language diversity, from a variety of perspectives to be effective in the classroom. Pre-service educators in particular need to understand the importance of language when providing high quality educational experiences for our nation's children and must be able to articulate the relationship between critical pedagogy and educational curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. By modelling various strategies in the college classroom, teacher candidates gain a better understanding of the socio-cultural and academic instructional needs of English Language Learners in content area classrooms.

Keywords: Latino, ESL, strategies, field experiences, critical theory

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In 2010, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education released a policy brief outlining the importance of a strong clinical experience for pre-service teachers. Arguing that knowing content knowledge is important yet not sufficient enough for effective teaching, the brief points to the need for a solid, diverse clinical experience for teaching candidates early in their program. Three critical features of this type of preparation consist of: (1) a tight integration between course work and clinical work in schools, (2) an extensive and intensive supervision of the clinical field placement, and (3) close, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching. In addition, teacher candidates should strive to “contribute to the development of classrooms and schools that value diversity and civic-mindedness.” (“AACTE Policy Brief,” 2010)

The Secondary Education Department at Kutztown University of PA, one of the fourteen universities in the Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education, recognized the need for an earlier, and more diverse, clinical experience. Realizing that secondary education teaching candidates did not get consistent supervision until student teaching, we created a new model which would provide a supervised clinical experience starting with their acceptance into the education program through their capstone student teaching placement. The reason for the restructuring of courses was twofold; first, it created a seamless, less repetitive program that provided teaching candidates with the ability to reflect about student learning early in their coursework, and also allowed pre-service educators, the majority whom were Caucasian, to be exposed to the diverse cultures which enrich in Pennsylvania public schools. Research has indicated that programs offering short-term cultural immersions have raised the cultural awareness of pre-service educators. Such experiences (Willard-Holt, 2001) enhance the candidate’s knowledge of other cultures and heighten their conceptual awareness of student academic and personal growth and interpersonal connections. Similar, shorter programs had proven successful in the past. (FERENCE & Bell 2004; Stachowski & Mahan, 1998; Wiest, 1998) and our goal was to provide a sustained experience of observation and classroom interaction.

The restructuring of the program resulted in the creation of a new course, Principles of Learning. Principles of Learning is a six credit clinically based course that examines how aspects of learner language, culture, prior knowledge, and experience influence the learning process in the school setting. This course provides a bridge between theories of learning and current practice by placing teaching candidates in a weekly, supervised experience. Teaching candidates meet for 6 hours each week, in two three-hour blocks. During the first block, candidates meet on campus with their professor, providing the theory-based component of the course. The second block takes place in a secondary school setting. Students in this course observe in one of four middle schools chosen for their diverse population. Harrison Morton Middle School & South Mountain Middle School, in the Allentown Area School District, has a student population consisting of 63% Hispanic with 80% eligible for free or reduced lunch. The two middle schools in Reading School District, Northeast and Northwest, consist of 76% Hispanic students with 80% eligible for free or reduced lunch. The University community partnership is mutually beneficial; pre-service candidates receive an early immersion experience with diverse populations while middle school students spend time with college students who often serve as role models and mentors. This proves to be an important collaboration since studies have shown

Latino students often do not seek or complete college programs because they lack an understanding of how to prepare for college or remain goal oriented. (Gandara, 2010)

CRITICAL STRATEGIES

Socio-Cultural Strategies in the College Classroom Setting

The first challenge undertaken in the course is to address the teacher candidate's understanding and expectation of Hispanic students. In 2011, the study body of Kutztown University's College of Education was 92% white, with a majority of those students coming from Pennsylvania suburban areas with low Hispanic populations. Only 3% of teacher candidates identifying as Hispanic. ("KU Institutional Research," 2012) This demographic for the College of Education is representative of the larger U.S. teaching workforce, with the majority of teachers coming from white, middle class backgrounds. (Sleeter, 2001) From information gathered in a journal entry assigned in of Principle of Learning students, only three of sixty seven students surveyed said they had experience with Hispanic populations. Jeffrey Wayman states in a 2002 study examining student perceptions of teacher ethnic bias that although the perception of teacher bias is not overtly prevalent, there is a heightened degree of prejudice towards students who are Mexican American and male. (Wayman, 2002) Both districts visited by teacher candidates have a Mexican American population, with Reading's Mexican American population at 8% (http://proximityone.com/pa_sdc.htm, 2012) Further studies show that school age children, particularly in middle school, are aware of teacher practice towards them in relation to ethnic groups. (Wehlage & Rutter, 1986) Armed with this information, KU faculty were cognizant entering the course of the immediate need to familiarize teacher candidates with the challenges and concerns facing Hispanic students in the schools in which they would be observing.

The first classroom assignment candidates need to complete is a journal entry outlining their perceptions of the school neighborhood and population. Prior to the first field assignment, teacher candidates are told to visit their school neighborhood and conduct an ethnographic field study. First, candidates are required to research the current demographic statistics of both the community and the school district, focusing on levels of poverty, ethnicity, and language preference. They are asked to analyze the district website and review school policies and procedures. In addition, they need to discuss student performance on the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSAs), the standards-based, criterion-referenced assessment used to measure a student's attainment of the academic standards required under the Revised Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Candidates then spend an afternoon in the school's neighborhood observing the community and visiting local businesses and restaurants. Based on their research and observations, they must draw conclusions on what they think will be the largest challenges facing their middle school students and examine how ethnicity and class possibly affect student learning. Discussing early perceptions of the neighborhood and student body is a crucial first step in introducing candidates to the Latino culture and having them face their own possible prejudices based on ethnicity and socio economic status.

The goal of this first assignment is more than just raising awareness of the differences between the teacher candidate and Hispanic students. Paul Gorski (2009) argues that a conservative approach towards multicultural teacher education prepares teacher candidates to recognize differences in culture without altering the basic curricular

structure, which generally benefits the dominant culture. Instead, teacher candidates are asked to reflect on their own communities and neighborhoods in relation to those of their observation schools and reflect on the institutional structures (i.e., high stakes testing, school facilities, and district policies) that might contribute towards the success or failure of students. Throughout the course, candidates are then asked to refer this ethnographic study when designing culturally relevant teaching strategies and culturally responsive classroom management plans.

Throughout the course of the semester, candidates are required to keep a journal that reflects what they are observing in the classroom and how it relates to the theory presented in class. According to Gloria Ladson-Billings (1999), reflecting on diversity is an integral part of any early field experience. The purpose of journaling their observations in the classroom is multifaceted; they need to relate theory to practice, reflect on their own emerging philosophies in regards to teaching and learning, and voice their perceptions on how students learn in a classroom setting. Thirteen journal entries are required throughout the course of the semester, with four of the journal entries directly relating to ethnicity and language. Candidates are asked to reflect on their understanding of how children/adolescents acquire language and describe the language acquisition observed in their classroom. They need to outline how their classroom supports language and promote literacy, and how student diversity is recognized in this school and in this classroom. All journal entries conclude with a reflection discussing how does this understanding of language acquisition and ethnicity contribute to their overall understanding of how children/adolescents learn.

Sharing their journal reflections in the classroom is another important part of the process towards developing an understanding of Hispanic culture and language. When pre-service candidates are able to share their observations, it gives them the opportunity to engage in critical conversations often surrounding the issues of privilege and oppression. It also allows them to verbally formulate ideas on the connection between curricular policy and classroom performance based on culture. (Pewewardy, 2005) the hope is that these journal reflections allow candidates to explore a deeper understanding of their own educational context, reflect on possible privileges they received being of the dominant culture, and gain a greater appreciation of the challenges facing Hispanic students.

Another important aspect of the course is the need to outline to candidates what “being Hispanic” constitutes. Identity formation among youth is essential, particularly in the middle grades. Theories formulated by Bonfenbrenner, Erickson, and Marcia stress this period of adolescence as a critical developmental period in which self-understanding emerge to form a more solid individual identity. (Bonfenbrenner, 1989; Erickson, 1968; Marcia, 1980). However, ethnicity also plays a significant role in how adolescents define themselves. Ethnic identity influences how one views themselves in the larger context of school and society. Furthermore, when one is assured of their ethnic heritage and identifies with others who share their cultural background, they exhibit a stronger confidence in their abilities. (Martin & Chiodo, 2004) In the Reading School District, 43,935 students identify as Hispanic, with the largest majority (23,490) being Puerto Rican, 7,203 Mexican American, 535 Cuban, and 11,707 identifying as “other.” In Allentown School District, 39,396 are Hispanic, with 23,989 Puerto Rican, 1,733 Mexican American, 385 Cuban, and 13, 289 considering themselves “other.” (2010 Census) Both districts have a large

percentage of Dominican students who might account for the “other” category. Walking the halls of the schools, there is an outward demonstration of ethnic pride among students who proudly display flags and other ethnic symbols to show unity.

However, too often this ethnic pride serves as a deterrent to academic success. La Roche and Shriberg (2004) argue that Latino students often experience a “mismatch” between their cultural heritage and the prevalent school culture and policy. Furthermore, this contention between ethnic pride and class practice and policy, which is often founded in dominant culture ideals, is reflected in their poor performance on high stakes testing. Both Northwest and South Mountain Middle schools are in their second year of corrective action, with the poorest tests score of the PSSAs (Pennsylvania State System of Assessment) being among ELL populations. If pre-service educators are made aware of the importance of individual Latino cultures and values; particularly respect towards authority figures, family loyalty and attachments, and a tendency to work best collaboratively, they can best gear instruction to be more culturally sensitive and respectful of ethnic pride. (Comas-Diaz & Griffith 1988; Trent, Pernel & Stephens, 1995)

To assure that candidates have a strong understanding of the ethnic differences between Hispanic students, they are required to complete a case study of a student in their middle school classroom. Conduct descriptive qualitative field research in the form of a Case Study. Candidates need to select a student from one of the micro-cultural Hispanic groups. Upon attaining permission of the subject and guardian if the subject is under 18, they need to set up an interview schedule. Candidates are encouraged to open-ended questions that cannot be answered with a “yes” or a “no.”

They are required to use reflective listening and probing follow-up questions when the subject does not offer enough information. The Case Study interview questions must have the student reflect on the unique nature of their ethnic heritage as well as their school involvement and adolescent experiences. The narrative Case Study Report must demonstrate the candidate’s ability to conduct a positive interview and an understanding of both culture and learning theory.

The case study proves to be an effective tool in analyzing the importance of ethnic heritage among the middle school students observed. As an instructional strategy, the case study can “bridge the gap between theory and practice and between the academy and the workplace.” (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005) They also give students practice identifying the parameters of a problem, recognizing and articulating positions, evaluating courses of action, and arguing different points of view. Ultimately, the case studies provide narratives that present realistic and often complex situations which aid a candidate’s understanding of the importance of social identity and ethnic pride among their students. Students cease being seen as Hispanic and are respected for their unique cultural identity.

Strategies in the Middle School Classroom

Armed with a working knowledge of the struggles their students face in both the community and school, teacher candidates are encouraged to approach students in the classroom with a critical eye towards language and culture. Both Reading and Allentown School District’s student populations have a high percentage of ELLS. This increasing population of ELLs bring with them unique and diverse educational

challenges and cultural needs. It is important that these challenges and needs are recognized and addressed in order for ELLs to attain significant progress in the classroom so they are able to participate meaningfully and productively in their educational opportunity. Furthermore, it is important for teachers to have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to meet the needs of the students in their diverse classrooms. (Farrell 2006; Rothernberg & Fisher, 2007) Candidates are offered an introduction to understanding and addressing the socio-cultural and academic instructional needs of English Language Learners in content area classrooms. Additionally language acquisition and development, lesson design and adaptation, use of English Language Proficiency Standards, need for multiple/authentic formative and summative assessments, and legal responsibilities related to serving English Language Learners in the content area classroom are explored.

The first step in exploring effective ELL strategies for middle school students is to reflect on what strategies work best for each individual discipline. Students approach this task through analysis and discussion. Strategies are introduced in class organized around their usefulness in regards to testing, drawing upon prior knowledge, scaffolding, and word retention. Peer groups are formed based on content area to discuss the individual strategies and then each peer group comes to a consensus on what strategies would work best for their particular discipline. The groups must then model a lesson for their content using the most effective strategy. This review of effective strategies takes place throughout the course of the semester and proves invaluable in demonstrating how various strategies work best for each discipline. According to journal entries, students find the demonstration of various strategies in class beneficial when actually using the strategy in the field. The write they are more comfortable with the strategy and have a better understanding of its use.

One particularly useful strategy for all disciplines centers on reinforcing literacy development. The implementation of nonverbal visual cues and graphic organizers strengthens an ELLs understanding of the relationship between language and concepts. (Lambert & Carpenter 2005) At the beginning of the semester, candidates are asked to create a name using symbols instead of letters. They must draw an image of something that best represents their character based on the letters found in their name. Candidates then introduce themselves to one another, trying to figure out other names based on the illustrations. The activity highlights the importance of non-verbal clues in adding students who struggle with language acquisition and might be in the early stages of language development. From this activity, candidates are then encouraged to create a picture dictionary for the rest of the semester for words and concepts introduced in class that they find particularly difficult to remember or understand. Both activities focus on the importance of developing a connection for their students between content material, personal relevance, and key terms used in class. (Vacca-Rizopoulos & Nicoletti, 2009)

Candidates also learn the significance of recognizing levels of language acquisition. Although an ELL students might converse in English successfully, it can take anywhere from four to seven years to acquire a proficient rate of academic English to succeed in class. (Cummins 2000; Haynes 2010) One of the largest challenges facing candidates in the field is assessing the level of language acquisition among their middle school students. Often, low-income Latino students enter secondary school with gaps in their school experience. There is little continuity between grades entered

and often suffer from lack of technology literacy at home or in previous schools. Candidates must be aware that a student's academic IQ, country of origin, and culture does not determine the rate at which a student acquires academic English. (Rubinstein-Avila, 2006) Candidates are encouraged to employ strategies, which determine levels of academic English and to tailor lessons to the student's individual needs. To best meet the needs of students and accurately assess language proficiency, candidates are encouraged to create Sheltered Instruction Operation Protocol, or SIOP, lesson plans. A SIOP plan scaffolds instruction and allows for a variety of instruction in class based on student need.

"A vital first step," according to La Roche and Shriberg, "not only for educators and psychologists, but for all who care about improving the quality and appropriateness of the instruction that Latino children receive at schools is a knowledge of common Latino values... [and] an urgent need to develop more sophisticated education models that are responsive to Latino's cultural characteristics." (La Roche & Shriberg, 219) The early clinical field model immersing pre-service educators into Latino culture and language is the first step towards preparing culturally sensitive and effective classroom teachers.

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***French Higher Education Culture Changes and
the Internationalization Strategies of Universities (Field Research)***

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Abstract

France is following the trend of internationalization in higher education. Both governments and institutions work on their policy to promote their education system. French universities enter the international market of higher education and they need to make its « offer » more attractive to gain a competitive advantage over foreign universities. The competition is driven by the world-recognized American and British institutions and boosted by the international rankings which influence on the institution policies.

While on the governmental level these evaluations are taken into consideration to pursue the reforms, our filed research shows that French universities are conservative enough not to bring important changes to its education culture. In this article the results of filed research at 3 public universities are presented. This filed research consisted of the interviews with university vice-presidents responsible for the elaboration and for the realization of institution's internationalization strategy. The result of these interviews is a deeper understanding of the main features of French higher education internationalization strategy and its impact on the evolution of higher education system and its culture.

Higher education world is the reflection of society development. The main, basic, principles of society are defined and glorified in higher education institutions, they are refined at higher education culture. Changes that modern society engages for higher education systems are discussed with fear, pride and prejudice. What seems objective and timely for higher education policy-makers seems unnatural for the conservatives of higher education. Internationalization has become not a trend but a necessity for the universities all over the world: they try to find their place internationally and work on their “internationality”, they compete for better status and sources. It has been more than a decade since the beginning of Bologna process for the European universities to realize that they are not alone in this world and a birth of several academic rankings within last 10 years boosted intra-university competition on the international scale. The decision-makers at higher education institutions face the challenge to elaborate the right internationalization strategy given the certain context and the certain sources. Our analysis is an attempt to examine the actual policy of France to make French universities more international. To make this analysis more tangible this article includes the data of the field research at three French higher education institutions where the internationalization strategy leaders (vice-presidents and directors responsible for international relations) were interviewed on the subject of the internationalization strategy of their institutions.

Being attractive = risking a culture loss?

According to the data of UNESCO on the international students mobility France is the fourth most popular host country in the world for foreign students after the USA, the UK and Australia (UNESCO, Institute for statistics, 2012). Three leading countries belong to the same traditions in higher education; also their higher education systems have many similar features in terms of financing. French education system is different in many ways. The scientific literature both in English and in French is abundant for the comparative studies for France-UK and France-USA differences (Premfors, 1980; Buisson, 2004). Going through the information on the financial sources of Anglo-American universities and the cost per student per year at the highly-ranked prestigious universities, it is obvious for any scholar, that public institutions in France could not offer anything close to dreamy campuses, or service, or status, or a salary based on the name of the institution marked on the diploma. France spends 11 630 euros per student per year, which is average in Europe (OECD, 2012). And yet, it is the fourth most attractive country in the world for international Bachelors, Masters and PhDs.

France has its natural appeal for foreign students originating from Francophone or the countries with historic-geographical ties with France. Its lure in terms of tuition fees is also natural. Tuition payment in France is 181 euros per year for Bachelor, 250 euros per year for Masters degree and 380 euros per year for Doctorate program (French Ministry of Higher Education and Research data, 2013). France is culturally seductive too, and the social security system works well for foreigners. That is basically why France keeps up with the leading host countries for international students. However, French universities are not ranked as high as the universities of the USA and of the UK (ARWU, 2013; Times Higher Education, 2012 - 2013).

French governments of the last decade have made many efforts to turn the internationalization to the way that French universities could become more recognized internationally, more visible internationally and just more international.

The aims of law n° 2007-1199 of the 10th of August 2007 (Loi n° 2007-1199 du 10 aout 2007 relative aux libertés et responsabilités des universités) - - law LRU in French abbreviation, were first, make the university more attractive, second, to leave the palsy of universities governance and third, to make universities research more visible internationally. After the beginning of 2007 university reform, the French minister of higher education Valérie Pécresse visited the Jiao Tong scholars, creators of Shanghai ranking to introduce the higher education reform undertaken in France and to underline the positive changes for French universities (. Particularly, it was mentioned that the universities will become bigger and more interdisciplinary, which is assured by the creation of federal universities – poles of research and higher education (PRES in French abbreviation). This visit shows close attention of preceding French government at academic rankings and the intention to improve the place of French universities.

In addition to the structural - making public universities bigger, more heavy in terms of research and visible from far, - there is a governmental call for promotion of excellence and selectivity. In the Report for French Senate « L'autonomie des universités depuis la loi LRU : le big-bang à l'heure du bilan » of 26th march 2013 (Gilot, D., Dupont A., 2013) the French senators confirm the objective of LRU to make French higher education model more attractive according to the rankings criteria and the growing international competition between universities. The excellence is represented by the world-recognised highly ranked American and British institutions which belong to the higher education culture of the capitalist economic system of the developed states. The excellence of these institutions is found on their financial autonomy and autonomy of their governance. The same report cites the European Council that called European higher education system for excellence at their institutions. The word “excellence” is going throughout the report which became a footstep of the project of new law – law Fioraso - adopted in France on the 9th of July 2013 (LOI n° 2013-660 du 22 juillet 2013 relative à l'enseignement supérieur et à la recherche).

Apart from continuing the policy of the reinforcement of universities' autonomy and the corrections in their governance, a new law project also introduces the obligation of courses in English language at French universities. This generates a long debate for French academic society. On the one hand, it makes French universities more attractive for international students who do not speak French. The incoming mobility numbers would rise. The paid education programs will find their consumers. On the other hand, the quality of this education will loose whether linguistically or scientifically. What is more, one of the sides of the attractiveness of France, the capital of the Francophone, was its open door for French-speaking countries. This was also favourable for the promotion of the French language. Now, when the capital of the club has adopted another second major language, it loses a little bit of its cultural identity.

In the Report of International Association of Universities of the 28th of June 2012 “Internationalization of higher education: trends and indicators” there is a page with the listed risks brought by the internationalization for the systems of higher education (Egron-Polak, E., 2012). There are particularly three risks which sound relevant in the debates of the actual French higher education policy: commercialization of education programs, the raise of the competition between universities and the loss of the cultural identity.

By the letter French higher education culture is based on the secular education independent from any political, economic, religious or ideological dominance. It tends to the objectivity of knowledge; it respects the diversity of opinions and guarantees to the education and the research the possibilities of free scientific, constructive critical development. (Code de l'éducation - Article L141-6). By the spirit it is based on the equality of chances, free access to higher education and academic democracy. Is France changing its higher education culture?

Rob Cuthbert in his report « Changing the Higher education culture – Is it possible? » (Cuthbert, R., 2009) tries to highlight the possible changes in the UK higher education which are: globalisation, managerialisation, marketisation, massification, diversification, privatisation and academic capitalism. More and more scholars in France are worrying about the academic capitalism (Conférence annuelle du DIM IS2-IT 2013). Even if these trends seem of current importance in France, it is necessary to examine the institutions policy to see the foundations of their internationalization strategies and how capitalistic and Anglo Americanized they become.

Modern conservative university

In order to see if the practices at the institutions of higher education in France are different from the general governmental line the interviews of universities decision-makers on the internationalisation strategy were conducted. We chose 3 French universities to find out their internationalisation strategy. This survey does not include any private higher education institution. French higher education is represented by its public institutions - 80% of students study at public universities, which, basically, define the system of higher education in France (Campus France, 2012).

First university is specialized in Law, Economy and Human sciences. In 2012-2013 it had 39 876 students, 7712 of them were foreign students. The annual budget was, 203 560 453,22 euros, 11% of it - proper financing. In our research we call it UniHumans. Second university UniScience - is specialized in Science and Mathematics. It is ranked 1st in France, 6th in Europe and 37th worldwide in the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) where it was 1st among French universities. In 2012-2013 it had 270289 students, 4780 of them - foreign students. Budget - 400 million euros. Third university – UniMedicine is an interdisciplinary university with a very strong research in medicine, biotechnologies, social sciences and psychology: 38900 students totally, 4000 foreign students, budget of 333 millions euros. This data on the universities is published at the web-sites of universities.

All together these three French universities cover 23, 5% of the total number foreign students in the region of Ile-de-France and 7, 5 % of the total number of foreign students in France.

We have interviewed the vice –presidents responsible for the international relations. These vice-presidents are the persons which with its team elaborate the international strategy of the institution and present it in a form of quadrennial plan. We have interrogated these internationalisation policy decision-makers on the different issues related to the international competition and its effects of the universities strategy (Loyola, D., 2013).

The first questions aimed to reflect interviewees on the space where their universities compete with other universities from all over the world and if it was the international market of higher education. All three interviewees said that they had to admit that

international market of higher education exists and should be taken into consideration. An internalization strategy leader of UniMed said that this market is violent. However, being aware of the existence of the international market of higher education and their leaders and actors, two of three interviewees had difficulties to give a definition to the market. Only internalization strategy leader of UniHumans clearly stated his concept of international market of higher education, the offer and the demand, though he said that he “does not like the word market”, because this international higher education market “is not a regular market, in a sense that there is a global place where offer and demand meet, and there is no pay, the strict amount of money to give to acquire the good. Here, I want to say, that the ability to pay is important, but if you want to get into a very prestigious American university for a Bachelor degree you have to pay a lot, but you also have to show very good academic results. Thus, on the one hand, the selection is done by money, on the other hand by the academic results. A very good student who is looking for a doctorate school will always find a place where he will be offered a scholarship, so they pay him to come, so it works inversely: an institution, the offer-maker of the PhD program, will pay the students. Here, in Europe, many universities do that as we have doctorate contracts.” With this approach the conception of market is not seen as a place of economic and status competition between universities, but as a zone where both parties are something to offer and something to take. The student is unlikely seen as a consumer: a foreign student pays same amount of money, little considerable amount of money comparing to the state financing of its cost (Loyola, D., 2013).

Three interviewees gave different characteristics to the market, and took some time to find words to describe the market. The internationalization strategy leader of UniScience admitted that “it is not easy to talk about the market as the reflection on the market is poor”. The first market-question responses and reactions suggest that with the intensifying internationalisation French universities feel the competition between institutions on the international level, but still do not reflect on the “marketisation” of this space.

Mainly for the reason of symbolic tuition fees the reflection of French universities on the policy of attractiveness for international students has a different psychology – not to have many foreign students to earn money and a status in rankings, but to get international in research to win national and regional competition.

The internalization strategy leader of UniMed says that university does not have any strategy to attract Bachelor candidates but to integrate foreign undergraduates into French Masters and most importantly PhDs “for the ultimate result – their contribution to the advancement of knowledge and the science in France”. Same idea was expressed by internalization strategy leader of UniScience: “we do not have to choose our students for Bachelor programs, but for Masters and doctorate programs. We have a lot of PhD candidates coming from abroad”. Here is a French specificity of the French higher education market for foreign students: the offer is mostly Master and PhD programs. Even a very good public university of a good reputation in France does not make money on foreign students (if it is not a very specific program, often a joint-degree taught partially/fully in English). Also, a public French university has an

obligation before the state to accept all students for the first year of Bachelor without any selection within a limit of places. Basically, they are obliged to take everyone who is eligible and applied earlier within a deadline; the universities do not get to choose their undergraduate students and their potential. With regards to Masters and PhD, there is a selection with an evaluation of the whole profile of a potential candidate: his academic records, work experience, other extra scholar activities, and also well explained motivation and a logic personal project which has a place and application of the desired degree. So there is no economic interest to attract students at the first cycle, but to select students for the second and third cycle: the students that might bring some valuable research results, which could upgrade the status of university and might serve as an advantage in the national competition for government grants (Loyola, D., 2013).

The absence of tuition fees for usual programs and the lack of paid programs make the international strategy leaders at universities focus more on the partnership with ranked foreign universities in order to establish good exchange programs and then proceed with joint degrees. This becomes the core of their internationalization strategy. Internationalization strategy leader of UniScience defined his mission as to “develop the agreements with the best universities in the world, to create a VIP club of research-based universities” and for this reason, he has to “improve the shop-window, the visibility of his university, the communication” not to attract the students, but partners. Internationalization strategy leader of UniMed admitted that university is more interested in the establishment of joint labs than in attraction of foreign students.

All three decision-makers agreed that the international competition plays an important role in the elaboration of university strategy. However, here again the motivation is more the national status than international. Internationalization strategy leader of UniMed while answering this question mentioned only the importance of the competition is to work on internationalization as any modern university should do to get to the tenders and grants. Same idea was expressed by the internationalization strategy leader of UniHumans: “the international competition makes a French university to choose well his international strategy...before we had foreign students from the French ex-colonies or other French-speaking countries, we did not reflect a lot on the non French-speaking countries, and now our privileged partners are from Brazil, India and Asia, in general... We need to attract the best students to be better ranked and get he access to the programs of ANR” (Agence National de la Recherche – state agency that manages the programs of the state support of the higher education and the research in the form of tenders for universities and research institutions). Internationalization strategy leader of UniScience also focused more on the national aspect, as he wants to make more university more attractive in order that the foreign partnering universities prefer to send the exchange students to UniScience than to another university with the similar programs in French. Therefore, the international competition reveals the best foreign universities and also the trends in global students’ mobility to take into consideration while choosing the partners to be more competitive nationally (Loyola, D., 2013).

Two of three interviewees criticized rankings for their non-applicability to the different contexts including the French context which is clearly less homogeneous than Ivy League context. One interviewee said that “since we are the best in France in Shanghai ranking, then Shanghai ranking is a good one”. Despite the certain scepticism towards rankings all three decision-makers admit that they take into account the criteria of rankings while working on their internationalization strategy, but neither of them take the criteria as something to achieve, but rather something to consider and be aware of. All three interviewees outlined clearly the zones of their interest: Asia (China, particularly) and the countries of Bricks.

To the question to reflect on the trends on the international market of higher education all three interviewees stated that the priority is to develop the research at universities. For UniMed it is the creations of international “scientific platforms”, so the universities could exchange their scientific knowledge or trade it for service to have win-win intra-university cooperation. There was a description of the collaboration with Chinese traditional medicine university which tries to find a partner for the better understanding how to adapt Chinese pharmacology to the European norms. UniMed got against the necessary missing data on traditional Chinese medicine.

Apart from the research development, the internationalization strategy leader of UniScience mentioned the importance of the development of the international professional integration of students. These ideas make recall the higher education policy of excellence of Sarkozy government with the promotion of research within higher education institutions and the reinforcement of the university mission to integrate students into a professional life with better orientation and better service to help students work on their employability as it is done in the UK where the fees are high and the students need to feel employable, secure and supported in the construction of their career path after getting into a student loan to pay for many years after graduation. Internationalization strategy leader of UniHumans underlined the importance “to produce the original goods as, for example, the curriculum Paris-New York-Paris, or three semesters at best European universities to be different from others’ (Loyola, D., 2013).

Internationalization of high education is a necessity as France wishes to play an important role in the world politics and still keep the influence over certain regions of the world. Also, being international for French university is a prerequisite to have access to the national and European funds. To be more international French universities work on the mobility figures promoting the exchange programs among their students, offering mobility scholarships and partnering with attractive universities. So they could furthermore develop joint diplomas and get more international, more recognized and gain better reputation to win national and European trends. This is internationalization of higher education in France. “Within my mandate (3 years) I want to double the mobility numbers” (UniHumans). “It is so difficult to deal with a individual demand (individual mobility - students applying for Bachelor and Masters programs), because there are fake diplomas, fake grades, we do not really know the schools or universities of those applicants...It is much more interesting not to take the students who knock the door because they see the light, but

those from universities we know well, with whom we have agreements. It is a collective demand (exchange programs mobility)” – UniScience (Loyola, D., 2013).

Do French universities look at the rankings, study their criteria and be aware who is considered the best of the world and why? Yes, they do. However, it is more of an observation than a study. They look at the rankings because the students look at the rankings and also because it is a mode of university evaluation. They look who is the leader too. But the system is different, culture is different. Any French university is dreaming of the glory of Ivy League, but every university policy leader knows that the systems are incomparable and the conditions are different. They do try to work on the image of university, on the products, but the price for those products is to a littlest extent defined by the international, a little more regional and much more of the national market.

However, there are two important aspects of being international for a French university which might point out the inclination of French higher education culture towards academic capitalism and the inspiration from the market leaders: the acceptance of the idea of higher fees for public institutions and the promotion of the English-taught programs.

Two of three universities leaders (UniHumans and UniScience) agreed that anglophonization of higher education in France is inevitable. Internationalization strategy leader of UniMed was uncertain if it is necessary to introduce more English in the education programs: “For me, it is a stupid debate. Internationalization strategy leader of UniHumans admitted that he “has to say yes to anglophonization”: “Today, if you want to have at once students from the North America, South America... Africans, Asians, Russians and Chinese, you have to speak English”. However, he revealed that he tries to promote the idea of an introductory year of integration for the foreign students applying for Bachelor programs. “Since we are lucky in France to have Bachelor in 3 years and not in 4 years, like in other countries, than why not to create the first year of French integration?” Internationalization strategy leader of UniScience said that he is in favour to augment the number of English-taught programs, but with the French method: “Our offer on the market is poor because of the language... We have so many partners (foreign universities) who ask us why we do not offer programs in English?... There is “speaking French” and “thinking French”, and I think, France, we have something to give in terms of thinking. We think differently: there in French journalism, French architecture. We want to teach something in a French way, we can do it in English... I think English language is fundamental.”

All the three universities are in favour of the raise of tuition fees. Internationalization strategy leader of UniHumans warned that “if we stay in this dynamics of not raising the fees we will see the death of the public higher education”. Internationalization strategy leader of UniScience is “extremely in favour” of higher fees: “There is a private offer from the schools of managements which make pay an expensive price and they offer something extraordinary. We can not offer anything extraordinary in

terms of service. I think, it is necessary that French students pay more. And foreign students should pay the cost". Internationalization strategy leader of UniMed claims that "our education is not considered as a good one, because it is not expensive. But in fact it has the same cost as in other European countries, it is just the state that pays. I do not see the problem in raising the fees. Foreign students pay more? No, I do not think so. Equality should be there". One of the interviewed acknowledged that the academic capitalism is inevitable even though France will fight for its higher education cultural identity (Loyola, D., 2013).

Conclusions

Higher education in France has taken its turn to internationalization by its own path. The governments work on the image of French universities and set the rules to be "rankable" and recognizable. Internationalization for the very universities – it is like a mayonnaise for a sandwich – one of the layers they must think about to be taken into consideration. However, there are few opportunities for commercialization and visibly little marketisation of higher education institutions. The government will be the one to give a green light for marchandialisation of university programs. Before the tuition fees rise, the internationalization at French universities would probably keep the following features:

- No policy of attractiveness for Bachelor programs;
- Allying with ranked universities from developed world and emerging states to create joint degrees and receive students on paid programs;
- Making efforts to raise their mobility figures to upgrade the status of university nationally and regionally.

These tactics create a certain level of "internationality" for French universities to keep France in the top 5 of host countries, but do not change dramatically French higher education culture before the tuition fees go up.

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Meeting the Challenge of Higher Education: Creating Transformational Spaces that Empower Learners

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Abstract

This paper will discuss research findings that highlight the importance of contemporary higher education providing opportunities for opening up communicative spaces that encourage learners – researchers, teachers and students – to engage in ways that enable education to become a critical tool for empowerment within both individual and group contexts. A particular focus of this paper will be the creation of cross-cultural learning environments that enable all participants to engage in critical learning journeys that create and build upon their mutual understanding and respect for one another - their respective knowledges, languages, cultures and life experiences. Finally this paper will consider how learners, actively undertaking such learning journeys, develop the capacity to not only transform their own lives and those of their families and communities, but also acquire the knowledge and understanding needed to contribute to a wider societal transformation.

Introduction

This paper is premised upon the reality of education delivery in a modern world. A world in which we, as educators, must look beyond the learning needs of past students to ensure that our current policies, programs and practices have the capacity to deliver an education that prepares present and future students for meaningful engagement in the productive life of his or her society. But increasingly this is a world in which the old established thinking that determined the boundaries or borders around the social, cultural, economic and political processes that operated within and beyond various national states is evolving, possibly even threatened, by a world that is, quite literally, beyond our experience. The theme for this conference, “Learning and Teaching Through Transformative Spaces” alerts us to the real challenge of the future for us as educators – the need to transform ourselves in order to meaningfully engage with our students and their learning needs.

This paper will consider how effectively the creation of transformational spaces might enhance the capacity of Higher Education to meet challenges associated with addressing cultural diversity in ways that enable students from different cultural backgrounds to empower themselves through their university experience. Using the term ‘empower’ is a deliberate ploy here for if we return briefly to the world that many of us know, boundaries or borders have, over time, been used for various purposes including the creation of divisions that could then be used to include some while simultaneously excluding others. Much has been written about how colonialists used borders to take control of the land and resources of others, to subjugate and destroy the culture of the previous inhabitants and to impose their cultural and economic supremacy in order to dominate those they had invaded (Fong Chua & Poullaos: 2002). But could this be changing in a global world, where new technologies have led to an explosion not only of knowledge but, equally important, its accessibility. Modern media contributes to this accessibility by ensuring we are all aware of the massive changes that could be perceived as breaking down the old World order while simultaneously destroying those borders of exclusion. Amidst the constant noise created by 24 hour news cycles bombarding us with highly dramatic descriptions of catastrophic events, it can be difficult to maintain our focus on the purpose of our work as educators. Yet, it is vital that we acknowledge the chaotic state of our current world for such action highlights the relevance of our work in delivering education that does prepare people to participate effectively in the world in which they live, thus empowering themselves through their education. We must also acknowledge that it is easy to talk about people from culturally diverse backgrounds ‘empowering’ themselves through higher education. Such words project a dual image of universities opening their door to those who missed out on a university education and of those who missed out, suddenly deciding the time had come for them to go get a university education and build a better life for themselves. Based upon my own life and work experience, I would argue that the reality is somewhat different. Hence, this paper will consider the following questions:

1. Is it important for modern universities to create transformational spaces for addressing cultural diversity?
2. How do people whose families have suffered serious inter-generational education disadvantage, empower themselves through tertiary education?
3. What needs to happen in communicative spaces to enable Indigenous students and /or other colonized groups to engage in transformative learning?

Context for Discussion

The challenges inherent in these questions will be considered within the context of higher education delivery for Indigenous students in contemporary Australia.

Universities in Australia

Any consideration of the modern university in Australia must acknowledge Australia's long colonial history and the reality that, as a British colony, early Australian universities reflected the traditions of the colonizer, hence, were established to ensure upward social mobility to the elite in society. Following the election of the Whitlam Labor Government of the early 1970s, the focus shifted to social justice and the subsequent abolishment of university tuition fees, forced universities to open their doors to students from a diversity of educational backgrounds. Successive Federal Labor Governments, in the 1980s, despite their stated concern for equity, implemented more economically driven policies aimed at ensuring a more competitive Australian workforce (Herbert: 2012). Hence, there has been huge growth in student enrolment, especially of students from equity groups, in Australian universities; a shift to preparing students for employment in the professions; and a need to employ academic staff with professional experience. The need to produce graduates with specific professional competencies has tended to overshadow production of critical thinkers. Governments' commitment to economic rationalism over recent decades has resulted in policy making and subsequent service provision being increasingly dominated by managerial demands around issues of accountability - standards, efficiency and productivity - driven by political masters preoccupied with shaping a world that reflects neoliberal beliefs while maintaining the colonial centre-periphery power structures that underpin capitalism. As a result many academics feel their role, relative to the purpose of universities, has been devalued, their capacity to deliver the relevant, quality education that is their 'raison d'être' is being eroded away and nobody is listening. The resulting discontent means Australian universities may not always be welcoming sites for the disadvantaged student seeking self-empowerment.

Indigenous Australian Student Cohort

Over recent decades, with the expansion of globalization, many who work in universities have experienced increasing student numbers together with increasing cultural diversity in the student body. Working in the field of Indigenous education in Australia, catering for cultural diversity has been the focus of my work over many decades and it is that work experience, as teacher, manager and researcher, that leads me to suggest that what happens in Australian Indigenous education could be seen as a microcosm of wider cross-cultural education environments.

Australian colonial texts, with their references to 'the blacks', 'the savages', 'the Aborigines', implied a oneness, a certain cohesion, but in reality Australia's Indigenous peoples, Aboriginal peoples and Torres Strait Island peoples, comprised a diversity of groups occupying many distinct lands. There is a paucity of the written record in regard to Aboriginal populations at the time of invasion but various estimates suggest a total population around 750000 people, with 700 different languages (Australian Museum: 2013). While population recently reached 500000, few Aboriginal languages have survived.

It is important to acknowledge that, under contemporary Australian law, an Indigenous person is defined as a person of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander descent who identifies and is accepted as such by the community in which he or she lives. Identification is determined by: descent; self-identification; and community acceptance. In this paper, the term Indigenous will be used to denote Australian Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Island peoples and it is their educational experiences, as colonized peoples, that inform any discussion of the potential of education as a tool of self-empowerment. This is a critical aspect of this paper for Australia's colonial legacy has ensured that education in Australia continues to be influenced by Western values and beliefs (Herbert, 2003: 25-26). Many universities have failed to recognise the 'pervasive and unrelenting persistence of the invasion of Aboriginal Australia' (Dudgeon cited in Herbert, 2003:75), a reality that has long diminished their capacity to deliver education that is empowering for Indigenous students.

Enabling Transformative Education

Finally, having provided a brief insight into the factors that have impacted upon Indigenous students participating in Australian universities, the evidence of recent research will be used to provide a way forward. In recognition of the students' own agency in choosing to participate in the research, this paper will use student quotes to enable student voices to speak out, to share their experiences and insights concerning their engagement in the university. Analysis of those 'voices' will indicate what might constitute a 'communicative space' that enables Indigenous students and/or other colonized groups to engage in transformative learning.

Transformative education for culturally diverse learners

Transformative education essentially seeks to 'transform' how one views the world and one's place within that world. In his Theory of Transformation Learning Mezirow argues that 'learning is understood as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or a revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience to guide future action' (1996:162).

Nagata cites Lennox (2005) work around the on-going attempts to define transformation, highlighting her choice of O'Sullivan, Morrell, & O'Connor's (2002) work to provide a tentative definition of integral transformative learning.

Transformative learning involves experiencing a deep, structural shift in the basic premises of thought, feeling, and actions. It is a shift of consciousness that dramatically and permanently alters our way of being in the world. Such a shift involves our understanding of ourselves and our self locations; our relationships with other humans and with the natural world; our understanding of relations of power in interlocking structures of class, race, and gender; our body-awarenesses; our visions of alternative approaches to living; and our sense of possibilities for social justice and peace and personal joy (Lennox cited by Nagata, 2005:46).

This shift to thinking about who we are and how we become who we are enables learners to become more aware of issues of social justice and the importance of critically engaging in the discourses surrounding their own identity and their own positionality relative to those discourses (Kemmis: 2000). Such active engagement in their own learning, in the critical reflection and decision-making around who they are and where they wish to be is an essential element of transformative learning

especially for culturally diverse students who may have limited experiences of engaging with and understanding the discourses that define their identity and how such identity may have been used to position them within their higher education learning environments (Lennox cited by Nagata: 2005).

Communicative spaces

This paper considers how the opening up of communicative spaces in universities might enable all learners – researchers, teachers and students – to engage more effectively in an education process that is empowering for all within both individual and collective contexts. This focus aligns with Habermas's views around communicative action and its critical place "as the core concept" (cited by Kemmis, 2000:4) of philosophical modernity.

While such positioning is important, however, Wicks & Reason also stress the importance of what happens right at the beginning, in the discussions and actions that determine what is

needed. They cited Kemmis (2001) argument that:

The first step in action research turns out to be central: the formation of a communicative space which is embodied in networks of actual persons A communicative space is constituted as issues or problems are opened up for discussion, and when participants experience their interaction as fostering the democratic expression of diverse views . . . [and as permitting] people to achieve mutual understanding and consensus about what to do . . . (Wicks & Reason, 2009:243).

Relevance of transformative education practice in Australian universities

The historical record demonstrates how education has been used to position Indigenous peoples within Australian society and, in the process, created a discourse of 'failure' that continues to permeate Indigenous education both in terms of student achievement and teacher expectations (Herbert, 2003:2012). It also reveals why Indigenous Australians are relative newcomers into the academe.

But, despite changes that began to occur in the 1960s, as a result of the international social and technological changes of the 1950s-1960s, the impact of 170 years of colonial oppression became increasingly evident in the levels of educational disadvantage suffered by Indigenous Australians. Despite the desire to improve the social and economic circumstances of Indigenous peoples and increase access to schools, especially primary schools, education continued to fail Indigenous Australians well into the 1980s. But this decade also marked a real change in the public profile of Indigenous Australians as ideals of self-determination began emerging. The National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy (NATSIEP), endorsed and implemented in 1990, was a watershed in the history of Indigenous education in Australia, for it was: a) the first policy to deal specifically with education for Indigenous Australians; and, b) the first attempt to connect policy, schools and communities. It failed, however, to address the social environment in which Indigenous students lived and the reality that poor educational outcomes were deeply embedded in societal structures that continued to reflect colonial attitudes and the protection of Centre power (Herbert:2012).

The crucial breakthrough came in 2000 when governments began to recognise that the broader disadvantage suffered by many Indigenous peoples appeared to be affecting the capacity of governments, education providers and students themselves to improve Indigenous educational outcomes. They acknowledged that Indigenous education policy couldn't be developed in isolation from other areas that would likely impact upon the social and economic wellbeing of Indigenous peoples and implemented structural changes to ensure Indigenous peoples' engagement in what is termed a whole-of-government approach to policy development and implementation. This was a critical development as Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2011 census data revealed that Indigenous peoples comprised 2.5 % of the total Australian population and Indigenous students comprised 1.4% of all university enrolment in 2010. Population parity remains a future goal and Indigenous Australians remain significantly under-represented within the Australian system of higher education. It has been difficult for such a small group, to make the diversity of their voices heard.

Implications for Higher Education

While change has been limited and slow, it is encouraging. More significantly, however, change is beginning to occur in higher education with reports of increased:

1. enrolments of school leavers with successful Year 12 completions; and
2. participation of Indigenous students in disciplines other than the arts, humanities, social science and teacher education.

The importance of such change was evidenced in 2012 when for the first time population parity was achieved for Indigenous students enrolling in the first year of medicine in universities across Australia. A small but significant achievement indicating that some Indigenous students are discovering that education can be a tool of empowerment. Upon reflection, these changes representing the emerging reality in Indigenous higher education in Australia, are particularly enlightening for they imply that something transformative may be beginning to take place in certain learning environments or within certain learners. And, there is evidence to support this argument in the small but growing number of qualified:

- Indigenous peoples taking up positions in the professions of law, medicine, engineering, science, accountancy and so on; and
- Indigenous academics, including at professorial level, being employed within Australia's universities.

The following brief consideration of some of the findings from my PhD study into Indigenous success in higher education will be used to consider the potential of higher education to become a site for opening up communicative spaces that encourage learners – researchers, teachers and students – to engage in transformative education. Student voices drawn from my thesis will inform the discussion. Most of the students in this study perceived higher education as the pathway to realising their personal and professional aspirations, creating better futures for themselves and their families and achieving equality with their fellow citizens. Many students talked about their feelings of inadequacy within the university community, identifying lack of English language skills and/or very limited previous school experience as critical factors in their 'not knowing what to do or how to do it'. Many had no knowledge of university protocols around expected behaviours, where or how to access whatever support they needed or how to deal with racist attitudes from staff and other students.

The research

The research comprised a small qualitative study of 50 respondents participating in either individual interviews or focus group meetings, designed to explore Indigenous students' lived experience in relation to their own education. Questions sought reflective responses from participants thus allowing some space for people to make their own choices about the knowledge they wished to share, an important consideration in a study that sought to demonstrate a commitment to processes of decolonization, of healing, of transitioning and transformation as individuals. Interview transcripts were returned to individuals so they could participate in a second interview if they desired to make changes to what they had said. This enabled them to participate in the decolonisation process and engage in their own transformation. Respondents were invited to share their opinions, thoughts and feelings about success and the experiences they considered had enabled them to become university students and/or academic staff. Data was gathered during 2001, in three universities, all of which had Indigenous support units. The following themes - power, knowledge, culture, community, diversity, language, policies and racism – emerged out of the data and were used as analytical tools to examine the university experience.

Research findings and implications

Major Finding

The majority of students in this study indicated they came to university to acquire the knowledge and skills they needed to get a better job, in terms of salary and security, thus enhancing their life opportunities. Over 50% of students considered their university studies were enabling them to become more critical thinkers and a similar number believed they were becoming better communicators. While these are vital aspirations for educational empowerment the fact that they can also be transformational is revealed in the following:

Margaret explained that she had come to university, thinking of herself simply as 'Margaret' but suddenly she became 'black', 'female' and 'disadvantaged'. She was shocked by this and went and talked to the Professor in an effort to work out how to deal with these labels. She also experienced considerable conflict as a result of people in her classes — both lecturers and students — referring to Indigenous peoples in what she considered to be derogatory terms. After putting up with it as long as she could she was finally unable to remain silent.

The word 'black' was used really openly and I felt that some students didn't want to be . . . to participate in your group. I mean it was not done in an 'in your face way' but you can read the body language . . . one day, in a group discussion, I got sick of them using the word 'black' so I stood up and said, 'Excuse me, using the word 'black' like this upsets me. We're future social workers, we're going out to work with different people — Indigenous peoples and ethnic groups. I think that we should be thinking about how to get on with these people, how to relate to them. I think it's time you left that word 'black' out of your vocabulary.' Then the lecturer turned around to me and said, 'So, what do we call them?' I said, 'Everybody has a name . . . use people's names and why can't we refer to Aboriginal people or Indigenous people?'

Ultimately, Margaret's determination to bring such issues out into the public domain proved transformational for all engaged in that learning space for it forced people to

consider their attitudes not only within the context of fellow students but also beyond the university into their future workplace environments and the wider community. Significantly it also caused the lecturer to reflect upon the language she was using within the learning setting and the hidden messages she was conveying as a result. While she did modify her language, she also followed Margaret's lead and established class discussions to critically reflect upon a range of sensitive issues that could have implications for these students in their future workplaces.

Other critical findings

Students in this study identified the following as the most critical factors in enabling them to achieve the outcomes they wanted from their higher education.

1. Access to Indigenous support units. All universities in this study, offered enabling and foundation programs in addition to general pastoral support for all Indigenous students studying in the university. Respondents indicated such units were the most positive form of enabling support universities could give their Indigenous students.

Len, who had attempted two mainstream programs prior to enrolling in the tertiary access program, provided some valuable insights.

When I first came to university, I went straight into a mainstream program. I thought I could handle that. My self-esteem was pretty low and I found it extremely hard to build my confidence. You put in assignments and just get over the line or go into exams and just get through or fail . . . It was just one big struggle all the time . . . coming into the access has made a big difference. I'm getting good marks because I'm getting encouragement and I'm talking with the lecturers because over here they have an interest in their students. In mainstream, no-one cares if you're struggling, it's like 'so what if you drop out!'

A majority of students identified the importance of being able to return to the Centre between lectures, to be with their own people, to feel they belonged. Others talked of feeling proud to be able to bring their non-Indigenous fellow-students over to the Indigenous unit when they wanted to find a place to work together on some aspect of their course. Only two students in this study did not perceive the socialisation aspect of these units as critical to them being able to 'hang in there . . . to survive'.

Essentially, these centres encouraged students to come in and actively engage in discussions with others - students and staff – as a means of enabling them to identify, explore and question what was happening to them and how they might deal with some of the issues they were confronting. Solving their own problems in this way was not only empowering for the individual but also enabled them to move on with minimal disruption to their studies.

2. Encouragement to take responsibility for their own learning. Research respondents revealed that, despite some initial reluctance, they grew to value opportunities where they could participate in formal and informal activities that focused on identifying factors that enabled them to effectively engage in their university learning. That such activities were an important component in building their personal capacity to persist in their studies, was revealed through the number of critical issues they identified including: relationships with teaching staff and other students; language – spoken,

written and body; access to tutors; cultural affirmation; racism, and, most importantly, being treated as equals.

Many students raised the inappropriate use of language, by teachers or fellow students, that made them feel culturally excluded and impacted upon their ability to engage. Such concerns did not apply only to spoken language as Margaret explained:

It didn't matter what I did she would write comments all over it. I know I probably didn't have good writing skills but she would write 'you need to go and learn to talk proper English' . . . that sort of thing.

Almost 80% of respondents suggested that the quality of relationships with teaching staff was a critical factor for Indigenous students and, in particular, the capacity of lecturers and tutors to provide support and demonstrate respect for students was considered to be paramount for students seeking success. Yvonne revealed that one of the things that made her feel valued in the university was 'having people willing to listen, having the lecturers make time for me . . . I had a big fear about that. When they gave me their time it made me feel I was worth something'.

While students generally spoke positively about their learning interactions, some revealed how damaging negative experiences could be.

I remember in a first year lecture . . . I put my hand up and asked a question and the lecturer yelled at me that there was no such thing. The lecture theatre was full and she nearly killed me with that. About six weeks later, we had a lecture on the very thing I had asked about. That really killed me. I never had any input into her lectures after that, I wasn't game to speak (Margaret).

I would be asked to explain some aspect of culture...but then they would give the impression that I was just talking a lot of rubbish (Lorraine).

These comments encapsulate the sense of powerlessness that too many students experienced, particularly during their initial engagement in mainstream studies. The use and misuse of power in educational encounters was a frequent focus of discussions involving students and staff in the centres. Ultimately, many of the students in this study attributed their capacity to confront and overcome such issues as having emerged out of their being able to engage in such discussions in a space where they were able to say whatever needed to be said.

Racism could be overt or covert, blatant or subtle:

. . . there were a couple of lecturers . . . no matter how hard I tried, it was never good enough. In my third year . . . I was doing a theory subject and it didn't matter what I did, I'd only get a pass. It was like there was a ceiling put there. Other students would read my assignments and wouldn't be able to see anything different to their assignments yet they would get distinctions and I would get passes . . . I want to believe everybody wants us to succeed but I don't know if that's true. Cross-cultural training should be mandatory for all lecturers (Mary).

Various students were confronted with the dilemma of trying to maintain and validate their own cultural values and knowledges whilst having to learn and appreciate knowledge that was constructed and underpinned by western values. A critical issue for students attempting to incorporate their own culture into behaviour, class discussions, assignments - was the degree to which lecturers, tutors, fellow students might understand or appreciate a different viewpoint. Some found other ways of dealing with such situations as Ben, a law student explained:

Racism is one of those things that people confront when they have to or when it's easy . . . but for Indigenous students, they're still . . . wary of it. They're pretty awake up to the fact that it's there, but often misunderstand the position as far as getting into university. It's still there! That was my biggest — well, you know, you see it outside in the mainstream and you think . . . well it doesn't mean that people who study are any more intellectually-minded than the bloke out on the street who's digging the ditch. When it suits them they will both fall into the same pit. It's a lot to do with peer pressure. We know that and accept it but we also have to confront it when we have to. A couple of years ago, Henry was here - a pale faced bloke. A group of them were criticising him for saying he was an Aboriginal. Next day I gave the four of them a heap of material on Aboriginality. A week later they handed it back to me. They didn't say anything but they stopped calling Henry the 'white Aboriginal'. That's how we dealt with it. Henry was pretty upset but I said, 'It's something we know is there, it's a part of life and the university is just a part of the community so it's no different to life anywhere'.

Conclusion

Based on the evidence of the data, I concluded that the students in this study had, through their very personal revelations concerning the importance of their personal growth in line with their cultural identity, demonstrated their increasing competence to operate within both, or either, western and Indigenous frameworks. I argued that many of these students were seeking to create new discourses rather than simply engaging at the interface to buy into the discourses of the other. They were moving from the margins of the university to take their place at the centre and beginning to articulate what they wanted from the university (Herbert, 2003:257). They were empowering themselves.

It is important to acknowledge that a specific focus of this research was to explore issues around education as a tool of empowerment and whether or not Indigenous students participating in Higher Education programs in Australia, could, in fact, empower themselves through their studies, given that, over the past two centuries, education had failed to deliver on its promise for their peoples. The dialogues presented in this paper illustrate how some of the students in this diverse group discovered that they were able to take responsibility for their own empowerment once they found their own voices. This was relatively easy for those who were articulate individuals – they were simply engaging with different people and situations. For others, however, it was often a frustrating process before they reached the point where they could no longer remain silent, where they had to change their behaviour and engage in a transformational process. Significantly, most of the students who found their voice, discovered that developing the capacity to deal with issues that directly

concerned them, in a straightforward, calm manner was highly effective in getting their message across, in being able to engage other learners – their fellow students, tutors and lecturers – in discussions that inspired critical reflection and collaborative problem solving as equals. Ultimately, the reality of these outcomes – Indigenous empowerment and attitudinal change for all learners – proved the value of opening up communicative spaces that encourage learners – researchers, teachers and students – to engage in transformative learning. These outcomes also demonstrated that having transformed themselves through their engagement in empowering communicative spaces, these Indigenous students had provided the catalyst for a transformation that would enhance the capacity of their university to meet the challenges of creating educational spaces that would empower learners from a range of culturally diverse backgrounds.

The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping circular arcs. The upper arc is a light blue color, and the lower arc is a light red color. The arcs are thick and have a slightly textured appearance, resembling brushstrokes or thick lines.

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Changing Education through the Transformation of Learning Spaces: Analysis of the Secondary Schools Modernisation Programme in Portugal

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Abstract

In this paper we present findings from the evaluation study of a nation-wide school renovation programme in Portugal in order to discuss the social and pedagogic challenges of developing transformative learning spaces for secondary education. The Secondary Schools Modernisation Programme (SSMP) represents a major investment in public schools and it is an unprecedented program in the Portuguese context, accompanying a set of international initiatives of similar scope. The study analysed the policy implementation, taking into account school community participation, discussing: how the programme requirement to involve users in the renovation was met in the different schools; examining perceptions of the programmes' pedagogical principles and impact on teaching and learning models, considering overall opinions of the renovation process; and to what extent the new physical learning environment favours contemporary educational practices. The relationship between space, architecture and learning has to be debated in the context of education policy options, because space is one of the factors that affects learning dynamics. The analysis shows that the upgrading of schools as a result of renovation increased pride in and responsibility for the school. But teaching practices in schools remain set in a traditional mould, with teachers' lectures prevalent. Tensions remain between the objectives defined at the political level and the effective conditions for learning.

Keywords: learning spaces; education policy; sociology of education; school architecture; social architecture; social participation

Introduction

In recent decades, education policy-making has been appropriated by the state in its determination to control, manage and transform society and to reform and 'modernise' education provision (Brauna, Maguireb and Ball, 2010). Among such policies, governments in different countries have turned to school buildings, attempting to reform education through the modernisation of learning environments, as has increasingly been acknowledged within academic literature (McShane, 2012; Mahony, Hextall and Richardson, 2011; Kangas, 2010).

In Portugal, one of the central education policies in terms of state investment is the Secondary Schools Modernisation Program (SSMP), which incorporates the broader objective of reforming the state school buildings' network and is based on the assumption that the quality of school buildings is a driving force in improving and promoting equal access to education.

Within the context of this unprecedented program in Portugal, we have conducted an evaluation-research project between 2010 and 2011 to analyse how the spaces are being used and to what extent the physical learning environments encourage contemporary educational practices. The central concern of the study was to evaluate the impact of the SSMP on socio-educational dynamics, the use and appropriation of the renovated spaces, and the perceptions of the various social actors involved.

The focus of this article is on the impacts of the SSMP, considering the perceptions of the schools' users in two main aspects: i) participation processes, discussing how the program's requirement to involve users in the renovation was met in the different schools; ii) the program's impact on teaching and learning models, taking into account overall opinions on the renovation process, how the spaces are being used and to what extent the new physical learning environment supports contemporary educational practices.

The article begins by briefly presenting the theoretical framework, focusing on the key debates on the relationship between space and learning. It goes on describing the SSMP and its context. The methodological procedures are then presented, followed by the discussion on the results of the evaluation of social actors' views on the participation process, the program principles and the impact of the rebuilding program on learning models and dynamics. The article concludes with an overview of key findings, contributing to a better understanding and discussion of the relationship between space and learning within the framework of education policy.

Theoretical framework: Space and learning

Literature shows that the characteristics of school facilities influence teaching and learning processes; however, the extent of that influence remains unclear (Cramer, 1976; Schneider, 2002; Higgins et al., 2005), due in part to the difficulty of isolating the effect of one variable from a set of factors. The complexity of such relationships continues to be a challenge worth exploring.

In considering the shift of education policy's attention to school buildings, Mahony, Hextall and Richardson (2011) talk about a new social architecture, one that seeks to examine the

relationship between space and learning. This discussion has to be taken into account in understanding how both education and learning are being reconfigured at national and international levels (Brooks, Fuller and Waters, 2012).

Gislason (2007) states that school architecture is a fundamental part of the learning environment. However, various studies have also shown that ‘school buildings rarely reflect the state of the art of educational projects’. School architecture emerges as a specialised architecture that adopts forms and languages that become part of the education’s patrimony and ideology. The planning of school spaces responds to two types of rationality: it is an expression of the predominant orientation of institutional architecture; and it reflects the educational discourse relevant to the school culture (Benito, 2003).

School architecture can give support to dynamic learning processes, both materially and socially. It is important to question how a given school space functions as a pedagogical (and political) instrument, as “places can serve as effective teachers”, but they may also obstruct the learning process if they are inadequate (Gislason, 2007, p. 6). The school building is a physical structure, but also transmits visual messages of how to feel and act there, contributing (or not) to create conditions favorable to learning and social dynamics.

Reflecting on school architecture also implies considering how it is linked to learning concepts and theories developed over time. From the “tacit curricula” of the disciplines and the conformity embodied in a classroom with neat rows of desks bolted to the ground, to flexible spaces personifying pedagogies of freedom and self-discovery, Monahan (2002) calls these architectural embodiments of educational philosophies “built pedagogy”.

Worldwide, within learning processes, new realities are taking shape, as the increasing incorporation of ICT, the transformation of libraries into multimedia resource centres and the introduction of virtual spaces. Learning is no longer restricted to the classroom, but should pervade the whole school and extend beyond its doors. Thus, planning and building schools must imply conceiving the building as a whole, including outdoor space and its relationship with the inside of the schools, the connections between formal and informal spaces, and their organisation. In this sense, it is argued that there is a transition from classrooms to learning spaces (NLII, 2004).

The SSMP is an education policy that has objectives that go beyond the improvement of schools’ conditions. As a result of the requirements demanded to the architects in terms of program, the SSMP ends up influencing the pedagogic programs, the teachers’ professional practices, the space occupation by pupils, etc.

The Secondary Schools Modernisation Program

The education system in Portugal has undergone various changes, particularly between 2005-2009, when the Ministry of Education implemented a wide range of legislation and programs. Some of the most noteworthy measures include the extension of compulsory education to 18 years of age or 12 years of schooling; the updating of curricula and diversification of educational alternatives in secondary schools; heavy investment in adult education and training; the generalisation of vocational education in state schools; the increasing introduction of ICT through the ‘Technological Plan for Education’; the introduction of an autonomy status for schools, implementing new leadership and a more decentralised

management of education policies; and the participation of local actors in school decisions through a new collective body, the general council.

These policies have led to the introduction of new and heterogeneous publics in secondary schools, now conceived to be inclusive and open to the community, thus demanding adequate spaces able to cope with the new dynamics and diversity, when most schools were run-down and did not meet the requirements of current educational paradigms.

In 2007, the Portuguese Ministry of Education launched the SSMP, an ambitious renovation program, representing a major investment in renovating state secondary schools and aiming to cover a total of 332 schools by 2015. An independent state-owned company – *Parque Escolar* (PE) – was set up to manage the program and supervise the implementation of the schools' modernisation projects.

The objectives defined by the SSMP are threefold: i) to rehabilitate and modernise secondary school buildings, restoring their physical and functional efficiency and creating the conditions for an evolving education; ii) to open schools to their communities, encouraging closer cooperative links with the surrounding neighborhood and ensuring that school infrastructures are fully utilised; and iii) to establish a new management and maintenance model for school premises, ensuring optimisation of resources for the upkeep of the buildings after the renovation.

The SSMP claims to develop a new school building model which is not a standard building, but a type of school that has to be understood within the context of a pedagogical project, meets the needs, objectives and characteristics of local communities, and can be adapted to the development of educational models and pedagogical practices (Parque Escolar, 2009).

One of the specific aims of the SSMP is to reshape the dominant teaching practices in Portuguese secondary schools, which were mainly directed at training pupils to pass university access exams. The program supports the heterogenisation of learning spaces, and particularly values spaces oriented towards vocational and artistic education.

Three concepts of the educational paradigm embraced by the program are emphasised in the "Architectural design manual" for architects: i) the library as the heart of the school, acquiring physical and symbolic centrality; ii) the importance of informal learning and the decentralisation of teaching and learning from the classroom, translated in particular into the creation of a "learning street"; and iii) opening the school to the community, including spaces to be used by local communities (such as auditoria, social spaces, sports facilities). These concepts result from the process of international benchmarking developed by PE.

Method

The study methodology was based on an intensive (qualitative and quantitative) approach. We started by interviewing the actors responsible for the political measure (Ministry of Education and Parque Escolar directors and managers) and doing content analysis of the program's legislation and the "Architectural design manual".

The research was subsequently developed using 13 case studies selected from a universe of 30 schools taking part in the program's first two phases¹. Table 1 gives a brief overview of the cases.

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¹ Schools were selected according to a diversity principle that included the following criteria: variety and type of education on offer; territorial context (urban or semi-urban); size; architectural typology of the original building; type of project proposed by the architect; architect in charge of the project; social context; and the specificities of the school (e.g. arts education program, alternative curricula, etc.).

Table 1. The schools studied

School	Territory	Level of education	Type of education	Size	Social environment	Original architectural type	Type of project
A	Urban	Second and third cycles and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	73 classes	Disadvantaged	Pavilion – technical base (post-1969) – 3 rd period	Renovation
B	Urban	Second and third cycles and secondary	Academic and vocational studies and music conservatoire	50 classes	Moderately advantaged	Historic <i>liceu</i> (pre-1935) – 1st period	Preservation
C	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic studies	42 classes	Advantaged	Historic <i>liceu</i> (pre-1935)– 1st period	Preservation
D	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic studies	60 classes	Advantaged	Pavilion – <i>liceu</i> -based (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Renovation
E	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	40 classes	Disadvantaged	MOP/JCETS – <i>liceu</i> (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Renovation
F	Urban	Secondary	Specialist artistic and vocational studies	44 classes	Moderately advantaged	MOP/JCETS – industrial and commercial school (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Reconstruction
G	Semi-Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	54 classes	Disadvantaged	MOP/JCETS – industrial and commercial school (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Renovation
H	Semi-Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	60 classes	Disadvantaged	Pavilion – 3x3 block (post-1969) – 3 rd period	Renovation
I	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	65 classes	Moderately advantaged	MOP/JCETS – industrial and commercial school (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Renovation
J	Semi-Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic studies	27 classes	Moderately advantaged	College (1936–68) ^b – 2 nd period	Reconstruction
K	Urban	Secondary	Academic and vocational studies	40 classes	Moderately advantaged	Pavilion – technical base (post-1969) – 3 rd period	Renovation
L	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	36 classes	Moderately advantaged	MOP/JCETS – <i>liceu</i> (1936–68) – 2 nd period	Reconstruction
M	Urban	Third cycle and secondary	Academic and vocational studies	60 classes	Moderately advantaged	Former convent (pre-1935) – 1st period	Preservation

The next step was to interview the 13 architects responsible for the schools' projects in order to understand the main objectives of their proposals and their views on the process and discussion with the other social actors. The interviews also included a visit to the school

guided by the architect in charge of the renovation project.

The research continued with a survey of school users, which is the main focus of analysis in the current article. This included interviews with school principals and school council presidents, focus groups, and two surveys of a sample of pupils and teachers².

Empirical evidence

The social dynamic in designing, debating and renovating learning spaces

The process, which begins with the commission and then proceeds to the actual project proposal and its execution, raises various issues and procedures which vary according to type of project, objectives, relationships between the various social actors, etc. In a policy program such as the SSMP, which seeks to bring about changes in learning models, many different social actors are present at each stage, and they all have distinct objectives. A key issue is the discussion of the extent to which social actors take part in and are committed to the project. The SSMP attempted to develop this aspect using a relatively uniform and pre-determined process, in which the public company PE takes a leading role.

A critical examination of participation levels involves acknowledging that lack of participation may lead to discrepancies between schools' and agents' needs on the one hand and, on the other, a project with high participation levels does not necessarily produce good design solutions or consensus. The contributions each social actor or set of actors bring are heterogeneous. They cannot replace the work of the architect.

Woolner (2010) notes that in a context of school renovation in which there is an outside entity monitoring the process, social participation is not an assurance of user engagement, but it may lead to collaboration between users and architects, in a logic of partnership. It is not only about listening to people, but promoting interaction and learning from their experiences (Woolner, 2010, p. 53). The planning and design of school spaces should be adapted to daily practices in schools, taking the users' views into consideration.

With slight variations and adjustments that reflect the specificities of each school and renovation project, all the interviewees described this process in a similar way, following the parameters defined by PE and linkages with all the entities involved.

A common issue to all of them is that PE always mediated the dialogue between school board, school community and architects. The involvement of school communities varied from school to school, and was to a great extent mediated by the school boards. In certain cases, therefore, participation was limited to consulting those in charge of the various disciplinary fields and the general council; in other cases it was extended to the teachers in general, but rarely to the pupils, with a few exceptions, in which pupils' associations were involved; in

² For the pupils we used a stratified random sample, based on school year (taking pupils from the 10th and 12th grade in order to cover those who had been in the school both before and after the renovation), gender, course and educational area. The resulting sample of 1655 enables us to draw statistical inferences for the universe of pupils from the 10th and 12th grades of the selected schools. The sample presents a confidence level of 95% and the sampling error varies between 7% and 9%. For the teachers, the schools did not provide a list, so we were unable to obtain a representative sample. The survey link was sent to all teachers, resulting in 387 responses. We gained a deeper understanding teachers' and pupils' views through focus groups involving teachers and pupils (separately) in each school.

one case there were also contacts with entities such as the parents' association, the former pupils' association and parish councils.

One of the study findings is that the range of social actors involved is highly dependent on the schools' leadership profile and the principal's decisions as to whom to involve, but it is also contingent on a large set of variables that characterise the social dynamic of each school. Part of this dynamic is also generated by the architects and by the PE representatives, given their degree of motivation in the dialogue with schools and the contingencies related to changes in school boards, as happened in several cases. Furthermore, as the process of renovating school buildings occurred at the same time as the implementation of a set of educational policy measures, it resulted in a multitude of changes.

The analysis showed three types of dynamic in the discussion and implementation of the schools' renovation project. In five schools, the social actors' involvement was clearly **collaboration**, with a permanent dialogue between school community, PE and architects. In five other schools collaboration was also present, but took on the features of intense **negotiation**. Finally, in three schools the process was marked by multiple **resistances**, due to diverse factors not necessarily related to the renovation process but to the internal dynamics of the schools, and the relationship with the architect, which demands a further reflection on the models of involvement of the social actors and the need for constant adjustment to each particular reality.

Overall, there remains a rooted difficulty in fostering a participatory process that clearly defines the role and scope of the different social actors, promoting an inclusive approach.

Once renovation is complete, participation follows in the evaluation of results and in the monitoring of the uses and appropriation of spaces. It is crucial to gather users' views on the use of the new spaces, in order to encourage permanent adjustments. Our data show that full consideration of all inputs from the school community to the design process produces a more positive result in the appropriation of spaces by the social actors involved.

The new learning spaces: adjustment versus appropriation

An overview of the data on the process of appropriation and adjustment to the new spaces³ (figure 1) shows that both teachers (3.3) and pupils (3.7) have a greater sense of responsibility for school spaces and facilities, and take greater pride in the school (3.3 for pupils and 3.0 for teachers). Teachers also perceive that pupils seek to look after the renovated spaces (4.3). Pupils (3.7) and teachers (3.5) agree that the renovated school spaces provide greater well-being.

³ Variable measured on a five-point rating scale.

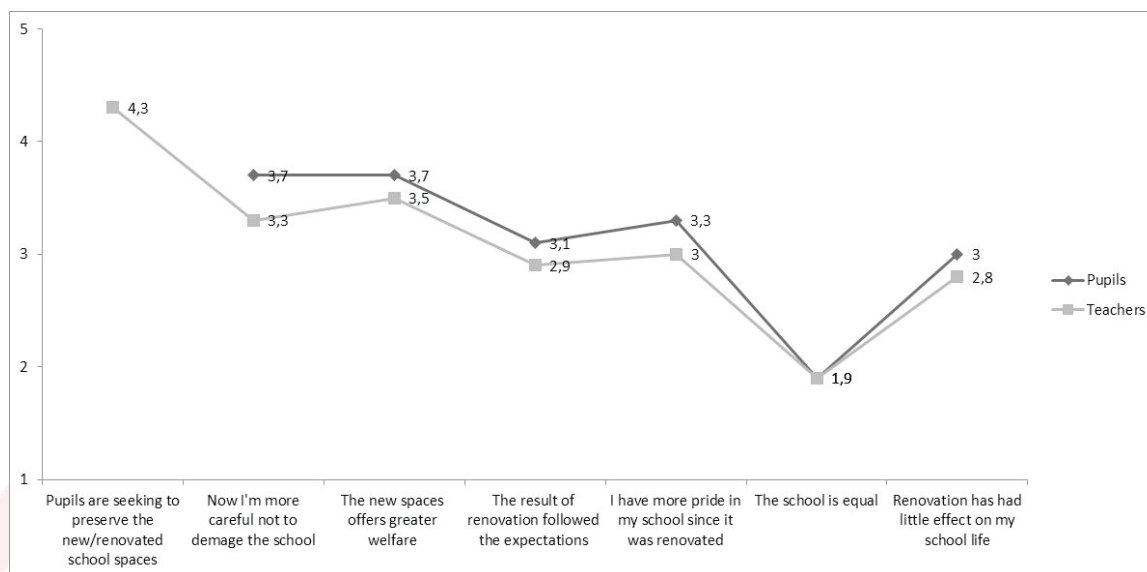


Figure 1. Attitudes and expectations towards the renovated school

Most school principals likewise mentioned that there is greater care and respect for the renovated spaces: “Pupils see the space, they like the space and leave it alone. If the space is a bit run-down they tend to degrade it more, the two things are related...” (Principal E). The arguments refer to the Broken Windows Theory (Kelling and Wilson, 1982), according to which people in a deteriorated environment tend to act disorderly and to promote vandalism, and vice-versa.

Most social actors also recognise the extent to which renovation contributes to educational success, but they always highlight the fact that it is a factor in a universe of factors: “There isn’t a cause-effect relationship, I mean, we can’t think that if a pupil goes to a renovated school, he’ll automatically change his behavior and performance. (...) Renovated spaces motivate pupils, which increases their interest in learning, and also motivates teachers, and this in turn may lead to better results overall. But obviously it’s a complex equation, with many variables” (Principal B).

Pupils who took part in the focus groups told us of some of the factors which contribute to better results: “The light helps the state of mind, which indirectly affects learning” (Pupils A); “Now we’re able to concentrate better because we no longer hear noise from other classrooms” (Pupils M). Others clearly state “success depends only on pupil and teacher” (Pupils C, F).

The data from the survey and focus groups also show that teachers and pupils experience the process of adjustment differently. In the survey, most pupils (81.0%) and teachers (78.3%) say they have adjusted very easily to the new school building, however in the focus groups teachers tend to be much more negative about the changes.

Moving from adjustment to appropriation of the new school buildings is a complex process affected by several factors. Some interviewees also identify multiple resistances to the renovated schools: “There is a certain resistance among the teachers. It’s a resistance that arises simply from the fact that something has moved... Suddenly people react because they feel their space has been changed...” (Principal M). There is resistance to the new structures

and codes, which requires a new form of adjustment. In addition, in the beginning the new building is less predictable and people are not prepared to deal with it when things do not go as expected, particularly the electronic devices.

Finally, one of the most controversial issues in appropriation processes is the breakdown of earlier sociabilities as a result of the reorganisation of space. For instance, pupils often say they identified more with the old school (Pupils E, H, I).

In a study on work places, Baldry (1999) notes how it is frequent to break the rules when using the spaces, and how workers use certain spaces for purposes that were not pre-determined, by-passing the prescribed organisational structures (for instance, using a quiet corner for informal conversations). This contributes to the frequent complaints when an organisation moves to a new building, that it has become too bureaucratic or formal: “in reality the occupants have lost their old informal spatial structures and have yet to create new ones” (Baldry, 1999, p. 544).

Resistance to the renovated buildings can thus be seen to be largely due to the time required to build or rebuild sociabilities in the new spaces and even to challenge the social structuration of such spaces.

Space and teaching-learning models

What impact does renovation of school buildings have on teaching and learning models?

There is a widespread perception among the social actors that there has been a general improvement in the conditions for teaching and learning in schools, expressed both in the survey and in the interviews and focus groups.

Considering the learning principles embodied in the program, there is general consensus on the improvement in school libraries and their symbolic significance. Both teacher and pupil focus groups provide evidence of that consensus, which embodies one of the SSMP's objectives: “the library as the heart of the school”.

Still, most interviewees note that the most significant changes were at the level of the regular use of ICT. Some even emphasise the disadvantages of excessive dependence on ICT: “I have the impression that we are falling into the opposite. If the pen drive doesn't work, or if there is no electricity, there is no class... Some teachers overuse it [ICT], and that's a totally passive form of teaching...” (Principal I).

In the survey, teachers and pupils were asked for their views on teaching and learning conditions, using a list of items to which they had to indicate their degree of agreement⁴. Overall, both teachers (3.5) and pupils (3.6) agree that learning conditions were better after the renovation.

⁴ Variable measured on a five-point rating scale (1= strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=do not agree, nor disagree; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree).

Pupils generally felt that the changes to school buildings had not affected their motivation or their performance (2.9). Nevertheless, they did see that renovation has led to changes in teachers’ practices (3.2).

If, on the one hand, renovation is seen to have created the conditions needed for effective teaching and for the introduction of new teaching models, in practice this situation did not have a substantial impact on the motivation and performance of teachers, who tend to feel there is no correlation between those aspects (2.9 and 2.8 respectively), as was also the case for pupils.

To assess how the spatial transformation and the new resources contributed to the development of effective changes after the renovation in terms of teaching and learning practices, in accordance with the SSMP objectives, the survey asked about the frequency with which teachers and pupils performed certain teaching and learning activities⁵. This analysis resulted in a typology of teaching-learning practices.

For pupils (figure 2), the most frequent activity is “having classes in which the teacher presents the subject” (4.2), followed by “being with friends in school” (4.1).

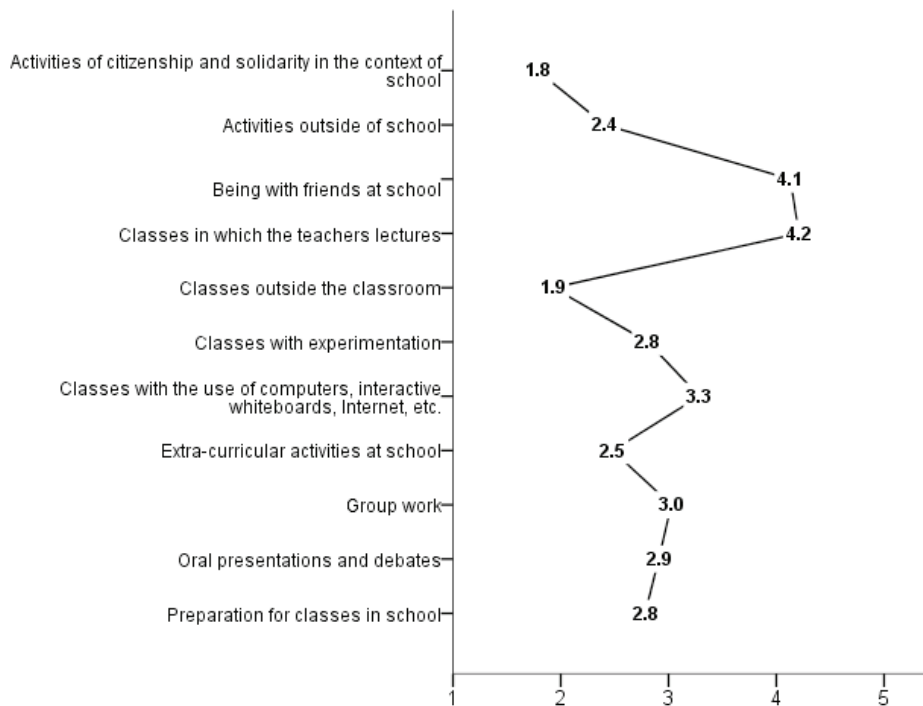


Figure 2. Average frequency in performing different pedagogic activities – Pupils

The less frequent activities are those related to “citizenship and solidarity practices within the school context” (1.8), “having classes outside the classroom” (1.9) and “study visits and activities outside the school” (2.4).

⁵ Variable measured on a five-point rating scale (1= never; 2=rarely; 3=sometimes; 4=often; 5=always).

For the purpose of aggregating pedagogical activities according to the most favored teaching methodologies, that is pupil-centered, teacher-centered (Dewey, 1956; O'Neill and McMahon, 2005) or environment-oriented, we employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA)⁶. The solution obtained results in three components that explain 63% of the total variance⁷ (table 2).

Table 2. Principal Components Analysis of the Pedagogical Practices according to pupils

	Environment-oriented	Pupil-centered	Teacher-centered
Classes outside the classroom	0,79	0,127	0,002
Citizenship and solidarity activities	0,72	0,249	-0,149
Activities outside the school	0,65	0,332	-0,017
Classes with the use of computers, interactive whiteboards, Internet, etc.	0,073	0,78	0,066
Pupils' group work	0,27	0,75	0,096
Oral presentations and debates by pupils	0,333	0,5	0,405
Classes with experimentation	0,63	-0,088	0,555
Teachers' lectures	-0,239	0,202	0,81
Explained variance	36,169	15,938	10,918

The first component comprises pedagogical activities less directed to the classroom space and more to a teaching model that encourages activities outside the classroom, and is thus environment-oriented. It is the component with the highest value in terms of explained variance and which aggregates the pedagogical activities with fewer incidents. The second dimension is essentially defined by a set of activities that are more dynamic and imply the active role of pupils, and are thus pupil-centered activities. These two components largely correspond to what is envisaged by the program's principle of decentralising teaching and learning from the classroom. The last component concerns a traditional methodology based on the transmission role of the teachers, and is thus teacher-centered. These are the most frequent activities.

⁶ 7. A Principal Component Analysis with a Varimax rotation was applied ($KMO=0.801$; $Bartlett's X^2(28)=2459.103$, $p=0.000$).

⁷ From this analysis it was possible to create two new variables representing the average frequency pupils perform environment-oriented and pupil-centered activities. The Alpha coefficient is .71 for the first factor and .63 for the second. As regards the third factor, the level of internal consistency does not allow the construction of a resulting variable from the arithmetic mean of the variables (Alpha coefficient is .17).

Analysis of figure 3 shows that, despite the SSMP’s conception of teaching and learning, the aim of which is to bring about changes to educational models, “theoretical” classes remain the dominant reality in schools (4.2), followed by pupil-centered activities (3.1). The most infrequent of all are environment-oriented activities (2.0).

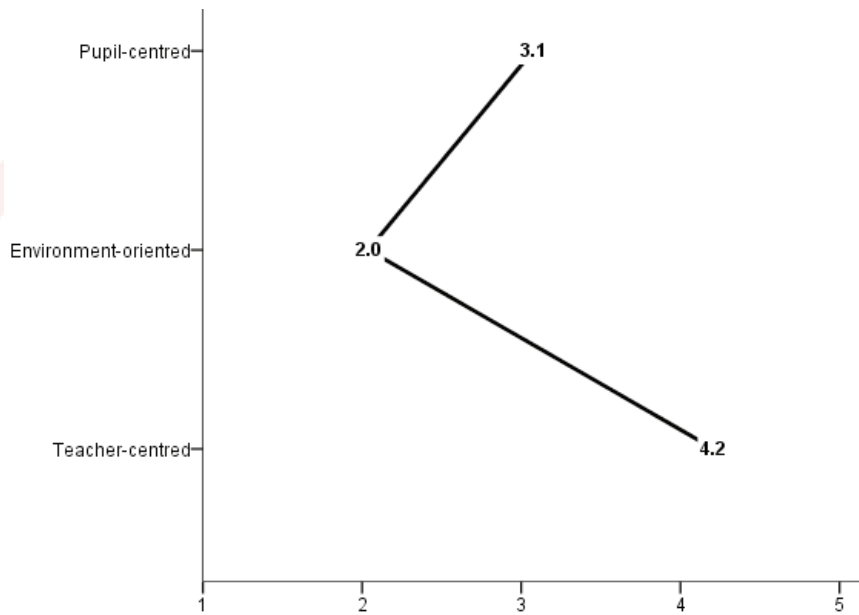


Figure 3. Average frequency in Principal Components of different pedagogical activities – Pupils

As in the pupils’ survey, teachers were also asked how frequently they performed certain teaching activities, in order to analyse their underlying teaching models (figure 4).

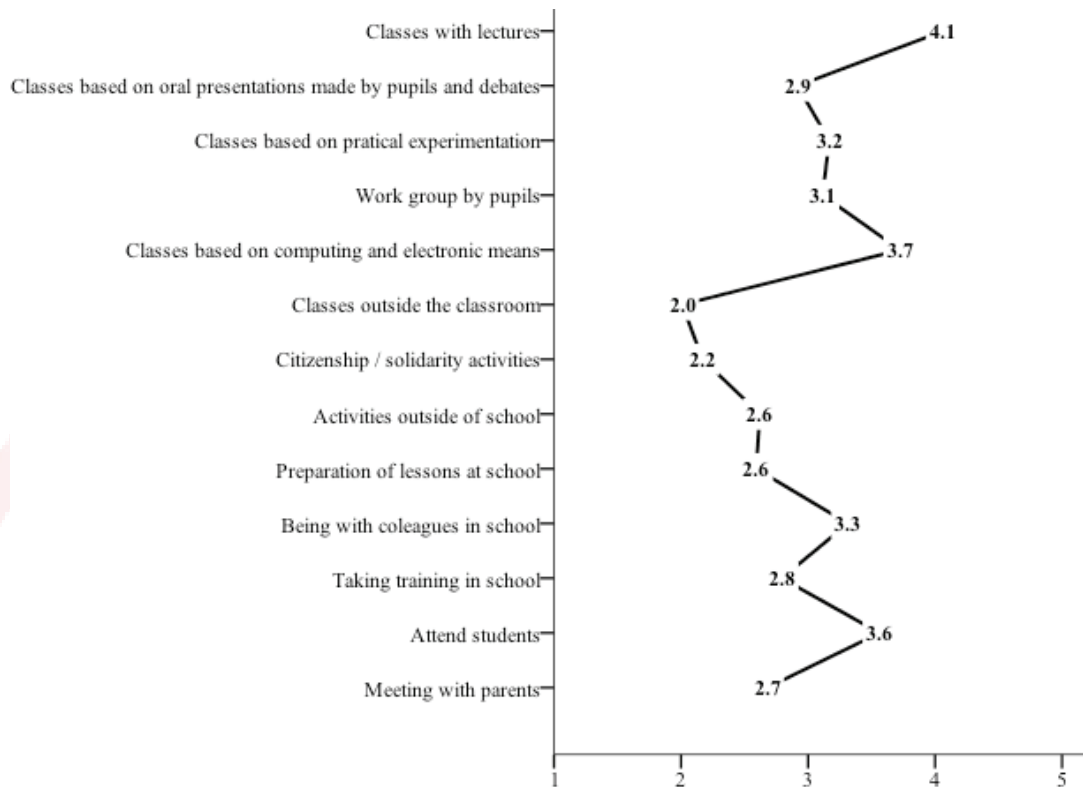


Figure 4. Average frequency in performing different pedagogical activities – Teachers

According to the teachers’s perspective, teaching inside the classroom through lectures is the most favored activity (4.1). Classes that make use of ICT are the second most frequent activity (3.7), while classes involving experiments (3.2) and group work (3.1) are intermediate in terms of frequency. The less frequent activities are debates and oral presentations by pupils (2.9), activities outside school (2.6) and teaching outside the classroom but in school (2.0).

Once again we attempted to aggregate the detail of teachers’ reponses on their pedagogical activities in a new set of variables, in order to identify different analytical dimintions of teaching-learning practices. The PCA resulted in three dimensions⁸ that explain 58.8% of the total variance, as shown in table 3.

⁸ A PCA with a Varimax rotation was applied ($KMO=0.672$; $Bartlett's\ X^2(28)= 347.735$, $p=0.000$).

Table 3. Principal Components Analysis of the Pedagogical Practices according to teachers

	Environment-oriented	Pupil-centered	Teacher-centered
Classes outside the classroom	0,77	-0,186	0,243
Activities outside the school	0,71	0,2	0,055
Citizenship and solidarity activities	0,7	0,147	-0,097
Classes with the use of computers, interactive whiteboards, Internet, etc.	-0,119	0,84	-0,018
Pupils' group work	0,349	0,66	0,25
Oral presentations and debates by pupils	0,441	0,55	-0,39
Classes with experimentation	0,26	0,181	0,67
Teachers' lectures	0,074	0,069	-0,65
Explained variance	29,489	16,485	12,82

The extracted components correspond to those found in the case of pupils, that is, one relating to pupil-centered activities, another to teacher-centered and the third to environment-oriented activities⁹. Teacher-centered activities are once again the most common (4.1), followed by pupil-centered activities (3.3). The least frequent are environment-oriented ones (2.3) (figure 5).

⁹ From this analysis it was possible to create two new variables representing the average frequency with which teachers perform environment-oriented and teacher-centered activities. The Alpha coefficient is .61 for the first factor and .57 for the second.

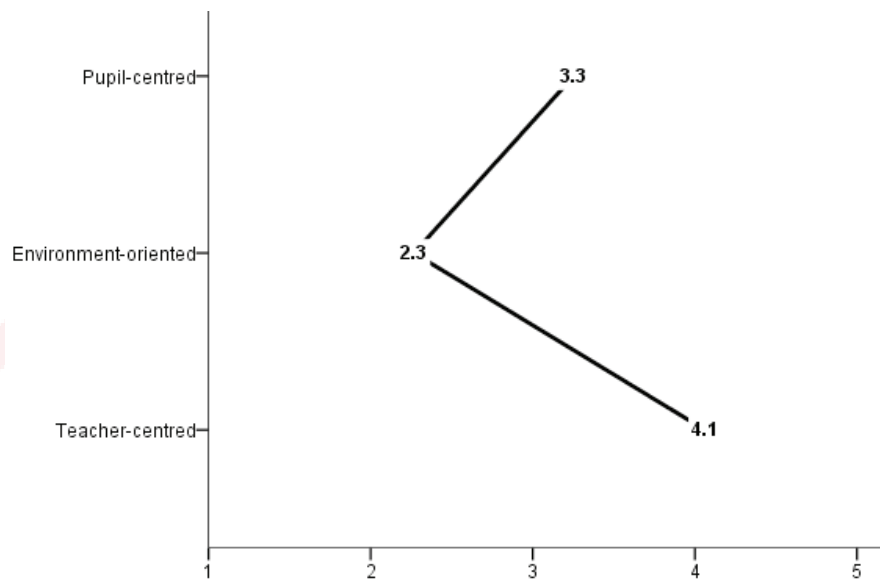


Figure 5. Average frequency in Principal Components of different pedagogic activities – Teachers

Overall, our data indicate that teacher-centered activities are still the dominant pedagogic practice.

Thus, while on the one hand the SSMP aims to enable schools to adapt to more dynamic teaching methodologies through greater flexibilisation and adaptability of spaces, what happens is that, though changes in the school spaces may encourage different practices, ICT play the most significant role in these changes. It is plausible to postulate that there is resistance to change and to the required process of adjustment. In addition, we must stress that space is one variable within a multiplicity of factors, and that it cannot have a direct influence on teaching and learning models. Creating conditions for change is not synonymous with real change.

If ICT bring certain dynamism to the classroom, this is not enough to change the way teachers and pupils perform their activities. The main change is a more intensive use of electronic tools, but for now that does not have evident consequences. This result is in line with previous literature that shows that changing teaching is a slow and irregular process in any school (Wallace, 2009).

This also leads us to suggest that pupils and teachers require more support, particularly in terms of training and awareness, so that they can keep up with changes in teaching and learning models, from a model centered on knowledge transmission to one centered on the construction of knowledge.

Conclusion

The analysis developed in this article shows that the renovation of school spaces resulted in improved conditions, which, according to the perspective of school boards, teachers and pupils, increased pride in and responsibility for the school. But teaching practices in schools remain set in a traditional mould, with the prevalence of teachers' lectures, while pupil-

centered and environment-oriented activities are scarcer. Although this is the most dominant behavior among teachers, it is possible to identify some variations when analysing the schools individually, notably in schools with a prevalence of vocational training, in which pupil-centered activities are more common, and in art schools, where environment-oriented activities prevail.

The SSMP's goals go beyond the improvement of school facilities. It seeks to influence pedagogical models, teachers' professional practices, pupils' occupation of space and community relations with the school institution. However, as has been observed in other studies (Gislason, 2010; Woolner et al., 2012), tensions remain between the objectives defined at the political level and actual real-world practices.

The socio-space analysis developed, allowed us to discuss the relationship between education policy and learning spaces and to what extent it demands to open the discussion on school architecture to social sciences.

Social actors are key pieces in perceiving and embodying the changes. While physical learning environments seem to support contemporary educational paradigms, these are not necessarily accompanied by teachers and pupils' actions.

As regards the issues of participation in school architecture, the diversity of processes developed in the 13 case studies shows there is a long way from the listening stage to active user engagement. In line with Woolner (2010), the fact that there is an external entity to schools mediating the process means that participation barely translates into user engagement. In the 13 case studies it was possible to identify models of resistance, negotiation and collaboration. Users' perceptions of the program's impact are strongly dependent on the way they participated in this process. As Woolner et al. (2012) note, the resistance to changes in school practices may be because the changes have been imposed, rather than a result of teacher and pupil awareness of the reasons for those changes. That is why it is important to outline participation models in the design process, not only for consultation purposes, but as part of a comprehensive discussion of learning models and practices.

In line with previous literature (Benito, 2003; Woolner et al., 2012), our study shows that school space functions as a pedagogical and political instrument, contributing to shape the conditions for learning dynamics and social structuration. However, not only does space not have a direct influence on teaching and learning practices, but the shift from a paradigm of standardised schools to a paradigm of "unique" schools must also be examined with caution care. First, standardised solutions are not necessarily bad solutions, as there are numerous examples in the past. Secondly, it masks the fact that schools not always have a specific pedagogical project but, on the contrary, tend to be marked by a centralised education policy that promotes a certain homogenisation of teaching and learning practices at the national level.

In addition, the implementation of the SSMP, in the context of new public management strategies, and related administrative and geographic reforms within the public school network, introduces PE as a new commercial actor in the governing of education in Portugal.

The SSMP is linked to learning conceptions and theories that envisage a transformation of traditional models towards the new model of active knowledge construction. Still one cannot identify a rupture with it.

Aiming at linking the participation process with the impacts of the schools' renovation, one might argue the need of both schools and political actors to consider that to renovate education spaces demands to take into consideration their users' needs and objectives; but this demands that social actors inside schools – teachers, principals, pupils – settle models of participation and define learning principles. To change the space is important, but there has to be a work of changing the learning models and the relationships between social actors. And here we come to face a paradox: schools have to follow strict directives from the central government in the organisation and implementation of the curricula, learning practices, etc., due to the extreme centralised education policy, having difficulties, due also to lack of time, in implementing more innovative learning practices. The renovation program aims at changing the learning models, but has difficulties in implementing a participation process that takes into account the particularities of each school and the social context.

We are in presence of a defy: to consider the importance of space in learning models and implementing political measures in all schools as a principle of democracy, to foster schools' own dynamics, as each school as its history, its social relationships and its leaders.

The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular arc that starts from the bottom left and curves towards the right. A red arc is also visible, starting from the top left and curving towards the bottom right, intersecting the blue arc.

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School Administrators Perspectives Regarding the Impact of High Stakes Testing on Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

This study examined the perspectives of school superintendents and principals about the impact of high stakes testing on teaching and student learning. In 2002, a new era in educational accountability reform in the United States was launched with the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act altered the politics of education (DeBray-Pelot & McGuinn, 2009) and significantly complicated the choices school and school system leaders must wrestle with in meeting the needs of students (Travers, 2009). Findings indicated that although, school superintendents and principals desire to provide students with an education that focuses on their academic, social, and emotional needs, the competing demands of school improvement, defined as higher scores on state achievement tests, often created barriers for school leaders.

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In 2002, a new era in educational accountability reform was launched with the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act altered the politics of education (DeBray-Pelot & McGuinn, 2009) and significantly complicated the choices school and school system leaders must wrestle with in meeting the needs of students (Travers, 2009). As the reauthorization cycle for the ESEA begins again, it is important that we look at the perceptions superintendents and principals held about educating the whole child while implementing school improvement mandates at the dawn of the 21st century. Specifically, this legislation impacted superintendents' and principals' perceptions about the purpose of education to both meet federal mandates and educate the whole child. An Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) position statement on the Whole Child (2005) called for schools to utilize a comprehensive approach for student learning that not only emphasizes academic skills, but also recognizes students' emotional and physical health, civic mindedness, engagement in the arts, motivation, preparation for the workforce, economic self-sufficiency, and readiness for the world beyond their own borders. Hence the predominant view of educators was that student success is more extensive than what high-stakes assessments desire to measure. However, what gets measured gets the attention of teachers, school administrators, local and state education officials, parents, and community members.

Clarifying the Paradox

John Dewey (1933) proposed that education was best served when the whole child was considered, including all aspects of the child's development. He and other progressivists believed that education was more than preparation for the future, it was life itself. Further, he supported a balance between valuing content areas with structured learning activities and experiences that motivated, interested, and actively engaged students. These ideas, he believed, would provide a means of social reform and improvement of life for all Americans. Although, progressive education fell out of favor in the late 1950's when a call for more efficiency and focused rigor occurred, this philosophy has reemerged as current school administrators aspire to educate the whole child. The present accountability era however, provides a quandry for school administrators and building leaders as they structure a focus on children in their districts and buildings. Hershberg, Simon and Lea-Kruger (2004), using case study research, found that this school improvement era has presented the toughest challenges ever for school administrators as current public education systems typically fail to provide them with adequate tools to lead and manage their schools effectively. Eisner (2005) reminds administrators and teachers that children respond to educational situations not only intellectually, but also socially and emotionally. Neglecting the social and emotional aspects of their development prohibits children from fulfilling their need to live a satisfying life. However, Zellmer, Frontier and Pheifer (2006) surveyed school districts in Wisconsin and found that resources central to the goals of NCLB are often diverted away from teaching and learning and utilized for test preparation, administration, and reporting. School staff members devote countless hours to these test related tasks resulting in limited instructional time for students. We must realize that schools are the only universally accessible organizations where there are enough adults to provide consistent support for the growth and development of our children, and next to the family, they have the most

significant influence on children's growth and development; therefore school and school district leaders face the challenges of meeting these developmental and academic needs (Comer, 1996; 2004).

School leaders can provide leadership in facilitating a child-centered environment, one that moves beyond student success defined by a test score. Lyons and Algozzine (2006) noted that the greatest impact of NCLB was in how student achievement is monitored. In looking at how NCLB measures performance, Elmore (2003) wrote:

NCLB aggravates a trend in state accountability policies. It focuses primarily on measuring growth in school performance against fixed standards—the so-called Adequate Yearly Progress requirement—and only incidentally on building capacity of individual educators and schools to deliver high-quality instruction. (p. 6)

Standardized test results can be useful as one measure of a student's knowledge to be compared with other evidence by teachers who know that particular student's strengths and weaknesses. But the meaning of a test score is always embedded in the larger context of the whole child. This is especially true for the student who "freezes" on tests; the student who reads adequately but slowly and therefore cannot finish the test in the allotted time; the student who understands concepts but has difficulty retrieving detailed facts; the student with learning disabilities; and the student who is just learning English (Johannessen, 2004). It is also essential to consider whether the family and school have provided the resources and support necessary for student learning. Many classrooms are overcrowded, poorly equipped, and lack certified teachers, especially in high-poverty schools. Because some research indicates that test scores largely reflect the child's family education level and home environment (Lubienski, 2003), school leaders are faced with more challenges as they strive to meet state and local expectations. Moreover, an outcome of accountability has resulted in teachers and administrators focusing on the borderline students, those students who are within 10 points of a passing score, resulting in students at the lower end of the performance range lagging further behind and high performing students declining in achievement (Ladd & Lauen, 2009; Sanders, 2003).

Superintendents' and principals' leadership deals with a variety of equity issues in 21st century schools. For example, curricular content assessed by standardized tests has resulted in the elimination of other content areas and activities including electives, the arts, gifted programs and even elementary recess (Amrein & Berliner, 2002; Popham, 2001). Conversely, many school administrators resist the pressure to focus on test data numbers only and continue to track students who are disciplined, missing from school, have adequate health care, are hungry, which parents come to school regularly, as well as many other numbers that go beyond a narrow definition of student achievement (Theoharis, 2009). Hence, despite the increased demands of state accountability measures via standardized tests, some administrators believe the needs of the whole child remain paramount.

School leaders face limited financial resources as they try to move their schools and districts forward. Often the resources necessary to address the needs of the whole child are not available even though the research indicates, for example, that lower student-to-counselor ratios decrease the recurrence of student discipline problems and

the number of children involved in various discipline-related incidents (Carrell & Carrell, 2006). Furthermore, within the last decade, school administrators are noticing increased stress levels of their students. For example, health-care professionals and parents already report that test-related stress is literally making many children sick. For many students, high-stakes testing does correlate with academic success, but it also provides for discomforts that include test anxiety, nausea, and inhibited concentration and recall, which lead to poor test performance (Gregor, 2005). Student stress and anxiety impacted students' emotional and intellectual capacities because of the rigorous preparation and constant reminders to pass these tests (Hodge, McCormick, & Elliot, 1997). The implications that focusing narrowly on one test to the exclusion of a more holistic approach to being educated is literally making us sick.

Bellamy, Fulmer, Murphy and Muth (2007) in writing about the paradoxes in school leadership note a continuing tension among excellence, equity, and autonomy; that these value-laden demands cannot be resolved; and yet, we depend on schools and other social institutions to adjudicate these inherent conflicts.

Unlike the problem of reaching high academic standards in spite of challenging social conditions, conflicting beliefs about what schools should emphasize are not problems that can be solved. Instead, they present enduring paradoxes that continually must be managed and balanced to provide some satisfaction to competing expectations. (p. 5)

On a daily basis, it is the local school and school district leaders who must balance these tensions because it is at this local level that the nexus of need, expectation, and resources become realized. The formal political authority over the goals of schooling at all levels of the educational system expresses itself in the form of requirements levied on professional educators, incentives, and resources allocations. Policy makers have a broad and significant influence on the work of professional educators. Yet, the contextualized goals of each school and each school district are shaped by the daily decision making of teachers, principals, and superintendents as they find practical solutions to an on-going stream of local situations. Bellamy et al. (2007) express this idea well in writing:

Principals cannot succeed by simply accepting the goals that are established either by professional associations or through the political process. Instead, the goals established through these groups provide a foundation upon which local goals must be fostered, defined, clarified and tested with the local school community—its students, families, staff, and other community members. (p. 25)

Methods and Conceptual Lens

Local school leaders must continually make daily decisions that accomplish the mission of public education as defined by the expectations of a myriad of internal and external stakeholders. Because local superintendents and principals must determine the most practical way of negotiating the needs of their constituents in how the child

is educated, pragmatism was selected as the conceptual lens used in evaluating the transcripts.

Pragmatism is the belief that theory and practice cannot be separated. Theory exists as a means toward intelligent practice, and practice is the means of informing which ideas are better than others. William James (1907), a prominent American philosopher, wrote, “that ideas (which themselves are but parts of our experience) become true just in so far as they help us to get into satisfactory relations with other parts of experience” (p.28). Through this lens we are able to see how superintendents and principals can hold multiple competing values while simultaneously making decisions that attempt to satisfy their personal beliefs and the conflicting expectations of which they are held accountable.

How do superintendents and principals maintain a focus on the education of the whole child when if what gets measured is a narrow range of minimum student achievement standards developed by each state? The answer to this question comes from the transcripts of 13 superintendent and 14 principal focus groups. The theme of growth and development of children emerged and was at odds with how administrators meet federal and state requirements. Using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), we read all transcripts twice and then statements mentioning the following topics were coded: (1) the developmental needs of children, (2) purposes of education, (3) child-centered focus, and (4) benefits and liabilities of NCLB for students. These topics are the areas identified in the reading of the transcripts overall. Finally, we read the transcripts a final time specifically looking for contradictions to these grounded results around the growth and development of children. In the end, three themes were derived from the codes for both superintendents and principals: structuring a focus on children, challenges in facilitating a child-centered environment, and issues of equity for child-centered learning environments. A fourth theme emerged from the principal data, stress on children.

Superintendent and Principal Perspectives

Superintendents’ Perspectives Regarding the Growth and Development of Children

The major themes in the focus group data from the superintendents included the pressures related to structuring a focus on children, challenges in facilitating a child-centered environment, and issues of equity for child-centered learning environments.

Structuring a Focus on Children

The focus group transcripts revealed that the structure of the school district organization must be organized around a focus on children. Specifically, superintendents described four subthemes: school governance structures, parent involvement and child-centered education, reliance on teachers to be child-centered, and school improvement planning that focuses on students.

School governance structures

The metaphor of schools as factories is not a new phenomenon and has been a popular conception of schooling for more than three decades. For example, Pink Floyd described rigid and monotonous schooling in their protest song, *Another Brick in the Wall* (Waters, 1979). Yet despite this recognition, and decades of school reform to individualize learning, why does this perception exist among school system leaders

and in schools? Several superintendents provided comments suggesting that current governance structures detract from, rather than support, a focus on student learning and growth. One superintendent indicated that the current legislation is similar to previous reforms efforts that prescribed a one-size fits all solution, when one size does not meet all students' needs (Superintendent 76, medium-sized district, Midwest, 2005). Another district leader worried that our school governance structures lack a focus on the whole child.

There's a phrase that I use often. Not everything that's important can be measured. And not everything that can be measured is important. And school is a place for kids to grow up. It's a place for kids to learn how to work with one another and how to become better citizens. We can't measure all that stuff with numbers (Superintendent 74, medium-sized district, Midwest, 2005).

Superintendent leadership is the ability to structure schools so that students have optimum performance. In spite of political agendas from the community, superintendents saw their school governance role as creating a vision for the district so that students have the best opportunity to learn from child-centered teachers, and using all available resources for teaching and learning. Superintendent 69 shared that district leaders must understand that students' needs take precedence over local political issues and the self-serving needs of those in the community and district (medium-sized districts, Southwest and West, 2006). Another district leader reiterated this idea by stating,

In my 20+ years as superintendent, I've seen a real shift in demands by parents, communities and special interest groups. And I think doing what's right for kids has taken on a different perspective. It's tough work when you are bombarded by all of these different groups. You have to help your boards stay on course and make decisions that are best for kids (Superintendent 77, medium-sized districts, Midwest, 2005).

Parent involvement and child-centered education

Several superintendents noted that creating an environment that facilitated parent involvement included forums that allowed parents to address their concerns and helped provide a focus on the child. Superintendent 16 believed that parents are very interested in and supportive of education. He periodically held parent coffees that provided opportunities for these stakeholders to discuss issues and successes (small districts, Southeast, 2006). However, this notion created challenges for administrators. As he further described,

Parents think that we [superintendents] can do a lot more than we can and that we have total control of things, when we really live by policies and work for school boards. We have to answer to all of our constituents—the students, the parents, the community, so it's complicated (Superintendent 16, small districts, Southeast, 2006).

Furthermore, superintendents believed that they must be advocates for all children and families even those who were not currently involved or lack successful parenting skills. One superintendent stated this quite plainly:

I find myself teaching the parents. Now, they may be misinformed, uneducated, illiterate—I've had all of those. But if you can work through these and make that parent understand that you're not out to get their kid, that you're really trying to come together and make a decision for what's best for that child, then sometimes you can build a relationship (Superintendent 19, small districts, Southeast, 2006).

Some superintendents believed that when families lack parenting skills, then school districts had an obligation to assist them to benefit our children. For example, Superintendent 21 shared, "When a parent indicated that help was needed to guide his/her child, we [the district] were going to express interest and do what we could to help; it was our responsibility" (small districts, Southeast, 2006).

Reliance on teachers to be child-centered

Another sub-theme that emerged related to a reliance on teachers to be child-centered. School superintendents placed a greater emphasis on providing professional development activities for teachers that helped them meet the academic and emotional needs of all students. Superintendent 31 elaborated by saying:

It is getting everybody [teachers] to look outside their world of the worksheet that they are putting on the tables and realize that for those kids, for some of them, to be even sitting in that chair that day, is remarkable. I try to provide activities and things where they can see the bigger picture of what the student's world is like (medium and small districts, Southwest and West, 2005).

School improvement planning that focuses on students

Another facet of structures that facilitated a child-centered focus was school improvement. School leaders must work with other stakeholders to ensure that every student has a chance for success. Many superintendents felt it was their responsibility to move each student forward, regardless of their family or socioeconomic background via their district school improvement plans. Superintendent 69 indicated,

They must have that belief in all children. They [children] can achieve and will achieve. And the ultimate goal of any leader, whether it's a school board member or anyone, any leaders that we have, and their ultimate goal is to educate our children—all children (medium-sized districts, Southwest, 2006).

Challenges in Facilitating a Child-Centered Environment

The second major theme is challenges in facilitating a child-centered environment. Within this category are two subthemes: student advocacy and distance from the classroom.

Student advocacy

Many superintendents shared that maintaining a child-centered environment and meeting the needs of the whole child were challenging during this accountability era. One superintendent talked about the importance of personally knowing the students and also ensuring that the board members understood the needs of the students. This individual stated,

We talk about students but we don't really know the students...We had an enormous amount of kids dropping out of school. We brought a group of those kids [drop outs] face to face with every school board member for a couple of hours...and listened to what these kids said. What they [board members] started to realize was that the assumptions that they made about why those kids dropped out or what those kids needs were, were just the furthest thing from true. They started to realize they [drop out] probably worked harder than kids that are in school to make their life work (Superintendent 69, medium-sized districts, Southwest, 2006).

Superintendent 55 shared the feelings of many administrators by talking about the competing demands of the position that limit a leader's time for advocating for all students. This individual indicated,

The practicing pragmatist in me says that kids are so far down on the pecking order in terms of what we are able to deliver them regarding child-centered learning because we have all these things. I guess my concern is I'd like to believe that I'm a fairly articulate curriculum person. I spend about 2% of my time on curriculum. I spend 98% of my time on everything else to fend off the very things that we're discussing here, unions, contracts. I spend more time with attorneys now than I ever dreamed of (medium-sized districts, New England and Mid-Atlantic, 2006).

Distance from the classroom

Often, school superintendents believed that being far removed from what happens in the classroom day-to-day posed challenges for them as school administrators. Yet, some superintendents attempted to maintain a focus on student needs by regularly spending time in schools with principals and students. Superintendent 67 described how he spent a minimum of one hour with each principal weekly in his or her respective school setting and also spent time with students as well. "I said at least every other time, I'm going to spend at least half of that hour with kids...I've had

lunch with them, I've gone into a class" (medium-sized districts, New England and Mid-Atlantic, 2005).

Issues of Equity for Child-Centered Learning Environments

The third major theme is issues of equity for child-centered learning environments. The goal of equity is to ensure that children have equal educational opportunities. Superintendents reported that they did not push aside inclusive social justice practices to achieve school improvement goals, but instead the two unfolded and were integrated together into their daily professional practices. Among the superintendent focus groups, the discussion of educational equity centered on concerns with marginalizing low performing children and accountability's limited attempt at providing an equitable education for all students. Superintendent 66 indicated, "You have legislators who are ignorant about what is going on for kids with handicapping conditions. They are flat-out ignorant. They don't know and in many cases, don't want to know" (medium-sized districts, New-England and Mid-Atlantic, 2005). Moreover, accountability for special education students created additional concerns for superintendents. For example, one superintendent commented,

You bring up special education and No Child Left Behind. They're both federal laws, and they contradict. By law, in special education, you have to be two years behind to qualify for a learning disability. You have to be two years behind! No Child Left Behind—every single kid has to pass at grade level. It's unconstitutional how they're [the laws] going at each other (Superintendent 72, small-districts, Midwest, 2005).

In contrast, some superintendents believed school improvement helped districts focus on the needs of all children. For example, Superintendent 7 stated,

No Child Left Behind, I think, has helped in a broader sense in terms of helping people recognize the challenges of different ethnic groups, different racial groups. It's given me a little more power to take a look at free and reduced lunch [students] in the long run (small-districts, Midwest, 2006).

Principals' Perspectives Regarding the Growth and Development of Children

The major themes regarding the growth and development of children from the principal focus group data included the pressures related to structuring a focus on children, challenges in facilitating a child-centered environment, issues of equity for child-centered learning environments, and stress on children.

Structuring a Focus on Children

In the focus groups, principals indicated the structure of the school must be organized around facilitating all aspects of student learning including students' social and emotional needs. Specifically, principals described three subthemes, the expanding role of public schools, time constraints associated with curricular mandates, and supporting learning for all students.

Expanding role of public schools

First, many administrators recognized schools assumed more responsibilities with educating the whole child in recent years. For example, elementary school Principal 48 stated, “The role [of public schools] has changed so much in the last 15-20 years. We’ve got to feed them breakfast and lunch; we’ve got to supply the counselors to give them therapy” (Southwest, 2006). Then, leaders and schools must also determine how best to support their students and families as described by elementary school Principal 40. “Whatever the child comes to school with, is what you have to work with and sometimes that requires being a surrogate parent, helping with counseling, and holding parenting classes with the parents” (Southwest, 2006). Moreover, elementary school Principal 61 shared this example of meeting the needs of the whole child and those of their families.

My building has always worked very hard academically...but the social reality of the child was totally missing...We started a lot of movie nights, carnivals, festivals and family oriented programs to try and get the family involved because they didn’t have the financial means to do those things (Midwest, 2005).

Time constraints associated with curricular mandates

While elementary school Principal 6 described school improvement as “one of the best things that has ever happened to education” (Midwest, 2004), others shared the difficulties with structuring a focus on children because of district mandated school improvement documents such as curriculum maps and pacing guides that provide rigid schedules for teaching state standards. Their teachers feel intense pressure to follow these guides, but to also help all children meet the academic benchmarks associated with them. For instance, elementary school Principal 33 shared that one of the challenges with attempting to meet district goals, was that teachers sometimes ignored students’ needs. This individual stated, “I’m fielding more calls from parents who are telling me that teachers will not give their kids the [instructional] time ...my student has a question and she doesn’t want to answer it” (West, 2006). Elementary school Principal 7 further defined the difficulties with helping every child reach measures of academic proficiency and stated, “We have to look at students as individuals. We’re not a factory; they’re not cookie cutters; and they are not all going to be at this same point on the same day” (Midwest, 2004). High school Principal 83 summed up the feelings of many principals by sharing, “I think educational leaders have to know what they stand for...I believe all kids can learn; time is the barrier” (Midwest, 2006).

Supporting learning for all students

Elementary school Principal 41 believed that educating the whole child meant that schools must structure student learning around academic content, extracurricular programs, and educational experiences beyond the typical curriculum. For example, this individual stated,

Our test scores are never going to be the best in the state, but you know, I don't care because we are going to do what is best for kids and that means that we have before school programs, after school programs and we teach a rich curriculum. Yes, we follow our district's curriculum, but we also do a variety of other things like taking students on a three-day science camp in [location]. We could probably have used that classroom time a little more efficiently, but we are again educating that whole child socially, economically, and psychologically (Southwest, 2006).

As leaders, structuring the school environment around the needs of all children was paramount as noted by elementary school Principal 4.

I think what school improvement has done for us is stop and make us question what we do and that we have truly evaluated what processes are in place to support these kids when they are not achieving academically and socially (Midwest, 2005).

Further, elementary school principal 16 believed school improvement meant, "We are looking into the needs of all children, our English Language Learners (ELLs), children with disabilities, even meeting the needs of those who excel...but, really, reflecting on our practice and doing what's best for every child in the classroom" (Southwest, 2006). In sum, principals recognized the role of public schools had changed, but remained concerned with meeting the academic, social, and emotional needs of all their students even in spite of the rigid time constraints surrounding school improvement measured by state assessments established by their states and districts.

Challenges in Facilitating a Child-Centered Environment

The second major theme is challenges in facilitating a child-centered environment. Principals shared a variety of comments regarding the challenges with facilitating a child-centered environment. They included three subthemes, narrowing of the curriculum, teacher development concerning the whole child, and parent concerns with educating the whole child.

Narrowing of the curriculum

Many principals thought that schools had become more astute with individualizing instruction for students, yet expressed concerns about the content measured on these high-stakes assessments. Although principals indicated that children had wider gaps in academic and social readiness than in the past, the pressure to prepare students for the state assessment often led to a standard, one-size fits all curriculum. For example, elementary school Principal 3 shared,

We are heavily testing in math and communication arts... We are not testing them over how to work in a global society...Are we really testing the whole child? Are we giving them a fair advantage to show where their niche is and that they are successful? My professional opinion is no. Not every child is

going to be successful in those two areas, but I know that's what we are required to do (Midwest, 2005).

When viewing the needs of the whole child, principals mentioned the importance of analyzing data beyond that measured on standardized tests, such as improvement in student dispositions, preparation for productive citizenship, and getting along in the workplace. High school Principal 77 stated, "We are quickly becoming less focused on creating citizens, quality citizens for this county" (Midwest, 2006). Further, high school Principal 83 shared,

We're spending about 100% of our time in demonstrating test score proficiency on NCLB and we're graduating a senior with about 75% of what he/she needs to know in the real world. And that is a rough pill to swallow for an administrator (Midwest, 2006).

Teacher development concerning the whole child

Regarding teacher development, principals provided teacher trainings that addressed issues of educational philosophy as well as instructional techniques. Teachers have become more astute in meeting both a student's academic and emotional needs than in the past because of school and district level study groups and in classroom coaching. Many administrators described how they focused on helping each child make one year's worth of academic growth. Further, some school principals described coaching and collaboration models where educators not only met the academic needs of the students but also improved student self-esteem as well. Conversely, when teachers lacked a student-centered approach, principals felt they must model this philosophy even more to maintain an educational environment that focused on educating the whole child. In some ways, principals believed school improvement made it easier to motivate staff members to focus on the whole child because you could tell staff members that we had no choice because of the mandates or as elementary school Principal 20 shared, "it's given us [administrators] some backbone" (Southeast, 2006).

Parent concerns with educating the whole child

Another challenge for school leaders was that parents desired to learn more about their child than merely their performance on the last school or state assessment. Although the content of parent conferences typically described academic progress, parents wanted to learn about their child's social and emotional growth as well. For example, elementary school Principal 61 shared,

I had a parent come in one time and I stood up and applauded her. The parent looked around and she said, 'Before we do anything I just want one thing. Don't anybody tell me about test scores, don't anybody tell me about proficiencies or achievements. I want to know about my kid first.' We all stood up and clapped. We talked about her child and how the child interacted with people and then we went to test scores" (Midwest, 2005).

Issues of Equity for Child-Centered Learning Environments

A third major theme is issues of equity for child-centered learning environments. Equity issues have challenged school administrators and as elementary school Principal 46 stated, “A principal has to make sure there is equity” (Southwest, 2006). In this section, four subthemes are included, contradictory viewpoints about low performing students, limited opportunities for gifted students, expectations for English Language Learners, and staff and program elimination associated with whole child development.

Contradictory viewpoints about low performing students

Principals noted that in previous years, some schools purposely disregarded some student groups because the school feared they would not pass the state mandated assessment, therefore lowering their building’s overall score. For example, elementary school Principal 35 stated,

They [special education students] did not have to take the test, but you have an ethical responsibility to all of your students because as soon as you say they don’t have to take the test...then they [schools] are not teaching those children at the level that they need to be taught (Southwest, 2005).

Some administrators believed the needs of the lowest performing students continued to be ignored because of school improvement which in this case is synonymous with test scores going up. Schools felt pressured to meet their district and state assessment goals and therefore favored those students who could meet proficiency levels and be promoted to the next grade level. More specifically, elementary school Principal 16 reported:

The focus on higher order thinking pressed the teachers to work hard on what we call *bubble students*, those close to passing [promoted], and leaving the students at the bottom of the barrel, who needed the most help or be retained. If I look at it from a social justice aspect, these students were the ones we should be looking out for, the ones who were going to be retained because of the system. (Southwest, 2005)

Furthermore, some principals expressed concerns that the developmental need of special education students were not being met because of school improvement mandates. Teachers sometimes expected special education students served in inclusion classrooms to complete grade level work even if their level of development or individualized education program goals indicated they performed below grade level.

In contrast, some school principals’ desires for social justice helped low-performing students receive more academic assistance than they typically had in the past that included small group interventions. High school Principal 79 commented, “We probably tended to ignore them [low performing students] in the past...now they are a main focus for us” (Midwest, 2006). Moreover, high school Principal 26 shared,

We let too many kids slip through the cracks too early and then we decide we're going to shut their lives down because we didn't provide the type of instruction that would have kept them from slipping through the cracks. I think it's an abomination. (Southeast, 2006).

Limited opportunities for high ability students

School improvement mandates led to decreased expectations for high ability or gifted students. Principals expressed concerns that the language of proficiency in the current school accountability model had placed a greater emphasis on interventions for struggling students while providing limited resources, if any, for high ability students or those who have the potential to excel. High school Principal 77 believed schools had contradictory views of educating students; schools promoted their desires to meet the needs of all students, including the brightest, but those students were often overlooked in favor of helping the average or below average students (Midwest, 2006). Furthermore, principals thought that schools provided fewer opportunities to meet the needs of advanced students, specifically those that provide challenge, because of the narrow academic focus. Schools utilized resources such as after school tutoring programs to help lower performing students, but few administrators described opportunities for helping advanced students reach higher levels of academic performance.

Expectations for English language learners

Principals shared concerns surrounding the inequities associated with educating English Language Learners (ELLs). Some principals believed that school improvement mandates caused schools to concentrate on preparing ELL students to complete the state assessment, rather than providing them quality opportunities to explore and learn more about American culture and the English language. School principals struggled with requiring all students, particularly those with developmental language needs, to complete the state assessment, often before they are competent in the English language. Specifically, elementary school Principal 61 commented, "I believe that every child learns at their own pace and with their own style. We give them a test in March and it's the same format for every kid" (Midwest, 2005). This factory-type model omitted ELL students' academic and social needs as the mandates of the state superseded their developmental needs.

Staff and program elimination associated with whole child development

Principals shared that school improvement led to the elimination of exploratory or extracurricular courses in some school settings. Many school leaders indicated that the current school curriculum did not address the whole child, but in fact lessened the number of programs that met the needs of the whole child. For example, middle school Principal 63 described how exploratory classes such as technology, music, and art, often provided to enrich the curriculum for adolescents beyond that of basic academic subjects, had been eliminated for some students because of the content on the state assessment, specifically the need to improve reading scores. To accomplish this, middle school Principal 63 commented,

We eliminated one of those exploratory programs and therefore we punished children, kids that did not do well in reading. They are not going to have the exploratory options and opportunities...I feel disappointed that we got rid of half of our exploratory classes...we compromised the middle school philosophy (Midwest, 2005).

Last, principals shared that maintaining a focus on the whole child was important in their respective buildings, but often schools terminated programs or staff members to help schools meet accountability goals. In some cases, principals recognized that schools hired additional classroom teachers or paraprofessionals to provide new school wide academic interventions. However, many administrators and schools felt pressured to help children perform well on the state assessment so they eliminated school counselors, social workers, and teachers of gifted education and also curricula not found on the state assessment such as music and art, which helped educators address the needs of the whole child.

Stress on Children

The fourth major theme is stress on children. School improvement's psychological impact on American children has received a great deal of attention and was described in the focus groups. The pressure students experienced surrounding their need to pass high-stakes assessments occurred because of ramifications that related to rigorous test preparation, grade level promotion and high school graduation. Elementary principals expressed trepidations about increased stress faced by their students and staff regarding performance on these tests and the resultant impact on their students' mental health. Elementary school Principal 2 shared, "[The teachers] want to do well on the tests and I am beginning to see some of the stress coming on the kids. [Students] are worried about how well they will perform on the test" (Midwest, 2005). Many principals believed, with an average of three weeks out of a nine-month school year consumed with testing, that schools were spending too much time assessing students. Principals at all school levels indicated that this over-emphasis on testing and test preparation had not only increased students' stress levels, but had diminished their interest in learning and limited the attention given to meet their social and emotional needs. Secondary principals in particular described the results of constantly tested and stressed elementary and middle school students; they produced student learning gaps at the high school level along student desires to drop-out of school because of the stress associated with passing the state's graduation proficiency exam.

Superintendents and Principals: Comparisons and Contrasts

In reviewing the transcripts, superintendents and principals shared both positive and negative outcomes of school improvement that ranged from how it served as a catalyst for change to the obstacles it created for schools when addressing the social and emotional needs of students. For example, both superintendents and principals talked about the importance of meeting the academic needs of all students, including students who often were ignored in the past such as special education students and children of poverty. However, their lens at times lacked social justice as they spoke about how low performers who were now getting the attention they needed, but this attention was often at the expense of others. Several responses from principals indicated that a new class of marginalized students has been targeted—the lowest

performers and the high performers who are expected to perform well on standardized tests even if schools failed to address their learning needs. Given the post-NCLB context of American education, establishing clear goals and developing the systems needed to efficiently obtain the goals is both a rational and pragmatic approach toward establishing excellence, but such excellence comes at the expense of equity. As excellence is established at the systems level, new sets of challenges regarding inequities present themselves. For example, principals and superintendents noted the need to provide the extra assistance for all low-performing students to increase proficient levels, yet when focusing on increased proficiency, new challenges in equity arose marginalizing children scoring at either end of the bell-shaped curve.

Some superintendents and principals took a humanistic approach with school improvement and recognized that schools and districts must help their families by creating family involvement programs that address students' social and emotional needs. For example, principals on many occasions discussed the expanding role of our public schools. Additionally, both groups believed that school improvement helped them focus on meeting the needs of more children, but principals specifically spoke about how high-stakes accountability led to curricula dominated by test preparation and academic interventions and the elimination of programs that focus on the whole child such as the fine arts. Further, principals expressed concerns about students' high stress levels as schools pushed children to meet individual and school assessment targets despite increased gaps in school readiness. In some cases, principals voiced opinions about how district mandates such as curriculum maps and pacing guides provided challenges for schools as they were forced to provide a one-size fits all curriculum model to students regardless of their developmental levels. Superintendents and principals described the importance of addressing parent concerns about school improvement to secure their support through forums at the district level and providing more information about each child's social and emotional progress, not just their academic performance, at the school level. Both superintendents and principals shared how they had created teacher trainings that targeted the needs of the whole child to positively impact a student's academic, social, and emotional growth. Both groups of administrators were concerned with having child-centered teachers in the district and classroom. Last, superintendents spoke about the political and community agendas associated with school improvement from a school governance perspective.

In comparing the themes from the superintendent focus groups with the themes from the principal focus groups, superintendents viewed a more systemic and organizational approach versus an individual and more student-centered approach to student growth and development. On one hand, the majority of the discussions by superintendents pertaining to the whole child focused on structural aspects of schooling and school governance issues such as improvement planning, "fending off" detractions from a student-centered environment, using NCLB as a means of integrating change that better integrates excellence and equity. On the other hand, principals' focus groups discussed how to facilitate a child-centered environment and develop a school culture focused on the individual children themselves. For example, the principals talked about determining how to best support both students and their families, developing faculty that can differentiate instruction, and modeling the way for a student-centered approach to teaching. Furthermore, examples of stress and anxiety of students in a post-NCLB era, only emerged in the principals' discussions.

Such a concentration of themes demonstrates how administrators viewed their own roles regarding educating the whole child. For superintendents, their roles were on the organizational structures surrounding the child. For principals, it seems they perceived their role as creating and sustaining the child-centered environment more around the culture of the school than its overall structure.

Implications for Practice, Leadership Preparation, and Policy

Jean-Marie and Normore (2008) wrote, “Critical leadership is defined as a continued analysis of what occurs in an organization by those engaged in critical reflection and re-evaluation of current practices” (p. 7). Administrators’ perceptions of their implementation of school improvement mandates indicated that collectively they demonstrated *critical leadership* by integrating individualized caring for students with student achievement. Furthermore, amidst the criticism of NCLB there has been little recognition regarding the systemic impact of such critical leadership on implementation of policy. Accountability mandates have changed educational leadership practices in many ways. Although, school superintendents and principals desire to provide students with an education that focuses on their academic, social, and emotional needs, the competing demands of school improvement, defined as higher scores on state achievement tests, often create barriers for school leaders. The classroom and school environment can be a powerful tool for focusing students’ attention on learning while offering them a secure and supportive learning experience. Educational leaders in the focus groups seem to agree on the need for excellence at the systems level—schools and districts—and equity at the individual level. On the other hand, reconciling excellence and equity in practice, is complex. Superintendents noted the distance between their office and the classroom. Furthermore, the tools most readily available, policies and procedures fit more with a one-size-fits-all model. As a result, other stakeholders such as parents and teacher must be relied upon to be systemic advocates for the needs of individual children. Similarly, this was evident in the principals’ statements about the increasing social role of the school, the narrowing and prioritizing of the curriculum, parent involvement and teacher development.

A tension exists for educators as they attempt to balance concern for the growth and development of children with concern for their performance on a single standardized test. This quandary is not new to educators; it was seen at the beginning of the twentieth century in the debates between Dewey and Elliott over the meaning of progressive education—experiential learning activities versus bureaucratic efficiency. During the day-to-day decision making required of superintendents and principals, educational leaders understand the bureaucratic demands for efficiency. Yet, they also understand the broader nature of our culture, which provides meaning and unites individuals at a social, emotional, and intellectual level. Weber (1947) indicated that the more calculating and bureaucratic an organization becomes, the more depersonalized and oppressive the organizational routines become, diminishing meaning in individual actions. In their decision making, superintendents and principals seek to balance these bureaucratic needs of efficiency with the holistic needs of individual students. While immersed in this leadership task, superintendents and principals link pragmatism and critical leadership by reflecting upon and reframing their varied beliefs regarding doing what is best for students academically, socially, and emotionally, which are interwoven with the legislative expectations of which they are held accountable.

Future Trends

Schools play an important role in raising healthy children by fostering not only their cognitive development, but also their social and emotional development. Education initiatives that link current practice with promising new research in neurological and cognitive sciences offer real possibilities for improving teaching and learning regarding educating the whole child, especially for students with diverse learning needs. Brain research supports the notion that a positive emotional climate allows for higher levels of learning and student performance (Hardiman, 2003). Elias et al. (1997) posited that a universal school-based effort to promote students' social and emotional learning represents a promising approach for enhancing children's success in school and life. Further, Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor and Schellinger, (2011) affirm in their large-scale meta-analysis that school-based programs which promoted students' social and emotional development, contributed to an 11-percentile gain in academic performance. School administrators who are pressured to meet the demands of the No Child Left Behind legislation and improve the academic performance of their students might welcome programs that boost achievement by 11 percentile points. Durlak et al.'s (2011) findings are noteworthy especially for educational policy and practice as the results add to a growing body of research indicating that social and emotional learning programming enhances students' connection to school, classroom behavior, and academic achievement (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). If school leaders are to empower all individuals to learn, they must understand and apply this information from neurological and cognitive science within their professional practice.

There is broad agreement among educators, policy makers, and the public that educational systems should graduate students who are proficient in core academic subjects, able to work well with others from diverse backgrounds, practice healthy behaviors, and exhibit responsible and respectful behaviors (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2007). However, affective areas of education that are the foundation for growth and learning are not included on the high-stakes assessments and used to evaluate a student's growth. Comer (2005) indicates that philosophical beliefs about educating children and lack of formal preparation in child and adolescent development contribute to why schools fail to educate the whole child. He further asserts that child development remains a limited focus because many educators differ philosophically regarding school and life performance; they believe genetics and the home environment predispose student performance despite recent findings that intelligence is interactive and a developmental outcome. Therefore, implications include the need to prepare aspiring school leaders to become advocates for educational equity and child development (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005) while they are formally enrolled in university preparation programs or with continued education.

Pre-service educational leaders and those practicing in the field must understand that the social and emotional life of the child and their academic proficiency are both essential components for determining student success. School improvement goals that address improving educational equity have not been reached and rather have narrowed the education of children to routines of learning content that matches a

minimum standards test while failing to provide for their social and emotional needs (Kohn, 2005; Popham, 2001). There is significant pressure on novice educational leaders to focus on the efficiency of the school system and student proficiency as defined by state assessment goals rather than the needs of the whole child. Although superintendents and principals, those at the novice level and those who are veteran administrators, must continue to manage their districts and schools efficiently, they must now do this while incorporating child-centered practices and by modeling a whole child focus into the daily routines of the school and district. Furthermore, school and district leaders must possess critical leadership skills that integrate both excellence and equity at the individual and systems levels and reflect a holistic view of education. These tenets of educating the whole child are undervalued in the current political context of contemporary American education and must be inculcated into the mindset of school and district leaders via leadership preparation programs, educational policy, and practical experiences in the field.

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An Opportunity to Adopt Howard Gardner's 8 Intelligences, Coupled with Emotional Intelligence, to Conquer Barriers and Embrace Change

Sarah Hopwood, Howard Gardner

Teacher-works.com, UK

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Well the main reason hidden talents are thought of as hidden talents is because, when we are really talented at some things – not everything, but something that’s a real, real talent - it comes so blooming easy to us we don’t actually value it as a talent.

So in a way it is as if we are masked from it; if you are not sure about your hidden talents then ask people around you, “what is it I am good at?” They will tell you some stuff and if you are not careful they your response could be, “yeah, yeah, but it’s easy!” And they are looking at you saying, “no it’s not. It might be easy for you but it is not for me.” It’s a hidden talent.

Embrace change. So many people like to be in their comfort zone and are reluctant to change. I suggest you embrace it - it is in change mode that we grow.

Dare to dream – the world is good. You, like everyone else are aware of negative things in the press. You have your concerns. I don’t know where you are in your stage through university. My children went through university and had the same sort of things as they were leaving. Can I tell you this is nothing new – look back through history, and look at generations – barriers have always been there all the time? So dare to dream. Dream big. Think big – and when you are thinking check in the mirror to see if you are smiling... if you are not smiling then go back and dream again because you are not dreaming properly. The way that helps you, is by dreaming and knowing what you want means that you will end up getting what you want.

We always get what we focus on. So focus on those dreams and ambitions and that is where you will go. I loved it when I heard a politician say, and then a local businessperson, say “Recession, what recession. I am not participating in any recession.” You can choose your attitude. I think the world is good – I think there is lots out there for you to be excited about - smile, embrace it and dream.

Listen. You know, I was never taught how to listen – many of us have not been taught how to listen. I am not even sure how listening is embraced in education today. For many of our clients – the biggest challenge for them, working within their staff and with their own clients, is learning how to listen. If we listen to other people then we can be influenced by who they are, what they are saying and what their interests are.

Avoid the need to always be in control. I think of Christmas and birthday presents. Because it is very close to my heart, we even as a family have fallen into the habit of ..., yes we ask people what they would like for presents, but then it is easy to say, “If we give you the money then you can go and buy what you want.”

I think part of finding hidden talents is being exposed to the influence of other people. As a teacher I was given quite a few gifts. Over the years, I have been in our house for over 25 years, so I have things that have been bought for me by other people that I wouldn’t dream of buying for myself. But they have given me great pleasure and in themselves they have revealed hidden talents, or interests, that I would never have even know about if I was totally in control of things coming my way.

Another thing about hidden talents is to know that with no peace, you have no power. So always try to protect peace in your life – seek a peaceful life, as it will help you be exposed and embrace external things. This will help feed the hidden talent aspect of

who you are. Lastly I just want to share 2 hidden talents that I have used. 1 is music and the other hairdressing.

Our son at the age of 5 took up the violin. I was on the verge of selling my piano., I had learned to play the piano briefly at school – but could now barely play any notes...but decided to keep the piano realizing I could use it to tune the violin.

What happened then was at the age of 7 Daniel went on to take his grade 1 exam, I looked at paying for an accompanist and ‘couldn’t believe’ the extortionate price (that was my reaction back then) and then thought – they are not examining the accompanist, they are examining the violinist – so I decided to play for him.

What happened through this sense of service, supporting someone else (I wasn’t doing it for myself) was I played for him in his next 3 exams – he got distinction in all of them (including grade 1) – I then went onto teach music, to teach privately at home and even ended up playing for church services. All because, my motive to begin with was, I started out helping someone else.

The other one was hairdressing. I was a girl who had everything – my husband asked me what I wanted for Christmas – I said I have always wanted to be a hairdresser so why don’t you buy me a hairdressing kit. Which he did. It came with a cassette, that’s how long ago it was, with the title, ‘How to cut hair’. It came with a pair of scissors with plastic handles, and he sat in the chair and said, “cut”. So, I watched the little film. I stood there and put the apron around his neck. The first haircut wasn’t that bad because obviously I had a model of his previous haircut to follow. I can tell you, by the third haircut he looked like he’d had a fight with a lawnmower.

So I said to him, “For goodness sake, you are tax partner in a firm of chartered accountants, please go and have your hair cut properly, you are looking like your wife’s hacked at it”. But he refused telling me to keep practicing. So I did. I then started on the kids... Then the children from school, some of my pupils would come to the house for haircuts – I remember one year I did 150 haircuts. I know, and to begin with the joke was, was that I was so ill prepared, that there were only 2 styles to choose from. You could either have a short haircut that looked like ‘this’ or a long haircut that looked like ‘that’. So you literally just had a choice of 2 haircuts and that was it.

But anyway, I started to charge. I remember being sat in a Marquee – Beach Dreams – years ago, donating cuts where anyone walking by could pop in - people donated. I raised a lot of money. I used it as a way of developing something I always fancied doing, I get great joy from doing it, but all the money that I earned or raised I gave to a good cause. Either the church or a charity... for me the poignant moment was when my grandfather was so ill in hospital. He actually looked quite bright on this day, but had come from the nursing home – I don’t know who had cut his hair but enough said... it was awful. It was wonderful for me to tuck the paper towels around his dressing gown and tidy his hair up for him, making it nice for him. He actually died a few days later. For me it was just a wonderful gift – it was a hidden talent that I believe not only did I acknowledge it, but I think I ran with it.

So ask people about your hidden talents, be exposed to the influence of other people,

find these talents and run with them – and share them.

Entrepreneurial thinking:

I want to ask you 2 questions. The first question is about a choice, I will explain what I want you to do – but please just keep the answer to yourself, don't tell anyone yet.

Years ago an experiment was carried out with 4 year olds. They were followed for the next 18 years of their life. They used Marshmallows when carrying it out – you will appreciate I thought if I stood here with marshmallows it might not have the same impact. So I am here with bars of chocolate.

The question was asked. “Do you want one marshmallow now or will you wait 10 minutes and I'll give you 2 marshmallows?” Some of the children waited – some didn't.

So I want to ask you the same question, but I am asking you about bars of chocolate. Do you want one now or will you wait until tomorrow when I will come back with 2 bars. I want you to just in your head decide what you would do – take it now or wait? After the children had been followed for up to 18 years the evidence was overwhelming - those who waited had happier lives, they were more ‘successful’ and even more popular within their peer group. In order to wait they had to cover their eyes and they were blocking their ears – but what they were demonstrating was the ability to say no to themselves. If your choice was to take the chocolate now, there could be very good reasons for that. One of the reasons possibly could be that you have experienced broken promises. You have no sense of assurance I will definitely be back tomorrow.

If you waited then maybe you like chocolate. But maybe you also thought that if you had 2 bars you could then share the chocolate with your friends and family. Those that waited reflected to me that they demonstrated an investment mind – and I would like to encourage all of you to exercise an investment mind.

Many of you have seen the half full, half glass of water – how do you see it? Many of us know the ‘right’ answer is that it is ‘half full.’ I want to encourage everyone to see all of what are there – to see all your talents – your hidden talents and see the confidence you have. Re-vamp some stuff, maybe re-energise some stuff – but value what you have.

But also I would like to you see what is not in the upper part of the glass. That ties up with things that have gone – maybe things that we have let go or people we have let moved on, or we have had to move away from. But also, what is in that space is what is yet to come – it's your entrepreneurial spirit of looking out round the corner...to try and be creative, to be innovative - to be energized – to dare to dream. But the key thing you need to know is you have to go and get it. It won't come to you, you have to go and get it – go and get it! So to finish with just a few thoughts.

People are not mind readers. Do ask for what you want, tell people how you feel, and ask for help.

Never underestimate the power of words. “Sticks and stones will break my bones but words will never hurt me.”...what a load of rubbish, yes, complete rubbish. Words are incredibly powerful.

Be slow to take offense. We do not know what is happening in people’s lives. The day my brother died I went to pick the children up from school. My foot slipped on the clutch as I was reversing the car, jolting the car near a parent walking behind the car. I was quick to say sorry using the mirror and back window. Verbally she had a go at me outside the car so I opened the window and could have said one of 2 things – either sorry or that my brother had died. So I said sorry again – and she wouldn’t let up.... you don’t know what is happening in people’s lives.

Your motives in life are key to the results that you get, and your core values. And lastly,
“Silence can sometimes be misinterpreted but it can never ever be misquoted.”

Q: Please tell us about some of the books you have brought here.

Joyce Meyer is a great writer, she has written some wonderful books. There is also Howard Gardner who has written prolifically about multiple intelligences – particularly about the 8 intelligences/attributes. Howard Gardner saved my life. When I was at school I didn’t fit into the Math’s English and Science – so I had confidence issues. When I understood there were 8 intelligences rather than just 3. It made me realize (and I think every single student should know about this) it empowers every single person in the room. We all have intelligences – every single one of us, just strengths in different areas...and we need that for the spice of life.

Q: I really enjoyed that talk, thank you so much. In terms of your style, you are disclosing some really personal stuff. I think that is a great example and good for other people to follow, but it is a really difficult thing to do – especially in public and equally difficult with day to day events. What enables you to do that, and to share with others?

My answer takes things down to a deeper level, but I will answer it. I am a Christian. I believe God loves every single one of us. I believe that by sharing my stuff I can help free up God’s people. I see people, especially in the business world, spend a lot of their time beating themselves up – and I don’t think that is what God or anybody else wants. So when we share we give other people permission to share.

Second part of the answer to that refers back to Howard Gardner’s 8 intelligences. I will say again what they are:

- 1) Linguistic – I love this, I always say it is someone who can spot a spelling mistake before opening an email....when they see it, it glares at them.
- 2) Numerical.
- 3) Interpersonal - relationships with other people.
- 4) Intrapersonal – how self smart we are – that’s why I talk about being brave and

putting your hand to say you are sorry or to say you stand by every word you have said.

5) Kinesthetic – just look at a football match or a game of squash, never underestimate sports people they are very intelligent.

6) Aesthetics – musical and cultural. Then you have

7) Moral – where is your moral bar and how much pushing on that bar does it take before you break your own moral code. And the last one, which very much answers the question, is

8) Spiritual Intelligence. It's about who we are, and our place in the world. As human beings are we very good at showing the world what we want the world to see. That basically means we have set up barriers. What I have learned to do is unpack my barriers – I have taken them away. When I talk about this to clients I say, “Does it leave me vulnerable?” yes. “Does it leave me a ‘sitting duck’ if someone want to hurt me?” Absolutely yes! “Am I happier, very much in line with my life purpose – why I am here?” Yes.

Most tears at funerals are tears of regret, or tears tied up with ‘What if’s’. I hope that by sharing – and when we share we are also helping ourselves to at the same time – it helps people have not so many regrets or ‘what if’s’ at either someone else’s funeral or in 150 years at your own.

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Sustainable Language Learning: Changing the Multicultural Classroom

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Abstract

This study examined how effective linguistic methodologies in a multicultural classroom influenced *sustainable language learning*. It was found a “one-size-fits-all” approach to multicultural learners lacks the obligatory approach needed for a viable language curriculum to be absorbed. Standard teaching epistemologies meet the needs of a heterogeneous language community of learners while suppressing a bicultural student’s ability to problem solve in future viable real-life dialectal situations. A panoramic study of the concepts of cultures and social dynamics were explored. An examination of cultural differences and the similarities of language learning in a multicultural milieu were assessed. This study tested a set of hypotheses related to the interactive influences of three paradigms associated with *sustainable language learning*: politics, education, and societal influences. The empirical results from 68 European students who studied abroad, found the direct influence of language learning aligned with various characteristics associated with their culture. The findings point to the importance of every day interactions with other cultures as a factor impacting *sustainable language learning*. In addition, a solid educational foundation was evident and determined to be a necessity for *sustainable language learning*. This study found the need for a paradigm shift in language analysis and bilingualism; hence, a diverse pedagogical method of language acquisition would warrant *sustainable language learning* needed in the 21st Century multicultural classrooms. This study was consistent in assuming teachers need to understand the effective linguistic methodologies needed in a multicultural community of language learners.

Keywords: multicultural classrooms, language acquisition, cultural differences, cultural immersion, sustainable language learning

Introduction

Since the end of the 16th Century, foreign language has evolved and dominance of specific languages has become more ubiquitous than others. The English language has flourished over the years and has not only become the second language spoken in countries around the world, but also become the official language used at international conferences, collaborative events, and various international organizations such as the United Nations, European Nations, and the International Olympic Committee.

Language acquisition in countries considered linguistically privileged is due in part by demands associated with language learning as communicative competence (Council of Europe, 1997). Recent inquiries have investigated the importance of language learning and the bearings of bilingualism. More important, language learning inspires the long-term relationship between society and scholarship. The knowledge and expertise of professionals who have recognized the diversification of awareness associated with bilingualism differs. Likewise, the emergence of the perspective second language differs throughout the world.

In the United States, the National Curriculum outlines how standards for *Foreign Language Learning for the 21st Century*, which include participating in the community of the language learned. However, most students fail to use the learned language once credit is earned or the foreign language requirement is consummated (National Standards, 1999). In most cases, the opportunity for American native students to participate in multilingual conversations is rare and as a result, the foreign language is not *sustained* or compulsory.

Integrated objectives in the curricula of most school systems, afford the opportunity for students to learn a second language minus learning about the culture associated with the language. Expending the language in an intercultural setting, or in its native country, tests the impact of *sustainable language learning*. Because English is viewed as a powerful asset for global expansion, countries considered linguistically privileged not only learn English but also use the language and facilitate communicative competence using English. According to Rado (1991), when the curricula concept that language learning is constructed on cognitive and linguistic readiness, student interests in language learning is considered and tested.

Studies investigate why “mother-tongue speakers” of English do not find it necessary to learn another language, maintain the language, or expand linguistically by learning and *sustaining* a second language (Demont-Heinrich, 2010). Nonetheless, this assumption defined *sustainable language learning* and to report how students learned a foreign language, traveled abroad to the native country associated with the language, and remained communicatively competent without remediation. This panoramic study incorporated political, educational, and societal influences associated with language learning. The ethos and the social dynamics impacting the cultural differences vary but the similarities of language learning in a multicultural milieu were discovered. A comprehensive picture of the international dimension of education, particularly language learning, was assessed. Clearly, the experiences associated with intensive language learning and cultural immersion remains the underlying influence associated with *sustainable language learning*.

Sustainable language learning is not found in countries promoting foreign language learning as an obligatory approach. Lynch (1989) found “the major function of the school and its curriculum is to enable students to think, talk, discuss, judge, relate, and act in a reasoned way” (p. 35). A curriculum standard for a “viable” language curriculum engages the learner in a real-life exchange and interaction with other people associated with the language. In opposition, a heterogeneous language community of learners suppresses the language learner’s ability to problem-solve in viable real-life dialectal situations. This study focused on the impact of communicating the second language in a cultural situation, or cultural immersion, and assessed how learning the language influenced communicative language competence.

Background

School systems and curriculum policy implementation for language learning, vary throughout the world. In fact, some cultures employ social behaviors to influence cultural immersion. These components consistently and simultaneously align with cultural values and academic achievement toward language learning. A study conducted by Flippo (2013), found “85% of German youngsters between the ages of three and six attend voluntary community and church-supported kindergartens” (p. 1). In most German schools, a foreign language is introduced in the third year of elementary school. An education destination is selected based on a student’s ability and placement is assessment based. German students are tested intermittently for placement and program satisfaction/completion.

The French have a similar approach to education. Students enter school as early as two years and enter college as early as 15. At the secondary level, the French have a more rigorous approach to language education and numerous studies conducted by the French support this idea. The French-Canadians conducted a study, as cited in Moreno (2012), and found “bilingual students out performed monolingual students of the same socioeconomic status in almost all cognitive tests” (p. 112). French college students partake in an oral examination twice a week in math, physics, French, and a foreign language (English). This approach supports the importance of using critical thinking skills in conjunction with blending a bilingual education into the school systems.

Based on the approach used by the Dutch, education is mandatory and children enter school by the age of 6. The Dutch’s primary education system aligns with the British’s curriculum approach or the International Baccalaureate approach to learning (Phillips & Pound, 2003). Students test at the end of the eighth year when this test determines the path of the student’s secondary education level. The Dutch schools incorporate English and other surrounding countries languages but the most commonly second language of choice is English.

Although all three approaches to language learning differ, the facilitation and approach to learning a second language remains important. After World War II, students were encouraged to study abroad. This concept became popular after the United Nations vowed to improve the relationships between cultures by revealing common principles and policies of respective countries (Holburn, 1943, p. 2). Because this union commenced, a surge of exchange programs emerged. These programs offered students the opportunity to experience cultural immersion while studying in a foreign country. Most of these programs require the participant to study

the language of the host country and to gain a better understanding the host country's culture, language, and general political stance prior to immersion.

The requirements for each program vary based on the programs origination or home country. Some programs require one year of the language of the host country whereas others require a minimum of three years studying the foreign language of choice. Most European countries introduce a second language to students at a very young age with the purpose of "maintaining the students' proficiency in the mother tongue while adding proficiency in English" (Paulston, 1988, p. 555). With English being one of the most common second languages to learn, countries promoting the opportunity to study abroad, offer English as a choice for foreign language studies.

While this study's defines *sustainable language learning*, based on the data collected, each culture's approach to education differs. Multicultural classrooms impact the learning process for language acquisition and sustainable foreign language learning and previous studies have demarcated the importance of preserving the "mother tongue and native culture while simultaneously striving to promote a European identity" or European "citizenship" while learning a second language (McGrath & Ramler, 2002, p. 3). This study is not intended to compare the approach used for general education in the three cultures associated with this study, but rather examination the similarities of language learning resulting in *sustainable language learning*.

Methods

This study used an evaluation approach to assess the effectiveness of language learning and how *sustainable language learning* is defined and reached (Robson, 2002). The learners in question were native language speakers of French, German, and Dutch. Because the language learning in these three European cultures have a targeted outcome, an examination of the cultural differences and the similarities of language learning between these multicultural milieus were assessed.

Written responses to specific open-ended questions were designed for this study; however, a corroboration of the results was used to study the same phenomenon experienced by the participants from different European backgrounds (Johnson & Christenson, 2004). There were two major limitations for this study: the pupil's ability to understand what is being asked through a digital survey and my inability to probe responses.

The limitations were reduced based on the design of the questions. The questions were designed to obtain different perspectives, regarding the same issue, from members of different European cultures. A triangulated approach was used. This approach permitted the data from one issue to be comprised with multiple and varying perspectives needed to answer the research inquires (McFee, 1992).

The sample of this study included 68 students from Germany, France, and the Netherlands. The sample was based on a convenience sample and all participants who volunteered were used based on the approach outlined by Creswell (1998); a convenience sample incorporates all available participants experiencing the same phenomenon. With a multitude of technological resources available today the

participant pool was established by posting an invitation for participation via multiple social media sites. An on-line link invited participants who met the criteria for this study and a disclosure was provided regarding this study.

This study tested a set of hypotheses related to the interactive influences of three paradigms associated with *sustainable language learning*: politics, education, and societal influences. The concepts of the various cultures and social dynamics of each country, including the similarities of language learning and the process of language acquisition, were explored. Tomasello (1992) found children learn by cultural routines which “scaffold the initial language acquisition of the child” (p. 70); hence, the influences of each government’s pragmatic rules and sociocultural influences associated with learning a foreign language were included and examined. The components of this study were operationalized to address specific learning outcomes and the impact of cultural immersion when learning a second language.

This study had three main aims:

- To establish how students perceived his or her native countries approach to learning a second language
- To find how students reacted to language learning outcomes
- To assess if the student gained intercultural competence while immersed in the host country’s culture

The survey used in this research contained questions regarding the student’s background, the age of foreign language acquisition, native educational system’s approach to language learning, experience learning a second language, and foreign culture immersion and language implementation.

Since the acquisition of language learning was tested and based on intercultural immersion and communicative competencies, the triangulated approach provided the most effective insight within the constraints of this study.

Data Analysis

This study tested a set of hypotheses related to the interactive influences of three paradigms associated with *sustainable language learning*: politics, education, and societal influences. The empirical results from 68 European students who studied abroad, found the direct influence of language learning aligned with various characteristics associated with their culture. The findings point to the importance of everyday interactions with other cultures as a factor impacting *sustainable language learning*. Of the participants, 53% were female and 47% were male. The age range of the participants was 18 to 26.

Multiple language acquisition

Of the participants surveyed, 100% spoke German, which was not the native language of all of the participants. Fifty percent of the students were fluent in French, while only 22% of the students were fluent in Dutch.

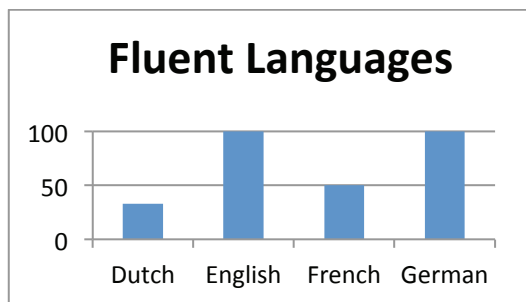


Figure 1. Languages spoken by Participants

Reason for study

This project found the standard teaching epistemologies met the needs for learning a second language; coincidentally, it was found the learning was *sustainable*. Because this study focused on learning English and sustaining the ability to communicate in English, the age in which English was learned was examined. The age of the participants when they first were exposed to learning English ranged from six to 14.

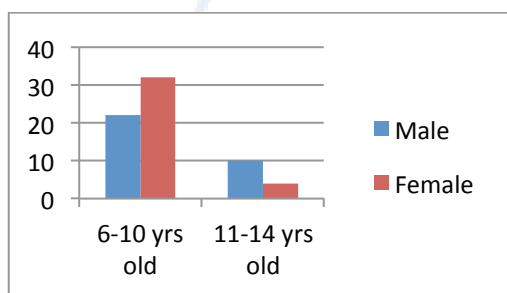


Figure 2. Age range for learning English

The outcome of this question found 54 of the participants learned English from six to 10. Of the 54 participants, 22 males (32%) and 32 females (47%) were taught English. The remaining participants learned English from 11 – 14. Of those participants, 10 were male (15%) while 4 were females (6%).

Educational approach

It was found each student described a solid educational foundation for learning English as a second language. This data was obtained through open-ended responses provided by the participants:

Q5: Describe the language program or approach used in your education system to teach English.

Here are examples from the responses:

- Dutch: “simple lessons based on standard education program for class”
- German: “in school, we often worked with our English workbook which contents many tasks like...presenting a short dialogue”

French: “visuals, cd’s and songs...vocabulary tests and dialogues in class”

Q6: Did your education program test your English skills? If so, how as it measured?

Dutch: “a final exam included a dialogue with our teacher”

German: “Many tests, verbal and written, where we were tested in English only”

French: “vocabulary tests, measured by content, grammar and form of expression”

Influential paradigms

This question found education influenced second language learning. Eighty three percent of the participants believe education was the most influential factor for learning English. While this question found additional information related to this inquiry, educational influences were ranked as the number one influential factor while societal influences ranked as the second influential factor. None of the participants were influenced by political influences leading to learning English as a second language. Although learning English as a second language was not influenced by political influences in the early years of the participants, when the participants were preparing to travel and study abroad, the political influences were dominant.

Dutch: “being prepared to speak in the host country was one of the requirements along with understanding the host country’s political make-up”

German: “our education system is influenced by policies which have been in practice for a long time...we are taught early and expected to practice what we learned later on”

French: “I believe I learned to speak English from a social aspect but our education system believes all students should be multilingual...”

Cultural immersion

More important, the findings from this research point to the importance of everyday interactions with other cultures as a factor impacting *sustainable language learning*. Each participant provided insight to her or her experiences in an English speaking classroom while studying abroad. These findings indicate the importance of cultural immersion.

Dutch: “As an exchange student...I had no problem communicating. I found most students in the American school (my English Literature class), were not familiar with grammar and spelling. At my age, we mostly wrote long texts instead of learning vocabulary or grammar”

German: In Germany, people have to write a lot more free essays with a minimum of 200 words. While in America, I chose Spanish as a foreign language and the teacher focused on vocabulary...she would say the word and the class word repeat it. I didn’t like that...

French: “I was in American for 10 months and my English improved most from simply talking to native speakers every day”

Communicative competence

Additionally, this study found most of the participants struggled with the meanings of words because of slang and other dialects not explained while learning English. Most of the students indicated they were taught British English, which is different from American English. However, the interaction with native English speakers improved the participant's ability to communicate over time.

- Dutch: "of course the English is different...we use colloquial language when speaking with a native speaker...it's completely different English...however, talking to the natives allowed me to adapt my language and understand everything"
- German: "you lose your accent faster and learn slang/colloquial English or just everyday English whereas in Germany you learn formal language which often doesn't help when you're actually talking to people instead of just writing things down"
- French: I recognized that there is an actual difference between the British and American English...when coming back to France, it was a lot easier for me to speak fluently and write essays since my vocabulary was bigger"

Sustainable language learning

The findings point to the importance of everyday interactions with other cultures as a factor impacting *sustainable language learning*. This study found a solid educational foundation was evident and was determined to be a necessity for *sustainable language learning*. The participants were asked to describe the influential factors associated with second language communicative competence.

- Dutch: "if I don't speak English everyday...it's hard for me to practice and become an experienced English talker...School gave me some basics, but I need to talk everyday/week to become fluent"
- German: "talking to native speaker/being surrounded by English speaking people 24/7. Also watching movies and being online improved my English"
- French: "we are around English everyday...as a kid, it started with the lyrics of American songs..."

Discussion

This study set out to investigate the influences associated with *sustainable language learning*. The results found the participants were introduced to English at different ages, different approaches, and different testing methods. The most influential factor associated with *sustainable language learning* was the everyday interaction using English with other English speakers. Mostly, each participant found educational approaches and epistemologies to be the most important influential factor for learning a second language. This finding is reflected in the responses found from the survey data. Overall, these participants did not fully utilize speaking in English until culture immersion took place. Once each of the participants were immersed into a culture where English was the only language, real-life dialect occurred. This project provided

evidence and outlined specific learning outcomes related to language learning. Nonetheless, *sustainable language learning* was achieved when engaging the learner into viable dialectal situations. In today's multilingual language communities, learners suppress the ability to problem solve and utilize language acquisition. Memorization of a language does not provide the opportunity of real-life communication using the learned second language.

In American schools, too many multiple choice assessments are being used and as a result the ability to think and problem solving is suppressed. This study found regurgitation of the language results in sustainable language learning. During the language learning process, students should practice a second language through essay writing or other means of assessment practices. Standard teaching epistemologies are not meeting the needs of a heterogeneous language community of learners. As hypothesized, a paradigm shift in language learning is necessary and is required for *sustainable language learning* to occur. The findings from this study have generated useful results.

The most influential factors associated with *sustainable language learning* was the age the language learner when exposed to a foreign language, the approach of the educational system in regard to language learning, but more important, the cultural immersion and language implementation that took place during the second language process. The findings of this study found supporting data and evidence necessary for *sustainable language learning* to transpire.

Conclusion

This study found the need for a paradigm shift in language analysis and bilingualism; hence, a diverse pedagogical method of language acquisition would warrant *sustainable language learning* needed in the 21st Century multicultural and bilingual classrooms. More significantly, this study was consistent in assuming teachers need to understand the effective linguistic methodologies needed in a multicultural community of language learners.

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Human Resource Management Strategies and Teacher's Efficiency within Schools of Pakistan: A Co Relational Study

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to study Human Resource Management and Development (HRMD) strategies and their effect on teachers' efficiency within the Catholic Board of Education (CBE) schools of Pakistan whose teachers are graduates in educational leadership courses from a private teacher education institutes in Karachi. The study endeavored to build a simple theoretical and conceptual framework where the effectiveness of HRMD strategies in educational leadership were studied to explore their impact on enhancing teachers' efficiency. Leadership education is a relatively a new field of study in the Pakistani education and the concept of Human Resource Management (HRM) is regarded as novel and its effective usage is rarely seen. HRM strategies if effectively utilized may become a source of developing a transparent performance management system, a collaborative and cooperative environment in the schools and of promoting teachers' efficiency in the areas of knowledge, values, skills and development as professionals as well as enhancing a school's productivity and improving its overall performance.

A survey methodology was adopted for the current research with purposive sampling to select 50 research participants and a questionnaire was used for data collection using an attitudinal scale. The results of the study revealed firstly that no relationship exists between the organization of the school and the newly acquired knowledge and skills of HRM. The school leaders are unaware of the various functions and strategies which are necessary to promote teachers' efficiency. Secondly, the study showed that some of the educational leaders are striving to meet the educational requirements of the times and to face challenges while using the learnt strategies of HRM to promote teachers' efficiency for the improvement of their particular schools.

1.0 Introduction

Pakistan's most recent Education Policy, (Ministry of Education [MoE] 2009) identified two gaps as the fundamental causes of the weak performance of its education sector. The first was named as the commitment gap, highlighting the lack of commitment to making education of good quality and accessible to all children. The second gap concerned the lack of implementation which has disaffected the implementation of policies with their relevant and updated educational practices. The two gaps are linked, as such 'a lack of commitment leads to poor implementation' while 'weak implementation leads to problems' (p.14) that can be traced to a lack of commitment and competence at governance and leadership levels (p.22).

The professional standards and expertise exercised by the Pakistani policy makers in the National and Provincial Ministries of Education as well as the principals and middle managers in the schools are fundamental to bridging the implementation gaps. Yet these pivotal educators are unprepared. While countries across the world place emphasis on educating school leaders and the establishment of academies for school leadership, in contrast, almost no persons in management positions in Pakistan's education sector have skills training in the function of educational leadership and are appointed to positions with little management experience (MoE 2009, p.28).

In 2008 the minorities' system of Catholic Education through its Board of Management for the Programme Office for Education (POE) took steps to address the dire need for quality leadership at both its system and individual school levels as a means to ensuring the long-term benefits of its programmes. Notre Dame Institute of Education (NDIE) was commissioned by the POE to design and implement an intervention to include the components of educational policy development and planning; curriculum development and implementation; and effective management structures and strategies. The Institute took the position that short term leadership in-service programmes would be neither effective nor efficient for long-term outcomes. With the support of Australian Catholic University's (ACU) School of Educational Leadership three long-term systematic Award courses were designed and encultured for the Pakistani context.

To fill in the desired gap, in 2010 NDIE piloted a two year programme of educational leadership offering the (ACU Awards of Graduate Certificate (GradCert), Post-Graduate Certificate (PGCert) and Masters in Educational Leadership (MEdLead). An outcome of the implementation process was the development of the type of curriculum and instruction which aimed to create an environment of self-directed learning and decision making in committed and professionally qualified educational leaders who in turn contribute to the creation of a national educational environment where both equity and diversity are honored (Mission Statement of NDIE 1991; 2009).

Leadership in and for education and its development is a relatively new field of study in Pakistan as are the components of its curriculum. Human Resource Management and Development (HRMD) was included as a unit of study in the NDIE Masters course to help develop the skills of practical and strategic management of the personnel within a school. HRMD studies, while originating in the field of business studies, are equally relevant and critical for the effective management of educational institutes.

HRMD is considered as an important field of study for professionals in the corporate as well as in the education context. Such studies equip the leadership and management of different organization to deal with the human resources within an organization in multiple ways while utilizing its strategies to reach their goals (Akbar 2009; Guttel 2010; Bibi, Lanrong & Haseeb 2012; Wisdom & Ebimobowei 2013). Many studies have been conducted and provided valuable insights on HRMD in the corporate sector in the recent years; while neglect of such studies is evident in the paucity of utilization of effective HRMD in the education sector (Akbar 2009). Erdamar (2013) pointed out that the knowledge, awareness and application of HRMD is integral to the effective functioning of education leaders as it helps to provide a foundation for the growth and promotion of education systems. Skilled and professionally qualified leaders in HRMD are considered to perform better for the development of the organization than the unqualified and unskilled ones (Iqbal, Arif & Abbas 2011). Furthermore, Hoffman and Shrew (2013) laid stress on the fact that the leaders' knowledge and skills of HRMD help in promoting the efficiency and efficacy of the staff leads to the development of their organization at large. The concept of utilizing HRMD in the corporate sector to achieve the desired goals has almost the same implication in the education sector. Leaders are required to be acquainted with the skills needed for effective leadership and management for the development of their institutions and the wellbeing of the human resource employed.

Considering the importance of HRMD and its practical implications for the effective performance of leaders in schools, the recent study involved participants from various geographical areas of Pakistan enrolled in the pilot NDIE-MEdLead course. The study's intent was to spotlight and investigate specifically selected strategies such as compensation, job description, training, performance appraisal, employee participation, leadership and team work in HRMD used by the unit participants as leaders in their local school settings in order to promote the teachers' efficiency. The study also aimed to be an evaluative tool for the researcher in identifying the correlation between the content and learning-teaching strategies employed in teaching the HRMD unit of study and the participants' abilities to make relevant application in their work settings. From an analysis of this data, the research will gain practical insights for redesigning the study unit with a focus on ensuring the MEdLead students will gain better professional skills of managing HRMD having a balance of knowledge, understanding, creative and critical thinking within their personal and interpersonal capacities. Pakistan based research into the effects of conscious use of (HRMD strategies in the schools to promote teachers' efficiency is minimal and this fact urged the researcher to undertake the study.

1.1 Objectives of the Study

The objective of the study was to investigate how far applied HRMD strategies such as compensation, collaboration, team work, payments and rewards, professional development, employee management and performance appraisal have been effectively utilized in selected CBE schools across Pakistan and the impact these strategies have on teachers' efficiency. Efficiency of staff in an educational environment is not a tangible phenomenon which can be easily measured, as efficiency accounts for multiple psychological and social traits and little consensus has been reached in terms of its definition, attributes and construct as described by Hoffman and Shaw (2013, p.1). However, the research provided a critical attempt to

check the applicability of HRMD strategies in the CBE schools which employ the NDIE MEdLead students.

1.2 Research Question

The problem to be probed through this research was the effect of HRMD strategies used by educational leaders professionally qualified from NDIE in the unit of Human Resource Management and Development (EDLE 679) offered under the ACU EdLead Award in promoting teachers' efficiency to improve the standard of the CBE schools.

The research problem of this paper is presented in the following question:

What effect does the use of Human Resource Management and Development (HRMD) strategies by school leaders have on the efficiency of teachers in Catholic Board Schools in Pakistan?

The study adopted the following hypothesis:

There exists a positive relationship between the Human Resource Management and Development (HRMD) strategies used by school leaders on the efficiency of teachers in the Catholic Board Schools in Pakistan.

$$\mu_{HRMDS} \neq \mu_{TE}$$

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the links between what was learned in a unit of study of HRMD and the participants' implementation of that specific learning in their workplaces. The study considered the recently established link between the participants' actions with identifiable and measurable efficiency criteria among teachers of the respective CBE schools, focusing on the efficiency criteria that were not present in the teachers prior to the interventions made by the unit participants. Furthermore, an attempt was made to find a measure of the improvement which the unit participants made in managing their staff more effectively through using a variety of strategies to develop and promote efficiency in them.

An anticipated outcome from the study is the assistance it will provide selected educational leaders to improve their practices of management and leadership for a sustained and accelerated outcome of their school. This study's importance for NDIE is the insights it will offer towards improving the set curricula for better applied outcomes most particularly as the EdLead programme is at the completion of its two year pilot phase. Through this study it is anticipated that NDIE will be able to evaluate classroom based efficiency and effectiveness of its educational leadership graduates working within the CBE school system across Pakistan

1.4 Study Organization

Following the introduction, the study presents the theoretical linkages between HRMD strategies and teachers' efficiency within schools. Section three provides a review of selected empirical studies on human resource strategies with the conceptual framework developed. The model of regression analysis is used to analyze data, the details of which are discussed in section four while the fifth section assesses the HRMD strategies utilized by the unit participants and discusses the extent of the impact they create on teachers' efficiency in the selected CBE schools in Pakistan. The final section sets the directions for further measures and concludes the study.

2.0 Review of Literature

2.01 Theoretical Framework

Researchers such as Simatwa 2013; Kelly & Odden 2008; Wang, Chich-Jeng & Mei-Ling 2010; Jane, Matthew & Bedi 2010; Racciah 2012 suggests that the study of HRMD implies a combination of theories dealing with the social, psychological and economic dimensions of the leadership and employees. Theories of motivation, behaviorism and humanism form the proposition of theories used in this particular study as it investigates human resources within an organization. A critical analysis of these foundation theories leads to the development of three different perspectives of HRMD, namely the behavioral, normative and economic perspectives, that can enhance employees' efficiency in an organization. The behavioral perspective highlights the analysis of employees' actions to identify behavior patterns that separate an effective employee from a non-performing employee, hence provide support to the leadership in managing them. The normative perspective of HRMD links workforce management to organizational strategy. HRMD stresses the linkage of functional areas such as manpower planning, job analysis, recruitment, compensation and benefits, performance evaluations, contract negotiations and labor legislations to corporate strategy. This link enforces the organization's interests over the employees' conflicting ambitions and interests. It views the workforce as passive resources that the organization can use and dispose of at will. On the other hand, the economic perspective holds the view that the strong natural inclination of people working in groups is to reduce their performance and rely on the efforts of others in the group. When one person delegates responsibility to another person, conflicts of interests invariably arise. The major role of human resource management in such a context is to promote alternative ways of controlling behavior to reduce the effects of such conflicts and minimize the cost to the organization. This includes the two approaches of monitoring and incentive giving (Act of Managing Institutes, UK, 2009).

HRMD is arguably one of the challenging units of study in the field of business and has influenced the education sector in Western countries over the past 30 years (Nakpodia 2010). Recently it has stepped into the education sector of Pakistan (MoE 2009). While HRMD can be defined as the utilization of individuals to achieve organizational goals, effective HRMD is required in organizations to get things done (Koc' 2010). Individuals dealing with HRMD matters face a multitude of challenges, ranging from a changing work force to government regulations, technological revolution and the recent global competition. Those engaged in its management must develop and work through an integrated HRMD system comprising such functions as staffing, human resource development, compensation and safety and employee labor relations (Mondy2009). Badri and Mourad (2012) stated that HRMD strategies enhance productivity and the effectiveness of the organization. When the leaders within organizations employ such personal practices as internal career ladders, formal training systems, result-oriented performance appraisal, employment security, employee voice and participation, broadly defined jobs and performance based compensation, they are more able to achieve their targets. The effective application of HRMD strategies by the educational leaders is likely to attain the desired outcomes of the institution.

Dessler and Varkkey (2011) highlighted the importance of HRMD for any organization to work and prosper. They hold that the paradigm shift in HRMD from the corporate sector to the education sector is a result of rapid globalization in the field of knowledge and education, increased competition in the education market, reduced financial budgets for the education sector and changing economic downturn. The economic blow from the West has affected the East as well and therefore the education sector of Pakistan has incorporated HRMD in the studies of leadership at least in theory, in order to manage its human resources more effectively.

As research in the field evolved, scholars presented many different viewpoints on HRMD strategies. The theory of planned behavior by Azjen (2011) emphasized the viewpoint that HRMD managers tend to guide the human behavior of employees based on three beliefs, namely a belief about the likely consequence; a belief of the normative expectations of others; and beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of the planned or desired behavior. In HRMD managers' respective aggregates, behavioral beliefs produce a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the behavior; normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure; and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioral control. In combination, attitude toward the behavior, the subjective norm and the perception of behavioral control lead to the formation of a behavioral intention.

Following theory of Azjen, McClelland (2008) claimed that effective HRMD revolves around three major categories: achievement, affiliation and power. In an educational organization, the leaders use effective HRMD to build a framework where employees with different needs are motivated differently. To manage the employees suitably, high achievers in the organization should be given challenging projects with reachable goals and be provided frequent feedback. It is expected that the employees with a high affiliation need, perform best in a cooperative environment, hence HRMD managers strive to develop a collaborative environment in their respective organizations. Furthermore, the potential leaders within the educational organization should be picked and assigned with tasks and opportunities to manage others. In this way an effective system of management would be developed and the process of goal seeking would be made relatively easy (Mabin 2007). HRMD mainly works to promote the productivity, performance and efficiency of the staff for the achievement of organizational objectives and progress

2.02 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study has been designed while keeping the determinants of the independent and dependent variables in consideration. The independent variable was the selected HRMD strategies (team work, performance appraisal, employee participation, job description, compensation and leadership), whereas, the dependent variable was teachers' efficiency accounting for the determinants of competency, compensation, work environment, job satisfaction and professional development.

If HRMD strategies such as compensation, pay, reward, benefits and policies within organisations are well thought out beforehand and applied effectively, it helps in the promotion and development of the commitment and performance of the employees. Self-directed and self-committed employees are considered an asset to an organization as such attributes among employees foster the productivity of the

organization at large and help in sustaining it for a longer period. The applied HRMD strategies in the organization help in creating a meaningful way to meet the outcomes utilizing the physiological, psychological and social variables related to employee development (Erdamar 2011). Furthermore, that the efficiency of teachers/ employees can be enhanced if the educational leaders know which HRMD strategy is appropriate to be used at which time (Badri and Mourad 2011). To Koc (2011), the overall performance of the school depends on both the leadership and the employees as they need to operate in harmony while considering the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the operation of educational institutions. If HRMD strategies are applied in an effective manner, it is predicted that they develop a twofold environment where one outcome is to achieve the set targets by promoting the performance, productivity, efficiency, innovations reliability and security of the employees. The second outcome concentrates on the wellbeing of the employees in terms of health and safety, satisfaction, pleasure, learning and personal development which enhances the morale, efficacy and efficiency of the employees through a system design.

HRMD strategies are a set of inner-organizational personal management strategies (Wang, Chich-jen, & Mei-ling 2010). The effective application of the HRMD strategies in different situations can help organizations use employees effectively for the completion of organizational targets. However, classifications of the HRMD strategies made by various scholars differ from each other. For example, the inducement strategy, the investment strategy and the participation strategy are presented by Dyer (1988), while Schuler (1989) addresses accumulation, utilization and facilitation. The development strategy, the motivational strategy, the reinforcement strategy and the transfer strategy as presented by Huang (1998) were taken as the dimensions of the HRMD strategies for the purposes of this research.

HRMD practices in organizations depend largely on relative powers of organizational actors to push innovation to enhance productivity. The nature of the relationship of the HRMD department with the different levels of management and employees develops a strategic plan that assists in the attainment of the set organizational goals (Jain, Mathew, & Bedi 2012). Agarwala (2003) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and the dimensions associated with HRMD practices, the extent of their introduction, their importance for goal achievement and the satisfaction with their implementation. He further found that among all dimensions, the introduction of such practices explained the maximum amount of variance in organizational commitment and thus were most effective in enhancing employee attachment to the organization. Agarwala's research indicated that HRMD practices such as innovative and an open work environment, opportunities for career development, development-oriented appraisal system and comprehensive and customized training programs were positively linked with organizational commitment.

3.0 Methodology

The researcher adopted a survey methodology because of its strength in investigating the effect of the HRMD strategies used by the EdLead unit participants of NDIE to effect teachers' efficiency within the Catholic Board schools of Pakistan.

3.1 Target Population

The accessible population for this research was GradCert, PGCert and MEdLead students of NDIE who undertook their courses in educational leadership between 2010-2012. From the total accessible population, a sample of 50 participants was selected comprising of a total of 9 males and 41 females.

3.2 Sampling Technique

The purposive sampling technique was used in collecting data from the research participants as the focus of the research was to analyze the effect of HRMD strategies promoting teachers' efficiency by NDIE Edlead Graduates. The total research population was 76 out of which 9 expressed their non-availability to participate in the research activity; 11 had not completed the EdLead program; and 6 participants were not employed by the CBE. Therefore the researcher had available a total population of 50 participants who agreed to take part in the research activity and filled in the required questionnaire. All 50 research participants received a copy of the questionnaire which was the main data gathering tool and 44 returned the questionnaires completed according to the given instructions. The results of research are based on these 44 responses.

3.3 Instrument Development

The questionnaire used for data collection was divided into two sections. Section A was designed to acquire demographic information from the research participants in response to the most suitable variables while sections B was based on attitudinal scales. The two main types of attitudinal scales, namely Likert scale and rating scale, were used in developing the data collecting instrument.

3.4 Instrument Reliability

The value of Cronbach's Alpha calculated for data collected from the EdLead Unit participants of NDIE from all across Pakistan in relation to the overall reliability of the instrument was calculated to be 0.922 indexes, which shows high reliability value.

Table 1
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.922	15

3.5 Regression Model

For this study the Linear Regression Model (LRM) was used. The regression analysis focused on seven types of human resource management strategies which were training, performance appraisals, team work, employee participation, job description, compensation and leadership constituting together as the independent variable. The teacher efficiency variable consisted of knowledge, professional development, values and skills, and collaboration as indicators of dependent variable.

To examine the effectiveness of HRMD strategies on teachers' efficiency, the following empirical equation of the linear regression model was developed:

$$\beta_0\text{HRMD} = +\beta_1\text{Kn} + \beta_2\text{Pd} + \beta_3\text{Vs} + \beta_4\text{C}$$

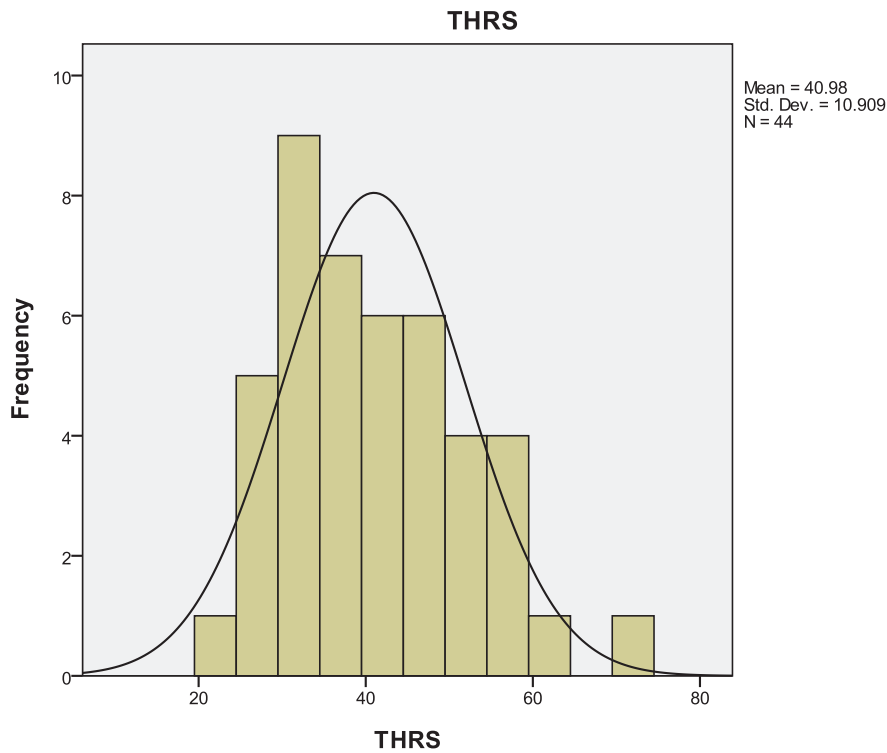
Where HRMD are the Human Resource Management strategies, KN is the knowledge of the teachers, PD is the professional development, VS are the required values and skills of the teacher and C is teachers' collaboration.

3.6 Data, Estimation Results and Findings

The estimation of the results is stated below:

3.6.1 Frequency Distribution

Figure 1



3.6.2 Descriptive Statistics Analysis

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
HRMDS Valid (listwise)	N 44	22	71	40.98	10.909	.535	.357

The descriptive statistics above display the values of the measures of central tendency. The statistics exhibit that the HRMD strategies used at schools by leaders have a critical value less than 5 percent equivalent to 0.05 which indicates that the data is normally distributed. Moreover, the histogram presented above presents the same distribution of data.

The descriptive statistics reported in Table1 illustrate that the HRMD strategies used in the CBE schools are not according to the strategies applied in the other the educational institutes as described by literature. A possible reason for this result is that HRMD is a newer field of experience for the educational leaders of the CBE schools. A second possible reason is that teaching the unit through a mixed mode approach did not give a sufficient and holistic understanding of the application of the strategies, hence the educational leaders are not sufficiently aware of the effective use of the strategies. Furthermore, the results of the descriptive statistics shows that as the practicing and potential leaders are currently in the state of gaining professional qualifications, important aspects of increasing and improving teachers' efficiency within their schools are not skillfully utilized. The results also show the trend that current practices HRM by the educational leaders at CBE schools are not effective to an extent where it improves teachers' efficiency. The human resource management and development strategies were not effectively utilized by the educational leaders due to losing leaders, within-system sorting, lack of finances for professional development and unqualified leadership (CBE Rule Book, 2006, p.26). The value of the standard deviation is high which shows that the dispersion of the data from the midpoint and the critical value are at almost half of the mean for most of the variables.

3.7 Regression Analysis

The following section presents the result of the regression analysis undertaken using the above mentioned equation.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	41.279	7.591		5.438	.000
Knowledge	-.168	4.125	-.006	-.041	.968
(Constant)	36.862	8.834		4.173	.000
Knowledge	-.611	4.152	-.023	-.147	.884
Professional development	1.182	1.208	.152	.979	.333
(Constant)	50.465	10.873		4.641	.000
Knowledge	-1.813	4.049	-.068	-.448	.657
Professional development	.912	1.173	.117	.778	.441
Values and Skills	-4.065	2.018	-.306	-2.015	.051
(Constant)	52.677	11.448		4.601	.000
Knowledge	-.892	4.309	-.033	-.207	.837
Professional development	.546	1.304	.070	.418	.678
Values and Skills	-3.637	2.133	-.274	-1.705	.096
Collaboration	-1.102	1.664	-.118	-.662	.512

a. Dependent Variable: Teachers' Efficiency

3.8 Regression Findings

In order to see the effect of HRMD adopted by the EDLE 679 unit participants from NDIE to enhance their teachers' efficiency within schools, a linear regression analysis was done. The estimated growth equation displayed that in the regression model run with four independent variables, the model with collaboration showed a strong negative correlation. The rest of the variables, such as knowledge of the staff, their professional development and inculcation of values and skills had no effect on teachers' efficiency in their respective CBE schools.

The β value of the dependent variable (HRM strategies) shows that there exists a negative sign in the relationship. This accounts for multiple interpretations and inferences. Although the educational leaders were professionally qualified having degrees of Bachelors in Education (BEd) and Masters in Education (Med), still there is question on the quality of the implementation of the learnt skills in the professional education programmes. In the Med programme, although leadership and HRM are taught, its practical implication is not according to what is expected by the educational leaders. Secondly, it has been interpreted that as leadership education and particularly HRMD is a newer field in the education system in Pakistan, the educational leaders were not aware of the effective application of a HRMD system and hence did not apply it effectively. Another possibility could be the fact as HRMD is considered more of a concern of the corporate sectors therefore its effective utilization and implication in the education sector particularly in the schools system is rarely to be seen. This study was conducted amongst participants who had recently completed the unit EDLE 679 and perhaps the study had not allowed sufficient time for the participants to introduce and implement HRMD strategies into their local schools. Such changes do take time if they are to be

effectively implemented. If this study is conducted again after 3 years, then there is a probability that the results would be different and more in line with what other researchers have documented.

As the regression result indicated a high degree of negative correlation between the two variables, it made little sense for the researcher to focus on the underlying possible internal and external factors which might have created an imbalance in the relationship between the two. The regression results have opened many avenues for improvement amongst the educational leaders of the CBE schools in particular. It is assumed that if educational leaders clearly define the job descriptions of their teachers and provide room for professional development, it is likely to develop a positive relationship between the selected variables of teachers' efficiency and determinants of the human resource management and development strategies. It is also recommended that if teachers are encouraged to contribute in quality enhancement of the managerial and academic processes at school, they would feel more empowered and the likelihood of a positive correlation will also occur. If a properly developed and managed staff performance management system is in place, it is expected that its measures will assist in enhancing teachers' efficiency within schools in the expected areas of concern. If teachers are provided performance based feedback and counseling, they will develop faith in the transparency of the performance appraisal system which in turn will enhance their efficiency at school. It is also expected that if teachers in the school are allowed to make decisions related to budget, functions and events, it will enhance their efficiency as well. Professional development programmes if conducted at intervals throughout the year for human resource personnel in each job specification, it will assist in enhancing teachers' efficiency. Through formal induction, orientation and training programmes new inductees will learn the required skills to perform their jobs in schools more efficiently. It is also expected that if teachers are provided opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done in the school, new knowledge and skills will be periodically imparted to the teachers which will help in enhancing their efficiency.

The findings of this study differ from the insights contained in the literature reviewed to support the study. The reviewed literature showed a positive relationships described by Akbar 2009; Guttel 2010; Bibi, Lanrong & Haseeb 2012; Wisdom & Ebimobowei 2013 whereas in this study the Durbin-Watson test showed a negative correlation. Therefore, the research hypothesis is rejected as the research found a negative correlation between HRM strategies and teachers' efficiency in the selected CBE schools of Pakistan.

4.0 Direction for Future Research

Overall the regression model is significant. However, the adjusted R² value and Durbin-Watson value do not show the complete causal-effect relationship between the effect of HRMD strategies and teachers efficiency in the CBE schools of Pakistan. Therefore, further in-depth analysis is required in order to bring more authentic results.

4.1 Conclusions and Implications

In this paper the effect of HRMD strategies on teachers' efficiency within selected CBE schools was studied. A simple theoretical framework was built where the effects of HRMD strategies were contrasted with teachers' efficiency. Leadership and HRMD theories were taken into account and a theoretical framework was constructed. Moreover to further support the theoretical framework, a conceptual framework of the selected dependent and independent variables was also constructed to comprehend the research study. The result of the correlation test showed a negative correlation between the variables.

The general lesson that emerges from this study is that the practical implication of the learnt theories is important in the current leadership scenario. Although CBE schools have shown their commitment, contribution, service and dedication in the improvement of the education sector, they now need to shift their attention towards teachers' growth and development by focusing more on the application of HRMD strategies. If CBE's HRMD department takes an account of the effectiveness of the strategies in the registered schools, the desired outcomes can possibly be achieved.

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The logo for the International Association for Frontiers of Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, curved lines. The upper line is a light red color, and the lower line is a light blue color, matching the text. The lines are not perfectly circular, creating a sense of movement and openness.

Teachers' Interpretation of Play in Chinese Early Childhood Classrooms

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Abstract

This study aims to explore kindergarten teachers' perspectives and practice of play in their early childhood classrooms within a Chinese context. A qualitative design with in-depth, open-ended interviews and classroom observation was employed. Eighteen teachers, two from each of nine classes in three different Chinese kindergartens were interviewed and the play activities take place in their classes were video-recorded during playtime. Data was analyzed by adopting content analysis and constant comparison.

Research findings reveal that teachers give more weight to the instrumental value rather than intrinsic value of play. Play serves multiple functions which including recreation function, learning function, developmental function, revelatory function, therapeutic function, and class management function in the kindergarten practice. Three main roles of play were found in kindergarten daily routines including play as independent activities, play as components in curriculum, and play as time-fillers. Priority is given to teacher-initiated play rather than children-initiated play.

1. Introduction

Play is regarded as a natural ability, basic activity and a valuable means through which children learn (Smith, 2010; Macintyre, 2001; Else, 2009; Nutbrown, 2006). There is a broad consensus that ‘young children need to play in order to learn about themselves, their culture, roles and relationships’ (Wood & Bennett, 1997, p.22). The Association for Childhood Education International advocates that play is essential for children of all ages, domains and cultures (Isenberg & Quisenberry, 2002). It is a dynamic process through which children actively explore the environment around them, communicate with others, master their emotion, control their actions and reflect the social and cultural context within which they live. Evidence from brain research shows that play helps children to develop necessary neurological connections in brain, which are critical to learning (Gopnik et al., 1999). The ideology of play-based learning has become a fundamental framework in early childhood education based on the ideas of educationists such as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, John Dewey, Friedrich Froebel, and Margaret MacMillan. In educational settings, play reveals children’s current level of development, potential, needs of learning, and enables teachers to provide support accordingly (Papatheodorou, 2010). Play has been perceived as integral to high-quality provision and effective pedagogical practice (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2002; Siraj-Blatchford & Sylva, 2004; Wood, 2007).

In addition to the educational value of play, it is also widely recognized that play is a fundamental right of children (Frost & Norquist, 2007). Article 31 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child states that children in all parts of the world have the right ‘to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child’ (United Nations, 1989). In line with this development, the kindergarten educational reforms in China, which took place respectively in 1980s and 1990s have reiterated the importance of play in early childhood education. The kindergarten reform started in 2001 has emphasized that kindergartens should provide play as the basic activity and play is expected to ‘permeate all activities, in each and every aspect of the lives of kindergarten children’ (National Educational Commission, 2001).

Although the play-based learning has been advocated in official documents as a critical principle to guide early childhood education, as ‘there is no unified theoretical or pedagogical base to guide practice’ (Wood & Bennett, 1997, p.22), the value of play to children’s development may be understood and interpreted by different early childhood practitioners differently.

Evidence from research in Western society indicated that notable gaps are identified between the rhetoric of play and the reality of play in practice. Researchers argued that play remains an insecure place in early childhood curriculum (Bennett et al., 1997; Wood & Bennett, 1997; Badzis, 2003; Wood, 2010). For example, Wood’s study (2004) revealed that play in some England nurseries and reception classes tend to be

limited in frequency, duration and quality. Ailwood (2003) indicated that play activities in some early childhood settings are repetitive, isolating, recreational rather than educational. The picture presented from Miller and Almon (2009)'s research showed that in some American kindergartens, play time is about 30 minutes or less, and it is replaced by prescribed formal curriculum which can provide learning outcomes for national education assessments. It seems that ensuring good quality play in practice remains a significant challenge to practitioners in different educational contexts (Keating et al., 2000; Wood & Bennett, 2001; Rogers & Evans, 2008; Rogers, 2011).

2. Literature Review

2.1. Teachers' perspectives of play

By reviewing the literature concerning teachers' perceptions of play, it appears that in general, preschool teachers regard play as a valuable activity which is not only fun but full of opportunities for children's learning and development. For instance, by interviewing nine English reception class teachers on their thinking of teaching through play, Bennett et al.'s study (1997) indicated that the teachers strongly value children's play in their early development. They see play as 'a vehicle for learning' (p.33) through which children develop their self-confidence, motivation, self-esteem, a positive self-concept and a developmental appropriate learning method in which children interact with others on their own level and express their emotional, intellectual and social needs. Through a survey of 221 preschool and kindergarten teachers' beliefs about children's play in two place of Ghana, Dako-Gyeke (2009) revealed that both preschool and kindergarten teachers in her study consider that play is a pleasurable and important activity with many learning and development benefits for children. Although teachers describe play differently, the characteristics of play they portray in their definitions are more similar than different, and no statistically significant differences in teachers' beliefs of play have been found when comparing their school level of teaching, years of teaching experience, and child development courses they have taken. After interviewing 30 preschool teachers, Badzis (2003) found that many Malaysian preschool teachers cannot express clearly about the exactly learning outcome brought by play to children in class teaching practice. In spite of recognizing the value, significance and role of play in children's development, there is always a notable difference in 'their understanding between the contribution of play to child development and play in relation to educational development of the children in classroom practice' (p.120). Papatheodorou' study (2010) indicated that teachers not only see play as an important means for children's learning and development, but also consider it as a great way for them to 'identify and determine a child's current level of learning and development, recognize her or his potential for learning and development, identify the skills that the child needs to reach that potential, and determine the support required from adults and peers' (p.263).

Evidence from research reveals that variability exists in the beliefs of play in different cultures (Roopnarine, 2011). For example, Wu and Rao (2011) compared German and Chinese early childhood teachers' perceptions of play, learning and children's play behaviours. They found that German teachers distinguish free play and directed activities clearly and they value free-play highly. The teachers perceive free play as children's self-learning without teachers' disturbing. While Chinese teachers do not consider children's play as free play, they always see play in relation to other games or academic activities and they emphasize teachers' instruction in play to children's learning outcomes. Although the understanding of the value of play varies slightly across ethnic groups in United States, Canadian, European and Australian society which 'becoming increasingly diverse', from the research conducted in those developed countries, it seems that 'adults from European and European-heritage cultural group strongly endorse the belief that play assumes a significant role in children's intellectual and social development'. In contrast, 'in those non-European-heritage cultures, adults have the least favorable attitudes towards play' (Roopnarine, 2011, p.22).

2.2. Play in early childhood educational practice

It is believed that how teachers view the significance and value of play in terms of the children's learning process have a direct link with their application of play into classroom practice. According to Shen (2008), teachers' perceptions of play not only 'guide their actions in the teaching process' but also help them to 'devise the most effective methods for classroom success' (p.233). However, evidence from research show that although practitioners endorsed the value of play to children's learning and development, achieving good quality play in practice remains an enduring challenge across different social and cultural contexts (Bennett et al, 1997; Keating et al., 2000; Wood & Bennett, 2001; Rogers & Evans, 2008; Rogers, 2011). It seems that there are continuing tensions between the rhetoric and reality of play in educational settings (Wood, 2010).

Researchers have found that even the benefits of play is recognized, early childhood practitioners do not always know how to plan for play, or understand how to support and interpret children's learning in play activities (Bennett et al., 1997; Moyles et al., 2002; Wood, 2007). As Wood (2004) indicated that play in practice has been limited in frequency, duration, and quality. Miller and Almon (2009) further explained that in a typical kindergarten day, children in some American full-day kindergartens, commonly spend about two to three hours per day in literacy and math instruction and taking or preparing for tests, while they spend 30 minutes or less in free play or 'choice time' (p.42). They reported that in many kindergarten classrooms, play or playful activities have been substituted by prescriptive curricula that directly link to national education standards and assessments (Miller & Almon, 2009). By analyzing literature, Ailwood (2003) pointed out that evidence from research shows that play activities in many early childhood settings are 'repetitive, often isolating and

recreational rather than educational' (p.291).

Bennett et al. (1997) argued that there are some discrepancies between the rhetoric and reality of play in kindergarten since teachers' classroom practice conflicts with their theories of play to some extent. Theoretically, teachers do believe that they should provide opportunities for children to have choice and freedom in play, however practically; teachers organize play in a structured manner rather than let children play freely. Even though practitioners know the advantages of adults' participation in children's play, they feel confused about when and how to take part in, especially in role-play, as they worry about that their involvement may spoil children's play (Bennett et al., 1997).

In China, similar conclusions are also reached from relevant research. For instance, Cheng's (2001) research in Hong Kong kindergartens demonstrated that although teachers endorse play as a pedagogical means, they spend much time on academic work in their classroom, and no genuine play is observed across their teaching. Cheng and Stimpson (2004) later conducted another case study in Hong Kong of six kindergarten teachers who are in training to find out how these teachers realize play in the early childhood curriculum. Their research revealed that although play is advocated in a Hong Kong official education report since 1986 as an important tool to achieve the goals of early childhood education, and teachers universally recognize play as both a suitable means for teaching and a central activity for children's learning, in terms of kindergarten practice, there is a notable gap between 'the practitioners' espoused intentions and their actions in classroom' as teachers encounter great difficulties in putting play into practice (p.171). Lau and Cheng's (2010) case study in Hong Kong also revealed that although play was advocated in the government educational policy, the kindergarten head and parents in their study had an ideological preference for a work-based pedagogy rather than play-based pedagogy. Whereas the teacher in the research obscures the conception of real play with learning through play, she emphasizes the instrumental value of play and translates it by using a work-based pedagogy. Their findings suggest that play in Hong Kong early childhood classroom is more myth than reality. Cheng (2010) further carried out a case study in one of Hong Kong kindergartens. By interviewing a kindergarten teacher and observing her classroom practice, the research revealed that an eminent feature of the teacher---Beatrice's practice is that she employs play to capture and revisit children's interests and joyful experiences. Wu and Rao's study (2011) showed that play in Hong Kong kindergartens serve, as a reward for academic work and it is perceived peripheral to academic learning. Teachers provide limited time and materials for play and children have limited choices over how they play. Rao and Li (2009) classified children's activities during a school day into five different categories in their research. That includes teacher leads and participates in games, activity, or play; teacher supports games, activity, or play; child engages in games or activities chosen by the teacher; child engages in free play; or more direct teaching. Among them, four categories are related to play but vary in terms of teachers' participation and support.

Their findings further revealed that on average 65.5% of children's total activity time is spent on play-based learning. This number is as high as 70% in public kindergartens with good reputations compared to 49% in average quality private kindergartens. It is their view that children engage in play-like activities throughout the day, however, 'much of that time was spent engaging in activities that were arranged by the teacher. There was less time allocated to genuinely free play where the children could pursue their own interests' (p.114).

However, even though most of research showed a rhetoric-reality gap of play, Pramling-Samuelsson and Sheridan's (2009) study presented a different picture. They found that as the freedom of expression is highly valued in the Swedish curriculum, in their study, teachers offer five children many opportunities for choice and encourage children to express their thoughts and feelings in play. In their observation, there is a harmony between teacher-directed activities and child-initiated activities.

By reviewing the relevant literature, play emerged as an essential activity of childhood education of great importance to children's physical, psychological, cognitive, social and emotional development, well-being and overall progression. Practitioners' understanding of the meaning and value of play to young children's development is crucial, as there is 'a strong relationship between teachers' educational beliefs and their planning, instructional decisions and classroom practices' (Pajares, 1992, p. 326). Teachers' beliefs of play may directly impact on the implementation of play and influence children's learning and development in practice. However, the literature suggests that play has been understood differently within different social and cultural contexts in terms of its function and value to children's development and its relation with learning. For example, some educators from Western society tend to emphasize that play promotes children's social development while other practitioners from China are more likely to link play with physical development. As children's play varies according to economic, social and cultural contexts, different communities value and provide opportunities for children differently (Wood & Attfield, 2005; Goncu & Gaskins, 2006; Rogers & Evans, 2008). The meaning of play is culturally situated and it tends to reflect what is valued within cultural communities (James, 1998, Roopnarine, 2011; Gaskins et al., 2006). It makes little sense to try and understand play without 'reference to the context in which it occurs' and without consideration of 'the social interactions and expectations that have influenced it' (Dockett & Fler, 2002, p.79). Thus, an understanding of play should take the specific social and cultural dimensions into account (Fler, 2009). Therefore, this motivates the current study to locate play in a Chinese context to understand the meaning of play of kindergarten teachers and the ways in which play is implemented in kindergarten practice.

3. Methods

This study is designed as a qualitative piece of research which combines two research methods-----interview and observation to collect data. It was carried out from September 2011 to January 2012 in Guangzhou China in three Chinese kindergartens, which include a government-run kindergarten (public kindergarten), a community-run kindergarten, and a private-owned kindergarten based on their representativeness and typicality. Six teachers from each kindergarten were chosen in terms of age and the type of classes they teach (kindergarten stage 1, 2 and 3). In total, eighteen teachers constitute the key informants of the research. All of the 18 participating teachers are female. They age between 20 and 42 with their teaching experience varies from 2 years to 23 years in early childhood education. As to their educational qualification, eight participants hold associate degree (AD) while six participants have bachelor degree (BD), and four participants have finished the Qualified Kindergarten Teacher Education Course (KTEC) which is obtained after three years full-time kindergarten teacher training following secondary school.

3.1. Teacher interview

During the study, all of the 18 teachers were interviewed three times: before, during and after the classroom observation. Pre- and post-observation interview were designed as semi-structured ones and were conducted respectively before and after the observations of classroom practice with the teacher. Pre-observation interview allows the researcher to gain a general understanding of teachers' background information, teaching experience, teaching style, daily arrangement, class management, educational pedagogy and perception of play. Stimulated recall interview was designed as an unstructured interview for it has great flexibility and freedom. It was carried out as informal conversations with the observed teacher immediately after the researcher observed certain play activity in classroom, allowing the teacher to explain in some depth what had taken place in the class. Post-observation interview enables the teachers' to account for their interpretation of play in practice.

3.2. Observation

Observation was carried out respectively in nine classes. Observation of one class lasts for an average of eight working days, and covers the full-day programs. It enables the researcher to collect data to catch the dynamic nature of play in kindergarten practice, especially different play contexts, teachers' roles and their interactions with children in play. During the observation in each class, in the first three or two days, the researcher conducted general observation which served as a 'warm up' time for her to get familiar with the teachers, children, class schedule and the daily routines. Then in the next five working days, the formal observation took place and focused on play activities.

During class observation, each participating teacher was video-recorded for about 1 hour on each of the five working days during playtime. All the videos were recorded with both teacher and children's permission. Meanwhile, the researcher also took field notes to record the settings, time duration of play, conversation between teachers and children and their behaviors.

4. Findings

4.1. Value and function of play

The value and function of play are considered as important elements to understand teachers' theory concerning play and play-based practice. All teachers were asked to explain and describe what play can contribute to children's development. The findings show that all the teachers value play strongly in the early childhood educational settings as it helps children to develop a variety of skills, including physical, emotional and cognitive development, social interaction ability, imagination, creativity, thinking, confidence and language. They mentioned frequently two functions of play. First, play provides opportunities for children to explore, experience, practice and consolidate what they have learned. Second, play helps teachers to elicit children's interest of learning, attract their attention, deepen their understanding of the knowledge, and achieve the objectives of curriculum.

In the accounts of some teachers that took part in the study, play contributes to children's physical and sporty development. The physical development includes the abilities of run, jump, climb, react and parry etc. Five out of eighteen teachers believed that play improves children's interpersonal interaction skills, for instance, communication, collaboration, negotiation, and sharing. The idea that play can effectively relax and refresh children for the next bout of formal activity is held uniformly by the teachers. They explained that the main principle for their arrangement of play in kindergarten daily life is 'alternate work with recreation'. As they believe that play can help children relax from pressure which caused by strenuous work and revitalize their energy consumed during work, play is normally arranged between two formal activities.

Some teachers expressed the view that play is valuable to children's emotion, imagination, thinking, memory, cognition and creativity development. As play involves imagination, thinking, it enhances children's creativity, cognitive development. Three other teachers stressed the function of play to children's emotional development. Because play relaxes children, brings happiness while dissipates bad feelings, such as fear and anxiety, it is regarded as a psychological-health promoter which enhances the health development of emotion. It was teachers' commonly held view, that play could contribute many specific learning outcomes to children. This primarily depends on teachers' provision of different types and contents of play according to different curriculum requirements. It appears that

what the teachers emphasized is the learning outcomes, which play can achieve rather than children's experience in the process of play itself. Most teachers stated that children can learn cognitive and intellectual skills in play. They listed a number of specific knowledge and concepts that children can learn in play, such as the concepts of shapes, quantity and numbers. Their emphasis on learning outcomes of play implies that the teachers not only associate play with potential long-term benefits to children but also stress that play can lead to short-term and visible learning outcomes of children.

4.2. Integrating play in kindergarten daily routines

How did the teachers integrate play in kindergarten daily routine? To answer this question, teachers described their allocation of a typical kindergarten daytime and provision of play. They indicated that play is integrated in daily routines in different forms and shown in the timetable by using different names, such as morning exercise, outdoor activities, learning corner time. Although these activities named differently, they are play in nature.

From the teachers' report, it seems that play serves three main roles in the kindergarten daily routines---as independent parts, as components of curriculum, and as time-fillers. The three kindergartens share a similar schedule. In a typical kindergarten day, play accounts for around 1 to 2 hours and is primarily enacted in five forms, including morning exercise, outdoor physical activity, free play, components of curriculum, connections between different activities. Amongst these play, morning exercise and outdoor physical activity were seen as independent parts while other three forms of play were mainly as play elements. The length of playtime in a day of each class is slightly different according to the age of the children in their classes.

Play as independent parts

Play is considered as an independent part, which existed parallel with formal learning to offer children with opportunities to relax from stressful formal learning activities. All teachers mentioned that there is a need to balance the time between sedentary academic task and motional play. The reason underpinning the arrangement of outdoor play after finishing some formal learning is that 'children tend to get tired in formal activities' and 'need to refresh their mind for the next bout of learning' and 'play offers alternative from quiet to motional activities'(from teachers interview). This implies that teachers stress on the relaxation function of play when allocating them after curriculum.

Play as components of curriculum

From the teachers' description, it seems that play is incorporated into curriculum as components. Play is planned or selected based on the contents of curriculum or the themes of learning which lasts for a month. Each play accounts for several minutes of

a curriculum. For example, some teachers used music play in music teaching, role-play or language play in a language curriculum, and manipulative play in a science curriculum.

Play as time-fillers

Several teachers named the play which involved least amount of exercise as 'small play'. From their accounts, it is evident that except the physical, outdoor play and play in the curriculum, they also adopt the 'small' play as time-fillers to penetrate into kindergarten daily routines. It could be fingers play or language play and teachers often adopt the 'small play' whenever 'there is spare time', 'children are waiting' or 'in the interval between two activities'.

4.3. Different types of play

Three categories of play that based on the teachers' intentions are identified in the observation. They are instructional play, recreational play and managerial play.

- **Instructional play**

Instructional play is those play designed and adopted by the teachers in order to achieve their defined curriculum objectives. It is usually set up by the teachers with specific curriculum intentions and educational goals. In devising the play, the teachers have a number of educational objectives and outcomes in mind, which may relate to understanding the meaning of a poetry, remembering some English words, or understanding the sequence of numbers. In fact, children participating in the play may or may not enhance their understanding of the poetry or the sequence of numbers, but these are some of the goals established by the teachers for the play. This kind of play is popular in all of the nine classes. In their classroom practice, the teachers organizing this kind of play actually aimed at imparting knowledge and achieving their teaching goals---the nature of formal teaching activities, and they usually maintain control of the process. In most cases, teachers name this kind of play according to the educational contents it serves, such as 'Number Game', 'Music Game' and 'Language Game'. Although it is named as play, and it includes playful elements, it is instructional in nature, as the playful elements are not permitted to obscure the prescriptive knowledge.

- **Recreational play**

Recreational play is the play that the teachers adopted to entertain or relax the children without any defined learning objectives. This type of play is observed in the three classes where the teachers themselves have quite playful personal characteristics and it is regarded as a shared happy experience. Once the teachers initiate it, the children will join in it immediately without any hesitation. In most cases, the play is very 'small' one, usually lasts for only several minutes. The central feature of the play is that it is accompanied by rhythm and chants which are repeated.

- **Managerial play**

Managerial play is those play that the teachers adopted to organize and manage the class such as occupying children, organizing them in intervals between activities. This kind of play is evident in five classes where children are very young and the class daily routines include a series of processes, such as drinking water, washing hands and going to toilet. It often takes place at the intervals between activities, especially when some children finished drinking while others still in doing. The play is similar in some aspects to the recreational play particularly in the time duration and ways of play. However, it is noticed that the play may or may not relate to the learning themes and it is in some cases, initiated by the teachers randomly. Some teachers explained their intentions of arranging this play is to reduce children's waiting time, organize them to avoid chaos and safety dangers, and assemble children for the next activity. From their explanation, it seems that this play serves as a pragmatic classroom management strategy.

4.4. Teacher-initiated play and children-initiated play

All the teachers stated that they 'plan' and 'organize' play for children. It seems that teachers assume more control and ownership of play than children do. When teachers were interviewed about how they considered children's voice and choice in play, all of them asserted that they choose and make plans based on children's needs and interests, and children have the freedom to make choice of what they want to play. However, further communication reveals that although most teachers indicate that they respecting children's needs and choice, play is more frequently planned depending on the teachers' perspectives than the children's. It seems that the teachers plan play based on what they think is important for children to learn and interesting for children to play. Children's perspective of play is less likely to be reflected in teachers' plan of play. Underlying this is the teachers' belief that they are in the position to decide what is the best for children.

5. Conclusion

The findings reveal that the teachers emphasize the academic outcomes of play rather than the process of play itself. They implement a play-based pedagogy in which play is integrated in formal curricula in different parts for different purposes. This practice aim at helping to achieve the intended learning outcomes while ignore the intrinsic value of play that offers opportunities for children to explore and experience freely, cultivate their self-discipline and master their control. The study suggests that the prevalent of instructional play in Chinese kindergartens reflects that the teachers give more weight to the instrumental value rather than intrinsic value of play.

The findings also reveal that play has multiple functions which including recreation function, learning function, developmental function, revelatory function, therapeutic

function, and class management function in the kindergarten practice. Among them, two main functions - learning function and recreation function are emphasized by the teachers.

Moreover, play serves three main roles in kindergarten daily routines. Firstly, the teachers use play as an independent activity to relax children after formal learning. Secondly, they adopt play as components in curricula to help them fulfill teaching objectives. Thirdly, teachers adopt play as a time-filler to keep children organized to help with class management. Although the teachers assert that they value children's interests and choice of play, the findings reveal that the priority is given to teacher-initiated play rather than children-initiated play.

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Quiet Spaces in Education: How Inner Quiet Becomes a Coping Skill

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The European Conference on Education 2013

Official Conference Proceedings 2013

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The problems confronting modern education systems are symptomatic of societies cracking at the seams. By the turn of the twenty-first century, chaos and uncertainty had become the main framework by which British educators were examining issues in the classroom—a world characterized by less order, less predictability, more chaos, and few solutions. (Furedi, 2009)

In 1970, Alvin Toffler predicted that the massive acceleration of change, and what it brought in its wake—transience, overchoice, overexposure to mass media, hypertechnology, and more—would disturb our inner equilibrium, would strain our capacity to adapt, and would create a danger of what he called "future shock." (Toffler, 1970)

Change in all areas of life is occurring at a pace that was unheard of just one generation ago, and the ramifications surround us and affect us. The shock is no longer in the future. We see, for example, the effects of computers on our brains (Carr, 2011); the exposure of our children to overtly sexual messages (Biddulph, 2013); the lack of connections in a connected world (Turkle, 2011); and a growing culture of social diffusion, intellectual fragmentation, and sensory detachment. (Jackson, 2009)

As society fragments, children, as well as adults, are caught up in the turbulent flow of change. More often than not, children lack the tools to cope with this kind of turbulence, and are therefore unable to reach a place of inner stability and integration. Adult role models (people who were once called "authority figures") aren't always able to provide much guidance. Stephenson Bond calls this kind of external authority the Must from the Outside. And, he posits, this Must from the Outside no longer has any power. (Bond, 1993) The Must, Bond says, must now come from the inside. But who can hear the Must from Within among all the noise of the outer and inner worlds?

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the Israeli Ministry of Education—along with educational institutions worldwide—was looking for solutions to the increasing chaos found in Israeli schools. The rapid increase in behavioral problems, especially cases of violence, was of particular concern.

It was against this backdrop that, in 1998, a group of therapists and educators in the north of Israel began to work on a programme that could strengthen social integration. We saw, first-hand, how children were struggling with the many developmental, learning, and social issues that were arising for them at school, at home, and in the community.

We understood that they needed some kind of coping mechanism to help them with these difficulties. And we came to the conclusion that such a mechanism—a coping skill—required a new environment, a sanctuary of sorts.

We called this new environment In the Quiet Space.

What Is "In The Quiet Space"?

In the Quiet Space is a sanctuary consecrated to certain values: respect, security, and quiet. It is a place of respite from the outside world of noise and action. It is a special place that is unlike the classroom or the child's room at home, or any other place. It is

a place to be entered in a special way; and it's a place to be present in a special way—not as you would in any other place.

Inside this space, children learn—first—how to calm the body and mind. And from the foundation of calmness, they learn a technique—called MicroCalming—that enables them to access inner quiet, even when they are not in The Quiet Space, but in any situation, in any place. In this way, the children acquire a coping skill that helps them to successfully navigate the overstimulated, overloaded world in which we live.

This is a process that involves several elements designed to provide children (and adults) with a profound experience of trust and security. Such an experience, according to Darryl Reaney, is a way of renewing the sacred in our world—not the sacred based on beliefs, but a new sense of the sacred that breaks down the kinds of barriers that wall us off from each other and the world. (Reaney, 1991)

The group experience in the Quiet Space encourages sharing and listening, mutual respect and care. And the physical and emotional boundaries reinforce the value of the child's inner world, while—at the same time—supporting his/her role as a member of a group.

In the Quiet Space is actually a bricollage, that is, a new creation based on old materials. These old materials—spiritual, therapeutic, and scientific—have been around for a long time, but we have integrated them in a new way.

How the Quiet Space Looks and Feels

The space, itself, is both a physical space and an inner space. The physical space can be a room or corner. In fact, almost any space could work. Simple means and very minimal expenses are required to create this environment: a few cushions, maybe some material for the ceiling or walls, a soft light or two, a fragrant smell.

In some kindergartens where there is no possibility of either a room or corner, we have managed to create the quiet space with a soft light and a fragrant smell on a table in the middle of the room. The critical element is a clearly defined, and acknowledged, boundary between the Quiet Space and other rooms or spaces.

Inside the space, there is a quiet and comfortable atmosphere. After the children enter, they are greeted by very pleasant sensations—a subtle fragrant smell (an oil, petal, or orange peel); soft, calming music; something pleasing to look at—a variety of soft lights, for example, or some beautiful fabric. And the children get comfortable by sitting on chairs or lying on soft mats or cushions.

All of these gifts to the senses serve to calm the body and mind so the senses no longer need to be vigilant or alert to what is going on in the outside world. Instead, the children can relax and go into their inner world.

What Happens Inside the Quiet Space

During the entire time that children are in the Quiet Space, we ensure that the atmosphere is quiet and relaxed, that the children walk slowly to and from their places, and that every child's wishes and every child's physical and emotional boundaries are treated with respect.

Over the years, we have developed a number of simple, yet profound, rituals. These rituals signal to the children that they are making a transition. They are moving from one kind of space to another kind of space; from one kind of atmosphere to another kind of atmosphere. For instance, when the children enter the Quiet Space, they come in one at a time. Each child is greeted personally and invited to choose a place to sit.

Inside the Space, sharing is an important part of the experience. There is no pressure to share, but the children are invited to speak about experiences they have, both in and out of the Quiet Space. The children speak one at a time, and the child who is speaking at any one time holds a “talking box.” The talking box can be any suitable, small object. It means that only the child who is holding the box can speak; everybody else listens. The talking box is passed from hand to hand, accompanied with a small gesture or bow. This gesture means that one child has spoken, has finished speaking, everyone has listened, and now that child is passing the right to speak to another child. It is a ritual of mutual respect.

In our experience, the children instinctively understand the meaning and import of these rituals, and they love doing them.

When children really feel safe and comfortable in a special place, then they can recognize the place of another. When they feel that they are heard, then they are ready and able to listen to others. It is very difficult to experience this in the regular class atmosphere. However, we have seen that the children do carry these values with them when they leave the space. And that is one of the main goals of the programme.

How It Works

Among the rituals and practices of the Quiet Space, MicroCalming is the central one. MicroCalming is a self-calming technique (a form of associative learning).

After children (or anyone) learn the technique, they are able to calm themselves in situations that are—in some way—threatening or frightening. The calm—the inner quiet—provides a crucial distance and perspective (a few seconds in time) from the source of anxiety, fear, anger. As a result, the child can respond appropriately, rather than instinctively reacting to the threat or perceived threat, which is a more common scenario, particularly among children.

MicroCalming works by creating an association between a gentle cue and a positive physical and emotional state. The special cue, in this case, is a short series of key words: Nice, Quiet, Calm. And the positive physical and emotional state is inner quiet - a feeling of trust, security, and quiet. These cues or anchor words radiate tones that are phonetically pleasing, and they echo the essence of the words.

For example, let's say a child is walking down a path and a dog begins to bark at her. The child is afraid, but instead of becoming hysterical, running or screaming, she takes a deep breath, says Nice, Quiet, Calm, calms, and then says to herself that barking dogs don't bite.

The learning is easy and pleasant. The children practice repeating the words—Nice, Quiet, Calm—every day for five minutes in the classroom. In addition, during the first month, they visit the Quiet Space a number of times. When children practice MicroCalming for five minutes a day, for at least 30 to 40 days, they become

conditioned. That is, the brain learns to associate the three anchor words with the feeling of trust, quiet, and security experienced in the Quiet Space. Subsequently, when a child says the anchor words silently in his or her heart at a time of pressure—no matter where the child is at the time—the brain automatically sends a message to the body: calm down. And the child immediately reconnects to the profound feeling of calm and quiet experienced in the Quiet Space. (Mond & Mond, 2011)

How It Plays Out in Real Life

A Special Education teacher related the following story: one day she was a few minutes late to school. She anxiously hurried to her classroom, expecting to find her class of challenged kids in a state of advanced bedlam. As she rushed down the corridor, she became even more anxious, as she couldn't hear a sound coming from the classroom. Where had the children gone, she wondered. When she got to the door, she heard a faint whisper inside and the sound of familiar music. When she opened the door, she found two children at the front of the classroom practicing MicroCalming with the whole class.

But can MicroCalming really enable children to rise above anxiety, anger, fear, aggression? Can a five-year-old be expected to rise above his or her natural desire to fight (or run) at a time of pressure?

The answer comes from the children themselves. This is the story of Michael: he returned home one day and began playing with his toys. All of a sudden, his sister grabbed his toy. An average five-year-old would probably respond to this situation with tears or aggression or cries for help. But here's what Michael told us: he wanted to grab the toy back, but refrained from doing so. He remembered the anchor words—nice, quiet, calm—and he said them quietly to himself. Then came a solution: he said to his sister, "You can play with the toy for another minute; then give it back to me."

All this took a couple of seconds. Where did the solution come from? Not from rationally directed thinking. He didn't count one to ten and then start thinking what to do. The solution was the result of immediate knowledge, a flash of insight, which is why children from an early age can learn MicroCalming. For children, it is natural to trust an intuitive process.

Who Can Benefit?

All of the elements and practices of the programme serve to quiet the body and mind, and enable people to focus, concentrate, and reach inner quiet, so it can be useful to anyone. Children, teens, and adults from all social, ethnic, and developmental backgrounds can participate successfully in In the Quiet Space.

In an educational framework, In the Quiet Space serves as a communal space where something very nurturing occurs. The way children relate to each other, and the way children and teachers—or children and parents—relate to each other in the Quiet Space is different from the way they relate to each other in a more conventional space that is noisy and overstimulated. In the Quiet Space can provide the same kind of nurturing experience in individual work, as well.

What kinds of children work well with In the Quiet Space? Introverted or extroverted? Challenged kids or not? With ADD or without?

Our experience over the past 15 years has been very clear: there is no basic difference. It does seem to mean that there is a great need for a Quiet Space. As the outer world becomes faster, noisier, more complex and less stable, so the need for inner anchors becomes more essential for all children, no matter who they are or what their backgrounds are. MicroCalming serves as that inner anchor.

Does Quiet Have a Future?

Nicholas Carr quotes an article by Sam Anderson in *New York* magazine, in which he suggests that we cannot retreat to a quieter time. (Carr, 2011) Does he mean that quiet is becoming a relic of the past?

Richard Moss asks why humanity has consistently chosen war over peace. He answered that war is far more exciting, vital, energizing. And only when peace creates a similar high level of energy will it be able to compete with war. (Moss, 1987)

The conflict between noise and quiet seems very similar. Almost everybody understands the need for quiet, yet the noise is getting louder and louder. Noise, it seems, is a lot more exciting, vital, necessary than quiet. We breathe it from the moment we wake up until the moment we go to sleep.

Is quiet exciting? Is quiet arousing? Is quiet stimulating? It seems not. And for many, it is even threatening. This is why a sacred, quiet space, in which some genuine internal work goes on, is so necessary. The deep level of intimacy and togetherness experienced in the Quiet Space helps renew a sense of mastery, belonging, and connection.

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*ECOTECT Analysis: Integration of Architectural Studio Project with Theory Classroom
Assignment through Computer Simulation*

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0198

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Abstract

This study analysed the feasibility of introducing environmental analysis software called ECOTECT to 1st and final year Part 1 Architecture students in the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM). The study evaluates the students' response and perception towards the software after completing the environmental analysis assignment, as well as impact to their design skill performances. The nature of ECOTECT assignment differs between the two levels of study. In the final year course, it is an individual assignment and was given during the Environmental Conscious Design (ECD) course, which runs concurrently with the studio design project. For the purpose of integrating the ECD course assignment with the studio design project, the students were required to conduct environmental analysis of their building design using the ECOTECT software. Meanwhile, in the 1st year course, students were given assignment in groups as part of the Environmental Science System (ESS) course. They were required to analyse an existing bungalow, which they had chosen as a precedent study to their studio design project. Student feedback surveys on the ECOTECT assignment were conducted among 96 students. The feedbacks obtained from the students are rather positive. In overall, 100% of the final year students and 80% of the 1st year students were fully satisfied with the assignment. In total, 90% of the students had recommended for the assignment to remain within both the ESS and ECD courses. The high percentage of positive students' feedbacks had shown that the ECOTECT assignment managed to make the learning experience interesting and effective.

Keywords: ECOTECT, Integration, Environmental Design, computer simulation

Introduction

“If teaching has any purpose, it is to implant true insight and responsibility. Education must lead us from irresponsible opinion to true responsible judgement. It must lead us from chance and arbitrariness to rational clarity and intellectual order.”
By Ludwig Mies Van Der Rohe

The above quote by Ludwig Mies van der Rohe is a reminder to educators that lecturers in higher education play a very important role as to produce high quality and responsible graduates. In Architecture schools, the lecturers must be able to guide and train the Architecture students to become responsible and good architects with intellectual thinking and able to make true decision. In the Department of Architecture in IIUM, students normally attend lectures and in conjunction with that, they are given studio design projects to apply what they were taught in the same semester. However, it is often the case that students did not manage to inject the information fed to them during lectures, onto their studio design project. Evidently, their design work mostly complied with the building type and space requirement written in the design project brief. However, the students often lack in producing environmental responsive building design and ended up designing buildings for the wrong climate.

“The mind is not a vessel to be filled, but a fire to be kindled.”
Plutarch

Based on an inspiring quote above by Plutarch, students mind need to be stimulated and not only fed with information. Efforts of integrating lecture courses with studio design projects have been practised in Architecture schools across the globe while educators are putting effort in creating an effective learning experience. Therefore, this study focuses on the integration of Environmental Design lecture courses with the Studio Design Project. This study analyses the impact on imposing environmental analysis assignments to 1st and 3rd year Part 1 Architecture students in the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM). Ecotect Environmental Analysis Software was used as a tool to facilitate the assignments given to the students.

This study then looks into the response and perception of architecture undergraduate students towards the Ecotect environmental analysis assignment, after the students completed the assignment. In overall, this study was carried out to review wider learning issues (beyond IIUM) with regards to the students' deficiency in producing environmental responsive building design.

Literature Review

It was not the Department of Architecture's first attempt in engaging young architecture students into testing their studio design project with environmental simulation software. It has been done in 2006 but there is no proper survey on the significance of the exercise on the students' progress. However, an interview session with the former Head of Department back in 2006 was conducted on the students' perception towards the environmental simulation assignment. It was concluded that

the students were very much receptive on having the opportunity to explore environmental software within the Environmental Conscious Design course back in 2006 under the guidance of Assistant Professor Dr. Puteri Shireen Jahn Kassim (Zuraini, 2012). During the course, the students were given a demonstration of the environmental software once and then, followed by close guidance by three senior students whom have been trained using the software. Unfortunately, such exercise has not been repeated in a regular basis until the Ecotect assignment this year.

The Ecotect software was developed by Dr. Andrew Marsh as part of his PhD thesis in the University of Western Australia (Thoo, 2007). It is a very useful tool for architects to test the environmental impact on their design scheme even at an early design stage (Thoo, 2007). In 2001, integration of Ecotect into the learning experience was evaluated among undergraduate students in the Welsh School of Architecture. 43 students responded to the survey questionnaire on their overall perception towards this integration and 85% of them agreed or strongly agreed on the integration of Ecotect into their learning experience (Marsh and Roberts, 2001). In Egypt, the integration of Ecotect daylighting simulation software in architectural education was successful. 70% of the students found it to be “powerful” and “very useful”, whereas, 85% of the students found the software as user-friendly (Sabry et al., 2010). By introducing such building performance simulation (BPS) early, the design process usually delivers interesting results, reflecting students’ critical understanding of how the buildings work (Charles and Thomas, 2009).

Research Objective

The issue with regard to the students’ deficiency in producing environmental responsive building design is the rationale behind the three main objectives for this study, which are listed below:

- To investigate the students’ overall perception towards Ecotect assignment.
- To evaluate the impact of Ecotect assignment on the students studio design project, whether they it has helped them improve their Design skills.
- To justify the importance of maintaining the Ecotect assignment within the course subjects.
- To evaluate the development of critical thinking among the Architecture students upon completion of the Ecotect assignment.

Methodology

Ecotect software demonstrations were given to 1st year Architecture students during Environmental Science and System course lecture and also to 3rd year Architecture students during Environmental Conscious Design course lecture. At the end of both introduction and demonstration of the Ecotect software, assignments were given to both years, which students had to complete them within 5 weeks. Ecotect tutorials were given to both years throughout the 5 weeks period by the students demand. Figure 1 shows the structure of the research methodology.

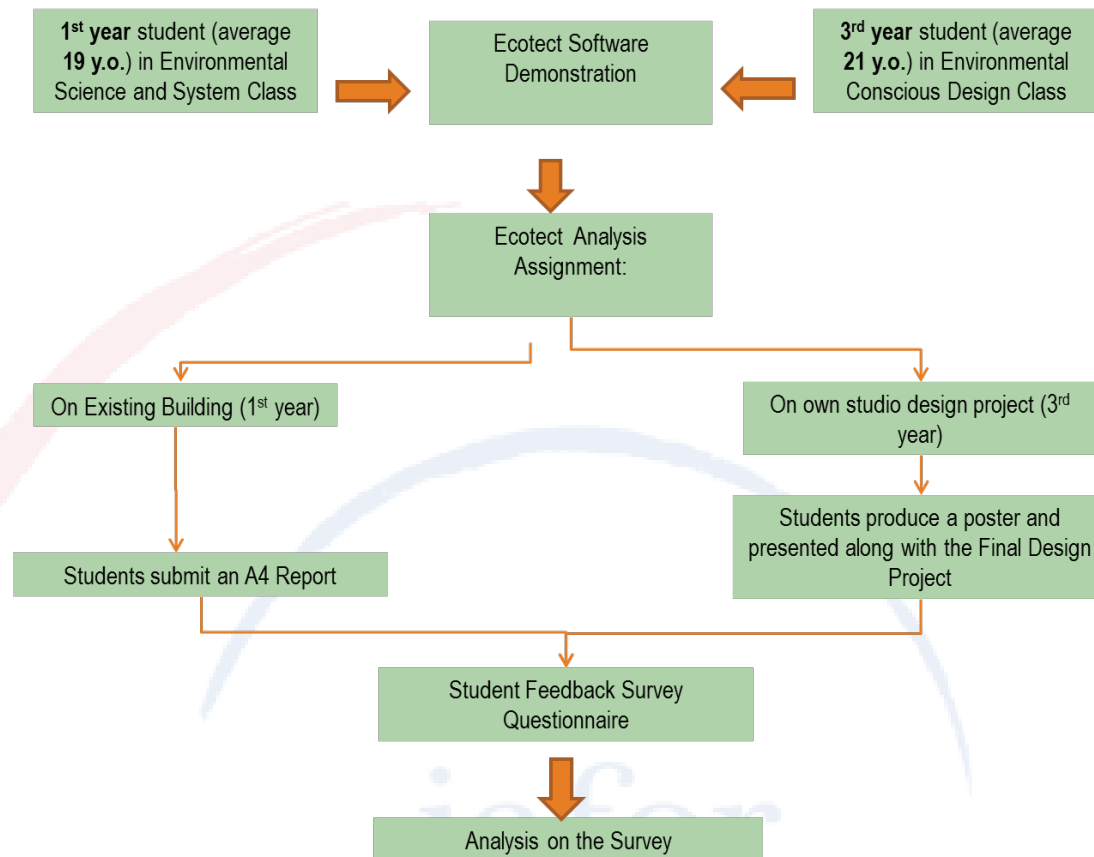


Figure 1: Structure of the Research Methodology

The nature of assignments differs between the 1st and the 3rd year. The 1st year student had to study the environment of an existing bungalow. They worked in a group of 4 to 6 members and had to produce a report on “Passive Design Strategies”. Meanwhile, the 3rd year students analyse their own design for their final design project, which was a shopping mall. It was an individual assignment, which they had to produce a poster of Ecotect analysis to be presented alongside their final design project.

At the end of the semester, after completing the Ecotect assignment, a student feedback survey was conducted where each student was given a set of questionnaires. The questionnaires enquired their perception on the adequacy of the time given, the significant of Ecotect assignment to their studio design project and their suggestions for future improvement. 72 1st year students and 64 3rd year students completed the feedback survey questionnaires, which were then analysed.

Results and Analysis

1st year students submitted their Ecotect assignment within their Passive Design Strategies report as a groupwork. The following figures are extracted from some of the best examples among the good quality reports. The following figures show the existing bungalow being drawn onto the Ecotect software (Figure 2 and 3). Thermal analysis was conducted and Figure 4 shows the results with existing material, in this case the students focused on the roof materials.



Figure 2: The selected existing house in Malaysia for Ecotect environment analysis (Source: 1st year group work report: Passive Design Strategies for a House, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013).

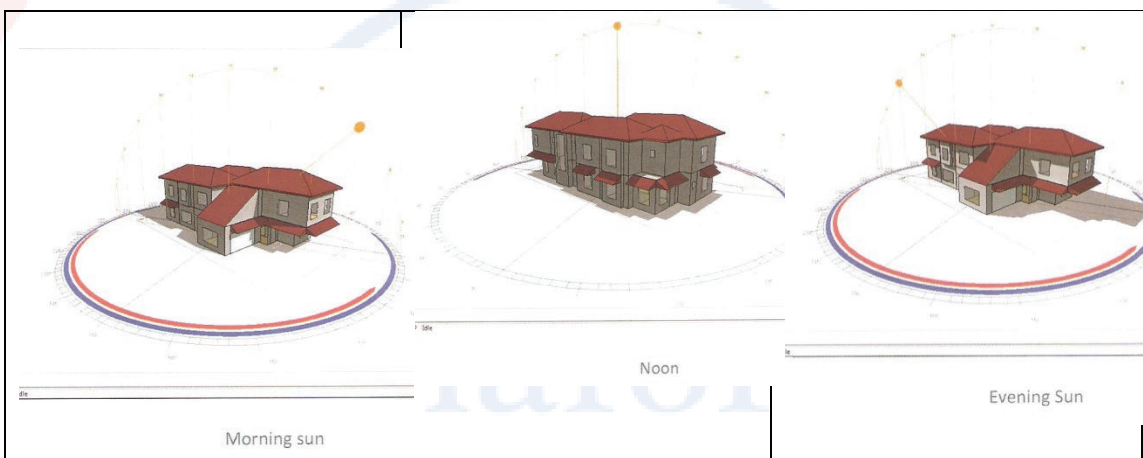


Figure 3: Shadow analysis on the modelled house (Source: 1st year group work report: Passive Design Strategies for a House, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013).

Data 6 – Ecotect Analysis (Clay tile roof)

HOURLY TEMPERATURES (Saturday 3rd March)

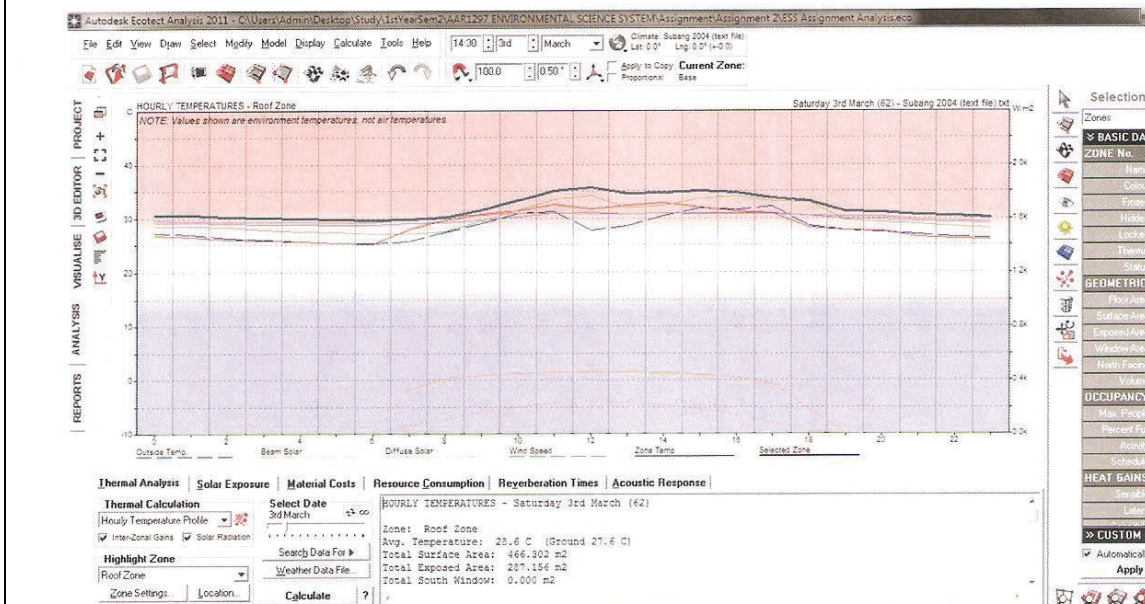


Figure 4: Thermal analysis on the modelled house (Source: 1st year group work report: *Passive Design Strategies for a House, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013*).

The students then demonstrate their critical and innovative thinking by replacing the roof materials to retrieve a better thermal analysis results (Figure 5 and 6). Figure 7 reflects the critical and maturity thinking of the 1st year students.

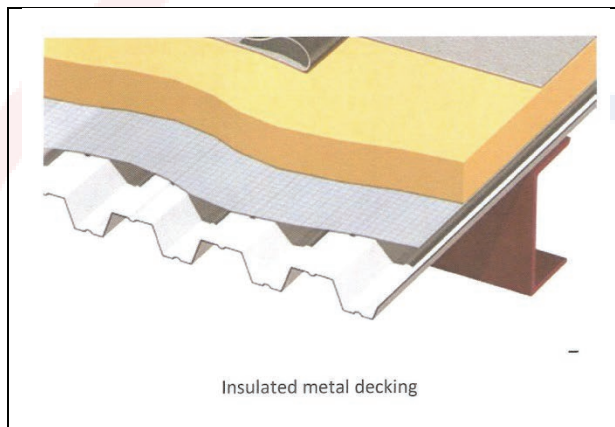


Figure 5: Proposed replacement for roof material for thermal analysis (Source: 1st year group work report: *Passive Design Strategies for a House, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013*).

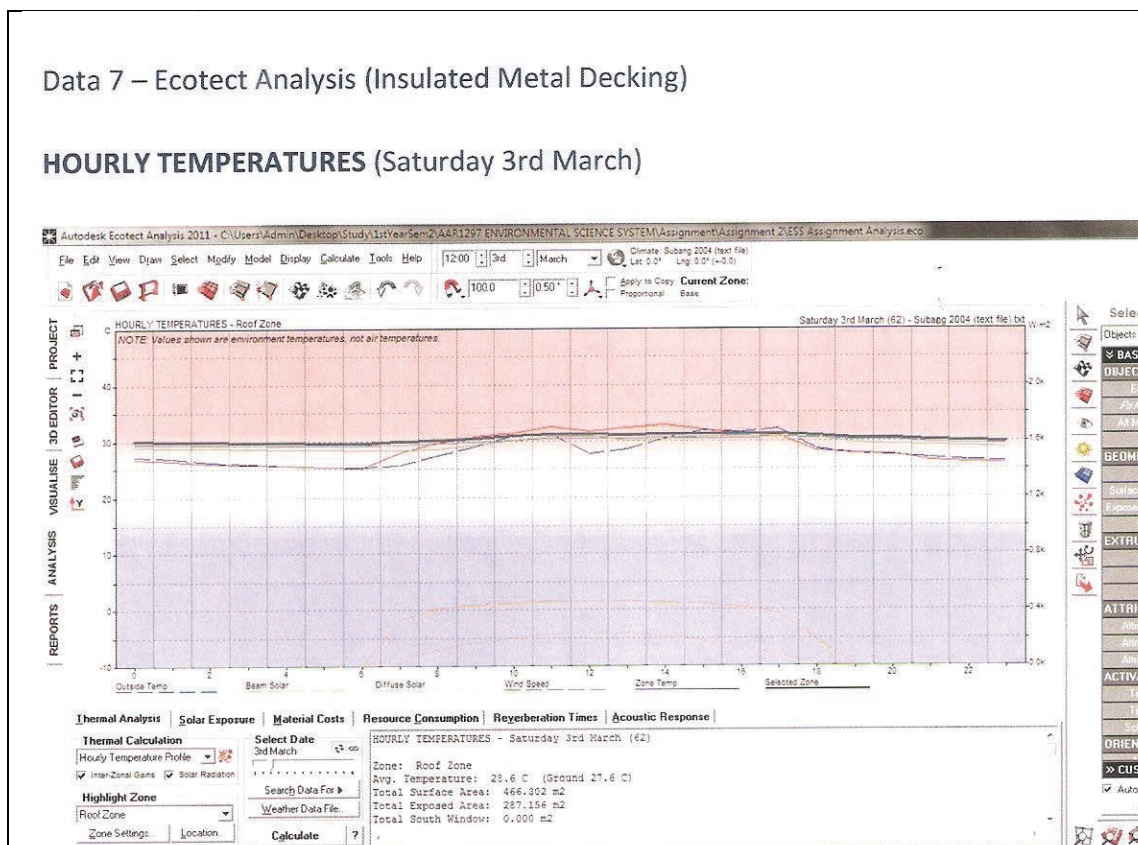


Figure 6: Thermal analysis on the modelled house after replacement of alternative roof material (Source: 1st year group work report: *Passive Design Strategies for a House*, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013).

The Ecotect analysis results in significant improvement of lower temperature differences when the roofing material is replaced from clay tiles to insulated metal decking, up to 4.3 degree Celsius lower during noon.

Figure 7: Design synthesis responding to the results obtained through thermal analysis (Source: 1st year group work report: *Passive Design Strategies for a House*, AAR 1297 Environmental Science System, 2012/2013).

As mentioned earlier, 3rd year students had to produce a poster of their Ecotect analysis. The poster should include shadow analysis, thermal and natural daylight analysis (Figure 8). A sample of shadow analysis carried out by 3rd year students is shown in Figure 9. Figure 9 shows that the atrium cover is fully glass and that the solar radiation penetrates through the atrium. Hence the results in Figure 10 show a very high indoor temperature during the middle of the day. This result made the student realise of the need to improvise the design of the shopping mall envelope that could produce a better indoor environment (Figure 11).

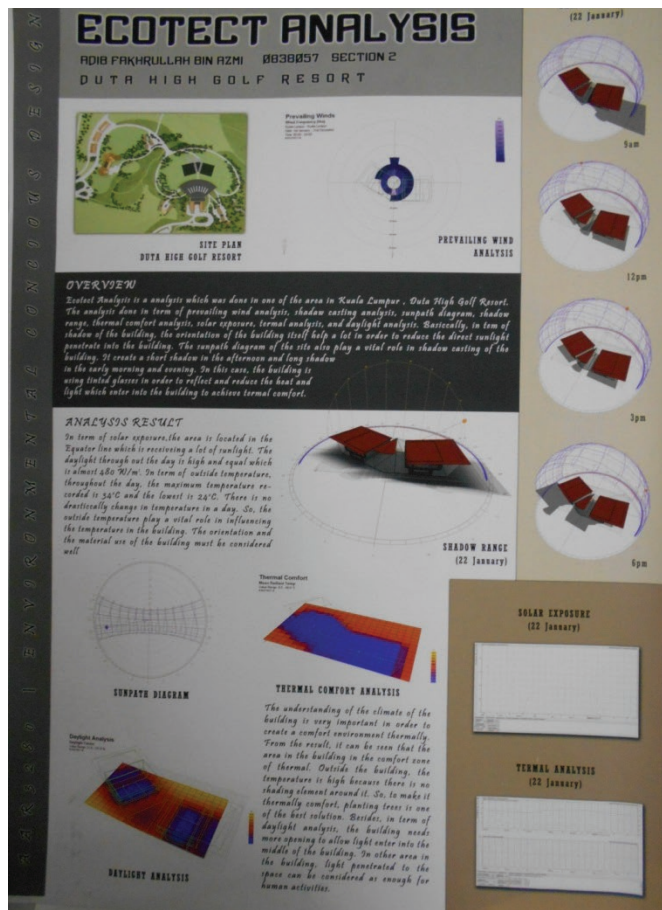


Figure 8: A sample of 3rd year students poster presentation (Source: Adib Fakhrollah, Semester 2, 3rd year, 2012/2013).

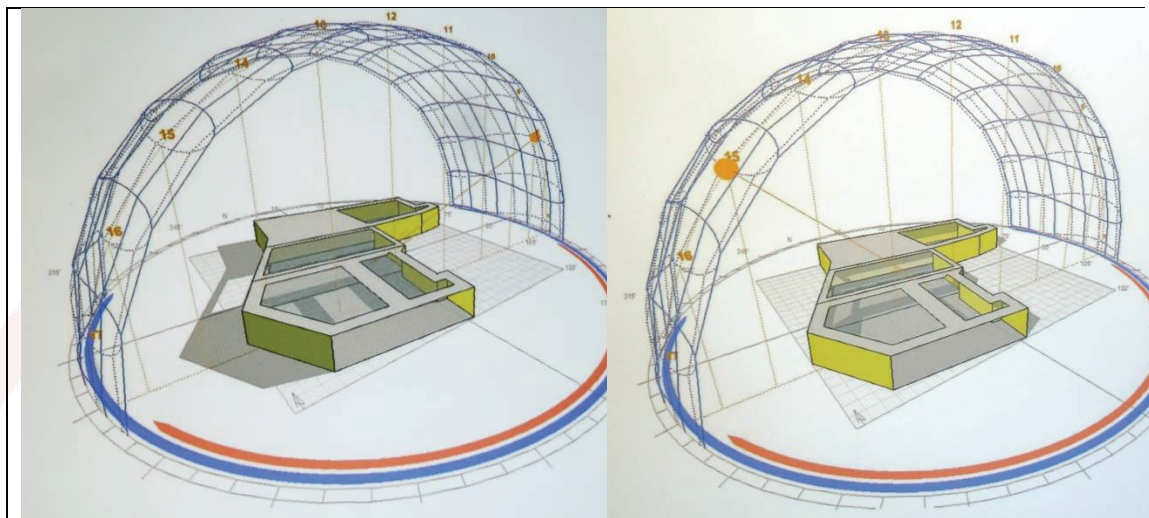


Figure 9: Shadow analysis of a shopping mall design project showing the morning and late afternoon sun. (Source: Afiq Afify Anuar, 3rd year, 2012/2013).

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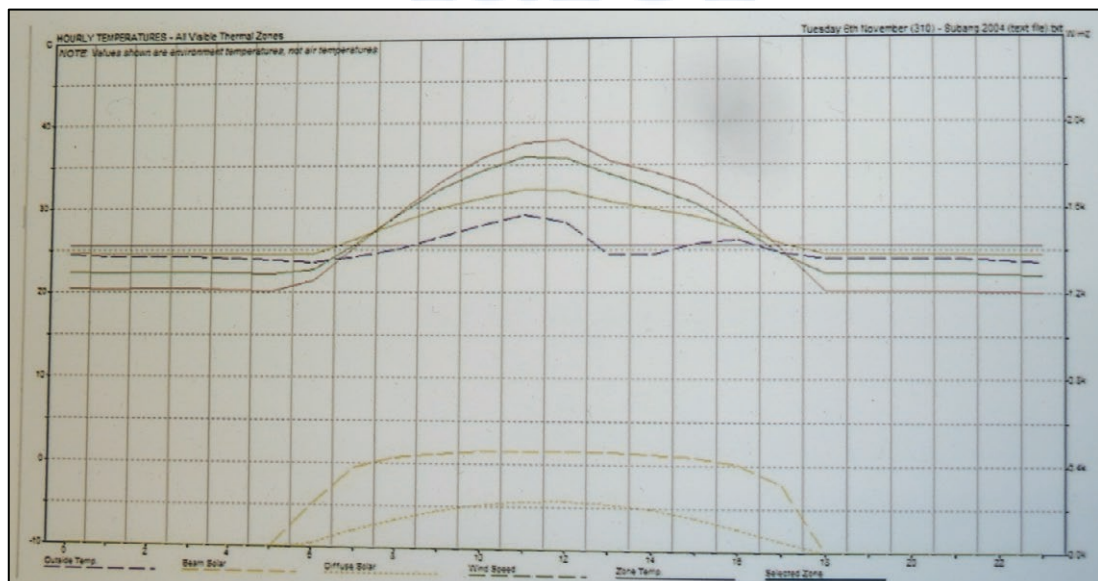


Figure 10: Thermal analysis of a shopping mall design project showing the different zones of the building. (Source: Afiq Afify Anuar, 3rd year, 2012/2013).

the diagram shows the thermal analysis inside the shopping mall with a great numbers of different in term of hot and cold. Thus, some reminders are important and crucial and should be take note. for example the type of material of the building which is very important also the manipulator of this result which affect the people inside.

Figure 11: Design synthesis responding to the results obtained through thermal analysis (Source: Afiq Afify Anuar, 3rd year, 2012/2013).

As mentioned before, after the students completed and submitted their posters, they were given a set of student feedback survey questionnaires. The results from the survey were rather positive in both 1st and 3rd year Architecture students. The results from 1st and 3rd year students are tabulated side-by-side for comparison.

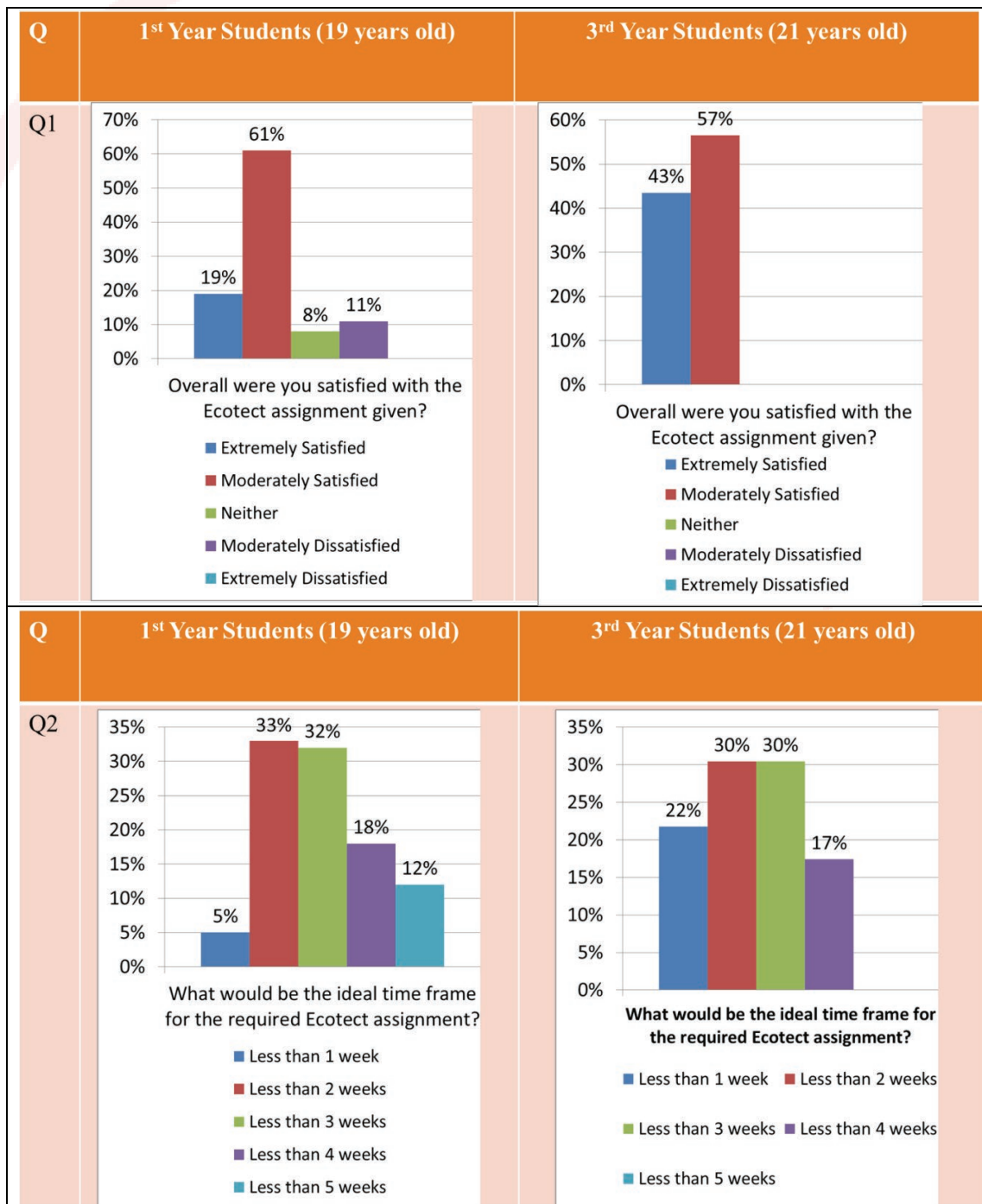
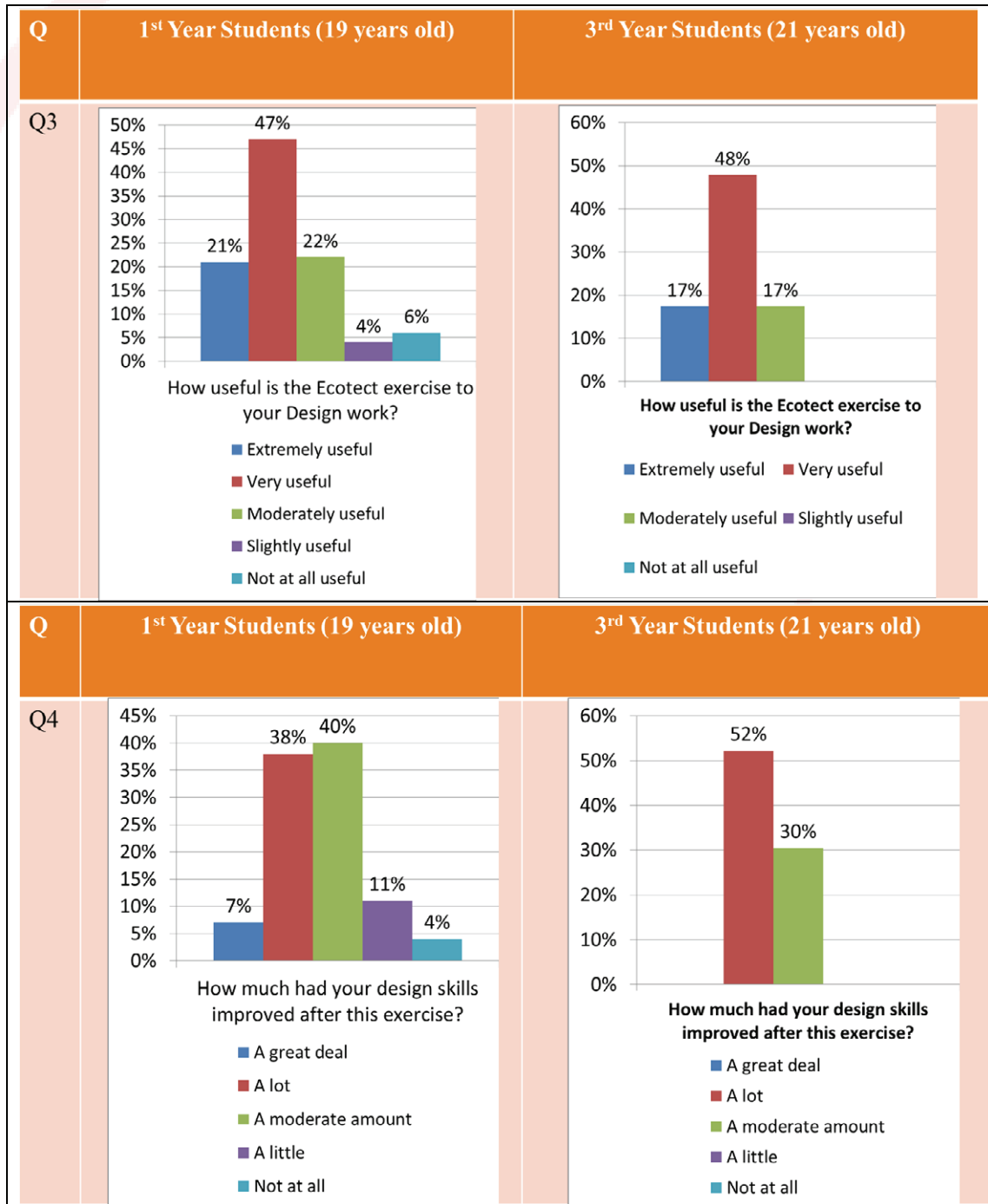
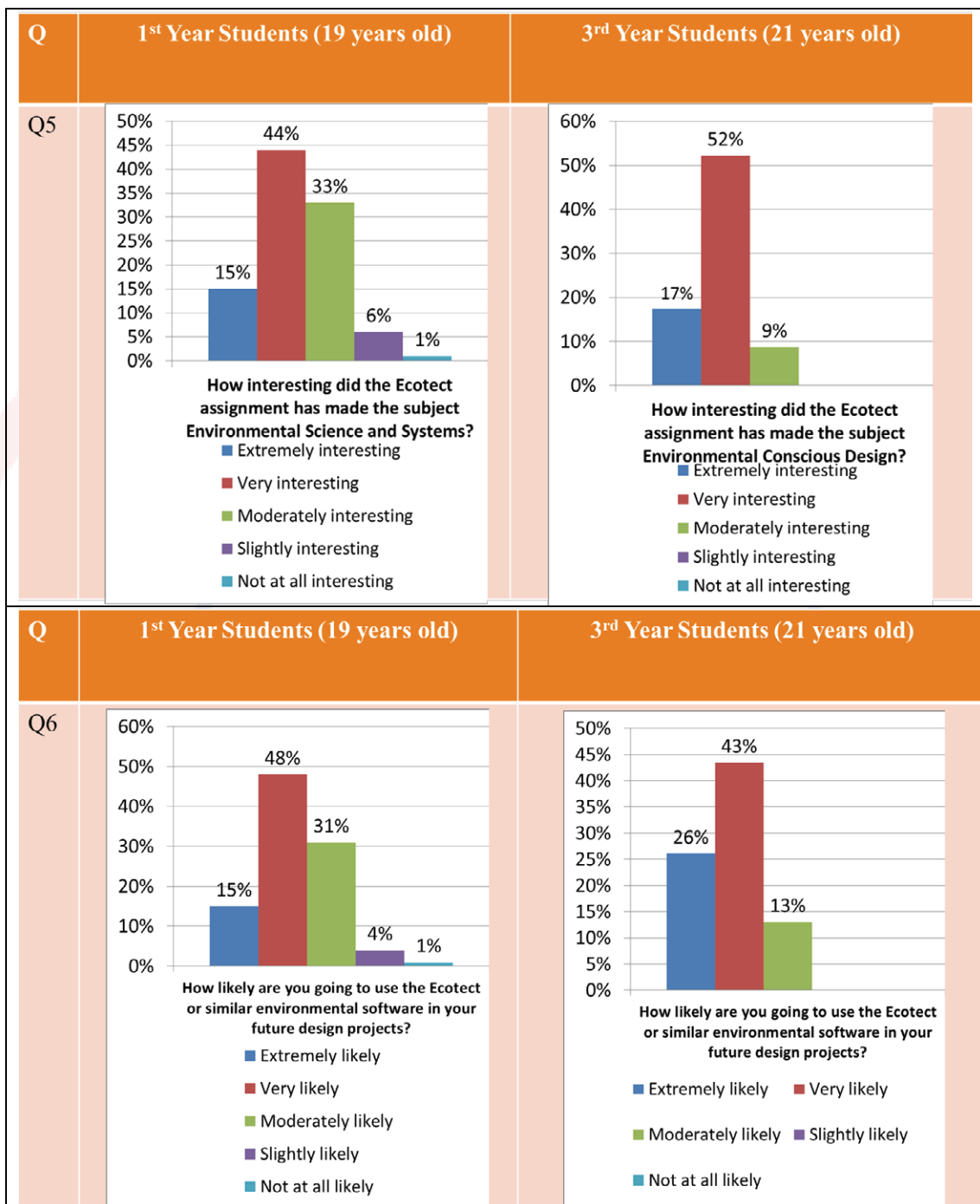


Figure 12: Results obtained from 1st and 3rd year students' feedback survey in overall of the Ecotect assignment and on the time-scale given to complete the assignment.

All 3rd year students gave feedback to the survey that they are satisfied, where half of them were extremely satisfied with the Ecotect assignment given (Figure 12 (Q1)). As for the 1st year students, 89% of the students found the Ecotect assignment satisfied. All of the 3rd year students find the ideal time frame to complete the Ecotect assignment is within maximum of 4 weeks. 88% of the 1st year students have the same opinion and only 12% of them find the time frame should be within 5 weeks (Figure 12 (Q2)).





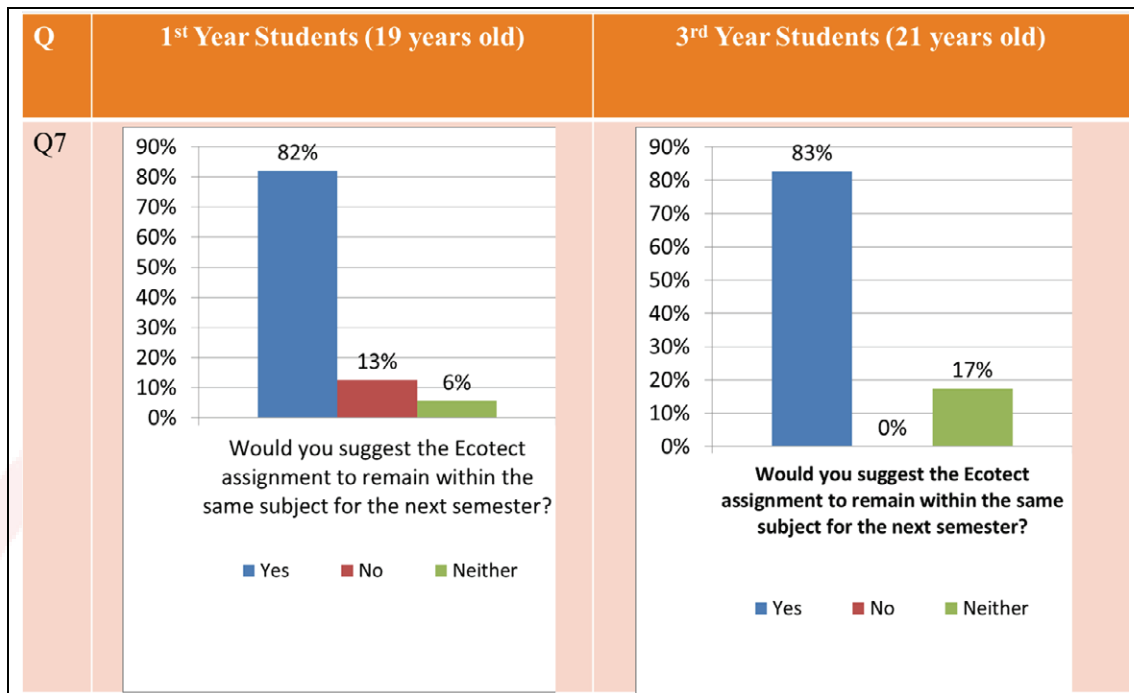


Figure 13: Results obtained from students’ feedback survey on the significance of Ecotect assignment to the studio project and the students’ future recommendation.

Figure 13(Q3), (Q4), (Q5), (Q6) and (Q7) present the results obtained from the students’ feedback survey on the Ecotect assignment on the significance of the assignment to their studio design project. Figure 13(Q3) shows that all students in the 3rd year find the Ecotect exercise is useful to their studio design project, while 94% of the 1st year students find it useful and within that, 68% find it very and extremely useful. Figure 13(Q4) shows that all 3rd year students and 96% of 1st year students find that their design skill has improved after completing the Ecotect assignment.

Meanwhile, Figure 13(Q5) shows that all students in the 3rd year and 99% students in 1st year find the Ecotect assignment has made the Environmental Design Course interesting. All 3rd year and 99% of 1st year students stated they are likely to use the Ecotect software or something similar in their future studio design projects (Figure 13 (Q6)). Furthermore, 83% of 3rd year and 82% of 1st year students have the same opinion that the Ecotect assignment should remain within the course, while 13% of the 1st year students stated otherwise. The rest of the 1st and 3rd year students were indecisive (Figure 13 (Q7)).

The students were then asked to add one extra feedback, comment or suggestion for future Environmental Conscious Design assignment. The most popular suggestion from the 3rd year students was to introduce or teach the Ecotect software at an earlier stage. The result reflects the insight on how Ecotect reflects students’ critical understanding of how the buildings work (Charles and Thomas, 2009).

Conclusion

As a conclusion to the results obtained, majority of the 1st year students were satisfied with the Ecotect assignment while all of the 3rd year students were satisfied with the assignment given. All of the 3rd year students while majority of the 1st year students found the Ecotect assignment is significant and that it has helped them improve their design skills. Majority of both 1st and 3rd years have agreed for the Ecotect assignment to maintain as part of the two subjects; Environmental Science System and Environmental Conscious Design course assignments. Therefore, the students' feedback has shown that the Ecotect assignment should remain within the Environmental Conscious Design course. At the end of the course, most of the posters presented by the students reflect the maturity of the students' critical thinking towards designing an environmental responsive building. This paper contributes to instilling energy conscious design in architecture learning.

Future Recommendation

The 1st and 3rd year Part 1 Architecture students were exposed to the environmental software for the first time. In the beginning, it is common and expected to see the students' hesitation and repel towards the Ecotect assignment. Thus, even at 1st year level, the students were able to handle the software and found it beneficial for them. The exposure to such software should be repeated regularly throughout the academic years allowing students to develop their environmental analysis simulation skill gradually with increasing difficulties as they get to the higher level of their degree. The environmental software should be introduced during environmental science and system course or even computer skill courses. Since they have inherited Computer Aided Design (CAD) skills at the end of 2nd year, learning Ecotect should not be too difficult for them. Thus, the time given to them to complete the Ecotect assignment was considered sufficient. The only part that had slowed them down was the process of downloading the software and trying to find and download the weather data. Another problem the students faced was the lack of guidance while using the software. It would be ideal to have several trained and skilled tutors who have used the software before to closely guide the students throughout their Ecotect learning experience. It might help the students especially the once who are rather slow in adopting new computer skills. This Ecotect or other relevant environmental software should be utilized more within the Department of Architecture. This Ecotect lesson and assignment should be integrated into other related courses and also studio design projects in order to avoid the lesson from becoming a one off-lesson and experience. Otherwise the skill will become a waste and forgotten.

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The College of 'Other': Using Course Evaluation Feedback to Bridge Socio-Academic Gaps with Students in Australia

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Every year several million young people travel across international borders with the specific intention of enrolling at a foreign university. The Australian National University, located in the city of Canberra, is a popular destination.

The pathway college for international students at the Australian National University is ANU College. At ANU College we attempt to meet the needs of a very diverse clientele; hence, the title of this paper – The College of ‘Other’.

For administrative purposes, ANU College students tick the box ‘Other’ when enrolling in these pathways to university. Although it seems innocuous, the little English word ‘other’ has huge implications. In the ANU College context, it means that we cater for students who have a conditional place at the university but must satisfy certain criteria before they can be offered a place. The students are allocated a student number that gives them access to all university facilities, but they are not yet formally associated with any academic program. The majority of these ‘other’ students are from overseas.

According to some studies, the number of cross-border students is increasing at twice the rate of domestic students and they are now estimated to represent about one in four tertiary students around the world. Over 40% of all international students go to English-speaking countries for their post-school education. About half of these are from Asian countries.

In Australia, around 20% (250,000) of all tertiary students are international arrivals, and of these, 86% are from Asian countries, with 40% coming from China. Our top source countries are China, India, Korea, Malaysia and Vietnam (AEI Monthly Summary YTD May 2013).

Australia has been engaging with Asia in education since 1951, when the Colombo Plan was introduced to boost Asian economic and social development through foreign aid and technical assistance (ISANA, 2001).

As part of the Colombo Plan, students were sponsored for study in Australia. The success of the scheme can be seen by the number of students who now hold positions of influence in their home countries.

From the late 1960s, however, there was a significant increase in private, fee-paying international students. This was a period marked by debate about multiculturalism, overseas aid programs and economic reforms leading to Australia’s closer integration with the world community in the dropping of ‘protection’ for local industries and culminating in the floating of the Australian dollar.

By the late 1980s a market-driven approach to fee-paying international students was becoming far bigger in terms of student numbers than the humanitarian and culturally liberal ‘Colombo Plan’ had ever envisaged.

In the 1990s successive Australian governments made cuts to the higher education budget. Together with other economic changes, this meant that many universities around the country began to rely much more heavily on the income from international students.

Since the start of the 21st century, Australian universities have committed to far more inclusive educational agendas. The intention has been to address not only the needs of international students, with their differing social, religious, language and learning backgrounds, but also those of a range of Australian students who in earlier times would have had little encouragement to apply for a place in higher education. These domestic students include those with disabilities and those from low socio-economic backgrounds, from rural and regional areas and students with Indigenous Australian heritage.

The 2008 Bradley Review of Higher Education (Australian Government, 2008), proposed increased targets for access and equity groups, and supported international student education as a way for Australia to engage with Asian growth and development. The latter aims were reiterated in The 'Asian Century White Paper' released by the Australian Government in 2012).

In order to cater for this increasingly diverse range of applicants, most Australian universities now have a range of pathways for students who cannot enrol directly in undergraduate courses. That is, the students generally have to satisfy language requirements or other prerequisites before they can begin a degree course.

ANU College took its first international students in 1993, teaching them English as part of an Australian aid project consultancy. In 2004, the Foundation Studies Program commenced for international students wishing to study at ANU, and in 2008 ANU College launched the Associate Degree for domestic students from educationally diverse backgrounds. This year has seen the introduction of the Enabling Program, which supports Aboriginal students with the acquisition of the necessary tertiary skills to enrol in the Associate Degree.

In this paper, I would like to concentrate on the group that forms the majority of our clientele – the international students – and to discuss a particular strategy that we have developed to assist us to meet their needs as they make their way along this academic pathway.

Hawkins and Bransgrove (1998, cited in Wilson & Gunawardena, 2012, p.2) are just two of the researchers who have concluded that 'meeting the demands of international students has placed an enormous strain on Australian universities, with changes needed at the level of curriculum, pedagogic practices, the provision of specialised teaching streams, and support services.'

Ballard (1989, cited in Baker & Hawkins 2006, p.23) maintains that 'when overseas students come to Australia, it is tacitly assumed that they will adjust their learning habits to suit the new demands of our educational system. It is never made clear quite how they will achieve this desired metamorphosis, but they will certainly be criticised if they do not somehow make such a shift ... Most Australian teachers are at a genuine loss as to how to be helpful.'

Many international students do have to bridge socio-academic gaps in order to engage successfully with the Western, English-speaking university environment. It can be far more than simply a language issue. There are fundamental differences in the way we approach research, analysis, note-taking, the production of original work, referencing,

tutorial discussions, the formulation of essay questions, reports and research projects, the delivery of oral presentations, and the relationship with lecturers and tutors.

The greatest challenge for us as teachers at the College of 'Other' is that we have two semesters in which to achieve what is covered over twelve years for our domestic students.

There is a debate among academics as to how or even whether to undertake such bridging programs. Some see the international students as victims and argue that this is tantamount to forcing the students to adopt a Western social paradigm. We reject that as unhelpful political correctness. In fact, we argue, it is our obligation - part of the academic contract if you like - to ensure that every student at the College of Other (whether domestic or international) has the soundest possible exposure to the socio-academic norms of an Australian university. It is absolutely vital that we be clear and explicit about the strategies and skills the students will need in order to compete with their domestic counterparts and to be successful in the socio-academic spheres.

Wilson and Gunawardena (2012, p.2) believe that 'unnecessary cultural misunderstanding between students and educators serves to increase poor transition. It is important, therefore, to chart critical areas where the provision of accurate and meaningful interaction can work to reduce the cultural misunderstanding between international students and services provided by Australian institutions in meeting their academic needs.' The cultural issues at play among specific groups of students make qualitative research preferable to quantitative studies, Wilson and Gunawardena (2012) contend.

It is important to note that all Australian higher education institutions request student feedback as part of the teaching and learning process. However, this data is collected only at the end of the courses. At that point, of course, it is too late to address the needs of the cohort that has just completed a course of study. Additionally, participation in such surveys is voluntary, meaning that the response rate is generally very low and the results may be skewed by those who are either extremely dissatisfied or satisfied and may not always reflect the responses of a broad sample.

Wilson and Gunawardena (2012, p. 3) also refer to 'the overly commercial attitude towards international education' and describe the methods of data collection at most universities as 'an internal regulatory tool [which] are best utilised for tracking changes over time as well as meeting Australian quality assurance standards ... [they] were not designed to provide new information, or about 'culture' in relation to international students' experiences.'

Numerous studies show that there is a need for the host institutions to take more interest in their students' capacity to adapt to cultural differences in teaching and learning.

According to Zhai (2002), for example, 'international students indicate that studying overseas is far more stressful than studying in their home country. This is due to the different teaching methods, fast-paced class sessions, two-way interaction with professors in the classroom, more student participation in the class, more classroom

and group activities, more reading and writing assignments, more presentation and speech requirements, and more after class study.’

Other researchers have found that students often have no idea of how different the teaching and learning methods would be. Baker and Hawkins’ (2006, pp.23-24) studies led them to conclude that, ‘in most instances, students ... were unaware of these differences before entering into study overseas, thus they were ill-prepared and overwhelmed during their early period of adjustment.’

A major study conducted in New Zealand, where over 85% of all international students come from Asian countries, found that ‘Asian students’ difficulties were derived from insufficient knowledge of academic conventions such as writing literature reviews, critical reviews and essays, business and field reports, research proposals, case study analyses, and documenting references’ (Li & Campbell, 2006, p. 303).

At the College of ‘Other’, our students reveal similar needs. As a pathway college, with strong connections to the main campus, we are very aware of the expectations that university faculties have of incoming students. In their discussion of academic support programs for international students, Australian researchers Kutieleh and Egege (2004, p. 1) assert that, ‘any discrepancies between the academic standards and expectations of the institution and those of the international student will have an impact on the potential success of that student. If those discrepancies really do exist, then the institution has a responsibility to address them.’

We see daily evidence of the challenges that many international students encounter as they transition to a Western, English-speaking university. Given that we perceive these challenges to exist, what is to be done? The traditional end-of-course questionnaires are manifestly inadequate for the specific purpose of identifying incoming students’ needs. As Wilson and Gunawardena (2012) explain, ‘quantitative evaluative surveys do not allow new information to emerge: they only measure the degree of agreement on topics already known.’

As professionals, we are committed to providing targeted academic support for our students. In 2012, a colleague and I proposed the implementation of an integrated, longitudinal student survey project. This would enable the collection of a rich range of data across multiple courses, with a particular focus on the perceptions of students regarding the effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes. The data would be used to inform the design and delivery of all courses in the Foundation Studies Program, a nationally-accredited pathway program that qualifies students for admission to undergraduate degree courses at the Australian National University and other tertiary institutions in Australia.

At ANU College, we are convinced that the careful consideration of student feedback is a key component of the design and delivery of high-quality courses. It is arguable that the better our understanding of the cultural differences between our students and the host institutions, the more sophisticated and effective our support for their socio-academic transition can be.

Parrish and Linder-Van Berschot (2010) have described the situation thus:

Fundamentally, when we teach, we are teaching culture. Knowledge, skills and attitudes are all manifestations of culture and are not somehow immune to it. When we teach, we are passing along not only what we know, but how we come to know it as well as the basis for accepting it as useful knowledge, and the values these represent. Teaching and learning are not only embedded in culture, they are cultural transmission in action – the means to culture.

At the College of 'Other', our student surveys are designed to encourage our learners to see themselves as contributors to ongoing improvements to their courses. For most students, this is the first time that they have ever been asked to provide feedback in relation to their experience of their academic experience. An unforeseen phenomenon has been that as they move through their courses, they become more confident and more reflective in their responses, a development that can only add value to our pedagogical processes.

A brief history of the longitudinal surveys is as follows. We trialled the design of the surveys over twelve months, asking all staff for suggestions as to the focus of the questionnaires. The parameters included keeping the total number of questions as low as possible and using clear, straightforward language.

After piloting several versions of the surveys with different cohorts, we decided to implement a three-part longitudinal survey. The first survey is administered to new entrants, allowing us to understand much more about the incoming cohort. The mid-semester course evaluation and end-of-semester course evaluation give every student an anonymous 'voice' as they experience the range of courses offered at the College of Other. Each of these surveys contains discrete and open-ended questions. All students enrolled in the Foundation Studies Program participate as new entrants when they enrol at ANU College, and they then go on to complete each of the other surveys as they move through either the two-semester or three-semester program.

To date, we have had just over 2000 responses. It is important to note that the surveys are administered during class time in the ANU College IT Lab, meaning that there is a response rate of nearly 100%. As they take the course evaluation surveys, the students are reminded of the importance of their contribution to the teaching and learning process, and encouraged to provide feedback on a range of topics, including homework and assessment tasks, the ANU College online learning environment, and the acquisition of English language skills. The students' views on their socio-academic transition are elicited through the final question, in particular, which asks them to reflect on the benefits they have gained from each of their courses. This question has generated the richest, most useful data on which ANU College can build into the future.

The findings of the surveys are published to the students (quantitative results only) and to the staff. We are currently in the process of introducing regular survey review sessions to support teaching teams in addressing their own concerns and opportunities.

Please contact any of us to discuss the work we are doing to support our students and staff.

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The logo for the International Association of Agricultural Economists (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, light blue circular arc that is part of a larger, stylized graphic design. This design includes a red arc on the left side and a blue arc on the right side, both of which are also part of the overall circular motif.

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The Role of Worldviews in Student Understandings of Biological Evolution

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Abstract

Evolution education has recently become a major research field in science education. This may be partially because interdisciplinary aspects of evolutionary science increase its popularity, but also because of controversies caused by its interrelationship with worldviews associated with religious beliefs. This paper discusses the role of worldviews in understanding evolution, specifically referring to the question of the origin of life and biodiversity to which religious and scientific perspectives are often perceived to provide very different explanations. This work highlights three sets of student worldviews – religious, naturalistic and religio-naturalistic – in which different responses to learning of evolution can be observed.



INTRODUCTION TO EVOLUTION EDUCATION

The theory of evolution is considered to be a unifying theme in biology, as exemplified in Dobzhansky (1973, p. 125)'s famous claim that “nothing in biology makes sense except in the light of evolution”. Nonetheless, although evolutionary theory finds its roots in the biological sciences, its development has relied on the combined effort of professionals in other scientific disciplines ranging from chemistry and medicine to physics and geology, often engaged in observing, data collection and experimentation to enrich and validate the theory (Stearns & Hoekstra, 2005). The study of evolution is becoming ever more interdisciplinary as evolutionary models and frameworks are adopted by those working in domains as diverse as the social sciences and computer sciences. In addition, evolution also stimulates scientific development at the nexus of professionals in different fields. For example, Nadelson (2009) refers to the new field of evolutionary educational psychology which claims that our evolutionary history is an important factor to take into account in explaining aspects of cognition and learning. In addition, it is also central to research in a broad range of discipline areas such as evolutionary psychology, evolutionary anthropology, evolutionary medicine, evolutionary computation and evolutionary economics (Stearns & Hoekstra, 2005).

In educational contexts, the teaching of evolution usually forms an important part of the biology syllabus. Schilders, Peter, and Boersma (2009, p. 115) consider evolutionary theory as one of the major scientific concepts that underpins biological thinking which “should be one of the leading threads running through the biology curriculum”. Using as a starting point Driver, Leach, Millar, and Scott (1996)'s framework for conceptualizing the reasons for teaching nature of science, Smith (2010b) outlines a number of reasons for the importance of teaching evolution

covering economic grounds (the need to train future scientists capable of contributing to technological advancement), utilitarian grounds (the need to help people understand scientific concepts which are directly related to their daily life), democratic grounds (the need to educate individuals in scientific reasoning skills required to make decisions about socio-technical issues), cultural grounds (the need to support individuals in appreciating the contributions of science to daily life and culture) as well as moral grounds (the need to make people aware of issues relating to the use of science in ways that are consistent with ethical and moral norms).

Among the educational literature, that relating to evolution forms a particularly noteworthy area of science education. Although some work on the topic is much older, evolution education was highlighted in 1994 in a special issue entitled “The teaching and learning of biological evolution” in the *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*. Since then, there has been a consistent increase in the number of research articles in this area published in journals such as *Science Education*, *Science and Education*, *International Journal of Science Education*, and *Journal of Biological Education*, among others. More recently, a new peer-reviewed journal *Evolution: Education and Outreach* was launched in 2008, specifically addressing the teaching and application of evolution. Later in 2009, *Science and Education* launched a special issue on Darwinism and evolution education in recognition of the double anniversary of 200 years since the birth of Charles Darwin (12 February 1809) and 150 years since the first publication of his well-known book “On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection” (24 November 1859). The increasing interest in evolution education has also been growing in recent years; for example, 13 out of 18 articles published by *Science and Education* (volume 22, issue 2) released in February 2013 directly relate to evolution and Darwinism, even though this issue is not intended to particularly address evolution education.

We believe that the development of this research area is not a coincidence. It seems likely that there are at least two fundamental reasons that contribute to the growth of research in evolution education. First, as discussed above, research on evolution has shown its inherent interdisciplinary importance as both a subject of study in its own right and as a methodological tool. Second, evolution has been the subject of considerable debate in the social sphere, largely fuelled by its relationship with religious perspectives (Smith, 2010a), thus attracting interest from educators and those interested in social studies. Specifically, one view of the relationship between science and religion is that the two are in conflict (Allgaier & Holliman, 2006). This view is evident in numerous studies based in different regions across the world where different religious traditions are predominant, including the US (Brem, Ranney, & Schindel, 2003; McKeachie, Lin, & Strayer, 2002), the UK (Billingsley, Taber, Riga, & Newdick, 2012; Francis & Greer, 2001; Fulljames, Gibson, & Francis, 1991; Taber, Billingsley, Riga, & Newdick, 2011), the Middle East (Asghar, Wiles, & Alters, 2010; Dagher & BouJaoude, 1997, 2005; Özey Köse, 2010), as well as the Far East (Clores & Limjap, 2006; Pongsophon, 2006; Yasri & Mancy, 2012). In the

following sections we introduce a specific issue that appears to form the starting point of much of this controversy.

THE ORIGIN OF THE ISSUE OF THE ORIGINS

Leakey (1996) claims that there may be no other scientific explanations that are as controversial as biological evolution. More explicitly, Sinclair, Pendarvis, and Baldwin (1997) argue that the origin of life and human evolution are the most problematic areas of the biological sciences (Sinclair et al., 1997). This may be due to the fact that not only does biological evolution offer answers to key questions on the origins, so too does religion. In addition, answers to questions relating to the origins probably contribute to the philosophical issue of the meaning life, a concern that is important for many people as it relates to their identity as human beings and the purpose of their existence. Although the precise nature of the questions addressed by biology and religion perhaps differs, the two explanations have long been claimed to be in rivalry. We argue here that a key aspect that appears to be the starting point from which many people perceive an incompatibility between science and religion is the question of the origins (Smith, 2010a). In the following subsections, two different schools of thought providing explanations for the question of the origins are discussed.

RELIGIOUS EXPLANATIONS: CREATION NARRATIVES

In this section, we focus on Judeo-Christian religions and Christianity in particular. We refer to biblical literalists of the Genesis as creationists although we acknowledge that other interpretations of this term exist.

According to Genesis 1:1 “in the beginning God created the heavens and the earth”, also creating all living things in a process lasting six days. Interpreting Genesis literally, the first life was created on the third day in the form of plants. Additional forms of life (fish and birds) were created on the fifth day, and livestock and ‘wild animals’ on the sixth day. The final act of creation was that of mankind on the seventh day: verse 27 reads “God created mankind in his own image, in the image of God he created them; male and female he created them”, allowing them to rule over the other life that he had created (verses 26 and 31). Although the creation story spans six days, Scott (2005) points out that the word “day” used in the chapter is interpreted differently among creationists as representing a period ranging from a literal 24-hour day, through 1000 years (see Psalm 90:4, 2 Peter 3:8) to a period of time (geographical era).

It is important to note that the creation of mankind is understood by the creationists as the climax of God’s creation (Krell, 2005), as exemplified in the language used to describe this this act of creation. First, it was the last creative work, and God said that it was “very good” (verse 31), whereas the others were “good” (verses 10, 18 and 25). Second, unlike the rest of the creations, it was not only a simple act of divine spoken word but the “meeting” of plural divine subjects according verse 26 which reads “Let *us* make mankind in *our* image”. The objective pronoun *us* and the possessive pronoun *our* indicate that God was speaking to another Person, who is usually believed to be Jesus through reference to John 1:1-2. In addition, verse 27 reads that “God created mankind in his own image” which indicates the special nature of human beings in the sight of God. Furthermore, God allowed them to rule over the things that He had created according to verses 26 and 31.

Taken at face value, the explanations literally drawn from the book of Genesis seem to imply both the origin of life and the process of the origin of different forms of life, claiming that human beings and other animals were directly created in their current forms (thus implying no evolution) by an all-powerful being. Of course, this appears to contradict the modern scientific explanations to be discussed shortly. However, we reiterate here that the scriptural chapters can be understood according to a variety of interpretations, ranging from the literal, to interpretations of the biblical creation story as a metaphor, and these have different implications for the relationship with scientific explanations (Alexander, 2009; Scott, 2005).

SCIENTIFIC EXPLANATIONS: ABIOGENESIS AND EVOLUTION

Many readers and school students tend to conflate explanations of the origin of life

and emergence of the variety of life forms (Rice, Warner, Kelly, Clough, & Colbert, 2010). In other words, when considering the term evolution, many view it holistically as the biological history of life, starting from the origin of the first molecules of life and the first living cell, the development of multicellular organisms, to the emergence of higher taxonomical animals and human beings. In fact, scientific explanations differentiate between the processes by which life arose from non-living matter and those by which life developed into the diverse forms recognised today: the former processes are those of abiogenesis; the latter are explained by evolutionary theory. “In the strictest sense, Darwinian evolution is an explanation of the origin of species from ancestral species, not the origin of the first living thing – an issue confused all too often by scientists and evolution opponents alike” (Smith, 2010b, p. 542)

To begin with the explanation of the origin of life, a range of theories of abiogenesis have been proposed (Palmer, 2013), and there is currently little consensus surrounding which of these represents the most plausible explanation (Sheldon, 2005). It is also unclear how abiogenesis and evolution interact, with some authors claiming that RNA, possibly capable of evolution, may have preceded life, and others claiming that evolution began only after abiogenesis. Nonetheless, abiogenesis explains that natural chemical reactions in the early earth formed biochemical compounds, including amino acids and nucleic acids (the building blocks of life) as demonstrated in the Miller-Urey experiment, an experiment that simulated hypothetical conditions thought to exist on early Earth, and tested for the occurrence of chemical origins of life (McCollom, 2013). Amino acids, mediated by the nucleic acids, became organised into proteins, which later became known as a fundamental component of all living things. After the formation of these organic molecules, the first life arose, followed by the accumulated processes of change from simple molecules to the diversity of complex organisms over periods of time, through the processes of evolution (McCollom, 2013).

Turning to the theory of evolution, in the biological context the term evolution is generally associated with Darwinian theory (Scott, 2005; Stearns & Hoekstra, 2005) and more recent developments of this theory. Therefore, many authors use the terms *theory of evolution* and *Darwinian evolution* interchangeably. Wiles (2010, p. 18) defines the theory of evolution as the explanation of “the diversity of life on Earth [which] has arisen via descent with modification from a common ancestry”. It explains changes in species of living organisms over time as due to variation amongst individuals and processes of natural selection that lead to higher survival and reproductive rates of those best adapted to their environment, tending to increase the frequency of adaptive traits in the population (this process is often called “the survival of the fittest”, in which fitness is a relative measure of the extent to which a species is successful at survival and reproduction in a given environment). While variation is usually considered to arise randomly, natural selection provides direction to the process and takes the form of environmental pressures that differentially impact on individuals, including availability of food, changes of climate, and other forms of

competition between organisms living in the same territory (Stearns & Hoekstra, 2005). The isolation of subpopulations, through geography or genetic bottlenecks, can lead them to take different evolutionary paths, and induces speciation. Further, then, evolutionary theory purports that the current diversity of living organisms alive today originated from a small number of early ancestors (Charlesworth & Charlesworth, 2003). Being distinguishable from abiogenesis, the theory of evolution therefore explains the processes of change associated with all life including the emergence of modern humans and how we have evolved from our common ancestors with other apes (Stearns & Hoekstra, 2005).

POSSIBLE CONTRADICTIONS BETWEEN THE TWO SETS OF EXPLANATIONS

Taking the two sets of explanations into consideration, this section highlights four possible aspects of evolution that can be perceived as leading to contradictions between science and religion concerning the question of the origins. First, evolution asserts that living organisms are subject to change and development. Thus, certain species existing today might not have existed at a particular time in the past but rather came into being through evolutionary processes. Many species existing in the past no longer exist, as shown by the fossil record. In other words, currently existing species are descended from previously existing species, some of which are now extinct. This concept of evolutionary theory challenges the fundamental view associated with some creationist interpretations which rely on the “fixity of species” (McGrath, 2010, p. 187), meaning that all species have remained unchanged throughout the history of the natural events.

Second, the notion of “the survival of the fittest” according to evolutionary theory suggests that evolutionary processes had taken through “a massive struggle for existence” (McGrath, 2010, p. 188), meaning that a large number of species have died out through competition for existence within certain environmental conditions. As perceived by some creationists, this sense of “wastage” challenges the characteristics of the loving and caring God who, on seeing his own creation, believed it to be good.

Thirdly, Darwin’s account of natural selection implies that evolutionary processes take place through a series of random and accidental events. This notion of randomness challenges the idea of God who intelligently designed the world. In other words, the implication of random processes is that the ‘guiding hand of God’ is lost. A large group of evolution rejecters also argue that the successful development of modern species through genetic mutations – which on average tend to be deleterious rather than beneficial – is highly improbable (Alters & Nelson, 2002), although this argument often fails to take account of the incremental nature of evolution and natural selection. In addition, evolution rejecters often invoke the second law of thermodynamics which states that in a closed system there is a tendency towards disorder (i.e. the entropy of a system naturally increases) (Alexander, 2009). However, this law does not apply to evolutionary systems, as these are not energetically closed systems.

Finally, according to evolutionary theory, humans emerged through evolutionary processes. In other words, there is no exemption for humanity in evolutionary events: human beings were descended from other life forms. As argued by Krell (2005), this claim stands in stark contrast to the special creation of humanity as argued by Krell (2005) in which human nature is believed to be distinct and superior to others. Indeed, McGrath (2010) thinks that this might be the most difficult challenge in relation to the central issue of evolution and religious beliefs of creation.

WORLDVIEWS AND EVOLUTION EDUCATION

McGrath (2010) notes that the apparent contradictions discussed above have been considered in the public sphere since the early nineteenth century. These considerations persist today, including in the educational arena among school students (Asghar et al., 2010; Taber et al., 2011; Yasri & Mancy, 2012) and even biology undergraduates (Brem et al., 2003; Dagher & BouJaoude, 1997; Downie & Barron, 2000). Of course, almost all scientists, science educators and biology teachers agree that it is important for them to teach evolution and for students to gain a sound understanding of the theory of evolution as it is “one of the few key concepts that underlie biological thinking” (Schilders et al., 2009, p. 115). However, unlike other scientific explanations such as cell theory, atomic theory or quantum theory, teaching and learning about evolution can never be simple, but rather remains problematic (Anderson, 2007; Eve, Losh, & Nzekwe, 2010)

As science educators, we believe that the issue of perceived incompatibility between evolution and religious beliefs needs to be taken into account in teaching about evolution. In this paper, we therefore aim to encourage science educators to be aware of the potential for non-scientific perspectives to play a role in science classrooms. However, we have no intention to imply that religious beliefs concerning divine creation should be ignored by science teachers simply because they are not scientific. Instead, we suggest that they should be considered rather carefully as student worldviews. Cobern (1989, p. 3) defines worldviews as “the culturally-dependent, generally subconscious, fundamental organization of the mind”. He notes that this organization manifests itself as “a set of presuppositions or assumptions, which predispose one to feel, think, and act” in predictable and patterned ways. Examples of worldviews might be religious or scientific worldviews, either of which might constitute a lens through which the world is seen and interpreted. Our stance is that the role of science educators and teachers is not to change students’ worldviews (or religious beliefs), but to open up ways for them to understand how science works (i.e. the nature of science) so that they are able to justify by themselves which worldviews are consistent with scientific ways of thinking. It is the responsibility of the individuals themselves to consider these ideas, possibly leading to the transformation of their personal worldview.

This particular section of the paper therefore focuses on the discussion of three

different worldviews that might be of relevance to evolution education; religious, naturalistic and religio-naturalistic worldviews. First, a range of evidence points to the primary influence of the religious worldviews on the learning and teaching of evolution, particularly those of monotheistic traditions (Deniz, Donnelly, & Yilmaz, 2008; Downie & Barron, 2000; Francis & Greer, 1999; Fulljames et al., 1991; Preston & Epley, 2009; Smith, 2010a). Second, Clores and Limjap (2006) and Fulljames et al. (1991) explain that a scientific worldview (commonly known as scientism), in which natural science is believed to be the only authoritative source of knowledge, also plays an important role in student learning of evolution. Third, Schilders et al. (2009) assert that there are other sets of worldviews lying in between these two radical worldviews that combine purely religious and scientific approaches and also influence student perception of evolution. These three worldviews are now discussed in greater detail.

RELIGIOUS WORLDVIEWS

In recent years, a number of research studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of religious worldviews on understandings of the theory of evolution. These studies have demonstrated that evolutionary theory is fairly frequently understood as contradictory to religious worldviews, often leading to rejection of evolution. For example, over a period of 12 years, Downie and Barron (2000) surveyed how students attending a Scottish university viewed evolutionary theory. Although there were a small number of those who rejected evolution, the researchers found that the majority of these students were religious (86% on average across the different years) and their rejection was for religious reasons. The two main religious traditions that were associated with the rejection of evolution in this study were Islam and Christianity. More generally, Smith (2010a) argues based on his review of other empirical studies that religious worldviews, especially Christian fundamentalism, are negatively related to acceptance of evolution. Indeed, Mazur (2004) shows that monotheistic beliefs are also the strongest predictor of rejection of evolutionary theory among the US public.

Other religious worldviews that are not based on monotheistic beliefs, such as Eastern religious traditions, may also influence understandings of biological evolution. For example, a large scale survey of 35,000 US adults conducted between May and August 2008 by the Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life (2008) shows that 62% of the Buddhists in the sample believed in nirvana, the liberation of the soul from the effects of karma and from bodily existence in which a person is ultimately free from suffering, desires or senses of self. About the same proportion of the Hindu sample (61%) believed in reincarnation, according to which human beings are reborn into the world again and again either in a human form or other creatures depending on karma of the previous life. Although the existing literature is insufficient to know whether individuals holding these religious worldviews accept biological evolution, these worldviews may impact their understanding of evolution in some way perhaps in relation to the role of reincarnation in evolutionary processes.

Turning to the influence of religious worldviews on student learning of evolution, we now focus on those associated with monotheistic religious traditions, Woods and Scharmann (2001)'s study showed that students in their sample perceived religious worldviews as the main cause of conflict when learning about evolution. Similarly, Yasri and Mancy (2012) showed that learning about evolution caused considerable emotional conflict and tension for some students who held monotheistic worldviews. More specifically, about half of their interviewees were found to rely solely on religious beliefs, specifically in the form of a literal interpretation of the Bible, when dealing with contents of evolutionary theory. Although they could learn and pass the subject successfully, they either had no deep engagement with it or attempted to find evidence against evolution by focusing on its limitations. University students participating in Clores and Limjap (2006, p. 72)'s interview study provided similar responses. For example, while one participant affirmed that his religious worldviews "were capable of giving secured answer [sic] rather than evolution theory which is doubtful", another two stated that they believed in creationism "because only God knows what will happen in the future and why things are happening in this world." (p. 73).

Moreover, based on the evidence collected from learners in their respective studies, various authors describe the process of learning about evolution for many of those holding religious worldviews in strong terms as eliciting "real, deep and emotionally painful" (Meadows, Doster, & Jackson, 2000, p. 104), "emotional loss" or "existential anxiety or even crisis" (Evans, 2008, p. 263). Students who experience this kind of tension are usually presumed to learn about evolution solely for the purpose of passing tests and examinations (Dagher & BouJaoude, 1997, 2005; Woods & Scharmann, 2001; Yasri & Mancy, 2012). In sum, a religious worldview that necessarily implicates some form of supernatural that directs creation or the cycle of life is often perceived as incompatible with the naturalistic basis of evolutionary biology. The evidence therefore points to the importance for science educators and biology teachers of better understanding the roles of religious worldviews on student learning about evolution in order to support students to learn more effectively as well as to promote a classroom environment where religious students could learn evolution more comfortably.

NATURALISTIC WORLDVIEWS

Of course, not all students have been raised to be, or choose by themselves to be, religious. However, this does not mean that they do not possess a worldview. In fact, W. W. Cobern (1997) points out that how individuals understand something is rooted in their worldview. So, when students rely on science to make sense of natural events around them, they are adopting a worldview which many scholars believe that it is associated with naturalism (Matthews, 2009; Scott, 2005). Scott (2005) explains that there are two different versions of the philosophy of naturalism. One is *methodological naturalism* which Scott considers to be the fundamental stance of the modern sciences. It is this perspective that is employed when people adopt scientific

methods to explain natural phenomena by natural causes. It therefore assumes natural causes; should non-natural causes or phenomena exist, these are outside the scope of what can be explained by science. It is therefore “a limited way of knowing, with limited goals and a limited set of tools”, such that if supernatural phenomena do exist, science is insufficient to understand the whole of reality (Scott, 2005, p. 67). If methodological naturalism is the sole lens one uses to interpret the world, the associated worldview is a naturalistic one. However, we note that subscribing to methodological naturalism does not preclude holding a belief set that includes supernatural phenomena, so methodological naturalism may be combined with religious beliefs in religio-naturalistic worldviews, as discussed in the next section. The other perspective is *philosophical naturalism* which differs from the former because it assumes that no non-natural phenomena exist and thus that all phenomena are subject to investigation by science (subject to the usual constraints of scientific practice). The worldview of those who subscribe to this view is therefore naturalistic.

Turning back to the influences of the naturalistic worldviews on evolution education, a number of student participants in a number of studies (e.g. Clores & Limjap, 2006; Taber et al., 2011; Yasri & Mancy, 2012) adopted naturalistic worldviews in their learning of evolutionary theory. Adopting methodological naturalism, two students in Yasri and Mancy (2012)'s study fully accepted evolution as a scientifically valid explanation of the emergence of biological diversity. When learning evolution, these students separated science from religion based on their different focuses (questions) of the reality and different approaches to gain understanding about the world. To them, learning about evolution was limited to scientific questions and methods. They did not reject the importance of religious worldviews; however, they perceived that they are beyond the scope of science. Similarly, another two students in Clores and Limjap (2006)'s interview study adopted this naturalistic worldview focusing on the nature of science when learning about evolutionary theory. They solely perceived evolution as evidence-based explanations and make no reference to religious worldviews.

Unlike these students adopting philosophical naturalism, Priscilla, a student participant in Clores and Limjap (2006)'s study, seems to extend the realm of science to judge that religious worldviews, alongside myths and superstitions including beliefs in God and divine creation, do not meet the criteria of scientific explanations as they are solely based on human explanations rather than experimental and observational evidence about the nature. Along these lines, students in Taber et al. (2011, p. 16)'s study considered that religious claims and scientific explanations of the origins are genuinely in contrast and thus they had to choose one over the other and selected a scientific perspective. More specifically, while Ben was concerned that natural phenomena need to be explained on the basis of natural causation (elements of methodological naturalism), he further claimed that religious worldviews are doubtful because there is no proof to show that miracles exist, referring to this as “it’s quite unbelievable” and “a bit funny” (elements of philosophical naturalism). Dean, who

considered that the reality has to be scientifically explainable argued that religious worldviews such as divine creation or God-inspired religious texts (e.g. the Bible) “are just a sort of idea that not very imaginative people sort of think” and that he did not believe in miracles because a miracle “defies the laws of nature”. In sum, therefore, those adopting a naturalistic worldview treat claims of the supernatural as either outside the realm of scientific testing. Claims of the involvement of supernatural powers in relation to creation are therefore treated as either ‘wrong’ in the case of philosophical naturalism, or must be interpreted in a way that fits with scientific findings in the case of methodological naturalism.

RELIGIO-NATURALISTIC WORLDVIEWS

In the examples above, the students seem to apply either religious or naturalistic worldviews when dealing with evolution education, generally preferring one over the other (religious worldviews or philosophical naturalism) or setting them apart (methodological naturalism). However, in many other cases, the two worldviews are found to be mutually influential, leading to compatibility between them, and thus biological evolution is can be be accepted and integrated into religious worldviews. For example, a number of scholars including scientists, theologians and philosophers, manage to reconcile their religious worldviews with acceptance of evolution and their professional role, including Alexander (2009), Collins (2006), Lennox (2007) and Tracy (2008), for example, claiming that evolution is the tool that God uses to generate the diversity of life forms.

In educational settings, two students in Yasri and Mancy (2012)’s study were able to reconcile the relationship between religious and naturalistic worldviews in different ways. Specifically, while Pavee adopted a worldview in which scientific discoveries can be fully integrated into his religious worldview as the handiwork of divine, Apai believed that the religious worldview itself is limited and thus has to be refined by scientific understanding. In addition, for Apai, the more he understood about the mechanisms of the natural world, the more he was amazed by the “intelligence of the Creator”.

Three students in Taber et al. (2011)’s study took an approach which is similar. Alisha did not form a strong position for relating the two worldviews. However, she was keen to utilise knowledge from a naturalistic worldview to solidify her religious one as she suggested that religious faith is “a big part of everyone’s lives, and so discovering your actual faith by going through it with science and the actual reasons would be a big help to everyone” (p. 10). Anita was open to any possibility in which religious and naturalistic worldviews could be reconciled. She referred to one possible way to do so and that is similar to Pavee’s approach. She said “when you think about it deeper like with the big bang, we don’t know why it happened, it could have been God creating the universe with the big bang ... we can’t deny that the big bang probably did happen, but we still don’t know what like made it happen” (p. 11). Similar to Anita, Dominic expressed that “I wouldn’t say evolution necessarily

contradicts [creation accounts] because it could be God [who] created animals and they just evolved into us or something like that” (p. 12). He also pointed out that “I like to think that science might be proving religion in a way or religion might help scientists”. In sum, apart from those holding either a religious or a naturalistic worldview, there are those who integrate both science and religion into their religio-naturalistic worldviews; in this case, evolution can be accepted alongside a belief in God.

CONCLUSION

Learning about evolution is indeed complex phenomenon, influenced differently by different worldviews ranging from religious, religio-naturalistic, methodological naturalistic to philosophical worldviews. Some of these may enhance student learning of evolution, but others may hinder it. We believe that the examples above demonstrate that evolution education is not simply the matter of content presentation by teachers or knowledge acquirement by students, but a matter of conceptual reformulation for individuals “to see the world in new and different ways” (Sinatra, Brem, & Evans, 2008, p. 189). We therefore encourage other science teachers and educators to take an active interest in worldviews in evolution education.

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*Measuring the Awareness of the Iraqi Students at Yarmouk University (in Jordan) of
the New Iraqi Sociolinguistic Semantics*

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Background of the study

The Iraqi Society has witnessed new linguistic semantic after the American occupation in 2003 to Iraq. The new situation has generated lot of idioms and words, which have been emerged from the real situation especially from the social, political and religious situations. Due to the new situation in Iraq (after 2003), many idioms and words start to have variety meaning than that they actually carried, such as, if one says that he/she is a translator that means he/she is working with the American troops and no other meaning or interpretation came in mind. Thus, logically we have to call the new words, and idioms, which are driven from the society as sociolinguistic semantic idioms.

In the present research, the researcher presents the new vocabularies, words, and idioms as they are used in the daily life in Iraq, in this respect the researcher measures to what extent the Iraqi students, who study at Yarmouk University (in Jordan), know the meaning of the new semantic words and idioms which the Iraqi people (who live in Iraq) use in their daily life.

Introduction

During the periods 2003 to 2013 a new framework of ideas about human beings and their societies was developed in the work of a wide variety of thinkers in Iraq. In particular, a new preoccupation with the social world emerged. This began to be seen as a specific and important realm of human activity in Iraq.

The researcher believes that focus on the social world generates new questions about human history, political and economic activity, and forms of social interaction. This questioning of the social world was based in a new spirit of inquiry that no longer looked to tradition, to classical authors or to religious texts for certain knowledge.

Any living language or speech continues throwing up new words, idioms or lexicon units in the form of phrases or sentences or sayings or proverbs. This is how a lexicon continues to grow and enrich itself. We now have dictionaries and professional outfits to keep a watch on new words and coinages but the language has been growing for centuries and adding words to its domain uninterruptedly.

The researcher recognizes that medical and scientific terms are created by specialists; so also is the case with various other branches of knowledge. But here, in Iraq, we are concerned with the phenomenon of words and idioms emerging from common speech and then acquiring a distinct existence and place in the commonly accepted usage.

Perhaps language developed after man acquired the ability to form words and felt the need to name objects—though we can only speculate about such things. We can also presume that in the beginning naming things and objects was a simple affair, as one word stood for one particular object or thing.

Though we depend on language to say things logically, the way a language develops is hardly logical. For example, why is a spoon called a spoon? We have no logical answer to this question. The process of word formation and their acceptance becomes even more complex and mysterious when we move from objects to thoughts and ideas and concepts. Abstract notions cannot be directly perceived through our senses yet through language we are able to express and communicate thoughts, ideas and concepts among ourselves and even from generation to generation (Mac Lutin, 2004).

We may have different understanding or definitions of freedom, liberty and equality but early in life we begin to understand what they stand for in our cultural and social environment. Such words develop their meaning through time and social space and even keep changing their meanings in the changing contexts.

Thus, we cannot say precisely how a language develops and then ceases to be spoken and written as did the classical languages like Sanskrit, Pali, Latin and Greek. Currently, much interest centers on new words, idioms and lexical units that have been entering the English language in recent times (Ibid, 2004)

Historical linguistic research has traditionally assumed that new dialects emerge gradually as the result of the spread of languages due to the migration of part(s) of their speakers to new locations or due to the relative isolation of part of the population in geographically relatively inaccessible locations such as mountainous areas. Social dialectological work (Labov 1963; Britain 2002) has also identified factors such as negative stereotypes, local rivalry and the absence of public transportation, as causing or enhancing dialect divergence. Finally, the bulk of sociolinguistic research has strikingly demonstrated that social factors such as class or social group membership, age, ethnicity etc. play an important role in constraining patterns of interaction and thereby contribute to the divergence of dialects/varieties (——, 2008).

While dialectological and traditional sociolinguistic research on dialects implicitly or explicitly maintains that linguistic differentiation comes about due to gradual language-internal processes of change, language contact is typically invoked as a prime factor in the emergence of diaspora varieties of a language. Cases in point are diaspora varieties of Hindi (e.g. Siegel 1988, 1990, 1997; Mesthrie 1991) and (new) varieties of English (cf. Kortman and Schneider 2004). Siegel, for instance, has identified the following kinds of processes besides independent language-internal development as having played a role in the emergence of new varieties of Hindi (e.g. Trinidad Hindi, Mauritian Hindi, Guyanese Hindi):

1. Dialect mixing: mixing of features from different regional and local varieties.
2. Formal simplicity: regularization and reduction of categories and loss of inflections.
3. Dialect levelling: loss of input dialect features due to selection of equivalent features from other varieties
4. Focussing: stabilization of a new variety based on the input varieties; sometimes mainly based on a majority variety

In the creation of (new) varieties of English that arose in bilingual and multilingual contact settings (e.g. Singlish English, Irish English), processes of contact-induced language change such as borrowing, convergence, L2 acquisition and substratum influence (cf. Thomason and Kaufman 1988; Winford 2003) have been invoked as having had an important impact in their formation (Migge and Léglise, (2011).

The Iraqi society as any other society has witnessed the emergence of new idioms (due to the new circumstances which caused by wars since 2003) which gradually become part of the everyday life conversation.

The researcher classifies the new idioms into four categories. The first is the idioms which are associated with death, fear, and terror; the second is the political idioms; the third is the common terms; and finally the idioms which associated with terrors.

Idioms which are Associated with Death, Fear, and Terror

- 1- Alalaseh (العلاسة): This idiom refer to the person who blow-up another person to a military party in order to kill him/her.
- 2- Qanas Baghdad (قناص بغداد): This idiom refers to the person who has high skilled to benefit from any chance face him/her in life. The origin of this idiom is the "Bagdad's sniper" who takes the advantage of any chance available to him to kill anyone from the American Army.
- 3- Ameliaat Alkhatuf (عمليات الخطف): This idiom means kidnapping. This idiom is one of the daily life phenomenon overall Iraq.
- 4- Khammat (خماط): This idiom refers to the person or group to people who kidnap the others in order to ask for ransom. This idiom was used to describe the person who took others rights.
- 5- Alsayaf (السياف): This idiom refers to the person who deprives people to get a job or stay in their work. The name is borrowed from the person who is responsible to cut the head of the criminal (The bladder).
- 6- Rami A'ashwa3'I (رمي عشوائي): This idiom means un-random shooting. Usually when one of the American Patrol attacked, they start shooting fire everywhere and in all directions. So when one die due to this action they said that he/she dies due to the Rami A'ashwa3'I.
- 7- Mudahamate (مداهمات): This idiom refers to the sudden raid which the American or the Iraqi troops do every day to the Iraqi families, and which usually end by killing or arresting one or more person of the family member.
- 8- Feraq Ale'adam (فرق الاعدام): This idiom refers to the group of people who kill anyone who is against their believes. They are usually working under a certain leader who has authority and power.
- 9- Obwa nasifa (عبوة ناسفة): It means IED. It is one of the daily life phenomenon.
- 10- Hezam nasif (حزام ناسف): It means belt bomb. This kind of bomb is used to kill people especially in the crowded area.
- 11- Sayara mofakhakhah (سيارة مفخخة): This idiom means car bomb. It is one of the daily lives Phenomenon.
- 12- Juthath-Majhulat Alhawia (جثث مجهولة الهوية): This idiom means unknown body. This idiom refers to the people whom being killed and found their body in the street or in the landfill without any identity.
- 13- Resalat Tahded (رسالة تهديد): This idiom means a threaten letter. It is a daily life idiom used by the terrorist to warn people to leave their house or their work. The letter usually contains a gun bullet.
- 14- Ware Alsada (وره السدة): This idiom means behind the piles of soil. The terrorist used to through the body of the people which they killed in a place called ' Alsada'. It is a district locates in Baghdad, and behind this place there is an empty land, the family usually goes there to search among the dead bodies for their relatives.
- 15- Mofakhakhah (مفخخة): This idiom means trap-Bomb. This idiom is one of the daily life phenomenon; it is the most used idiom among the Iraqi people.
- 16- Almeleshiat (الميليشيات): This idiom means Militia. This concept is associated with assassinations and horror.
- 17- Alsahawat (الصحوات): This idiom refers to a group of tribes which supported the AlQaida and then when they discover their real goals and objectives, they start to fight them, so it is a kind of a wake, thus they call them 'the waken'.
- 18- Al Moqawama Al sharefa: This idiom refers to the group of people who resist the occupation, and fight the American troops only and no other one.
- 19- Al Mujahedeen (المجاهدين): This idiom refers to group of people who fight in the name of Islam.

- 20- Muhajar (مُهَجِّر): This idiom refers to any person who the armed militia force him/her to leave his/her house and live in another area or district, due to doctrine causes.

Political Idioms

- 1) Soqut Baghdad (سقوط بغداد): This idiom refers to the first day of occupation of Iraq. All the Iraqi people from north to south call the first day of the American occupation 'Soqut Baghded' because it was the first city which failed in the hand of the American's troops during the American invasion to Iraq.
- 2) Al Hakim Al madani (الحاكم المدني): This idiom refers to the American civilian governor. The person who run Iraq during the first three few months after the occupation. The first one was Jay Garner and then Braemar.
- 3) Qawa'm Tahaluf Al Ahzab (قوائم تحالف الأحزاب): During Saddam Hussien regime, there is only one party who rule the country, after the topple of Saddam Hussein regime, the American administration has allowed the establishment of parties, thus each group establish its own party and then they organize themselves in alliances to enter the parliament election.
- 4) Al-Muhaasasa (المحاصصة): This idiom means quota. This idiom becomes common after the American occupation, which means that the political parties which won in the election divide the power of the republic ethnically and doctrinally.
- 5) Al-musalaha Al Watanih (المصالحة الوطنية): this idiom means conciliation between the adversarial parties who participate in the government for the sake of the Iraqi people interests.
- 6) Al Hokuma Al Montakhabah (الحكومة المنتخبة): This idiom refers to the government which appointed by the American civilian governor under the American occupation.
- 7) Wahat Al Democratia (واحة الديمقراطية): This idiom means oasis of democracy. The American president Bush (the Father) who had used this name to describe the future of Iraq after the topple of Saddam Hussien regime.
- 8) Federal System.
- 9) Al Iraq Al Etehad (العراق الاتحادي): it is a temporary name suggested by the members of the Iraqi parliament to be given to the provinces before separating them according to the ethnical ideology.
- 10) Al Moqawama Al syasia (المقاومة السياسية): This idiom is used by some political parties which means to resist the American occupation methods through political procedures.
- 11) Haia't Al Nazaha (هيئة النزاهة): This idiom means impartiality. This idiom is used after the American occupation to assess government's activities.
- 12) Qanoon Edarat Al Dawla (قانون ادارة الدولة): This idiom means 'Administrative law'. It is an intern constitution set by Braemar the civil governor of Iraq.
- 13) Majless Al Hukum (مجلس الحكم): This idiom means aformation which contains many parties which appointed by Braemar, the civil governor, to run the country. (Each person becomes a president of Iraq for one month only).
- 14) Al dustor (الدستور): This idiom means constitution. It is the formal document which had been written by the elected government under the American occupation, and has been voted on.
- 15) Al seada (السيادة): This idiom means the sovereignty. A term used by the Iraqi politicians which applied in America only.
- 16) Quwat muta'adedat Aljenseaat (قوات متعددة الجنسيات): This idiom means the Multinational troops. This idiom is used by the government to refer to the occupation troops in general and the American force Army in particular, instead of calling them occupiers.
- 17) Quflat (قفلت): This idiom means locked. This idiom refers to the traffic Jam, and the check point.

- 18) Hawajez (حواجز): This idiom means barrier/block. This idiom is used to refer to the check point, and the cement barriers which are distributed in the streets.
- 19) Cantonat (كانتونات): It means cantons, this idioms means provinces.
- 20) Judran Al fased Al Taa'fi (جدران الفصل الطائفي): This idiom means sectarian segregation walls. They are ready made walls, made from cement and the American troops use them to separate the areas according to their doctrine.
- 21) Ijtethath Al Baa'th (اجتثاث البعث): This idiom means eradication anyone who was a member of the Arab Baath socialist party.
- 22) Qanoon Al Adala wa Almussaa'la (قانون العدالة والمسائلة): This idiom is the modern name of Ijtethath Al Baa'th' (اجتثاث البعث)
- 23) Dawlat Al Raa'ess (دولة الرئيس): This idiom means state president. This idiom is appeared after the occupation of Iraq, which means the prime minister.
- 24) Al Marjea'ea (المرجعية): It means a group of religious men. This idiom is an old one, but after the occupation, it starts to refer to the religious men who participate in the government or become a member in the parliament.
- 25) Duwal Al Jewar (دول الجوار): It means the neighboring countries. This idiom is referred to Iran and Syria.

Common Terms

- (1) Tokook (الطقوق): It means the person who becomes suddenly very rich. This idiom is referred to the persons who steal the banks during the first day of occupation and become very rich.
- (2) Al Hawasem (الحواسم): This idiom refers to the groups who looted the ministries, banks, schools, universities etc....., during the first week of the American occupation. It is the most famous idiom in Iraq.
- (3) Watania (وطنية): Nationality, this idiom refers to the electricity power which supplied by the government, they call it 'watania'.
- (4) Chatel (جطل): It means to have electric power from other sources than the original source.
- (5) Hadeqa (حديقة): It means garden. This idiom refers to the jobless person. They call him ' Hadeqa' since he/she always sitting in the garden to spend time.

Idioms associated with terrors

- 1- Hummer: Hummer is an American vehicle. When one say hummer in any place in the world, the people associate it with luxury and wealth, but when one say Hummer in Iraq it means only one thing, that is the American Hamvy Vehicle. Hummer in Iraq is associated with death, arrest, and Horrors.
- 2- Thuraya satellite phone: when one mentions this name in Iraq, the people associated it directly with the espionage. During the first day of the American occupation, appeared some people who had thuraya satellite phone and have a direct contact with the American troops to inform them about the strategic targets which had facilitated and accelerated the occupation.
- 3- Luxury period (زمن الخير): This idiom is used by all Iraqi people and even by the politicians to refer to the period of Saddam regime.
- 4- Prince (أمير): This idiom is associated with terror and Fear. Since it is a title name of the leader of Al Qaeda in Iraq. In other countries, prince is associated with leader, wealth, power, high rank and etc.
- 5- Letter (رسالة): when one say I have received a letter, the only thing came in mind that he has received a threaten letter.
- 6- North of Iraq (الشمال): This idiom is associated with stability and luxury life.

- 7- Drill (درييل): This idiom is associated with killing, since the terrorists have used drill to kill the people when they kidnapping them.

Statement of the problem and question of the study

The researcher notices the fact that most of the Iraqi students who live in Jordan do not know most of the idioms that are being used by the Iraqi people who live in Iraq. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate to what extents do the Iraqi students aware of the meaning of the new idioms, which have been appeared and emerged from the real situation of the society after the American occupation to Iraq.

Significance of the Study

This study aims at informing and teaching the Iraqi students who live outside Iraq of the new idioms which are being used in the society in order to understand and being understood when they communicate with their relatives, friends, and family inside Iraq, or when they come back to Iraq.

Population of the Study

The population of the study is all the Iraqi people who live in Jordan.

The Sample of the Study

The sample of the study consisted of 85 Iraqi students who study at Yarmouk University, the sample was chosen randomly from six faculties at Yarmouk University.

Table 1

Distribution of the sample according to the faculties

Faculty	gender	
	Male	female
Education	5	9
Engineering	9	12
Art	4	9
Fine Art	2	5
Science	9	13
Law	6	2
Total	35	50

Table 2

Distribution of the sample according to the years of arriving to Jordan

Year	Gender	
	Male	female
2003 -2005	11	15
2006 -2007	23	18
2008- 2010	6	9
2010 -2013	1	2
Total	41	44

Instrument of the Study

The researcher has designed a test (Appendix A) to measure the students' awareness of the new sociolinguistic semantic which have been appeared in Iraq after the American occupation in 2003.

Procedures of the Study

The researcher has distributed (during his visited to Jordan in Feb, 2013) a test to the participants and asked them to give the meaning or explanation of each idiom.

The Results of the Study

After distributing the test to the students, the researcher calculates the frequency and percentage of each idiom. The results are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Frequency and Percentage of the new Idioms

No.	General Idioms	Frequency	Percentages
1.	Alalaseh	16	18.82
2.	Qanas Baghdad	3	3.52
3.	Ameliaat Alkhatuf	83	97.64
4.	Khammat	12	14.11
5.	Alsayaf	2	2.32
6.	Mudahamat	68	80.00
7.	Feraq Ale'adam	56	65.88
8.	Hezam nasif	85	100.00
9.	Sayara mofakhakhah	85	100.00
10.	Ware Alsada	14	16.47
11.	Rami A'ashwa3'I	67	78.82
12.	Obwa nasifa	85	100.00
13.	Mofakhakhah	85	100.00
14.	Juthath-Majhulat Alhawia	74	87.05
15.	Resalat Tahded	43	50.58
16.	Alsahawat	17	20.00
17.	Al Moqawama Al sharefa	3	3.52

18.	Al Mujahedeen	46	54.11
19.	Muhajar	83	97.64
20.	Almeleshiat	85	100.00
Political Idioms			
1.	Soqut Baghdad	85	100.00
2.	Qawa'm Tahaluf Al Ahzab	3	3.52
3.	Al Hakim Al madani	79	92.94
4.	Al-musalaha Al Watanih	11	12.94
5.	Al-Muhaasasa	14	16.47
6.	Al Hokuma AlMontakhabah	29	34.11
7.	Wahat Al Democratia	0	00.00
8.	Al Iraq Al Etehadi	27	31.64
9.	Al Moqawama Al syasia	0	00.00
10.	Haia't Al Nazaha	2	2.32
11.	Qanoon Edarat Al Dawla	6	7.05
12.	Majless Al Hukum	79	92.94
13.	Al dustor	85	100.00
14.	Al seada	83	97.64
15.	Quwat muta'adedat Aljenseaat	85	100.00
16.	Quflat	4	4.70
17.	Hawajez	81	95.29
18.	Cantonat	0	00.00
19.	Judran Al faseel	38	44.70
20.	Ijtethath Al Baa'th	72	84.70
21.	Qanoon Al Adala waAlmussaa'la	4	4.70
22.	Dawlat Al Raa'ess	19	22.35
23.	Al Marjea'ea	69	81.17
Common Terms			
1.	Tokook	81	95.29
2.	Al Hawasem	85	100.00
3.	Watania	77	90.58
4.	Chatel	8	9.41
5.	Hadeqa	18	21.17
Idioms associated with terrors			
1.	Hummer	78	91.76
2.	Thuraya satellite phone	7	8.23
3.	Luxury period	85	100.00
4.	Prince	41	48.23
5.	Letter	23	27.05
6.	North of Iraq	36	42.35
7.	Drill	9	10.58
8.	Duwal Al Jewar	17	20.00

Table 3 shows that the most known idioms are the idioms which can be guest from its meaning or the students know them because they refer directly to the thing that they describe such as, Ameliaat Alkhatuf (97.64), Obwa nasifa (100.00), Hezam nasif (100.00), Sayara mofakhakhah (100.00), and Soqut Baghdad (100.00). While the idioms which emerge due to social and political events are absolutely unknown such as Al Moqawama Al syasia (00.00), Wahat Al Democratia (00.00), and Haia't Al Nazaha (2.32). Some idioms the students miss

interpret them, they give the literal definition of the idioms such as Alalaseh (18.82), Alsayaf (2.32), Qawa'm Tahaluf Al Ahzab (3.52).

In addition, the researcher calculates the frequency and percentage of students' awareness of the new idioms according to the year when they left Iraq as shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Students' Awareness of the New Idioms according to the Year when they Left Iraq

Year	Frequency	Percentage
2003 -2005	7	8.23
2006 -2007	9	10.58
2008- 2010	28	32.94
2010 -2013	41	48.23
Total	85	100.00

As shows in table 4 the students who left Iraq between 2003 and 2005 are less known the new idioms, while the percentage is increased during 2008 and 2010 to reach the climax in 2013.

The researcher concludes that not all the Iraqi people know all the idioms which appeared after the occupation in 2003; even they hear them every day in the news or in daily life. Some idioms seem to be imposed to the Iraqi society and the people used them without knowing their deep meaning such as ' Fereq aledam, khamat, saddameen, Dahaya Alnietham Al sabic, and a like.

The researcher recommend to publish a note book contains all the new idioms with brief explanation of their surface and deep meaning in order to be understood.

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Appendix A

Faculty:

Year when left Iraq:

Gender:

Dear student,

Write the meaning of each word and idioms and try to guess the idiom which is not familiar to you.

No.	General Idioms	
1.	Alalaseh	
2.	Qanas Baghdad	
3.	Ameliaat Alkhatuf	
4.	Khammat	
5.	Alsayaf	
6.	Mudahamate	
7.	Feraq Ale'adam	
8.	Hezam nasif	
9.	Sayara mofakhakhah	
10.	Ware Alsada	
11.	Rami A'ashwa3'I	
12.	Obwa nasifa	
13.	Mofakhakhah	
14.	Juthath-Majhulat Alhawia	
15.	Resalat Tahded	
16.	Alsahawat	
17.	Al Moqawama Al sharefa	
18.	Al Mujahedeen	
19.	Muhajar	
20.	Almeleshiat	
Political Idioms		
1.	Soqut Baghdad	
2.	Qawa'm Tahaluf Al Ahzab	
3.	Al Hakim Al madani	
4.	Al-musalaha Al Watanih	
5.	Al-Muhaasasa	
6.	Al Hokuma Al Montakhabah	
7.	Wahat Al Democratia	
8.	Al Iraq Al Etehadi	
9.	Al Moqawama Al syasia	
10.	Haia't Al Nazaha	
11.	Qanoon Edarat Al Dawla	
12.	Majless Al Hukum	
13.	Al dustor	
14.	Al seada	
15.	Quwat muta'adedat Aljenseaat	

16.	Al Tawabeen	
17.	Qufat	
18.	Hawajez	
19.	Cantonat	
20.	Judran Al fased Al Taa'fi	
21.	Ijtethath Al Baa'th	
22.	Qanoon Al Adala wa Almussaa'la	
23.	Dawlat Al Raa'ess	
24.	Al Marjea'ea	
25.	Duwal Al Jewar	
Common Terms		
1.	Tokook	
2.	Al Hawasem	
3.	Watania	
4.	Chatel	
5.	Hadeca	
Idioms associated with terrors		
1.	Hummer	
2.	Thuraya satellite phone	
3.	Luxury period	
4.	Prince	
5.	Letter	
6.	North of Iraq	
7.	Drill	

*Education for the Elderly - Challenging Paths to Personal Competence, Wisdom and Sustainable
Paths of Societal Solutions*

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Abstract

Education for and with the elderly is becoming more important these days. It helps people to find and strengthen a fulfilling and challenging mature life. Following different modes of support, as there are autobiographical and social approaches and issues about competence and tertiary socialization, a wide range of empowering and fascinating opportunities is unfolding within education for the elderly. Recognising the competence and importance of the elderly highlights their significance and participation in society. It creates fields of integrity for them as well as chances for them to participate in initiatives where people seek and find various sustainable paths to solutions. Encouraging an elderly citizen's personal continuing education, knowledge and wisdom is extremely important for the individual on the one hand and our whole society on the other. Education for the elderly is part of our common future(s) and how happily and positively we are going to create our old age and ways to live in sustainable peace.

This presentation will show several inspiring ways of working with elderly people within these educational settings. It will excite your curiosity and strengthen hope for this sphere of action. It illustrates how dreams can come true with advanced age through educational programs and encourages you to try some funny educational examples if you would like to do so. Welcome!

Keywords: Education for the Elderly, Encouraging Sustainable Initiatives of Elderlies, Sekem, Guided Autobiography Groups, Intellectual Competences in Old Age, Empowerment

Introduction

May I start by telling you how I am associated with this topic of elderly people? I am a client-centred psychotherapist, psychologist and person-centred supervisor, working in private practice, as well as a lecturer at the University of Salzburg, Department of Educational Science. I teach about Psychotherapy with the elderly on the one hand and educational issues concerning old age and how to get old happily on the other hand. And I am also responsible for taking care of students who are training to become a psychotherapist at the University. Before this engagement I was involved in executive management for many years, building up and leading several programs and projects for the elderly within the field of Health- and Social-Services. I did this with great commitment for the Austrian Red Cross in Salzburg for many years. – One important part of this engagement of mine was to develop several programs of Older Adult Education with the aim of strengthening elderly people's potential and lowering their burdens. And this is obviously especially true for caregivers of the elderly in general and caregivers of individuals with dementia in particular.

This means that I am familiar with scientific work in Gerontology as well as practical points of view. I'm not going to talk about one specific research outcome in particular now, but this field of interest in general, and my scientific and practical know-how will flow into it. As we all know, education for and with the elderly is becoming more important these days. It helps people to find and strengthen a fulfilling and challenging mature life, and more.

Following different modes of support, as there is the autobiographical and the social approach and issues about competence as well as other emphases, a wide range of empowerment and fascinating opportunities is unfolding within education for the elderly. Recognising this competence and importance concerning the elderly highlights their significance and participation in society. – Well! These are the topics I am going to talk about today!

Let us Start with an Example

I would like to tell you that I am planning to include some practical examples too. Because I think this makes it easier to understand – in a creative way.

Therefore let me begin by inviting you to participate in a small and funny exercise, right away!

It gives a quick impression of how elderly people find their way into a fun atmosphere, when coming to a training group. – Some people tend to be a little bit frightened in the beginning. When they come into a group where they have to do or say something unfamiliar, it's easy to see the risk that anxiety is arising quickly, isn't it? This following "piece of cake" is decentralizing and opens people up and puts them in good mood.

Please! Just try it yourselves!

It's a so-called "Tongue Twister". Please say it aloud and as quickly as possible! Just start with it right now:

“There was a fisherman named Fisher
who fished for some fish in a fissure.
Till a fish with a grin,
pulled the fisherman in.
Now they’re fishing the fissure for Fisher.”
(Mr. Twister 2013)

And another trial!
“Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.
A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.
If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers,
Where’s the peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked?”
(Mr. Twister 2013)

There are several versions available in different languages! For example, Hawaiian, Italian, Zulu! Good fun! And it reduces uncomfortable feelings in terms of what is right or wrong. This is very important when you’re working with elderly people.

Demographic Challenges Offering Room for Hope and Elderly Education

Dear colleagues, I guess you all know at this time there are billions of people living on our planet. In 2011 we reached a very impressive landmark. Do you know how many people have been living on the planet since 2011? May I ask you this?

Seven billion people are living on this planet, and meanwhile we have got a few million humans more, of course.

Another question!

Please imagine you would like to take a photo of all these people that are now living on the planet. A little bit more than seven billion people standing very close, as you know it from group pictures in your family or at work. They are standing shoulder to shoulder. And now please have a guess: How big does an area need to be where they are standing? Is it an area like Great Britain? Or Vienna? Or all over Europe? Or New York? Africa?

You would need an area as big as Los Angeles. In fact that would be a field of one thousand and two hundred (1200) square kilometres, which is equal to about 500 square miles.

That’s not really much, is it?

Most people I have asked lately thought it would need to be a far bigger area.

And now please have another quick guess how long it would take to say “cheese” in approximately all six thousand nine hundred (6900) languages that are currently spoken on earth. – Please imagine a helicopter flying there and somebody, a photographer, saying “cheese” in at least six thousand nine hundred (6900) languages. And then you hear it click. Done – you’ve got a photo of them all. – Please have a guess. How long will it take to say these “cheeses”?

It will or would take an hour to say “cheese” in all approximately six thousand nine hundred (6900) languages spoken on earth. (Holmes 2011; P: 26)

If all these people would like to have a little bit more space, you could also imagine them being in Texas. All of them would have plenty of room to live, if they lived in Texas, when living as close as people do in the metropolis of New York. (Kunzig 2011, P: 69)

That’s not really much space, is it?

Looking at this inner picture of yours now, can you feel and see how much room there is left on this earth? Room and space for hope and for plenty of elderly people!

Looking at it, it seems familiar somehow. And the impression is growing that we can make it – a good life on earth for everybody. All our societies on earth have therefore a real and reasonable hope of finding solutions, as well as their elderly people and children and their grandchildren. Together we can find various ways and paths for a better life.

And by the way, you have just heard one of the challenging topics of elderly education!

Societal Opportunities Through and With the Elderly

Jean Ziegler was elected a member of the Advisory Committee of the United Nations Human Rights Council in March 2008 und later, as the first UN Special Rapporteur on the right to food. He has demonstrated vigorously that our planet offers resources to feed twelve (12) billion people. He says:

“In a world overflowing with riches, it is an outrageous scandal that almost 900 million people suffer from hunger and malnutrition and that every year over 6 million children die of starvation and related causes. We must take urgent action now. This is my ongoing fight for the right to food.” (Ziegler 2013 Online)

It’s a small world!

And time is short.

Hold on!

There are enormous opportunities available in society through the elderly!

Will we chance it?

I have just mentioned Jean Ziegler who states that our planet could give a good quality of life to twelve (12) billion humans. It is the matter of distribution and spreading that needs to be changed.

Who is willing to stand up? Are we opening our hearts and finding paths of hope for a promising future?!? To find ways how to do this, the wisdom of elderly people all over the world could be enormously helpful.

Finding challenging paths in critical situations ... is never easy, as we all know. Who wants to face serious problems really and can stand it? – It needs encouragement and the courage to face life.

And this is by the way another issue being discussed in elderly education!

Mature People Who Offer Their Wisdom

The new generation, 50plus, 60plus, 70plus, and so on, has a lot of potential! Just have a look at a few of them and how they achieve their potential.

Ibrahim Abouleish – Education as Foundation for Various Economic Options

Let us start, for example, with Dr. Ibrahim Abouleish, who was born in 1937. He founded the remarkable SEKEM initiative.

After living in Europe for many years, he went back to Egypt, where he originally came from. Inspired by the philosophy of Rudolf Steiner he started to build up a wonderful project on an untouched part of the Egyptian desert, 60 kilometers northeast of Cairo. Mr. Abouleish intended to realize his vision of sustainable human development. And he did this by integrating economic, societal and cultural life. Comprising schools, art, economy and more – it is a widely spread initiative.

His wisdom and engagement has created a lot of blessings.

“Today, SEKEM is regarded as a leading social business worldwide” – this can be read on its website. And this is especially remarkable and emphasized by the fact that Dr. Abouleish was honored with the prestigious “Right Livelihood Award”, also known as the Alternative Nobel Prize, for this work. (Abouleish 2013a)

And if you continue reading his and their website looking for their emphasis towards education at SEKEM, you’ll find the words:

“Education is the foundation of holistic human development and advancement of all. Learning throughout life enables people to improve their living conditions and contribute to the development of the community and the country.”

(Abouleish 2013b)

As his example shows, very, very many blessings can start, when committed – old – people make up their minds, reflect on what they know, extract wisdom from what they’ve been going through, take their money and act for good.

Realizing one’s precious, wise and practical experience opens new perspectives of hope, new chances and opportunities.

And this is of course true for people all over the world. And for some, like us, it is even a little bit easier, since we’ve got enough to eat, a good living and future plans we can think about.

Whether you live in Italy, Great Britain, France or Austria. Get started – golden agers!

Open up!

Get empathic and emphatic and think about what you can do for society!

It’s a small world!

And time is short.

Remember! There are enormous opportunities available in society through the elderly.

Will we take the chance? Will there be more and more educational programs for elderlies to help them recognize their wisdom?

Or shall we wait for a prince to solve all the problems on our planet and within our crisis-shaken societies?

Hopefully we will stand up, open up our hearts and perspectives, willing to find beautiful and happy thoughts and paths of hope for a promising future.

Therefore hold on! Make up your mind, best agers! It's time ...

Very well then! There is a lot of potential that can be made accessible through promising educational work with mature people – no matter whether they are 60 years of age, 80, 90 or older.

So let us have a look, how they can get supported while developing their wisdom!

Betty and Jim Birren – and Their Work with Guided Autobiography Groups

I shall look for it by thinking of a very famous, wise and respectable elderly couple in Gerontology, named Betty and James E. – called Jim – Birren. Both of them have served in the field of Gerontology for many, many years. And both are still engaged with helping other elderlies to find their wisdom through guided autobiography groups & life reviews:

“James E. Birren, Ph.D. ... is a living legend in the field of Gerontology. ... Jim's early research had an experimental base and he studied cognitive change and aging. Since developing the course, Guided Autobiography, more than thirty years ago, he has devoted much of his time and energy in the area of autobiographical studies.” (The Birren Center 2013a)

“Betty Birren, M.A. ... was the first Executive Director of the California Council on Gerontology and Geriatrics (CCGG). ... When Jim taught the first Guided Autobiography course at the Summer Institute at USC in the 1970s, Betty took the class. After that, Betty has been by Jim's side, co-leading Guided Autobiography classes whenever possible.” (The Birren Center 2013a)

A great way how to find out what you could and would like to contribute in society when you are 65 years or older, is to participate in an autobiography group. And the impressive work of Jim and Betty, as well as their friends and colleagues shows, how much joy this creates!

Please learn more about this life-enhancing work of Jim and Betty and their friends by having a look at their Website and/or by participating in one of their interesting groups right away!

Guided Autobiography (GAB) and the Tree Of Life

Betty Birren, the busy autobiography-group-worker was also the “first female president of the Palisades Lutheran church”, which is located in Southern California. She “served two terms”. (The Birren Center 2013a)

And indeed, many parishes are involved in guided autobiography too if you look for them in Austria. Many educational institutions, especially church ones, also like to mix this biographical approach with spiritual inspirations when using specific tools. – However, no matter whether you are attending a course in a religious setting or another, the “tree of life” will most likely pass your way if you turn towards these exciting groups.
Please take one of these handouts with a tree on it!

The Tree as Symbol of Life

Blossoms and buds. --- What would I like to develop new or pick up again, flower and develop?

Leaves. --- What am I enjoying in my current life? What is important? What do I really need?

Fruits. --- This is what I have accomplished. What has turned out well? This I can do very well and therefore I am proud of it.

Trunk and bark. --- This has shaped me and my life decisively.

Roots. --- This gives me food and consistency in life. Here I am anchored. This gives me strength.

These topics and questions (Arand & Münchheimer 2004, P: 42) are translated from German to English and come from a chapter (P: 40-42) called “Der Lebensbaum”, which means “The tree of life”, written by Arand, A. & Münchheimer, A. (2004), in a book edited by Sautter et al (2004) called “Leben erinnern”, which means “To look back on one’s life”.

Please keep your paper with this beautiful Austrian tree on it. May it serve to inspire you in case you would like to think about your answers. - Let me close this part of the work with words from the website of Jim and Betty Birren and friends:

“Research has shown that sharing our lives through story provides a strong connection with others and gives us deeper insight into our personal past. GAB creates a great beginning for pulling one’s life stories together for family members and future generations. ... You can write the story of your life ... one page at a time.” (The Birren Center 2013b)

Intellectual Capacities in Old Age and How to Strengthen Them

To round it up and to come to yet another very important aspect of education for and with the elderly, I want to call your attention to the intellectual competences in old age.

And yes, this is of course an interesting issue within elderly education on its own too!

As you probably all know we talk and think about fluid and crystallized intelligence, which is a concept first proposed by Raymond Cattell. (Horn & Cattell 1967)

Fluid intelligence refers to the intellectual processing capacities of our memories, and it has a long history of research. (Bugg et al 2006) Results show quite clearly how much good we can

do to our intelligence through training. Although fluid intelligence shows an obvious slowing-down the older we get, training and passionate encouragement (with activities we really want to do), as well as physical exercise, is very helpful in partially preventing or reducing this gradual intellectual reduction and slow-down. (Ascheron & Kickuth 2005, P: 34-37)

Crystallized intelligence otherwise refers to our longtime memory, experience and personal wisdom. It can continuously grow and remain stable until the seventh life-decade.

While fluid intelligence deals with information processing, memory and figural combinations, crystallized intelligence is connected to the abundance of words, one's lifetime and intellectual achievement, wordiness and social intelligence.

And please let me mention as a subordinate clause in this concern – autobiography work is well connected within crystallized intelligence and adapts fluid intelligence too.

A complex spectrum of training skills is available to optimize fluid intelligence (Ghisletta et al 2012), like for example various memory training exercises where you can choose whatever you like. – To give you an impression of how easily it can work, just have a look at the following words.

So called “Schüttelwörter”, as we name them in German, and you may call them scrambled words or anagrams, are words that have been “shaken” and who's letters got confused. For finding out their meaning you need to put each letter in the correct order. And on we go!

NTETIRGIY	(INTEGRITY)
WRFEOL	(FLOWER)
DSMOWI	(WISDOM)
RSEASNFI	(FAIRNESS)
SANIHPESP	(HAPPINESS)
EUALPSER	(PLEASURE)
NADGER	(GARDEN)

Doing this kind of memory training connects and strengthens our contacts between the nerve cells, the branching of neurons in the brain. It can also add new synapses as there are several different types, like the neuromuscular end-plate, if I may just mention one of them. It is very interesting that we can develop and build up many new connections between neurons in our brains through training, and in particular that this does definitely not stop with old age!

„Use it or lo(o)se it!“ are the magic words of psychobiological research on plasticity of our brain. (Rosenzweig & Bennett 1996)

Gardening by the way is associated with lower risk of subsequent dementia, just as social leisure activities, as travelling, knitting and odd jobs. (Fabrigoule et al 1995)

Feeling good and meeting lovely people is very important.

Lively. Fantastic. Since man does not live on bread alone.

Having fun and receiving positive regard can furthermore be measured in our body by looking at neurobiological processes. As the neurotransmitter Serotonin, for example, is

connected to optimism, balance and good mood. Glutamate is a very important neurotransmitter for learning and our long-term memory (LTM). And Endorphin and Enkephalin can smoothe pain and strengthen calmness. – While mirror neurons help us to understand each other in a better way, since they are allowing us to empathise and share fantastic emotions with others while we are happy. (Carter 2012)

Elderly Education can also Help and Lower Burdens In Old Age

Not everybody wants to be continuously involved and active. Some elderlies suffer from multimorbidity.

“Multimorbidity is the co-occurrence of two or more chronic medical conditions in one person. Multimorbidity correlates with age and might represent the most common ‘disease pattern’ found among the elderly.” (Multiborbity 2013)

And the older someone gets during old age, the higher the risk persists to suffer from multimorbidity.

If life is getting particularly hard, and rough, you need to have or find friends who will take their time to stay with you in your despair. You might get help. And then you have a chance of not feeling like hitting the ceiling. Especially if you are disoriented as well, you desperately need help and support, to be able to still live with dignity and pride.

For these suffering and needy elderly people, it is very important to get those educational offers that may comfort and inspire them as well as their caregivers. Day-care-Centers usually specialize in this direction, and combine it with various medical programs, and some kind of specific activity and memory training that assist and facilitate their ability for independent living.

Conclusions

You and I – live and learn – as many elderly persons.

We do have enough to eat and are making plans. Hopefully, in comfort, with dreams that may come true. – Being part of a distinguished initiative is indeed very challenging and satisfying for everybody, for mature people too of course, wherever they are. The lovely and important side-effect of this encouraging fact is that at the same time elderly people are engaged in challenging initiatives, they also train and develop their memories, their social skills, creativity and their physical movements. Their enormous profit in terms of prevention is further on, that this behavior reduces their risk of getting dementia.

Elderly persons can and often do chair important initiatives and foster divine processes of growth: They can help themselves and us in society to navigate small or large “ships of hope”. They can act as chairman or pass their chair – anyway. They may be volunteers or other. - They can help. And they can do whatever they want to do.

Therefore, the more educational programs we offer, to encourage and strengthen them, the better!

A wide range of empowerment and fascinating opportunities is unfolding within education for the elderly. Recognising their competences and importance highlights their significance and participation in society. It creates fields of integrity for them as well as chances to participate in initiatives where people seek and find various sustainable paths to solutions.

Encouraging an elderly citizen's personal continuing education, knowledge and wisdom is thus gaining very significant importance for that person on the one hand and our whole society on the other. Education for the elderly is part of our common future and how happily and positively we are going to create our old age and possible ways to live in sustainable peace.

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*Developing International Collaboration and Trust Through the Use of Modern
Technology as a Means of Creating and Implementing an International Model for
Teacher-training in Multicultural Education*

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The European Conference on Education 2013

Official Conference Proceedings 2013

The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (IAFOR) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by two large, overlapping circular arcs: a light red arc on the left and a light blue arc on the right, both of which are incomplete and do not fully enclose the text.

This research analyzes the educational managerial processes and technological tools that facilitated the development of international collaboration in a project aimed to promote curriculum reform in multicultural education for teacher training. This project, Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training (acronym DOIT), unites 21 different academic institutions in 7 different countries and over 90 different professionals attached to these institutions.

Following a brief literature review that presents different strategies, processes and tools that promote or hinder the collaborative processes and different approaches to multicultural education, a case study analyzing the collaborative culture and structure of DOIT is presented. The findings suggest that international collaboration is facilitated through applying diversity management principles that are supported by modern technology.

Literature Review

Researchers have documented different stages and processes involved in establishing international project collaboration. These stages include the conceptualization of the project, project design, budget planning, building the international team, establishing a work plan and schedule, developing consensus and collaboration, delegating tasks, language, communication, developing assessment tools, overseeing quality assurance, maintaining reports, dissemination and sustainability, and more (Bowman 2009; Glatter & Kydd 2003; and Khang & Moe 2008).

Developing international educational programs of curriculum reform have additional challenges since often there are many different educational approaches to various types of curriculum reform. Researchers have shown that a shared vision among the partners, including the key stakeholders of their institutions or organizations, is a crucial factor that contributes towards the success of a project (Aaltonen et al. (2008); Eskerod & Jepsen (2013); and Lavagnon & Thuiller (2010)). Fullan (2001) moreover states that this shared vision needs to have a common moral purpose and leadership that is fully committed to the moral purpose if the change is to have long-term impact.

Establishing a clear shared vision based on a common understanding of concepts such as multicultural education is extremely challenging given that there are many different views and approaches to multicultural education. While some multicultural educational programs are focused on transforming knowledge, others focus on changing attitudes, interpersonal behavior, institutional structure or even society aiming to eliminate social inequality, racism, gender and class oppression (Allport 1954; Banks 1993, 2008; Cotton 1999; Merrick 1988; Rosado 1997; and Sleeter & Grant 1987).

Therefore a program aimed at curriculum reform in multicultural education raises many challenges, especially in the process of achieving consensus and a shared vision. Communication among the partners in any international project is shown to be crucial in developing a common understanding and commitment to the main objectives of any program (Campbell & Lassiter 2010; Rico, Alcover, Sanchez-Manzanares & Gil 2009). Research has highlighted how diversity management processes (e.g., inclusion, transparency, equity among partners, availability for

feedback, etc.) promote supportive, efficient, and open communication among members of the project which are important factors in the success of any program, especially international ones (ASAE 2011; Rosado 2006; Gilbert, Stead, & Ivancevich 1999). Processes in diversity management also contribute towards maintaining transparency and building trust in collaborative programs which research has also pointed out as contributing towards developing and implementing successful international projects. (Campbell & Lassiter 2010; Seymen 2006; Rico, Alcover, Sanchez-Manzanares & Gil 2009).

Diversity management processes also include the importance of enabling feedback as well as creating equity among the members of the organization. Researchers who have examined global partnerships in which professionals work together to develop a common curriculum for their students, have documented the importance of mutual contribution and equality among the partners that enable "all participating partners to learn from one another" (Starke-Meyerring, Duin & Palvetzian 2007 p 153).

The involvement and inclusion of key stakeholders is another factor that many researchers have found to be crucial for successful programs and building collaboration among the partners. Pinto and Slevin (1988) and more recently Diallo and Thuillier (2004) and Lavangnon, Amadou and Thuillier (2012) have shown that the involvement of key stakeholders through all of a project's stages contributes to its success. For building collaboration within the universities, the inclusion of faculty in the process of implementing curriculum change in universities has also been highlighted to be important (e.g., Sng 2008; Rowley et al. 1997; and Eckel, Green & Mallon 1999).

Briere and Proulx (2013) also point out that international projects that manage to succeed beyond the conceptualization stages were based on inclusive, collaborative work structures combined with the commitment of the key stakeholders in the institutions have a positive impact on the success of the program beyond the conceptualization stage. Moreover they assert that a key factor for success includes competent management and communication skills of the project leader.

The important role of project leader has been noted in other researchers. Sofer (2011) discusses in detail the importance of the leadership and communication among the partners in implementing international initiatives based on curriculum reform and maintains the importance of:

Leaders who are committed to the concept...and make decisions based on what is best for the program as a whole; leaders, who provide clear instructions for work and establish reasonable but exact deadlines; leaders who are visible and available to answer questions efficiently, quickly and through a variety of channels...and, the establishment of a communication system that is open and transparent which enables the sharing of knowledge and ideas were shown to be crucial for successful international collaboration (pp. 185-186).

Technology has been found to contribute to building international collaborative relations in many fields, especially in the field of science. For example, Trycz and Catani (2010) demonstrate how their portal design facilitates international science collaboration. Freshwater, Sherwood and Drury (2006) research demonstrates the importance of information technology and communication systems in the exchange of

information and ideas among international partners, and in the building of personal relations and collaborative research in the field of nursing. Other researchers have examined the role of technical communication in international collaborative curriculum development noting its benefits and challenges (Craig, Poe & Rojas 2010). Starke-Meyerring and Wilson (2008) have pointed out that there has been little research on the actual development of the collaborative processes that include relationships among the partners who work together to create new pedagogy. The focus of many collaborative projects has been on the beneficiaries of these programs, for example students who enroll in a course that was developed by an international team, and not the professionals who worked together to develop these international programs (Starke-Meyerring & Wilson 2008). The focus of research on international collaborative projects is the end result of the "products" created, and not with the process that contributed to the results. The actual structure and culture of the relationships among the partners and the role of technology as a tool which may promote the collaboration process in curriculum development, with the exception of a few studies (e.g., Craig, Poe & Rojas 2010), has not been studied in great depth.

The following case study examines the managerial approach, processes and technology that facilitates and characterizes DOIT's international collaboration.

Background

In August 2012 the European Commission's selection of TEMPUS (Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies) IV grant applications was published. One of the programs selected was an Israeli TEMPUS initiative of Gordon Academic College of Education (GCE) titled Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training (DOIT). DOIT unites over 90 faculty and students in 26 different higher educational institutions (HEI), student unions and NGOs in 7 different countries. Israeli and Georgian HEIs are the central focus and beneficiaries of DOIT's program of curricular reform and make up 20 members of the partnership. HEIs and one NGO from the European Union Countries of the United Kingdom, Germany, Austria, Netherlands, and Estonia are also members of DOIT.

Methodology

A case study approach based on a narrative account of DOIT's coordinator, interviews with DOIT members, and the field monitoring reports from Brussels' project officers were used to understand the processes involved in developing DOIT's collaborative processes.

Case studies have historically have been used by anthropological ethnographic work for almost a century (e.g., Boas 1920; and Malinowski 1922; 1961) as well as in other disciplines (e.g., medicine, law, and political science). Creswell (2007, p.73) views case study research as the study of a specific topic through one or more examples (cases) within a specific setting and as a qualitative approach. There are different types of case studies. The one used in this study is the single instrumental case study in which the researchers are selecting a theoretical issue (in our case, the conception, development, and implementation plan for curriculum reform) and selects one bounded case to illustrate this issue (Ibid.,74). Following Yin's (2003) analytic

strategy for analysis, the approach taken in our research will identify theoretical issues that are interwoven in the case study described.

Through the narrative account of the coordinator as well as open and semi-structured interviews, and the field monitoring reports from Brussels, insights were gained on DOIT's collaborative processes. Following Levin-Rozalis's (1998) retrospective summary evaluation approach, this study examines how the collaborative processes and objectives were achieved interweaving the various aspects of diversity management and technology that explain these processes. A total of five open or semi-structured interviews of DOIT members from four institutions in three countries supplements the narrative description of the coordinator of DOIT.

All interviews were conducted in English, a second language to all interviewees who are competent and fluent in English.

Background: Gordon Academic College of Education TEMPUS Applications

Gordon Academic College of Education (GCE) submitted applications to TEMPUS grant of the European Commission programs twice: the first submission in February 2011 was not selected, but the second attempt in February 2012 was selected as one of the TEMPUS programs. The aim of TEMPUS programs is to contribute to the development of higher education between HEI of European member countries and their partner countries in Central Asia, North Africa and the Middle East through collaboration and the sharing of knowledge among their faculty (McCabe, Ruffio & Heinamaki 2011; EACEA 2010, pp.14-15). TEMPUS programs require that a partnership be formed that includes at least three academic institutions in the applicant country, two academic institutions in one partner country of the European Union and one academic institution in three different European Member Countries. In order to be eligible for a Tempus grant, a minimum of eight academic institutions in five different countries need to link together and develop a two or three year program (EACEA 2010).

It is within this mandate of developing an international collaborative program that GCE developed the TEMPUS grant proposal: DOIT. GCE, located in Haifa, was established in 1953 and offers courses of study leading to a teaching certificate, B.Ed. and M.Ed. degrees. The demographic make-up of both the academic staff and the student body of the GCE reflects the multicultural character of Haifa and northern Israel. In 1997, GCE was the first academic college of education in Israel to establish a center for multicultural education, The Multicultural Educational Resource Center (MERC). The main objective of MERC is to provide pre-service and in-service teachers with tools in multicultural education that promote intercultural relations and understanding (Sofer 2011, p.187). MERC has been recognized internationally by various organizations involved in promoting democratic behavior and multicultural education. Many educational missions from Europe, the United States and Asia have visited MERC.

The first attempt: Building a Culture of Trust Among the Partners

Sofer (2011) described in detail the development of the first TEMPUS proposal and the recruitment process of partners. She explains in detail how the key stakeholders

within GCE were co-opted into the program and then how she utilized their professional networks as well as the network established through MERC to build a consortium (2011, pp.187-194). Eleven different academic institutions in seven countries were members of GCE's first TEMPUS application. Although this first submission was not selected for funding, the culture of communication and interaction among the partners was established through applying principles of diversity management to the structure of the relationship within consortium. Sofer (2011) explains:

it was essential to make certain that a project relating to multicultural education and cultural diversity training of teachers, would structure the interaction and relationship within the consortium according to the principles of cultural diversity values and management models (p191).

In this first application, an inclusive open manner of leadership and communication was established in which members were able to view and comment on the different aspects of the program and the writing of the grant. Each member of the consortium received a copy of each section of the application and had the opportunity for suggesting changes (Sofer 2011 pp.196-199).

The Second Tempus Submission: DOingIT!

GCE's first submission for the TEMPUS grant was not selected. While some members of the first consortium decided to leave, a core group of HEI in Israel and Georgia remained in the consortium. New HEIs in Israel, Georgia and the EU were asked to join DOIT's consortium. The coordinator of DOIT made a special trip to Georgia for face to face meetings with potential partners, to make certain that all of the key stakeholders in each institution were committed to the main objectives of the program. Through Skype meetings, the coordinator of DOIT met the new members of the EU teams and even had Skype meetings with the rectors or Faculty Heads of some of these universities to be certain that they were committed to the principles of the program aimed at curriculum reform in multicultural education and the promotion of children's and human rights. Aaltonen, Jaako and Thomas (2008) and Lavagnon, Diallo and Thuillier (2010) pointed out that those collaborative programs that have succeeded, made certain that the key stakeholders of the organization share in the objectives of the program. The coordinator, by making certain that the HEIs' key stakeholders were supportive of the DOIT project, ensured that a foundation for collaboration and support was established at the highest level of administration.

The coordinator continued the same principles of transparent, inclusive and open communication that were established in the collaborative processes of the first application in writing the second application. During the application process for DOIT, a Moodle workstation was established on GCE's website that enabled more visible and transparent joint work. The application was divided into its different sections and drafts of the application, which were uploaded by the coordinator for feedback and comments. Each member of DOIT's consortium, including heads of departments and universities, had access to the Moodle workstation. Over 90 people were registered and although not everyone actively participated, all could view the progress of the work being done and could access each section of the application. Thus inclusive transparent open collaborative work, which has been highlighted as

being important in other studies (e.g., Gilbert, Stead & Ivanacevich 1999; Campbell & Lassiter 2010; and Rico, Alcover, Sanchez-Manzanares & Gil 2009) was set in motion during this preparation stage of the project.

When developing DOIT's program for multicultural education for teacher training, each member was able to promote and discuss the approach they felt would be best for their institution, either online through the workstation or through Skype meetings. The DOIT team was able to create an application that reflected their vision of multicultural education and their vision for promoting children's and human rights. Starke-Meyerring, Duin and Palvetzian (2007) have specifically pointed out the importance of enabling all partners to contribute as equals to the development of programs. The application process that was established for DOIT promoted the sharing of objectives and development of a collective vision.

One member of the DOIT team explained:

During the preparation process new ideas and approaches emerged from online meetings, emails ,etc...these processes have enriched not only the initial sketch of the project but the participants' attitudes towards the whole concept of multicultural education.

The application was submitted in February 2012 and in August 2012 the European Commission's selection of TEMPUS IV grant applications was published and DOIT was one of the selected programs.

DOIT's Collaborative Work Teams and the Structure of Relations

The official project start date for TEMPUS projects selected in August 2012 was October 15, 2012. DOIT's first kickoff consortium meeting was held between, October 24-29, 2012 in Tbilisi. Many issues arose relating to budget, agenda, transportation, hotels, etc. that were resolved through emails, Skype meetings and the Moodle workstation. The first consortium meeting had a participation of over 60 people and included not only the active members of DOIT's teams from 26 institutions, but also the three rectors and presidents from the Israeli DOT universities, whose tasks were to meet their Georgian co-partners and together discuss the challenges of implementing curriculum reform in multicultural education in Georgia and in Israel. Fullen (2001) affirms the importance of having the leaders share a moral vision for long-term change. This first consortium meeting implemented this process by having the rectors of the key Israeli and Georgian HEIs reach a consensus on the importance of promoting multicultural education in the teacher-training process.

The goals of the first consortium meeting included the creation of working teams for academic course development. Each team needed to choose a leader, define the topics of their courses or program, delegate tasks among its members, and set up a schedule of work. According to the application, there were originally five topics for academic courses: Social Dynamics of Prejudice and Education for Human Rights, Pedagogical Approaches that Promote Intercultural Relations in the Classroom, Curriculum Assessment and Development, Understanding Ethnic Diversity in Israel, and Understanding Ethnic Diversity in Georgia.

The establishment of the teams was voluntary but each team needed to include at least one representative from Israel, Georgia and Europe. For the culturally specific courses, the teams needed to include members of the different HEIs that would be piloting these courses. Briere and Proulx (2013) and Staake-Meyerring et al. (2007) maintain the importance of an inclusive structure for successful collaborative partnerships. The inclusion of members from different institutions in the various working teams of DOIT further reinforces the collaborative processes that were set in motion already during the application stage of the project.

When the collaborative work began, each team needed to choose a team leader who would then be responsible for organizing the work, reporting to the coordinator and writing reports. In addition each team needed to come to a common understanding of their approach to their topic and what subjects should be included in their course. The process was difficult and challenging and through collaborative work, even created changes in DOIT's original application's program.

For example, the working team that was formed to create a course on Social Dynamics of Prejudice and Education for Human Rights decided that the two topics should be separated and thus there should be a course on The Social Dynamics of Prejudice and another course on Education for Human Rights. This suggestion was brought before the whole consortium, which reached a general agreement on the creation of two courses, and another working team was established. The new working team of Education for Human Rights decided that it was most important to focus on children's rights since teachers need to be involved and knowledgeable about this topic. Thus, this working team decided to call their course Children's Rights In and Through Education.

Another important change was that the working team on curriculum development felt it was important for them to take on the role of developing the templates for the courses and making sure that the courses fit into the Bologna Agreement, rather than develop a course on this topic. This role was discussed with the coordinator, the quality assurance team, and academic quality assurance team (which is defined in the application) to avoid overlap in tasks. It was decided that in the first year there would be three quality assurance control teams: one would examine DOIT's administrative and communication structure, another team would focus on providing the template for course development teams and oversee this process, and the third would be the final academic assessment team of the syllabi whose task would be to ensure that the content quality of each syllabi is of the highest level.

Rico et al. (2009), Staake-Meyerring and Wilson (2008) demonstrate the importance of enabling all members of the team to participate and offer ideas for successful program development. By implementing these aspects of diversity management that enabled revisions and flexibility, most members of DOIT could identify with the shared objectives and aims of the project as a whole and of their specific working teams in particular. This aspect of the program was also recognized by the Brussels' project officer in their field monitoring of reports. Casanova (2013) wrote 'There is a great sense of ownership by all partners who believe in the project objectives'.

The first consortium meeting was assessed by the quality assurance team and by the coordinator as being a success, since by the 5th day, all the teams were finalized,

group leaders were chosen, tasks delegated, and a time schedule for work to be completed before the next consortium meeting was established.

Over the next 4 months of work, each team leader communicated and worked with their teams through Moodle workstation, emails, Skype meetings, phone conferences and drop boxes. Most members appreciated the way technology was used. For example, a DOIT team member discussed her group's use of Skype meetings and drop boxes:

for my cooperation on an international level, I really appreciate Skype. I also really appreciate the drop box, you can share documents immediately.

Other members elaborated that through working openly with drop boxes and sharing files over email, the collaborative process and trust of working together was reinforced:

There is a great relationship between trust and technology. This relates to frequency of interactions, if you interact with people more frequently of course the trust grows more and more. A sense of trust and cooperation grows and this is directly related to technology.

Although emails were used by team leaders for communication with their team, not all members felt that this was the best method. For example, one member expressed the opinion that emails, although important, can often be misinterpreted. This DOIT team member explained how Skype meetings contributed to the process of collaboration and building trust:

When I write an e mail, I try to be very careful, English is not my first language, you don't always find the right words to be understood ...Hearing voices and intonations on Skype is very appealing as it gives another dimension to what is understood. ... I really like Skype... I need personal contact for work, it is very important for me to hear people and talk to people. I think personal meetings are the best way to build trust.

DOIT's portal (<http://tempus-doit.sapir.ac.il>) was designed in close collaboration with the coordinator, financial manager and key team leaders. The portal was designed to facilitate collaborative work, communicate and share news and to disseminate within and beyond DOIT's consortium. The portal needed on the one hand, protected platform where the academic working teams can collaborate in an open and transparent manner, yet feel secure that their drafts (and not finished products) were available for comment only among the team members.

In addition, there was the need for financial management and the creation of a site in the portal where financial documents and reports could be securely uploaded to the portal for DOIT's financial manager to access and process them. This site on the platform had to be highly secured.

Several important meetings were held between the portal team designers and the coordinator, and key administrative leaders of DOIT. In addition, the portal team communicated with these members and held Skype meetings with key leaders in DOIT's Georgian and EU teams. Thus, the needs of the consortium were taken into account in the initial design and development of the portal and not imposed from the

side of technology. Trycz and Catani (2010) describe how their portal that was being used for scientific collaborative work, and the importance of customizing the work according to the needs of the user (p. 163).

The portal was launched in stages. First the coordinator and financial manager accessed the portal and began testing out certain features. Then in February, during a field monitoring visit of the National Tempus Office in Israel, the Israel DOIT team was able to access and begin working in the portal, providing feedback to the portal technical team about features that they needed and features that did not seem to be functioning as they were supposed to. Constant communication and collaboration between DOIT's technology team and DOIT's coordinator, financial manager and team leaders resulted in a portal that became the center of DOIT's work and dissemination. Trycz and Catani (2010) pointed out the importance of 'test period...the members of the collaboration involved in the evaluation actively helped us by debugging the Portal services and also suggested minor tweaks for usability' (p.164).

In March 2013, at the second consortium meeting in Landau, Germany, the portal was officially launched for the whole consortium and the working teams began, 'live' online work during the conference. Each working team was able to summarize their day's work and also upload articles, drafts of syllabi, etc. The power-point presentations of the plenary sessions were uploaded to the portal so all members of the consortium could refer to the material.

The portal thus became a center for transparency and collaboration that reinforced the relationships of trust among the members. According to DOIT's field monitoring report of July 10, 2013:

The project's portal assures good communication between partners and is an excellent tool for project management (Casonova 2013).

One of the DOIT members referred to the development of the portal and its improved technology:

technology makes the interaction with people you need more intensive, more frequent. A great advantage of technology is the visibility. We can make our work through technology more interactive, more up to date, more actual.

Another member's comment implied that the portal improved communication as emails occasionally were too frequent:

There are too many emails... It is hard to distinguish between information that is really important, and pieces of information that is nice to know...Emails make information faster, not necessarily better. We need fewer emails, more concentrated information

Thus the portal fulfilled this function of concentrating important information in one place, enabling transparent and collaborative work that has been documented as vital for successful programs in other studies that examined international collaboration (e.g., Trycz & Catani 2010; Starke-Meyerring & Wilson 2008).

DOIT's coordinator and working team leaders, through implementing the principles of diversity management which is inclusive, transparent, based on the ability of all members to provide feedback, created a working partnership of 90 professionals associated with 26 institutions in seven countries.

The field monitoring report for Israel from the Brussels' project officer also noted this:

There is a great sense of ownership by all partners who believe in the project objectives...the coordinator is in contact with the working team leaders on a regular basis...the project's budget is managed in a transparent and efficient manner...the senior administration...strongly supports the project and is involved in its implementation. This factor contributes to the success of the project and the exposure of the project to additional stakeholders in Israel...In addition the coordinator has built relationships with senior administration of the partner institutions, which will assist in sustainability...although the project is only in the middle of the first year, it shows great potential to have a significant impact on multiple levels (Casonova 2013).

In addition, the field monitoring report for Georgia in June 2013 also referred to both the progress of the project as well as the collaborative culture of DOIT:

We were positively surprised to see how much your project has already contributed to the facilitating in exchange and sharing of knowledge among professionals involved in education. We appreciated in particular to experience the interesting exchange between the involved participants (including students) and the openness in addressing all kind of different project issues...Overall, the monitoring visit confirmed that the project is progressing well – all planned outcomes have been achieved so far and all activities are implemented with effective coordination and strong motivation of the project team (Steidele 2013).

Conclusion

DOIT is relatively a young project and at the time of the writing of this study--10 months old. The main objectives set for the first eight months of collaborative work from academic development of syllabi to two financial reports, have been completed successfully. The successful collaboration can be understood as being related to multifaceted processes: the involvement of key stakeholders, good leadership and communication. In the process of development of the program, open communication, inclusive participation, and flexibility are keys to the successful development of a culture of trust and collaboration among the partners and faculty. Good leadership, management, planning, training, and support are the key factors that enable the curriculum to be implemented. Technology has complemented and facilitated this collaborative process. It is however, important not to forget the human factors. One member of DOIT so succinctly stated 'Technology did not play a part in the culture of the project, that was personal effort made by some people.' In conclusion, key factors in the collaborative culture that has developed through the project of DOIT can be understood by being the result of many factors, most importantly applying principles and processes of diversity management in the structuring of the relationships and interaction within the consortium. Technology is an important tool in facilitating these processes.

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Mikhail Geraskov (1874-1957) Methodological Concepts of Learning Physics

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Abstract

Mikhail Geraskov is a distinguished Bulgarian educator from the first half of the twentieth century, who developed the scientific foundations of didactics and methodology of training. His work contributed a lot to the development of the Bulgarian pedagogy. The subject of scientific research is didactical conceptions and methodological conceptions of learning. The aim of the research paper is to presents his ideas about particular methods of teaching Physics for high school. Geraskov assumes direct correlation between didactics and methodology. This paper focuses on his ideas about design, technology and methodological requirements for lessons of Physics. He believes that the appropriate methods are determined by the curriculum, set of educational goals and age characteristics, and capabilities of adolescents. In his methodical recommendations he focuses on teaching methods and forms that provoke students' activity. Comparative analysis with publications on the issues set for development of the Bulgarian pedagogic science and the actuality in the modern education system.

keywords: education, design lesson, methods of teaching, classroom practice, historical pedagogy

Introduction

Mikhail Geraskov is a distinguished Bulgarian teacher from the first half of the twentieth century, who developed the scientific foundations of didactics and methodology of training. In the period 1923 – 1940 he was a lecturer at Sofia University. The period was characterized by the development and influence of the Herbartianism and the Alternative education. During this period at the University taught some of the distinguished Bulgarian educators - professors Dimitar Katzarov (1881-1960), Petko Tzonev (1875-1950), Hristo Negentzov (1881-1956). In the 1920s at the University were formed two major departments the Department of Pedagogy, (1924) it was led by professor Katzarov and the Department of Didactics and methodology, in 1924 headed by prof. Tsonev who attracts Geraskov of academic activity. The period 1921-1950 was characterized by the launch of the development of university courses in methods of teaching various subjects. Geraskov is one of the erudite Bulgarian teachers.



Mikhail Geraskov (1874-1957)



Mikhail Geraskov with colleagues and students at the University, Sofia 1939

The scientific production of Mikhail Geraskov is voluminous and of a varied content. The scientific areas contain Pedagogy, Theory of education, Philosophy of education, Didactics, Methodology of training, Educational psychology, School law, History of international and Bulgarian education.

Despite all these facts in contemporary Bulgarian historiography scientific publications include separate studies of his ideas. The reason for this is the change of political ideology in Bulgaria. In September 1944 a communist regime was imposed in Bulgaria and the country's political, social and cultural structures were radically changed by the ideology of this regime. Thinking people are a barrier before any dictatorship, therefore the first task of usurpers is terror and genocide on a mass scale against the intellectual class. Some of the books by Geraskov have been on the list of books banned by the government. The Bulgarian cultural life was dominated by the communist ideas for 45 years.

The research paper is part of a scientific study, which explores and analyzes scientific production of Mikhail Geraskov in the field of didactics and methodology of training. The scientific study investigates and presents in implete form the didactical and methodological conceptions developed by Mikhail Geraskov. In the context of this research paper contribution is related to the development of this issue in its entirety. The aim of the research paper is to present his ideas on methods of teaching Physics. The following tasks are:

- to present his views on the scientific status of the teaching methodology
- to analyze Geraskov's basic methodological views for teaching Physics
- to define and show their importance and relevance in modern methods in the Bulgarian education

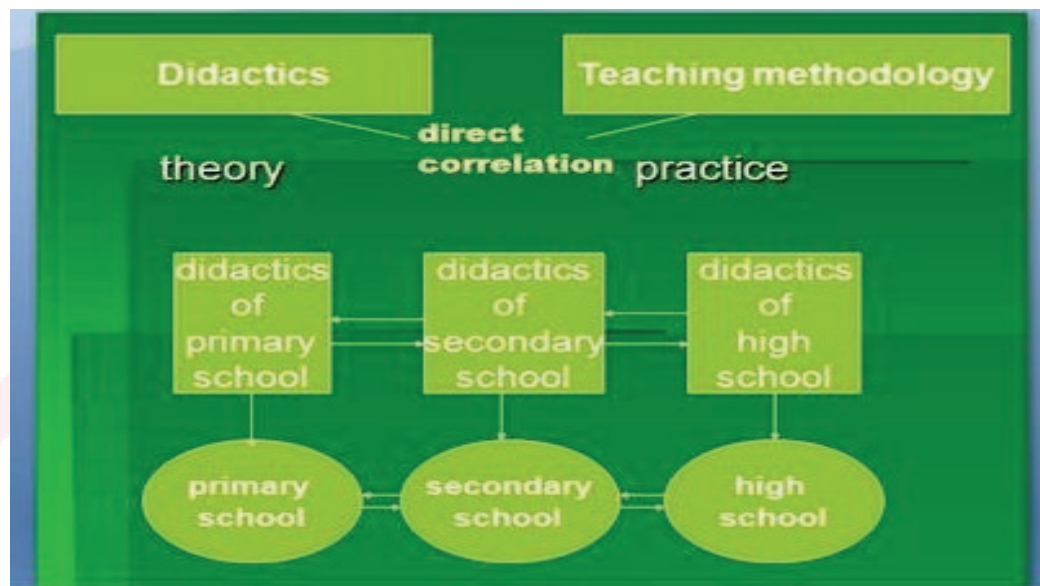
The research is built on the scientific production of Geraskov's work on methods of teaching particular subjects and interpretation of key publications on the topic.

Scientific status of the teaching methodology by Mikhail Geraskov

Geraskov distinguishes didactics and methodology. He believes that didactics contains theory and principles of teaching methods. Teaching methodology contains theory and technique of teaching particular subjects. He assumes that between didactics and methodology there is a direct correlation. Teaching methodology has a specific task - to examine and specify the use of didactic and pedagogical training rules in order to achieve the best educational outcomes. He defines methodology as a special didactics (Geraskov, 1922, p. 3). His view is different from the modern educational theory (Radev, 2005). However his idea about the correlation theory – practice is important. This shows that his idea is still relevant today.

In his view, didactics modify the content according to the development of students. He argues that it is impossible training to be tailored to the individuality of each student. However, it is necessary to develop problems, according to the characteristics of the age groups. He makes the division according to the development of students and determines - Didactics of primary school, Didactics of secondary school and Didactics of high school. Each of them has special task-driven objectives. Compliance with the psychophysiological opportunities for students of different age groups is important and necessary for the education. The author claims that pointing out that in developing the science standards should specify the individuality of students (Geraskov, 1921, pp. 17-20).

This division can certainly be extrapolated as a correlation between didactics and methodology. Didactics of primary, secondary and high school in content are actually modern subject theory. Although Geraskov puts them only according to age groups, he does not give a prescription on curriculum. He recommends specific tasks to involve the organization, compliance with laws and application of specific methods. Such view is close to the modern understanding of the relationship of the individual school didactics and methodologies. In first half of the twentieth century the school levels of Bulgarian education were primary school, secondary school and high school. In his scientific concept Geraskov covers the entire education system. In the modern concept of school didactics there is no such division, but similar differentiation will contribute to improving the quality of education. His idea is modern.



Characteristic of the scientific publication of Mikhail Geraskov in teaching methodology

In 1922 was released the first edition of the book of Mikhail Geraskov *Methodology for primary and secondary education* which is a guide for students in Teachers' institutes, schools, teachers and self-improvement. It is dedicated to the methodology of the particular subjects. The book was reprinted four times consecutively, the second edition was in 1924, the third in 1928 and the fourth - in 1942. This shows the best estimate, which is given to the work of Geraskov. Each edition is tailored to the school curriculum of the Bulgarian educational system and changes in it. In 1946 the book was published under the title *Methods of subjects in school*.

The period was characterized by the development and influence of Herbartianism and European reforming education. In the first half of the twentieth century in the pedagogical literature was using the methodologies of Stephan Basarichek (1848-1918) and Todor Benev (1861 -?). Basarichek was a Croatian educator, lecturer in a teaching school in Zagreb, where he trained many Bulgarians, who would later work in the field of education. He was a follower of Herbartianism. His views had a strong influence on the Bulgarian educational thought and practice to the spread of Herbartianism immediately after the Liberation. His scientific publication was translated into Bulgarian. During this period, many pedagogical literature and books of Basarichek were used for pedagogical disciplines teaching future teachers. In period 1903-1906 were published three volumes of the book by Todor Benev, Sava Velev (1869-1913) and Vasil Nikolchov (1873 -?). They are dedicated to pedagogy, didactics, teaching methodology and history of education. The second volume is *Methodology*. Benev is entirely in the spirit of Herbartianism specific instructions and followed the instructional models of education. During this period, in Bulgaria existed only individual articles, many of which were devoted to the methodology in the primary school. This is inherently Geraskov's great contribution to the development not only of the methodology, but also of the didactics and pedagogy in general. He presents his personal position depending on the Bulgarian reality and educational system.

In the preface to the first edition Geraskov (1922, pp. 1-2) points out the reasons which prompted him to write this paper. The Bulgarian educational print often considered questions of methodology in different subjects, but they were isolated and represented separate and distinct

concepts. The purpose of his work is to give a global and contemporary view, which serves to prepare future teachers and those who seek to enhance their pedagogical training - for self-education of teachers.

In considering methodological issues in individual subjects Geraskov adopts an idea about the subject of the special methodology. In characteristic style Geraskov presents the development of ideas and confirmation of each subject in historical aspect. He points out specific objectives and tasks of the subjects, starting from general educational purposes, the place they occupy in the curriculum and requirements for the selection and order of the material. To achieve his intention Geraskov presents views on the conduct of individual units' methodological subjects and recommends concrete implementation of teaching methods and forms. He emphasizes the relationship with psychology, while examining the methodology and presentation of various subjects puts particular emphasis on the psychophysiological basis of the student. To achieve educational goals and the examination of theory and Geraskov shows that a good methodology and application of each method is in direct correlation with the knowledge of the field of psychology. He focuses on the educational and practical importance of each subject. He presents in detail the particular methodological design of a learning unit.

The historical context of the relationship between didactics and methodology is amended in the process of building a system of pedagogical sciences. This is indicated by modern scholars of Bulgarian pedagogy for example Petar Petrov. In the first half of the twentieth century and before that, methodology is accepted as a normative part of the pedagogical theory and its content presents primarily the specific guidance for teaching (Petrov, 1998, pp. 16-17). This aspect shows the idea about the subject and tasks of the special methodology. The structure is consistent of the presentation and the importance of the subject key concepts associated with it and its development as a science.

Geraskov briefly presents the evolution of ideas and presentation of each subject in historical aspect which is a characteristic of his style of writing. He points out specific objectives and tasks of subjects determined by the total educational purposes. He presents his position about the curriculum and requirements for the selection and order of the knowledge. Geraskov expresses views on the conduct of teaching particular subjects and recommends specific application of teaching methods. This is determined by the compliance and implementation of the principles of education. He emphasizes the relationship with psychology and methodology in addressing the various subjects and puts particular emphasis on the psychophysiological progress of students. He thinks that the best methodology and application of each method is in a direct correlation with the knowledge of psychology. It is important for the educational purpose. He also focuses on the educational and practical significance of each school subject (Geraskov, 1946).

The meaningful analysis of his scientific publication focuses to this problem, in conclusion to that the author consistently adopts his instructional model of education with the four steps in teaching. They are:

- definition of the aim of the lesson
- preparation for teaching the new curriculum material
- teaching new knowledge

- practice knowledge

He adopts a direct relationship between school levels. This is clearly expressed in the setting of individual goals and objectives of training in each subject. He focuses on the methodology of primary school, as it laid the foundations of the education of young people, particularly in reading, writing and arithmetic, which are not only skills necessary for personal and social development of adolescents, but also a prerequisite for higher knowledge scientific fields. Geraskov puts to correlation emphasizes theory – practice (Geraskov, 1921, p. 177).

His instructional model of education should not be directly related to the model of Herbartianism. He takes only a few aspects of this model. The direct correlation between school levels is pronounced by placing individual goals and objectives in teaching various subjects. The three school levels of Bulgarian education, in this period, are primary school, secondary school and high school. Each of them has specificity determined by the psychophysiological progress of the students. This determines differences in recommended methods. Also each subject area requires the use of certain methods. This is especially true for the Natural Sciences of subjects in which Geraskov considered the most appropriate the use of the inductive method. In the methodological views of Geraskov thoroughly is presented the idea of the need to implement a variety of methods. For each school grade in different subjects, he indicates which methods and forms of training are best suited for use (Geraskov, 1944).

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THE INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL OF MIKHAIL GERASKOV	THE INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL OF HERBARTIANISM
1. Definition of the aim of the lesson	1. Preparation
2. Preparation for teaching the new curriculum material	2. Presentation
3. Teaching new knowledge	3. Association
4. Practice knowledge	4. Generalisation
	5. Application

Teaching methodology of Physics

Geraskov's ideas support the development of Bulgarian pedagogical thought, more specifically, he develops methods of teaching particular subjects for high school. It is because in the first half of the twentieth century different scientific publications focus on the methodology for primary school. Contrary to Geraskov in their issues on the methods of teaching particular subjects including the three school levels which are primary school, secondary school and high school. In his methodical recommendations on particular subjects, briefly, specifying certain teaching methods and forms suitable for use in the high school. He believes that the appropriate methods are determined by the curriculum, set of educational goals and age characteristics, and capabilities of adolescents. In his methodical recommendations he focuses on teaching methods and forms that provoke students' activity. This implies to a greater degree the use of heuristic learning and development. Along with the induction for this school degree he recommends more frequent use of deductive method. He emphasizes the need for the exercise of inductive reasoning. Educational content and underlying educational purpose suggested enriching student's awareness through presenting a clear realistic picture and knowledge in various scientific fields in a systematic form. The knowledge must be practical and focused. Geraskov (1946, p. 84) stated that, "Methods of teaching must influence the feelings of the students and their critical attitude towards things in public life".

The educational aim of Physics in high schools is to acquire knowledge of science, scientific methods of observation and study. Physics is an inductive science. This science is the result of inductive reasoning. Thus, according to Geraskov teaching Physics must be based on the experiment. The main method of teaching Physics is induction and parallel with it is the analytical method. Geraskov determines the methods of teaching. They are direct instructional method, induction and deduction. In that process, experience is not mere observation, susceptible to the tricks of our perception, but is based on systematic observation, comparison and verification. The experiments should be conducted exclusively for the purpose of observation and information gathering, followed by the formalization of knowledge (Geraskov, 1928, p. 173).

Geraskov believes in the importance of achieving greater connection between educational purpose, theories and practices on Physics education. He focuses on laboratory activities. The teacher's guidance and instruction have ranged from highly structured to open inquiry. Laboratory activities' goal is to promote central science education goals including: understanding of scientific concepts, development of scientific practical skills and problem – solving abilities, and interest and motivation. Scholarly efforts have identified serious mismatches between goals for science education and learning outcomes visible in school graduates (Geraskov, 1928, pp. 175-177).

The way people learn and process new information that they are taught is one of the many factors that makes each individual person unique. While some people learn quickly by actually performing a task for themselves, others learn better by watching someone doing the task or by simply hearing the task explained. The methods that each prefers for learning is known as their own unique learning style. Geraskov believes for teachers' understanding of their student's learning style can be the key to unlocking their full potential and making difficult concepts seem as easy as they can be. This methodological assumptions of Geraskov is determined by his ideas of significance of psychophysiological progress of students. The teacher must know their students (Geraskov, 1923).

In Physics education Geraskov stresses the value of laboratory experiment and activities, demonstration and models. Therefore, graphic organizers are visual representations of knowledge that can support theoretical knowledge. They provide a frame for teachers and students to visually identify important facts, organize information, and record relationships between facts and ideas. These tools help students to practice higher level thinking skills and apply these skills to real world situations. Different demonstrations, models and experiments help students to remember information, understand how pieces of information are related, better understand the learning material and engagement of multiple intelligences. They are especially effective in explaining and illustrating abstract concepts (Geraskov, 1928, pp. 178-179).

Geraskov creates the lesson plan for forming knowledge of Physics with the four steps in teaching. They are:

- introduction
- engagement in physical experience
- performance characteristics make the phenomenon
- defined as the Physical law
- exercises

In his ideas about structure, technology and methodological requirements of lesson Geraskov firstly sets teachers' preparation and design of Physics lessons. It includes theoretical, practical and methodological aspects. He pays particular attention to the methodology of the teacher about the students' understanding of physical truths and the causal relationships between them. The second condition are teaching aids which are very important. Equipment is needed to produce natural experiments. The experiments in the classrooms must be under school time. He

recommends selecting those that require less time and which are most accessible. In the statement of the new knowledge the teacher makes first physical experience. The experiments are made most often by the teacher, but where possible and appropriate to engage students. This is important for the active participation of the students in training. After performance the teacher points characteristics the phenomenon and the comparison with other similar events. He specifies the relationship and defines the physical law. In drawing a few truths in attempts to observe the sequence. Geraskov writes that the lessons of Physics cannot give an overall scheme, but the statement should follow the main points. The practice knowledge is best if you allow students to perform exercises alone. This can be carried out through experiments with a total exposure to the material or items with practical significance. In this part of lesson, the teacher and the students can make various experimentals. Thus Geraskov puts the emphasis on students' activity. He recommends that outside school hours are appropriate for students to visit places in which to see the practical application of Physics. Practical exercises in physics are important for education. Unfortunately, Geraskov says, most schools do not have the necessary facilities. It is important that these exercises allow students to make at least the most important attempts. Empirical knowledge is very important in learning of Physics (Geraskov, 1928, p. 177). These ideas are close to modern methodology. This highlights the principle of transparency, which is expressed by Geraskov. His ideas are interesting and contemporary. They may support improving the quality of education.

The hygienic working conditions that adversely affect the physiological status of students are very important (Geraskov, 1928, p. 188). In education these subjects presented the idea of environmental and health education, which requires pupils to form a conscious and caring attitude towards their own health and the environment with all its components - physical, chemical, biological, cultural, historical and others. It puts the other cross-curricular education, which as mentioned is expressed as an idea by Geraskov. The idea that physics is an inductive science and focus on the physical experiment in education is in modern pedagogical science (Raykova, 2008). This implies respect for visual principle. M. Geraskov requirements on teacher's education for the learning process have now become outdated. However, the planning and execution of specific physical experiments for achieve clear and thorough knowledge of the students are important points. The idea of Geraskov for activity in the training of students is still current today. Their participation in the conduct of specific experiments, either alone or with the teacher is important.

Methodological concepts and requirements that are present in modern methods show that the ideas of Mikhail Geraskov in this aspect are still relevant. Today it is recognized that the practical experience requirement is related to the logical structure of the curriculum and meets the purpose of the experiment. Proper organization of supervision during the event is important to direct properly the attention of the students. Emphasis is placed and the optimum number of experiments and preliminary preparation of teachers for the experimental part of a lesson. It helps to perform successful and safe experiments. This is connected with the right technique. Clearly expressed is the idea of teaching students to independence of thought and action, giving them the opportunity to perform experiments under the instructions of the teacher. The training presentation of the material should be presented according to age groups - in a narrative or a lecture form, which is preferred in the high school, in parallel with the discussions it is important to combine demonstration of experiments and other visual aids.

In general, these requirements are expressed today in the methods of teaching Physics; they are similar to those posed for the Bulgarian teachers from the first half of the twentieth century when the importance of educational resources was also stressed. Although Geraskov defines them as high school requirements. The model of learning in modern education is different in degree from that of Geraskov's. However his idea of the place of experiment in the exhibition of new teaching material is preserved today. The methodology of training as the most effective approach is considered a removal of physical laws and rules of the experiment.



The Physics classroom in the 1930s



Scientific production of Mikhail Geraskov

Conclusion

The contribution of Mikhail Geraskov in the methods of teaching particular subjects can be seen in several aspects. In the time in which he lived and worked, the Bulgarian pedagogical thought experienced a deficit in its methodological developments. Geraskov fills this gap and it worked very well. His *Methodology* was reprinted several times and is one of the main guidelines for schools to prepare teaching staff. His ideas were highly appreciated and influenced other researchers in this field. He makes a significant contribution to the development of teaching methodology of the high school. He believes in basic principle which emphasize that the school organization must be determined by the specifics of the students' specifics. He presents his personal position. He does not fully accept the ideas of Herbartianism. He wishes the methodological recommendations are guiding thought for teachers in organizing and implementing their practical work, as well as an objective criterion for discussion of issues in this area.

There is a significant similarity with the ideas in modern education. His views of methodology in the high school are actuality in the modern educational system. In conclusion his ideas are relevant to contemporary educational practice.

The model of learning in modern education is different in a degree from that of Geraskov's. However his idea of the place of experiment in the exhibition of new teaching material is preserved (today). His methodological recommendations are relevant for the contemporary Bulgarian education.

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Professional learning communities as transformative spaces?

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Professional learning communities as transformative spaces?

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Abstract

Learning communities appear in educational policies and research as privileged sites of (inter)personal, social and institutional learning related to inquiry, empowerment and change. However, given the co-existence of conflicting rationalities in educational settings, their transformative potential cannot be readily assumed. Transformative professional learning entails a commitment to the democratization of schooling based on the promotion of teacher/learner autonomy through critical inquiry and transformative action. This assumption underlies the work of the GT-PA (*Grupo de Trabalho-Pedagogia para a Autonomia/Working Group Pedagogy for Autonomy*), a multidisciplinary learning community of teachers, teacher educators and researchers founded in 1997 and coordinated by the second author. In late 2011 a naturalistic research study was initiated by the first author to inquire into its transformative potential. Focusing on the findings from seventeen interviews to GT-PA members, a close connection was found between belonging to the community, professional empowerment and autonomy-oriented educational change. However, the gap between the Group's culture and the cultures perceived in professional contexts seems to encourage innovation at an individual level and inhibit the expansion of change. Collective change appears to require a more active engagement in professional settings that is not totally dependent on belonging to the community.

Introduction

Since the late 90s there has been an expansion of community-oriented reforms and innovations, usually associated to social democracy, equity and justice (Unesco, 2012; Savage, 2011). Learning communities appear in educational policies and research as privileged and infallible sites of (inter)personal, social and institutional learning and reform related to collaborative inquiry, empowerment, quality change and social equity.¹ However, their transformative potential cannot be readily assumed because learning communities are not intrinsically good phenomena. Actually, many practices and discourses of learning communities in education constitute examples of “teachers’ and schools’ cosmetic emancipation” (Hargreaves, 1994) and do not entail a political struggle for more democratic and humanistic values. Therefore, learning communities must be scrutinised critically as regards their assumptions and goals, their practices, and their empowering impact (Barton & Tusting 2005; Orellana, 2008; Savage 2011; Thomas & Niesz, 2012; Vieira, 2009; Wood, 2007).

Transformative professional learning entails a commitment to the democratization of schooling based on the promotion of teacher/learner autonomy through critical inquiry

¹ On the value of learning communities, see e.g. Chacón, Sayago & Yuncosa, 2008; Coombe, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999; DuFour, R., DuFour, R. & Eaker, R. (2008); Foord & Haar, 2008; Holly, 2004; Hord, 1997; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Levine, 1999; Lieberman, 2000; Lima, 2012; Little, 2003, 2012; MacLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; Maton, 2008; Maton & Salem 1995; Muñoz, 2009; Raywid, 1993; Retallick, Cocklin & Coombe, 1999; Sergiovanni, 1994; Servage, 2008; Stoll & Louis, 2007; Stoll et al. 2006; Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008; Raywid, 1993; Wenger, 1998; Wenger & Snyder, 2000; Wood, 2007.

and transformative action (Jiménez Raya, Lamb & Vieira, 2007). This assumption underlies the work of the GT-PA (*Grupo de Trabalho-Pedagogia para a Autonomia/Working Group Pedagogy for Autonomy*), a multidisciplinary learning community of teachers, teacher educators and researchers founded in 1997 at the University of Minho (Braga, Portugal) and coordinated by the second author (see Vieira, 2003, 2009; Fernandes & Vieira, 2009).

The GT-PA seeks to surpass the divide between theory and practice, teaching and research, and schools and universities in the production of educational knowledge and change. It aims at exploring autonomy as an educational goal in teaching and teacher education settings, and its members have been actively engaged in the development of studies and experiments, as well as in the dissemination and publication of their work.² In late 2011 a naturalistic study was initiated by the first author, who is a member of the GT-PA, to analyse the dynamics and the transformative potential of this community. Three research strategies have been used – a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview to Group members, and the analysis of the Groups' publications. In this paper we look at data from the interviews so as to understand the extent to which the GT-PA represents a space for the development of professional autonomy towards democratic educational change.

Method

A semi-structured interview was carried out with seventeen GT-PA members: twelve schoolteachers and five university teacher educators/researchers. They were selected in order to represent the Group's diversity in terms of professional context, disciplinary areas, professional roles, and time of membership.

The interview included thirteen questions about reasons for joining the Group, significant episodes as a Group member, the Group's impact on professional development, practices and professional contexts, the Group's culture and the culture of professional contexts, university-school relationships within the Group, the importance of participating in dissemination activities, personal constraints as a member, and factors that favor or hamper the sustainability of the Group. The questions were sent to the participants before the interview so as to ensure trust and time for reflection. The interviews were conducted individually. They were audiotaped, fully transcribed and sent to the interviewees for content validation.

The interviewees' discourse was analysed according to four dimensions of professional autonomy defined by Jiménez Raya, Lamb & Vieira (2007), which are seen as macro-competences necessary to promote a pedagogy for autonomy:

- A. Developing a critical vision of education
- B. Managing local constraints so as to open up spaces for manoeuvre
- C. Centring teaching/teacher education on learning
- D. Interacting with the professional community

Based on the same authors, a set of subdimensions was considered for each dimension (see Table I below).

² At present, the GT-PA integrates more than a hundred teachers and about fifteen academic researchers/ teacher educators from different institutions. The Group meets four to five times a year to share experiences and discuss autonomy issues. Its agenda is flexible and determined by the members' needs and interests. Every two or three years, the Group organizes a national conference to disseminate its work.

Results

The results presented in Table I indicate the presence of the subdimensions of professional autonomy in the participants' discourse (n=17), even though that presence varied among participants in terms of both content and extension.

The following aspects emerged in the discourse of all the interviewees:

- Predisposition to learn and to keep informed about approaches to education and how they can promote learner/teacher autonomy
- Seeing teaching/teacher education as inquiry-oriented activities
- Uncovering constraints to autonomy (their learners' and their own)
- Disseminating experiences and confronting one's voice with other voices in the professional community

Table I. Transformative potential of the GT-PA– discourse evidence (n=17)

<i>A. Developing a critical view of education</i>	
Predisposition to learn and to keep informed about approaches to education and how they can promote learner/teacher autonomy	17
Seeing teaching/teacher education as inquiry-oriented activities	17
Understanding oneself and one's learners as agents of educational and social change	10
Taking a critical stance towards values and ends of (teacher) education	10
Taking a critical stance towards the educational value of syllabi, textbooks or other pedagogic materials	9
Encouraging learners/teachers to be critical towards social and educational values and practices	7
<i>B. Managing local constraints so as to open up spaces for manoeuvre</i>	
Uncovering constraints to autonomy (their learners' and their own)	17
Shaping pedagogical choices so as to open up possibilities for greater learner/teacher autonomy	14
Compromising between tradition and innovation without losing one's ideals	6
Challenging school/university routines and conventions (be subversive if necessary)	6
Involving learners/teachers in finding creative solutions to problems that affect learning	5
Sharing with learners/teachers one's pedagogic beliefs and concerns	4
Facing complexity, dilemmas, conflict, uncertainty and difference as part of teaching/teacher education	3
Articulating the personal aspects of learning with the social/interactive nature of the school/university culture	3
<i>C. Centring teaching/teacher education on learning</i>	
Fostering the self/co-management of ideas and decisions with and among learners/teachers	11
Encouraging co-operation and team work among learners/teachers	11
Fostering the learners'/teachers' self-esteem and willingness to assume responsibility for learning	10

Involving learners and teachers in reflection about substantive and process knowledge	9
Finding ways to enhance the formative role of self/evaluation and the negotiation of assessment	8
Fostering self/co-management of activities (planning, monitoring and evaluation)	6
Encouraging learners/teachers to learn how to collect and analyse data on their own learning in order to better understand their strengths and weaknesses	5
Fostering knowledge of and experimentation with learning strategies in and outside class	4
Collecting and analysing data so as to better understand and improve teaching/teacher education and learning	4
<i>D. Interacting with the professional community</i>	
Disseminating experiences and confronting one's voice with other voices in the professional community	17
Sharing theories, practices and concerns with significant members of the professional community	8
Participating in public debate on issues regarding schooling and education in general	3
Inviting others (learners, peers, mentors, etc.) to help one improve teaching/teacher education and learning	1

The Group is seen by the participants as a source of knowledge and inspiration for the reconstruction and visibility of professional experience, with a positive impact on self-esteem, self-confidence, motivation, and the reinforcement of pedagogic convictions. These aspects are believed to be essential to manage tensions, dilemmas and uncertainties.

When asked to describe the Group's culture and the culture of their own professional context, all participants expressed the idea that there is a huge gap between them. The GT-PA is represented as a community based on democratic and humanistic values such as mutual respect, tolerance, collaboration, intellectual challenge, personal valorization, safety, motivation, well-being, and hope. On the contrary, the professional contexts (schools and universities) are perceived as sites of resistance to change. The interviewees refer to diverse negative characteristics: interpersonal mistrust, conflict, individualism, competition, negative criticism, demotivation, disengagement, routine, and obsession with efficiency and accountability. Let's look at two accounts:

“(...) all of us who come to the GT-PA are eager to learn more and share and learn with one another's criticism. In disciplinary groups [at school], however, teachers are always afraid that there are better teachers or teachers that want to seem better. (...) That's why teachers don't learn much within disciplinary groups. Collaborative work isn't effective. They want it to be effective, but it isn't. There are few disciplinary groups that really do valid collaborative work... due to either personal insecurity or personal envy, or other reasons that I don't understand. (...) In the GT-PA I have always felt that we are a group of people who want to go there and share experiences and get help and feedback from constructive criticism, in a way that we all learn. So I have always thought that everyone goes there in the same spirit and we always had the support from people like the coordinator, people who support us a lot and have never made us feel bad, even when we say something wrong, which we certainly do sometimes... They have always motivated us to go forward. That's how I have always felt in the GT-PA. And that's something I don't feel at school. At school it is very different. (...) Many pedagogic experiences I have done, which I believe should have been disseminated in disciplinary groups so that we could all take lessons from them, were never disseminated. (...) I always had the feeling that people thought 'She believes she is the one that knows everything and does everything'. Therefore, I

demotivated completely. So, I didn't disseminate most of the experiences I developed at school. (...) Not in my school.”(I2: schoolteacher, translated)

“I think the GT-PA strengthens, it has strengthened, my convictions that it is important not to adopt narcissistic and autistic discourses at the university (...) as far as schools are concerned (...) and have realistic discourses instead, as regards what schools are and what they can be.(...) Realistic discourses but utopian at the same time, in a way.(...) The main objective is to value and show what teachers do at schools. (I16:University teacher, translated)

Even though a close connection was found in the participants' discourse between belonging to the community, professional empowerment and autonomy-oriented educational change, the gap between professional cultures and the GT-PA seems to inhibit the expansion of innovation. Actually, only a few participants were able to engage other colleagues in collaborative innovation processes.

Conclusions and discussion

Pedagogical cultures represent complex sociocultural phenomena guided by evolving social representations and interests (Ball, 1987; Fullan & Hargreaves, 2002; Frago, 2007; Guerra, 2002; Hargreaves, 1994; Sarason, 1996), which means that they are ineffable to a certain extent, and generalizations about their nature and impact are always questionable. The study of the GT-PA can only disclose fragments of its diverse, multifaceted and mutating culture(s), but it is certainly relevant as an attempt to interrogate and discuss the community's potential as a transformative space. The study itself enhances that potential since it aims at understanding and transforming the community from within.

There is discourse evidence in the interviews that this community represents a transformative space where members develop their professional autonomy in the service of a pedagogy for autonomy. It appears to constitute a supportive “third space” (Zeichner, 2010) where diverse forms of knowledge converge and participants reflect and interact freely to produce innovation. However, there is also evidence that the community develops against the grain as professional cultures present severe constraints to collaboration and inquiry. Paradoxically, this cultural gap represents the community's ‘raison d'être’ but also its main obstacle as regards the transformation of contexts at large. In seeking to subvert cultures that stifle professional autonomy and democratic educational change, the community seems to be both justified and constrained by those cultures.

Learning communities directed to democratic transformation may create “oasis of public time” (Vieira, 2009: 279), distancing their members from their professional contexts because these represent a vision of education they do not identify with. When institutional cultures are perceived as being alien to professionals' convictions and impermeable to change, they tend to carry out innovation in isolation, away from the public eye, and avoid assuming leadership roles towards enacting wider organizational change. Therefore, institutional cultures may remain unchallenged.

Members of communities like the GT-PA need to realize that their actions are counter-cultural movements created and experienced *within* institutional cultures and are, therefore, part of those cultures. Institutional cultures are not homogeneous and integrate diverse sub-cultures. These need to be made public and debatable. The transformation of professional cultures will be more significant if there is true commitment to personal and organizational questioning and the reconfiguring of power relations towards the development of a “pedagogy of conflict” where dominant

epistemological models are questioned and diversity and dissonance are acknowledged as necessary ingredients of a more emancipatory change (Santos, 2009). Communities like the GT-PA may support this movement, but they are not sufficient. They give voice to professionals and enhance their role as agents of change, but only in schools can teachers struggle for a more collective discussion and transformation of education.

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DOIT, a TEMPUS Project Aiming to Meet Challenges and Implement Transformations in Teacher Training for Multicultural Education

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Abstract

Laying the foundation which reinforces human rights is one of the greatest challenges facing culturally diverse countries today. Teachers are responsible for transmitting values, attitudes and codes of behavior for the next generation of citizens and leaders. In order to prepare their own pupils to participate in civic life and be committed to democratic participation, teachers need pedagogical competencies for lifelong learning tools and skills that promote Multicultural Education and positive interaction between different groups.

This panel discussion presents the first results of a European Commission's TEMPUS (Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies) Call for Projects, titled "Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training" (DOIT). DOIT unites over 90 faculty and students in 26 different Higher Educational Institutions (HEI), student unions and non-government organizations (NGO) in 7 different countries. Israeli and Georgian institutions are the central focus and beneficiaries of DOIT's program of curricular reform but the consortium also includes HEI and NGO from the European Union countries of England, Germany, Austria, Netherlands and Estonia.

The article is organized into three main sections: section one presents DOIT's objectives, consortium and program; second section, presents the panel discussion; section three presents recommendations to professionals who are planning international collaborative projects.

Introduction

This panel discussion presents the first results of a European Commission's TEMPUS (Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies) Call for Projects, titled *Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training* (DOIT). DOIT unites over 90 faculty and students in 26 different Higher Educational Institutions (HEI), student unions and non-government organizations (NGO) in 7 different countries. Israeli and Georgian institutions are the central focus and beneficiaries of DOIT's program of curricular reform, but the consortium also includes HEI and NGO from the European Union countries of England, Germany, Austria, Netherlands and Estonia.

The article is organized into three main sections: section one presents DOIT's objectives, consortium and program; second section, presents the panel discussion; section three presents recommendations to professionals who are planning international collaborative projects.

Background: Tempus Programs

In August 2012 the European Commission's selection of TEMPUS IV grant applications was published and DOIT, an Israeli TEMPUS initiative of Gordon Academic College of Education (GCE) was one of the programs selected. The aim of TEMPUS programs is to support joint projects that contribute to the development of higher education between HEI of European member countries and their partner countries in Central Asia, North Africa and the Middle East.

DOIT's Aims and Outline of Its Programs

DOIT's main objectives are to foster the sharing of knowledge relating to the dynamic processes of multicultural education among professionals involved in education and for DOIT's international team is to construct a program that promotes curricular reform for multicultural education for HEI who are specializing on teacher-training and education. Promoting education for human and children's rights in HEI is another important objective of DOIT.

DOIT's program is multidimensional and includes:

- the development of academic courses;
- faculty workshops for enrichment and for training;
- 'out of the classroom' activities for the students;
- the development of an interactive portal;
- development and publication of teaching material;
- financial and administrative management;
- quality assurance of academic, managerial and organizational aspects of DOIT;
- evaluation and assessment of its various programs;
- implementation of curriculum reform in the participating institutions; and

- Promotion of curriculum reform on the National levels in Israel and in Georgia.

Academic Course Development, Faculty Workshops and Out of the Classroom Activities

DOIT's program includes the development of academic courses that promote different aspects of multicultural education. Within the first eight months of the program, working teams were created and they developed syllabi for five courses:

- Children's Rights in and Through Education
- Identity Formation in a Multicultural Environment
- Pedagogical Approaches that Promote Inter-Cultural and Ethnic Understanding in the Classroom
- Understanding Israeli Minority and Ethnic Groups
- Multiethnic and Multicultural Georgia

Pilots for the course will begin in the new academic year of 2013-14. There is one mandatory pilot course, Children's Rights in and Through Education that will be piloted in DOIT's three Israeli teaching colleges, five universities in Georgia and in at least two EU partner's HEI. In addition, the eight HEI in Israel and Georgia that specialize in teacher-training, need to pilot three other DOIT courses, piloting in total at least 32 DOIT courses. DOIT's five other HEI from Israel, The Netherlands, Austria and Germany will pilot at least two courses each. In DOIT's consortium, over 40 pilots will be implemented over the next academic year for students on the BA and MA level. Over 1,000 students will benefit from DOIT's pilot courses.

In addition, faculty workshops for enrichment and for training are an important part of DOIT's program. The faculty enrichment workshop will be on the topic of Children and Human Rights through Education and the training workshops will train faculty to teach DOIT's courses. Over 100 members of DOIT's HEI faculty will participate in these workshops.

A special feature of DOIT's program is the involvement of the students. Members of six student unions have worked together with members of NGO whose expertise are in promoting intercultural relations and have developed programs of activities that aim to promote cultural diversity on the college campus.

Other Special Features of DOIT's Programs: Portal, Publications and Quality Assurance

An important part of DOIT's program that contributes towards the collaborative process is DOIT's portal: <http://tempus-doit.sapir.ac.il> . This portal was designed to facilitate collaborative work, communicate, share news and to disseminate within and beyond DOIT's consortium. The portal has two main areas. There are secured sites on the portal where the academic working teams can collaborate in an open and transparent manner, yet feel secure that their working drafts are available for comment only among their team members. In this protected secured area of the

platform is also the site for financial management where financial documents and reports can be securely uploaded for DOIT's financial manager to access and process.

The portal also contributes to DOIT's dissemination processes. There is an open public domain to the portal that the public can access and learn about DOIT's aims, the members of the consortium and read the latest news and announcements. As the project develops and the pilots assessed, the public domain will be enlarged and include DOIT's products and materials for viewing and downloading.

In addition to the portal, DOIT participating in conferences and publishing articles on DOIT's results are two additional processes that contribute to DOIT's dissemination process.

An important part of DOIT's program is its structure of quality control and assurance of both the academic development processes as well as the administrative functioning of the consortium. There were three working teams that functioned during the first year in this realm; one quality assurance team that was responsible for overseeing the functioning of DOIT as an organization in regards to administration, communication, logistics, and financial management; and, two academic quality assurance teams; one was responsible for developing the template for the syllabi of DOIT's courses and the other team was responsible for the academic content of the course materials. Since the development stage of courses have been completed, the academic development quality team has been merged with the quality assurance team for the purpose of developing evaluation tools and questionnaires that assess the impact of DOIT's various programs.

DOIT's Consortium

DOIT's official partnership at the time of application included seventeen HEI, four NGO and six student unions. The members of DOIT's quality and contribution to the consortium is noted by their:

- involvement in their society as they train future educators of the next generation of societies' citizens;
- expertise in multicultural education
- TEMPUS experience of some of its members

The Israeli members include GCE as project applicant that has practical experience in multicultural education in teacher-training. GCE was the first HEI in Israel to establish a Multicultural Educational Resource Center in 1997. Sachnin Academic College (SAC), is the only HEI for Israeli's Arabs of the Galilee, brings to DOIT experience and innovative teaching practices for Arab Schools, including programs that promote multicultural education and conflict resolution. KAYE Academic Teaching College, serves Israel's peripheral multicultural populations of the south has been awarded the UNESCO prize for promoting multicultural education and co-existence. The Interdisciplinary Center of Hertzlyya (IDC) is a private, centrally-located HEI with a substantial Israeli and European network with HEI, business and

governments as well as experience with successful TEMPUS programs. Sapir Academic College (SAP) brings to DOIT expertise in new technology and experience in developing website platforms for TEMPUS programs. Ben-Gurion U. (BGU), a major Israeli university, brings to DOIT TEMPUS experience and expertise in research and evaluation.

The Georgian partners include several HEI with TEMPUS experience: Iliia State U (ISU), Tbilisi State U (TSU), Telavi State U (TESAU), and Sokhumi State U (SSU). ISU has a Center for Professional Development of Teachers, is involved in developing and implementing new teacher training methods. TSU with its two Institutes of Pedagogy and of Cultural Studies and the UNESCO Chair in Intercultural Dialogue, brings a wealth of practical experience based on research, development and implementation of a wide range of multicultural educational programs. SSU's BA and MA teacher-training programs include innovative educational programs that provide their students with knowledge and skills to work in their culturally diverse region. TESAU, located in the Kakheti Region is a multi-ethnic institution which promotes multicultural education in its teacher-training programs. Samtske Javakheti State Teaching Univeristy (SJSTU) has two campuses located in the multiethnic region of S. Georgia where the majority of the population is Armenian.

DOIT's EU partners are all experienced in developing innovative teacher-training programs in multicultural education. University of Koblenz (UKL) in Germany has over 50 years of teacher-training experience. Padagogische Hochschule Oberosterreich (PHOÖ) located in Upper Austria, brings experience in developing new curriculum. Hogeschool van Arnhem en Nijmegen (HAN) in the Netherlands, has experience in multinational projects in education. The UK partners, Institute of Education (IOE) and Birkbeck (BBK) of the University of London, provide internationally recognized experts in multicultural education and education for human and children's rights. Jaan Tonissoi Institute of Estonia, the EU NGO, holds the Estonia UNESCO Chair on Multicultural Education and is involved in Education Law and Human Rights, Teacher training and Global Education.

NGOs and student unions are also an important part of DOIT's consortium. The Interfaith Encounters Association (IEA) in Israel and the Centre for Civil Integration and Interethnic Relations (CCIIR), and Civic Development Institute (CDI) in Georgia are NGOs that have experience in promoting intercultural relations and in working with university students. Together with three student unions in Georgia and three student unions in Israel, programs for 'out of the classroom' activities aimed at the whole university campus have been planned.

Panel Discussion: Introduction

The panel discussion revolved around several questions relating to motivations of joining the DOIT consortium to various challenges and benefits that are connected with international collaboration. The following discussion presents the different questions asked and the response from some of our participants.

Panel Question #1: What was the motivating factor of your institution joining our program?

The motivating factor for DOIT's two Israeli teaching colleges on the panel (GCE and SAC) was the expressed need to train their students in multicultural educational values and pedagogical tools. Manal Yazbak Abu-Ahmed (Manal) explained:

Sakhnin College for Teacher Education has Muslim, Christian, Bedouin, Circassian and Druze students. This diverse population will soon become the future teachers, and they will have to deal with diversity in the classrooms.... Hence, the college felt the need to prepare its student teachers to deal with all the issues which are related to multiculturalism by providing them with relevant pedagogical tools. I have already initiated a collaborative course with a Jewish College, but want to extend it to other local and international HEI.

Rhonda Sofer (Rhonda) from GCE and the coordinator of DOIT also expressed why she initiated this program for GCE.

There were several motivating factors for Gordon College to initiate a TEMPUS program that promotes multicultural education... we believe in the importance of training teachers to be competent, not only in pedagogical methods, but also as leaders who promote values to the next generation of our citizens. Initiating a program that promotes multicultural education and education for children's human rights complements our mission goals. Second, GCE is interested in expanding our global connections. TEMPUS programs promote international collaboration that we believe that we will benefit from and contribute to.

Hanan Maoz (Hanan), from SAP also mentioned the importance of entering into collaborative national and international partnerships. Moreover, he explained that as the college responsible for the technological development of the portal, participating in this program enabled SAP's technological team to leverage innovative practices. He stated:

As Head of International Relations of Sapir, the opportunity to work with Gordon College's DOIT initiative enabled us to leverage new technology platforms in international programs and create a state of the art application...this was an important objective and motivation for joining the consortium.

Hanan later explained the innovative platform that DOIT enabled his team to develop:

DOIT's portal is the first in Europe to combine two types of technology: the back office platform and in the front office. We need a back office workshop area for the partners to work, a Learning Management System which is secured. We also need a public site to show our work to the public, which is a Content Management System.

The Georgian DOIT team members viewed their joining the consortium as part of the process of Georgia's entrance into the Global world and providing their students with new approaches to multicultural education.

Nino Chiabrishvili (Nino C) of ISU explained:

Iliia State University as a leading high education institution aimed at supporting in-service and pre-service students to adapt to new challenges and to prepare them with new knowledge, skills and attitudes for life-long success in a global world, both inside and outside the country. The courses created in the framework of DOIT will be very helpful instruments in the way of these objectives.

Izabella Petriashvili (Izabella) from TSU reinforced what Nino C said:

Multicultural education, especially training teachers for ME is vitally important for such a multiethnic country as Georgia. Hence is our commitment to participate in this project, the aims of which address directly the issues of multiculturalism of today's globalized societies.

Tamriko Jojua (Tamriko) from SSU explained the factors that influenced her university's joining the DOIT consortium:

Nowadays the effective multicultural teacher training is paramount for higher education system in the global society. SSU...has the mission to prepare future teachers who can effectively and skillfully work in multicultural and multiethnic regions of Abkhazia. Accordingly joining SSU the TEMPUS Program DOIT, which aims to promote multicultural education and the teaching of cultural diversity was very important and inspiring in realizing the aims and objectives of our institution

In summary, we see from the above discussion, that the motivation for joining DOIT's consortium ranged from viewing the importance of multicultural education, the importance of international collaboration and finally as an opportunity of developing innovative courses as well as technology.

Panel Question #2: What are the challenges for developing and implementing curriculum for multicultural education in an international context and what were the greatest challenges you feel DOIT has faced until now?

The collaborative process of over 90 DOIT members from 26 institutions that are located in seven countries creates many different kinds of challenges. The challenges that were perceived reflect cultural differences and perspectives of DOIT members. For example, Roxana Reichman (Roxana), from GCE and head of the curriculum development working team explained:

It is well known that developing and implementing curriculum for multicultural education is never easy, even in national context. This is of course true when we are working in an international context. First... there is no consensus about what multiculturalism is of about the way in which it should be taught. Second...each country faces specific challenges ... that have to be taken into consideration...the participants must be open to listen to other people and work together in a non judgmental way.

Roxana also explained that the monitoring process of ensuring consistency in the process of the development of courses and syllabi as also being one of her biggest challenges to date. She explains:

Speaking from my personal point of view as leader of the curriculum development and assessment team, the greatest challenge was to make sure that the other teams understand that our role is NOT to ... impose a certain way of working, but rather to offer them a template that would help them ... their goals and .. build academic courses which meet the requirements of the Bologna process ...

Rhonda also agreed with Roxana's statements and further commented that:

Communication and making sure that we are all have an understanding DOIT's mandate and objectives according to the accepted application as a big challenge. Although there are several approaches to multicultural education, DOIT's mandate is very clear ... making sure that all members understand DOIT's mandate for teacher training is one of the biggest challenges in our curriculum development.

Moreover, Rhonda also felt that one of the biggest challenges that DOIT has faced to date is:

The challenge of maintaining the academic integrity of course development by keeping personal political beliefs outside of course development... DOIT is a program aimed at integrating curricular reform in teacher training through strengthening multicultural education and education for children and human rights in the curriculum. It is not a program to further one's own political beliefs...keeping politics out of our course development has been one of the biggest challenges to our program.

The Georgian partners all referred to the challenges involved in adjusting the new curriculum to the needs of their institution and country as well as Georgian administrative processes that they have encountered.

Nino Sozashvili (Nino S) from TESAU expressed: "[The biggest challenge] here is the process of adjusting new curriculum to our country and even region...This requires very careful consideration of every step." Nino C agreed with this statement. Izabella further elaborated: "[a big challenges] is the working process within the teams, as we all come from different countries, with different backgrounds, and different approaches to the issues raised in the working process." Tamriko also expressed the challenges involved in "developing ... appropriate programs ... which truly engage and motivate students from different ethnic and cultural background."

All members of the Georgian team expressed the difficulties and frustrations that their institutions are having regarding the purchasing of their equipment.

Manal agrees with Izabella regarding the working processes but further emphasizes the significance and efficiency of the face-to-face consortium meetings, compared to group SKYPE meetings, to get the tasks done.

Hanan, whose perspective is from the side of technology reflected on the challenges that his team faced in regards working with such a large and culturally diverse consortium:

Technology skills are different within the consortium...and in order to use the portal, all members of the consortium should be competent with technology skills. For me, bringing the diversity of cultures and personalities together for work on one vision, one program through technology has been the biggest challenge.

Tamriko even mentioned how important the portal has been for overcoming challenges:

At the initial stage of our project the process of disseminating of all information among the team members from different countries and institutions seemed problematic, but after creating our portal that really is very technologically advanced this problem was solved successfully.

Panel Question #3: How can we neutralize the political dimension from our program?

When developing the questions for the panel discussion, Rhonda asked the members to suggest questions. One of the questions suggested by Manal was "How can we neutralize the political dimension from our program?" This was expressed above by Rhonda as being one of the biggest challenges of the DOIT team. In answer to this question, Rhonda continued:

In order to promote inter-cultural understanding, we all have to focus on what we agree on. We are all committed to promoting multicultural education and education for children and human rights in the curriculum reform in teacher education and training in HEI in Israel and in Georgia. We must focus on this mission and put our own personal political agendas on the side. While DOIT's mission goals unite us, politics and our personal political agendas can divide us. We must maintain the integrity of our program by keeping political agendas outside of it.

Roxana emphasized:

It is important to stick to the goals of the program the way they were explicitly expressed in the application. People involved in such a program should focus on the issues on which we can agree and on the issues on which we can reach a consensus instead of trying to pursue a private political agenda, which might alienate some of the members instead of bringing them closer.

Hanan also expressed this but explained that:

We need to discuss this in the very early stages---very open and transparent---but very determined to take individual political dimension out of the scope of the program... our emotions will take us away of the real vision of the group.

Manal agrees with Hanan but adds:

I suggest emphasizing and appreciating the similarities between the different groups in order to build common ground between them.

The Georgian team viewed this issue different. Both Nino and Tamriko did not even feel that DOIT's program in curriculum reform and multicultural education is related to politics. Nino expressed:

The multicultural education itself is directed to neutralize the political dimension. The only thing project members have to do is to create quality "product", which can stand the test of time.

Tamriko also said something similar:

Our program aims at creating the curriculum that will be used in the process of training teachers in multicultural education and the problem of political dimension is neutralized itself as the principles of multiculturalism and diversity give no ground for this.

Izabella felt this issue was a challenge but not one that is overpowering in DOIT. She explained:

It's not an easy task, though we have to be respectful and tolerant to diversities within our consortium. So far we have demonstrated positive attitudes and understanding among project participants, and developed truly friendly and collegial atmosphere within the consortium.

In summary, although the Israeli panel members all acknowledged the challenges that we face in developing courses that do not promote individual's personal political agendas; the Georgian panel members did not see this as a major issue. This difference reflects the different social realities of the Israeli and Georgian societies.

Panel Question #4: How do you envision your institution benefiting from DOIT 5 years from now? What aspects of the program do you think will be sustained?

All members of DOIT's HEI that are involved in teacher-training expect to benefit from the program. How they envision the long-term benefits is similar in regards to teacher training, while some members even envision an impact of the community and society.

Rhonda and Manal believe that the innovative courses and programs will be integrated into GCE and SAC's curriculum and become an integral part of their teacher training curriculum on the BA and MA level. Rhonda is hoping that the impact will be on other academic teaching colleges in Israel. Hanan also sees the new curriculum being integrated in BA and MA programs.

The Georgian members also agreed with the fact the curriculum reform will become a part of their curriculum in their institution. Nino S stated:

In DOIT's framework, we'll have a MA teaching program "Culture Study" in Telavi State University. Program creation sets as a goal to install national and universal human values, namely, supporting positive perception of cultural diversity, installation of dialogue principles between the cultures, and it implies introduction of other cultures, understanding of differences between the cultures, respect of different

ones; prevention of stereotypes, xenophobia and racism; working out of skills needed for orientation in diverse cultural environment, successful communication.

Tamriko also believes that the DOIT programs will be sustained in SSU:

In 5 years from now SSU will have its first graduates on BA and MA levels trained on the basis and principles of teaching courses and programs designed within DOIT. They will be ready to meet all challenges that they may face while teaching in the diverse classroom.

Izabella also concurred with her Georgian colleagues that DOIT programs will be integrated into the curriculum but adds the importance of updating and maintaining the relevancy of the courses over time:

I am sure the courses designed within the DOIT project will be implemented and running successfully, though may need to be updated from time to time according to the needs and requirements of the particular time and institution.

An interesting dimension of DOIT's Georgian team is the fact that several mentioned the impact of the program on the society. Thus for example, Nino C envisioned:

Five years is enough to prepare several dozen teachers who teach future citizens to live in a multicultural environment. In turn those future citizens can transfer their knowledge and attitudes to others. This will be a constant and continuous process, which will be enriched by each generation with new approaches.

Nino S also saw the impact of DOIT in its influence on the Georgian society:

Program creation sets a goal to install national and universal human values, namely, supporting positive perception of cultural diversity, installation of dialogue principles between the cultures, and it implies introduction of other cultures, understanding of differences between the cultures, respect of different ones; prevention of stereotypes, xenophobia and racism; working out of skills needed for orientation in diverse cultural environment, successful communication.

Hanan added that an important aspect of DOIT's sustainability is as a model for organizing international collaboration and projects. He claimed:

[DOIT provides] a model of collaboration and working together...there are 121 partners registered in the portal and working together. [DOIT's] collaborative procedures and practices are a model for all international projects of "how to do it right."

In summary, we see that all panel members see the sustainability of the program within their institution, while some even claim that DOT's model and effect will be impacted in the wider society and in other international collaborative programs.

Panel Question #5: How do you think the impact of our program can be measured?

There are many possibilities for evaluating the impact and success of DOIT's program. First from Rhonda's point of view:

There are several levels to assess our impact: first whether we maintained our integrity to the application and to implementing the programs that we stated that we were going to implement. Our program also needs to be assessed by the learning outcomes that our students have achieved. Also the maintenance of our portal after the life of our project is another indicator of our sustainability. Finally our program's impact can be measured by the new partnerships and programs among DOIT's members that were a result from our collaborative work.

Roxana believed that DOIT's impact can be measured in several ways:

The first step is to make sure that we are accountable to the funder and make sure we achieve all the goals we proposed in our initial proposal.... In addition we have to measure the success of our programs in terms of dissemination (research, people participating in conferences, etc, articles published, etc). I believe it is crucial to measure the change in students' attitudes as a result of the courses and of the students' activities.

Manal also agreed with Roxana about the importance of measuring both student and lecturers attitudes in pre and post questionnaires in understanding the impact of DOIT's program.

All of the Georgian DOIT members of the panel discussion agreed and emphasized that they felt the quality of the students being trained will be the indicator of the impact of the program. Izabella explained that the impact of the program will be judged "by the quality of teachers prepared according to our programs".

Hanan took a very practical approach in looking at the impact our DOIT's program. He stated that by looking at indicators:

level of participation of students in our course---number of students who take our course.... how many conferences and events are DOIT partners participating in ...the number of new formal applications and programs were developed between DOIT partners...How many new collaborative projects are formed based on DOIT's vision...

Moreover, Hanan looked at the portal as another indicator of the impact of DOIT. He felt that by looking at "How much traffic do we capture to the public DOIT portal...which will be continued least 3 years after DOIT..."

Conclusion: Lessons that can be learned from DOIT's practices.

Panel Question #6: What advise would you give to other professions wanting to initiate international collaboration?

DOIT is relatively a young project and its main objectives set for the first eight months of collaborative work from academic development of syllabi for five courses to two financial reports, to arranging and having three consortium meetings have been completed successfully. DOIT's panel participants provided some important suggestions for other professionals planning to initiate international collaboration.

Roxana felt that:

Choose your partners wisely, explain your expectations and make sure that you act in an open and transparent way, making each and everyone feel equally important and taking into consideration other people's opinion.

Izabella continued:

I would advise to choose the topic of research carefully according to the national and international priorities defined in the application's guidelines. Also, it is very important to find correct partner institutions. Once the consortium is formed, the best way is to have an online workspace (Moodle, Facebook, etc.) where all the consortium members will be sharing the necessary information for the submission. It is important to establish good communication and friendly atmosphere among consortium members right from the start, as it is the prerequisite of further successful collaboration.

Manal adds:

I believe that all HEI around the world have to take advantage of updated technological tools to collaborate together since online sites have the potential to make academic visions a reality.

Tamiriko expressed the importance of "uniting under the common goals and objectives..."

Hanan emphasized the importance of "Leadership, Management and Governance."

Nino C stated the importance of:

Being honest, respecting each other, discussing issues openly, listening and helping each other... According to the ancient Georgian proverb, "Unity is strength". With common desire and will – everything is achievable.

Rhonda, DOIT's coordinator who worked intensively for two years on the TEMPUS application and has been leading the program for ten months explained:

The principles of equality and inclusion, transparency and communication, and processes of diversity management have all contributed to the culture of collaboration, cooperation and sharing of knowledge that characterize DOIT's professional relationships. I feel that these processes have contributed greatly to the feeling of "ownership" that most members of DOIT have towards our program. I would advise others who want to initiate international collaboration, to begin with the collaborative approach combined with responsible leadership based on inclusive transparent communication from the beginning of the design of the program and through all of the project's stages.

*Spatial Architectonics and Evolving Modalities of Teaching-Learning: Tagore
in Perspective*

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0235

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*Imprisoned by four walls
(to the north, the crystal of non-knowledge
A landscape to be invented
to the South, reflective memory
to the East, the mirror
to the West, stone and the song of silence)
I wrote messages, but received no reply.*

Octavio Paz

*I speak English for you,
So you can listen...
So you can know...
Our story is in the land...*

Kakadu Man by Bill

Neidjie

So far as humans were concerned they created by their discoveries, a “new” landscape, and over 2000 and more generations, the creation story developed an incredible complexity which became woven into the structure of society, into the relationships between people, between people and their habitat and between ages of experience.

Allan Fox

Space itself is a highly problematic term. Mathematical appropriation of space specifies spaces of configuration, abstract space etc. – a tendency that basically categorized space as a “mental thing”(Leonardo da Vinci). “Mental Space” is a loaded term that defies fixity of signification and one notes an endless proliferation of mental spaces like the literary, ideological, psychoanalytic domains and so on. Interestingly knowledge itself becomes a “space” in the modern discourse. “Knowledge is also the *Space*”, asserts Foucault in *The Archaeology of Knowledge*, “in which the subject may take up a position and speak of the objects with which he deals in his discourse” (p.238). There is a concomitant promotion of a basic sophistry whereby the philosophico-epistemological notion of space is fetishized. The mental space engulfs the social and physical spaces. What is operative in this process is an ideological tendency that propagate dominant ideas - perforce the ideas of the dominant class. They may be modified but we can scarcely deny that any particular theoretical practice produces a mental space which then becomes the locus of theoretical practice that is separated from social practice and intriguingly sets itself up as the axis or the central reference point of “knowledge”. Intellectual labour, like material labour is subject to endless divisions and the hegemonic architectonics of this type of engineered knowledge tends to influence in a way that leads to epistemic violence. But there remains the dynamics of other spaces emerging as points of resistance and the very definition of knowledge is problematized.

The concept of space thus remains a volatile composite of myriad dichotomies, ever evolving and engendering new perceptual profiles. Modern critical speculations tend to define space as being transformed into a “lived experience” by social subjects or entities, largely governed by practical (task) and bio-social determinants. Any social constitutive production relations within the global framework entail an intriguing play of contradictions and coherence. As a result, any space of work, namely the teaching-learning in different contexts and at different levels, possesses contours and frontiers that are perennially interpenetrating and overlapping in a striking relativity. The social space for any teaching-learning unit, at a given time and context, remains simultaneously both restricted and infinite, as a locus of immense potentiality/possibilities, continually referring to and engendering a sweeping variety of interacting agencies. The profound paradox inherent in the interaction of conflicting agencies

deepen with the concept of globalization increasingly making way to that of “glocalization”. This necessitates a fresh assessment of the manifold negotiations of the agencies of local knowledge base with the ever evolving global perspectives. The term “glocalization” defined by Roland Robertson in “Glocalization: Time-Space and Homogeneity-Heterogeneity”, encompasses “the creation and incorporation of locality, processes which themselves largely shape in turn, the compression of the world as a whole” (p.40). The educational “space” thus emerges as a highly problematic fluid entity with multiple forces interacting at various levels with a specific type of knowledge engineered by the hegemonic Western dictates with scarce or no space for any other indigenous form of knowledge being transmitted in various ways. There is an element of tough competition in what we call the global education market. The nature and purpose of education have experienced radical paradigm shifts and disturbing dimensions of dissent are seen to be cropping up in all parts of the world. David Harley explains in *The Conditions of Post-Modernity: An Enquiry into the Origins of Cultural Change*,

The more unified the space, the more important the qualities of the fragmentations become for social identity and action...The shrinkage of space that brings diverse communities across the globe into competition with each other implies localized competitive strategies ...This kind of reaction looks much more strongly to the identification of place, the building and signalling of its unique qualities in an increasingly homogenous but fragmented world. (p.140)

The space granted to the local is subversively appropriated as site of resistance with grass-root movements and violence posing a great threat. Education in its present avatar, is apparently failing to bridge the gap. The root of a near absolute collapse of the communicative clarity between the new spaces that are evolving on some common economic, political or experiential basis, and the type of “education” imparted everywhere based on a hollow complacent assumption of a fixed homogenous space of the “educated” remains largely unexplored. As Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak asserts in *Who Sings the Nation State?*, “I think both spatiality and location have to be reconceived once we consider the departure from within, the dispossession that demands immobility”(p.18). Geographical boundaries are increasingly found inadequate to define human identity that had so long been determinants of the necessary educational paradigm shifts. In a country like India, the multiplicity of new evolving spaces and zones based on differential socio-economic, political, traditional knowledge and cultural conditions, poses serious questions to the homogeneous curriculum of the nation. “Educated” citizens from such differential spaces fail to connect; violence tends to tear the nation apart. Judith Butler in *Who Sings the Nation State?* asserts, “Is it a suspect nationalism?...it actually fractures the ‘we’ in such a way that no single nationalism could take hold on the basis of that fracture” (p.61). “Nationalism”, Tagore too had warned in *Sikshar Milon*, “is a great malady” and an evolving pedagogy must aspire to “liberate the mind from the complacency of individual narrow nationalistic identity...because tomorrow history would begin a new chapter of international and inter-ethnic co-operation”(p.190).

In *Geographies of Post Colonialism*, Joanne Sharp shows how the geographical boundaries are now being rewritten/remapped with subaltern indigenous agencies continually clashing

with the nodal agencies of power that quantify and engineer an artificially uniform pedagogy for a particular system prevalent in a particular nation. Spivak talks of a “critical regionalism” that can no longer be denied:

In my next book *Other Asias*, I am recognizing, as does everyone, that China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Indonesia, and other South-East Asian countries is a region...This region has unilateral connections with China, and Pakistan with West Asia. Japan as a group of eight states, relates to all of these in still another way. The war in Iraq has involved them in yet another way...the idea of critical regionalism comes out of a very profound and I think, a thorough critique of the area studies map and the cold war agenda that spawned the area studies map. So it seems to me you are remapping a map(p.118)

Interestingly Tagore had interpreted the malady in his vision of modern education long ago. In his *Sikshar Milon* he had asserted-

In the very beginning of history we see that men had gathered into groups within the individual fences of mountains and seas...so many vistas have opened in the sky, water and land with the boon of science that geographical boundaries have become obsolete...not individuals but different cultures, ethnic identities and tribes have come closer and yet they have not united. The whole world is terribly ailing from this excruciating pain. But why do we fail to ferret out a panacea to this misery? It is because those who had learned to come together within geographical boundaries, had not actually learned to be united outside those boundaries.(pp.188-189)

Today one does identify the agencies of resistance and yet passes on with wilful and somewhat complacent blindness, transacting an old imposed curriculum with occasional travesties of curriculum revision that simply omits or adds a topic or course to be transacted within the spatial boundaries of four walls and a few mechanical field trips or visits. Interestingly we tend to forget the fact that such soul less mechanical field trips for data collection can now be conducted virtually and is being done in developed nations like Germany, especially for differently abled learners. These can scarcely suffice for a holistic education suitable for today’s glocalized world.

Education assumes the stature of an interesting multifaceted transformational agency today – a nodal point of passage and encounters, that questions and redefines the spatial significance in terms of time, values, vision, activity, ideology, culture, economy and psychological attributes to name a few. The space for education today is simultaneously a field of action, practically extending its realms perennially for the deployment of projects and also the very basis of action, being a conglomerate of spaces whence energies derive and whither energies are directed. The modern times are times of acute anxiety, unrest and deep seated dilemmas, and traditional system of education, despite its claim to a holistic and inclusive approach, apparently fails to provide a resolution. In nations like India the prevalent pedagogy and the National Curriculum Frameworks repeatedly emphasize the prosaic needs of the society, the evolving technological and professional dimensions, but somehow steers clear of the deep dynamics of the overlapping social spaces of a multi ethnic, multi cultural, multi racial, multi lingual, multi religious nation, that unless identified and negotiated through a radically new curriculum and pedagogy can never be effective for generation of peace and sustainable development. The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009 and 2011, referred to the need of preparing humane teachers and yet, an express identification of the

existence of various conflicting spatial territories essential for effective inter racial, inter ethnic and inter personal discourse, apparently finds no overt discussion. The answers that we are seeking continually and the answers that are evading our quest may be obtained through a reassessment of Rabindranath Tagore's vision of transcending the frontiers of traditional restrictive spatiality. What is interesting is the fact that his critique of a single "scientific" approach as being partial and his crusade for a truly scientific analysis of the various anthropomorphic facets and spatial dynamics are found to be globally relevant today.

Modern society can be said to be inflicted with such a system of education where carefully engineered educational curriculum circulates amidst specific boundaries of public or private buildings and a definitive body of a syllabus and mechanical "lesson plans" or "pedagogy" that defy a clear understanding of the history, the challenges and opportunities inherent in the topic, and thus fails to generate any sense of hope. Both for Tagore and Freire, pedagogy must be strategic and performative - essentially transformative in essence. Pedagogy should never be understood as a predetermined methodology to be implemented in the class. That is probably the greatest challenge of our education system today where a servile attachment to quantifiable knowledge completely ignores the ongoing social, political and economic struggles, the ambivalences and the opportunities of educated intervention. Freire too comes close to this vision when he asserts in *The Pedagogy of Hope*, that a progressive pedagogy must "unveil opportunities for hope, no matter what the obstacles may be" and "understand history as opportunity and not Use of science and the resultant information explosion creates pseudoscientific boundaries with immense data revolving in the virtual space, accessed by only a section of students in limited predetermined ways as allowed by the restricted pedagogy of modern education. The transaction of a lesson in the space of the class or school and the mechanical pedagogic analysis that overtly acknowledges the hegemony of hidden dictates, again reveal the same artificial creation of spatial boundaries that often defy the true purpose of education at large. Imposition of new found information as "global" with scant regard for any other form of knowledge, creates gaps and fissures not conducive to sustainable development. Tagore's constructivist theory of knowledge emphasised the real life experiences of students as a valuable source of knowledge while prevalent assumptions about any single/particular "environment" or "reality" for the students today tend to completely ignore the scientifically sound traditional knowledge for proper assimilation, relation and negotiation.

What is relegated as superstition with utmost facility today is a result of a thorough conditioning in an educational praxis that according to Paulo Freire is typical of modern educators who, "in their celebrated impartiality, might approach this real world as if they were wearing gloves and masks in order not to contaminate or be contaminated by it." The indication is clear. Education must develop an assimilative or "glocalised" consciousness that accepts the global with a sound local/indigenous base. However, the history of colonization and the eventual phenomenon of "foreclosure" to borrow a term from Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak that increasingly conditioned the self in a total negation of its own subaltern roots, led to a gross "epistemic violence", that is a violence done to the ways of knowing. In *Critique of Post Colonial Reason*, Spivak asserts –

The relationship between European discursive production and the axiomatics of imperialism...changes, although the latter continues to play the role of

making itself appear as the only negotiable way. In the course of this unceasing operation, and in one way or another, an unacknowledgeable moment that I will call “the native informant” is crucially needed...and it is *foreclosed* (p.7)

Spivak refers to Lacan and Freud explaining ‘foreclosure’ as an energetic act of defence in which the ego rejects an incompatible idea ‘together with the affect’ and behaves as if the idea had never occurred to the ego at all. The native intellect then appears to be self-consolidating, self-conscious and a convincing presence, and yet deep down remains somewhat a “blank, though generative of a text of cultural identity that only the colonizing Western supremacy could inscribe”. The suggestion of a cultural conditioning emerges as a disturbing reality. The conditioned self remains what Gramsci called “a site of unlisted traces” while the surface, interestingly enough, appears as an overt colonial attempt at fabrication of new and glorified representations of the self, that in its hegemonic manifestations, provides blinding alibis for the domination, exploitation and epistemic violation that are necessary corollaries of the process of colonization. An artificial exogenous education imported without assimilation severed all connection with indigenous knowledge. Invisible yet insurmountable walls have been erected since then and education rendered a mechanical acquisition of specialized schools of thought contradicting each other and the whole world at large.

A basic difference in perception has long been overlooked. The indigenous vision of the life-world embraces the natural phenomena, the land, and the beasts and insects as an integral part of human life. G.S. Aikenhead has described most aboriginal students’ experience with science education “as an attempt at assimilation into a foreign culture.”(p.337). This culture can be particularly foreign to Aboriginal students “whose world views, identities and mother tongues create an even wider cultural gap between themselves and school science” (p.342). Nancy J. Allen and Frank E. Crawley in ‘Voices from the Bridge: World view Conflicts of Kickapoo Students of Science’, explore these world view differences among Kickapoo Indian children studying in off-reserve schools(p.111). Kickapoo students prefer cooperative learning rather than the competitive learning environment fostered in Western classrooms. They tend to think holistically about the natural world, whereas the Western science approach is reductionist in that it tends to explain things by reducing complex systems down to the simpler parts. The researchers also found that, in Western science classrooms, Kickapoo students were unengaged and showed little evidence of learning; however, the very same students faced with the very same lessons in a different context (i.e., in their own village) were active, engaged and showed evidence of learning by enthusiastically answering questions.

Interestingly enough, Rabindranath Tagore had analysed the disparity long before the world paid heed to the crisis. In his essay “Tapobon”, Tagore analyses Milton’s *Paradise Lost* to point out that the West had conceived of the natural world as created for the humans in the Garden of Eden where “Beast, bird, insect or worm durst enter none; such was their awe of man”(p.139). The indigenous vision however sanctifies the presence of the divine itself in all the natural forms, man is but a part of which. He quotes from the Upanishads : “Ishabashyo midong sarbong jot kincha jagatyang jagato”[the divine is present in all the physical forms of the world]. If the West recognizes the divine as the Creator who takes pride in his creation,

our culture recognizes the divine as One who is the world itself. Thus the agony of the cursed estranged Yaksha in Kalidasa's *Meghdootam*, argues Tagore, can impregnate the dark clouds of the monsoon sky and the rain-soaked forests with a pathos that pervades the whole universe, transcending the barriers of form and spatiality. Indigenous rituals that personify land, water, fire or food expose a deep dynamics of knowledge that is perhaps crucial for sustainable development. The intellect penetrates the physicality of forms and explores the crucial relations between human life, development and the bio-diversity that sustains it. Thus today it is perhaps natural for a Knodh tribal member to rise in arms in violent protest over Vedanta's Bauxite mining in Niyamagiri as an assault over his deity "Niyamaraja" the hill rich in bauxite. The indigenous reverence for a hill may be defied as superstitious, and yet the world realises today that the bauxite holds water, that in turn nourishes the forests and vegetation that sustains the human population in those regions. The deification thus springs from ancient rituals and wisdom, alien to the modern mechanical and spatially restrictive pedagogy that inevitably fails to relate to the zones that are marginalized by hegemonic incursions of a particular type of curriculum. The recent verdict of the Supreme Court in this regard endorses the indigenous wisdom. The ancient Indian Vedas, argues Tagore, had aptly deified the same forms: "jodebohagnou johopsujo viswang bhubanomabibesho/ ya osodhishu ya banaspatishu tasmai debayo namo namoh"[We salute the divine who is in the fire, in the water, in the whole world, in the medicinal plants, in the trees, in the forests..we salute thee]. Judith Wright, the prolific Australian author, in her anthology *Born of Conquerors*, voices the same perceptual difference that Tagore had revealed years ago:

Those two strands – the love of the land we have invaded and the guilt of the invasion – have become part of me...It was not wilderness to the people who lived by it and through it, but the source of their very life and spirit; and to those of them who somehow survived our invasion, it remains so...and for us too, it can be a place where we can find...forgiveness (p.30)

The modern pedagogic analysis assumes geographical and cultural positional specificities, and tends to posit fragmented realities and partial or incomplete education. The concepts of geographical specificity or cultural exclusivity are practically redundant now and there emerges the challenges for modern education. The crisis had been identified and discussed in detail by Tagore in several essays in the anthology *Siksha* [Education]. In his essay "Sikshar Bahon"[Vehicle of Education], he refers to the interesting phenomenon of continual spontaneous new nation building through education:

The modern universities of Germany, France, America and Japan have the cardinal objective of unifying and humanizing the minds of the people of the whole world. *They are continually creating nations in the process...*(p.170)

He refers to the ancient Indian universities like Nalanda and Taxila that appropriated a truly glocalised knowledge through an apt assimilation of the new dimensions of international knowledge and discoveries with the indigenous forms. They transcended the spatial boundaries and truly became an ever evolving infinite space of multi-cultural, multi-ethnic, multi-disciplinary, globalized and yet localized agency of knowledge production and dissemination. Educational "space", then must be alive, argues Tagore; we must "create life with life"(p.73) in the process of education. In "Jatiyo Bidyalaya"[National School], he asserts :

While we were in a distant private space so long, today there stands the whole world with the multifarious histories of various ethnicities; our intellect is being hit continually with the light waves of different nations and times. The time has come to stop roaming like a lost child in the vast fair and to negotiate this vast plurality with our indigenous perceptions as new assimilated perceptual profiles would emerge in a magnificent harmony (p.80)

What then is needed to redefine our pedagogic praxis and make it more meaningful? Tagore's anticipation of globalized educational praxis and Freire's cardinal concepts of dialogue and a dialogical theory of knowledge seems to be relevant. Transcending the artificial boundaries of space, the pedagogy could be revised with ample provision for open discussions, assignments and projects on the operation of unequal power and wealth relations. The "epistemic violence" done to indigenous knowledge can be addressed through transformative pedagogic practices. Students must confront, get baffled, try to work out the anomalies between the prevalent language of tight lipped educational norms, practised indiscriminately all over the nation and the indigenous subaltern polemics. The classroom space must be problematized and reconceptualised to encourage reflective practises about interventions that only and only education can generate. Tagore prescribed a "choloman pothochari siksha" or mobile travelling education in which the pupils of his school in Shantiniketan were taken for regular visits to Sriniketan, an attempt towards upliftment of the rural economy, and they were presented with the real life problems of the villages to be solved with the knowledge acquired in high schools. In his letter to Sri Tanayendronath Ghosh, dated 10th March, 1929, Tagore specifically mentions the importance of such an education:

Remember the kind of education we want to impart. You must make the students think and reflect on whatever they learn. We have to present numerous problems of our daily lives and they must be encouraged to critically analyse the cause and discuss the probable solutions...they go to Sriniketan, but they must not perceive it from outside only. Present the cardinal problems of Sriniketan to them and urge them to think and come up with probable solutions. See to it that they can truly reflect upon the bases of rural economy, co-operative system and its importance in our economy, the exploitation inherent in the relation between landlords and subjects, the reasons behind death of our people in famines, droughts and epidemics, and how their education can be used to fight all these maladies. It is not possible to educate them properly within the four walls of the classroom.

Education thus must be emanated freely through new techniques that enable one to relate to and connect to the flow of real life, problems, and a huge influx of myriad cultural, ethnic and socio-political perspectives. Introduction of credit hours, taking baby steps now in our country with the excuse of "non-feasibility", could be rigorously implemented, allowing greater flexibility to pupils to navigate the new edges of a progressive pedagogy where minor research projects can be carried out in areas, languages, cultures, economies, indigenous resources of knowledge, folk traditions, mythology, indigenous science and medicine, political dynamics and myriad branches of study that can be connected with the typical Western taxonomy governed educational praxis. In his *Siksha*, page no. 56, he had urged the development of schools where there would be some land for cultivation. He wanted students

to participate in cultivation along with their studies to produce the necessary food for their residential institution and employ new scientific knowledge for that purpose. There would be dairy and poultry too where the acquired knowledge of the pupils would be employed amidst enjoyment and camaraderie. The classes thus would be held everywhere- in the fields, in the village, in the dairy and poultry farms, in devising marketing strategies for developing the rural economy and the theoretical knowledge acquired in class would find direct as well as indirect application through such praxis. New colleges and schools could be set up today as residential complexes that provide a new glocal space of education like Nalanda or Taxila, free from the influences of individual families, nationalities, religion, ethnicity or social strata. That specifically had been Tagore's vision, Shantiniketan, the abode of peace was a translation of which. The UGC in India too has been vocal about setting up such institutes of higher learning and the growing official interest in incorporating 'indigenous knowledge' into curriculum at the school level as is evident in the National Curriculum Framework (NCERT, 2000).

Pop-Up-Farms in India today takes a local perspective on a global challenge much in consonance with Tagore's vision, experimenting with how to live sustainable lives by bringing sustainability education into schools and the wider community. It combines thinking and action around patterns of sustainable knowledge - the basic elements of water, waste, energy, food, growing, buildings, health and wellbeing we use to demonstrate different ways people can change their lives to the mutual benefit of communities and the planet. Again, the idea of School Garden was conceptualized and set up at Loyola Composite Pre-University college with the help of one organization, that funded this project. An Eco-Club was formed, comprising of 16-18 students from 8th and 9th standards, to maintain the terrace garden and this was a huge success. These students have displayed initiative and enthusiasm in maintaining the garden on their own and are very involved that they reach out with questions and related problems they face. The high school students of the ICSE division of B M English School located in Hennur, Bengaluru too were introduced to gardening through a workshop and ever since have played an active role as a part of the "Green Club" in school. These are but only a few examples of glocalization in line with Tagore's grand vision.

Interestingly Virtual Communities and Cyber Anthropology can also provide scope for such a holistic education that Tagore had strongly advocated. Digital Games are seen as a menace to students today, but it is increasingly getting evident that these have a great combination of complex strategies, sophisticated narratives and strong contexts that sustain attention and intrigue young minds enhancing their problem solving approach and experiential learning to a large extent. Global and local contexts can be captured and inculcated through "edutainment", that is design of digital games with sufficient well researched glocal inputs and contexts. Games that are designed for urban students may be done with the specific agenda of providing valuable information and on-hand experience of various ethnic and indigenous practices. New games with an integrated perception/knowledge that enables one to identify the apparently disparate traditions and bodies of knowledge may be promoted. Tagore's vision of students gaining through experiential learning may be translated into reality today by developing modern and developed avatars of basic on-line games like Farmville that was a great hit when launched initially. In depth researches into indigenous knowledge bases must be done before designing such games that would appeal to the eternal human gaming instinct and transmit experiential learning in the process.

Teacher exchange and student exchange programs between various zones is necessary and one must be careful in not identifying “zones” simply geographically. Internship of trainee teachers as well as medical students could be planned in a way that allows them to work in rural settings completely different from their immediate urban background as those from remote areas could be posted in more developed areas for internship for a fruitful experiential learning. Policy and Frameworks may endeavour to identify the multiplicity of spaces in the nation on the basis of socio-economic, cultural and political commonality. The moment the inter-relation is worked out in full, the student can realize knowledge as a mechanism of fruitful change, progress, development and source of infinite possibilities. An engineer deforesting and uprooting subaltern tribes in the name of development need not then get frustrated in an opacity that separates him from the subaltern dissenting voices, as the dialogic differences, the principal problem of our education system, would be negotiated through a pedagogy that negotiates the multiplicity of forces operative in our nation, outside the restrictive definition of “educational space”s. Freire uses the term “vocabular universe” in *Teachers as Cultural Workers* as a clear suggestion of the artificial spatial distinctiveness of the universe created by prevailing education that is grossly inflicted with spatial politics and hence the dialogic barriers operative in the world. One is instantly reminded of Tagore. In his letter to Ajit Kumar Chakraborty dated 30th January, 1913, he wrote –

those residing in India must be trained from early childhood so that they may draw the intrinsic resources from the deepest chamber of their heart. Our school must contribute to that. Every task must be life-oriented and our boys must not be given up to the mechanical demon. They must be able to extend their inner self to the larger population and the entire universe. They must not be burned, hit and melted into the given moulds of the formal schools and our school must not become a doll manufacturing factory.

.....

The world, as opposed to the given representation through cartography, is a volatile concept and the ideal pedagogy must initiate a teaching-learning process that generates an indomitable hope for a prospective future. The dialogic transaction must transcend spatial politics and restrictions to act as an extension of ourselves into the totality of the external experiences leading to an internalization and free flow of thoughts and experiences. The epistemic violence would be rectified in the transaction of a critical pedagogy. Therein lies the true challenge and opportunity of modern education.

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Attitudes toward the "Other": An Intercultural Communication Venture

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The Study

Israel's society presents a unique challenge to educators; whereas multicultural in theory, it is fragmented in practice—Jews and Arabs live in close physical proximity, yet remain distant and removed, in fact, the Arab minority—20% of the population—is simply invisible to the Jewish population. (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2004). Thus, any attempt to move from a plural society, made up of separate cultures without mutual recognition, to a multi-cultural society based on mutual respect, must include elements of multi-cultural education.

Case studies carried out in eight European countries show that despite a growing awareness of the imperative of dealing with diversity, multi-culturalism, and conflict resolution in school curricula, these elements are absent from teacher training programs. (Wintersteiner, Spajic- Vrkas & Teutsch, 2003). Yogev (2001) calls for a 'reform in teacher training [in Israel] which will grant a central place to multi-cultural education', and Horenczyk states: 'We would like to suggest that teachers' attitudes toward multiculturalism at both the societal and the school levels should be taken into serious consideration when designing and implementing pre-service and in-service programs ...'(2002:436). This article reflects the efforts of the researchers, lecturers in teacher training colleges (one Arab, one Jewish) to realize a preservice course which exposed students to a multicultural model, both in theory and in practice.

On the whole, attempts at dialogue between Jews and Arabs in Israel have focused on the roots of the conflict between them (Feuerverger, 1997; Khuri, 2004). However, most of the literature in multicultural education points to stages of first knowing and appreciating one's own identity, reaching out to 'the other' to learn about his/her identity, and only then dealing with the roots of conflict (Chetkow-Yanoov, 2003; Lincoln, 2002; Ellis & Llewellyn, 1997). The course we developed aimed to accompany students through the first two stages of exploring their own identity, and then learning about others much as the Ellis and Llewellyn program (1997), 'Dealing with Differences', bases its activities on building a common basis from which to explore difference.

Theoretical multicultural courses in teacher training do not appear to have the desired effect on preservice teachers. In a study of pre-service teachers who had received multi-cultural theoretical courses, Smith (2000) found that their view of multi-cultural education seemed not significantly influenced by the course and concluded that the essential element in creating change is experiences with diverse groups. It is this which can make a difference in a pre-service teacher's point of view on multiculturalism, and therefore, pre-service teachers must have opportunities to interact with peers from diverse backgrounds. (Valentine, 2006).

With these elements in mind, the researchers designed a course which was taught simultaneously at two colleges of education—one in Jerusalem, at a Jewish college, and the other at Sakhnin in the Galilee, at an Arab college.

The Course Plan:

Language skills based courses can serve as excellent vehicles for the application of the development of an awareness of the role of language in communicating with and the acceptance of 'the other' in our society. Prutzman and Johnson (1997) show how rewriting familiar fairy tales from the 'villain's' point of view can provide children with a window on diverse perspectives within the framework of the English language classroom. Wheeler and Stomfay-Stitz (2006) note the importance of developing a 'vocabulary of peace' which both builds students active vocabulary and their awareness of the importance of word choices within human relations. Jacobs and Cates (1999) stress the need for 'global education' in the language classroom, a curriculum which uses language to discuss issues of relevance to global sustainability issues. These approaches promote language- learning strategies which can be used in the pre-service teacher training classroom as well, to enhance student awareness of the importance of their role as wielder of the power of the word in the classroom.

Others (Duffy, 2005; Renner, 1991) point to the benefits of the language classroom as an opportunity to explore diverse notions of the common good. In essence, language classes, with their emphasis on communication skills, provide a unique opportunity, to link diverse populations and explore language which enhances genuine dialogue (Morgan & Vendrick, 2009).

In an attempt to fuse the skills emphasis of an English language course with the focus on multiculturalism, our course was titled 'Dealing with Diversity', and the first semester was spent exploring this topic through a variety of communicative language based activities, beginning with an exploration of the students' own identity. The course continues with a series of texts which expose students both to relevant vocabulary and methods of raising bias awareness, and students participate in a number of exercises which model the strategies discussed. At the end of the first semester, there was a full day session in the college in Jerusalem, during which the two groups participated in the following activities:

The instructions for their joint project, which was to be completed during the second semester of the course, were as follows:

Students were required to find articles related to their topic and summarize the articles (in English). They were to post the summaries, with questions, on a 'forum' dedicated to their group. After reading and answering each others' questions, the students were required, through the use of a collaborative learning platform, to prepare a powerpoint presentation on their topic, as well as a group activity which represented the issues raised.

The medium of e-learning was used for a number of reasons. First, the physical distance (200 km) and scheduling problems made frequent face-to-face meetings impractical. Second, and more important, were the documented benefits of collaborative e-learning in order to develop communicative skills, especially in a multi-cultural (and multi-lingual) framework. Razak and Asmawi (2004) discuss the benefits of dialogue journals and email technology in their ESL courses, emphasizing the fact that the need to 'meet the requirements of actual

communication in a social context' enhances language fluency. Bollati (2002) adds important aspects of online- learning—that of developing a sense of community, where students feel closer as a result of the back-and-forth nature of the communication, Liao's (2002) study of e-mailing versus face to face conversation showed how the medium can 'defuse' intercultural differences regarding demand for direct answer, policy of avoidance or differences in wait-time, and therefore can enable a smoother, less tension fraught inter-cultural dialogue.

The groups spent the second semester collaborating on their joint project. At the end of the semester, a second meeting was held, this time in Sakhnin. Following a second 'icebreaking' exercise, students presented their topics and engaged the group in an activity. The meeting included a festive lunch, prepared by the Sakhnin students.

In sum, the course embodies an expression of the 'contact model' of coping with conflict (Ben-Ari, 2004): (a) support and encouragement of intergroup contact by authority figures significant to the individuals participating in the contact is provided by the two instructors, (b) equal status of the interacting groups: the use of the English language, rather than the dominant Hebrew, put the two groups on equal footing, (c) cooperation between members of interacting groups, which was required in order to complete the assigned task, and (d) enjoyable and intimate encounters that foster meaningful interaction between the participants, which were provided by the two, face-to-face meetings.

This article presents the analysis of data gleaned during the course, and attempts to answer the question as to whether, and to what extent, the course affected a significant change in student attitudes toward the other.

Method:

The course, "Dealing with Diversity" was given simultaneously in Sakhnin College for Teacher Education and the David Yellin Academic College of Education. Both classes (16 students from Sakhnin, 14 females, 1 male; 14 from David Yellin, 13 females, 1 male) included pre-service students of English teaching. The students at Sakhnin College come from the surrounding villages in the Galilee, and the students at the David Yellin College, came from Jerusalem and the environs.

Research Tools:

Research results were based on:

1. Journal entries:
Students were asked to write journal entries according to prompts provided by the researchers.
2. Dialogues via e-mails and forums:
The groups conducted ongoing virtual dialogues regarding their projects via e-mails and forums.
3. Post-course reflections in detail; open-ended questions: Four students were chosen at random from each group to answer more detailed questions at length.

Analysis and Results

When asked whether they were concerned about working with the other group, themes which emerged from student responses were those of apprehension (negative), expectancy (positive), or indifference (neutral).

In the pre-meeting classroom activities, Jewish students tended to define 'the other' in terms of other Jews. In an initial discussion of stereotypes, the Jewish students gave examples of stereotypes relating to Ethiopian Jews, Russian Jews, Ashkenazi Jews, etc. Arab students, on the other hand, gave examples of Jews as 'the other'. This further reinforces the findings of Horenczyk and Tatar (2004), whose Jewish subjects saw 'the other' only in terms of Jewish minority within the Jewish society.

When asked to react to the future collaboration with Arab students, our Jewish students expressed apprehension:

H.L.(DY): When I first heard about the project with students from Sakhnin I got really scared and concerned. and, the thought of working with Arab students made me feel uncomfortable

N.L (DY): I'm a little bit concerned about working together because I don't know what is going to be on that day. I never worked with those students before, and I'm concerned about their cultural differences. On the one side it's good to get to know other culture and on the other side I recoil from getting to know them. To tell the truth, I'm a bit scared of meeting them and going to see their college in Sakhnin in the end of the year.

Note the following student's entry, which could definitely be classified as 'aversion':

SM (DY): The first time our teacher talked with us about this group assignment, I didn't like it. ... it might sound a bit politically-incorrect, that I don't feel any connection (cultural, political...) to the students at Sakhnin, and it is very hard for me to be apart of this side of me.

There were, however, a few David Yellin students who expressed unqualified expectation and curiosity:

GY, (DY): Next week we are going to meet with students from Sakhnin who learn English .We are going to meet them for the first time, first of all I it makes me be curious and expectant.

The following student was one of two from David Yellin whose expectations reflected the course goals:

S.S. (DY): *first of all, I don't know the other side at all. Usually I am an open mind person, so I don't have communication problems. I enjoy meeting new people, so I guess some of them will be interesting. I don't treat Arabs as different people compared with me. I see them as individuals, and I'm sure I will like some and dislike others.*

However, I am aware of the fact that as a group they are different than us in their education, religion and social conventions. Like all human beings, I sometimes sin and use stereotypes while talking about Arabs as a group of enemies, as fanatical and primitive—but deep in my heart I don't believe it.

At the basic level, education has similar goals all over the world, and one of the important goals is to teach people about the 'other' and to break down stupid stereotypes. I'm sure this is something that we have in common. ..Maybe through the small microcosms of our colleges we can influence our neighborhood and show people that we are similar in many ways!

Students from Sakhnin expressed expectation rather than apprehension, and appeared to predict greater similarity than difference:

CS (Sakhnin): *I feel very curious about what will happen in the meeting with David Yellin students. I I don't feel worried about the meeting because all of us are human beings, are learning to be English teachers and want to achieve the same professional goals.*

MD (Sakhnin) *I am so excited I can't wait until I go to Jerusalem to the students' meeting at David Yellin College. I personally like to communicate with people that surround me, because I think that human beings should socialize with other people in order to know about new customs, habits and culture.*

The following student from Sakhnin expresses apprehension about possible preconceptions held by the students at David Yellin, RH (Sakhnin): *I have mixed feelings about our meeting with students of the David Yellin College. On the one hand, I am very excited to meet them and on the other hand, I am wondering and questioning if they are excited to, what previous thoughts they have about us...*

The following quotes point to an ambivalence regarding 'differences':

MR (Sakhnin): *I expect we will enjoy this meeting because we will work with a different group in a different city and a different place. In this meeting, we will deal with other students (who) are different from our culture, everyone of us has different ideas and opinions. This idea makes me a little bit nervous, but on the other hand makes me excited....*

This ambivalence is echoed by MH from Sakhnin:

When I think about our visit to Jerusalem, I expect to find people with different ways of thinking...I think I might see and meet people with different perspectives and expectations from life, and I hope that I find people with common ambition so I could get along with (them).

Most of the Jewish students predicted that difference would dominate the interaction, and a fair amount of apprehension was expressed. However, there was an awareness of the importance of learning from and about 'the other' expressed in many students' writings:

D. B.(DY): I think that the group will be different because we don't have the same culture and we have a different opinions but I also think that it could be interesting to see what the other side think and also to learn from another person

After the first meeting:

Reactions to the first meeting can be divided into those who expressed surprise in a negative fashion, those for whom the meeting reinforced existing apprehensions/expectations, and those who expressed surprise in a positive fashion.

There was a connection between a prior expression of fear/apprehension regarding cultural differences, and the post-meeting expression of discomfort or lack of connection because of observed differences in behavior.

AB (DY) The meeting wasn't almost at all as I expected. I was surprised by some of their behavior. I was surprised to see how much our mentality was different. They are very different from the Arab colleagues in David Yellin I learned about their college and a bit about their beliefs.*

MB (DY) The meeting was interesting although there was one thing I didn't like. They spoke Arabic between them near me and A. during the meeting and it made me feel uncomfortable. Otherwise, it was o.k. and we had some fun.

Both the above students had expressed apprehension about working with students from Sakhnin. In an individual meeting with AB, she told her instructor that she 'wasn't excited' about working with Arab students. After the meeting, her comment that she had 'more to say' elicited a request from her lecturer that she expand what she'd written. She refused, asking to speak with the lecturer.

* At the David Yellin college, some 20% of the students are Arabs. These students, however, were not included in this research.

A meeting was scheduled and 4 of the students came. They complained at what they considered 'rude' behavior on the part of the Sakhnin students. The 'rude' behavior included speaking in Arabic during the meeting. To the lecturers question as to whether they themselves had lapsed into Hebrew during the meeting, they answered, 'Yes, of course.' But that was not considered rude behavior...as they expected the Arab students to understand their language. Was it not understandable, asked the lecturer, that the Arab students would lapse into their mother tongue?

"But they were talking about us...and laughing," answered one student.

"But you said you didn't understand Arabic," said the lecturer.

"I could tell because they were looking at us."

This interaction clearly illustrates the dominant group's expectation that the minority surrender their linguistic identity in favor of the majority. A suggestion that 'maybe if we all knew Arabic, you wouldn't feel that way,' was met with shrugs.

AB also wrote the following, when predicting cultural difference:

It is possible we have different goals. Maybe they just want to get out of their nurturing homes and develop themselves and grow to be independent . They (the girls that are studying to be teachers) want to show their families, their husbands or boyfriend and even the world they worth something and that women can go outside their doorstep and hold a decent job, a situation that is not very appreciated in their culture.

The assumption here appears to be that 'their culture' inhibits women, whereas the woman coming from the dominant culture does not need to make the implied 'escape.' The 'other' culture appears monolithic, and the stereotype of the impediment ridden Arab woman is reinforced...whether or not it has a basis in the individual student's reality is not questioned.

In a further discussion with AB regarding her remark that these students were *very different from the Arab colleagues in David Yellin*, the lecturer heard that the students from Sakhnin were louder, and less polite than the two Arab students she knew in the English department. Perhaps, the lecturer suggested, these two students felt intimidated as a minority surrounded by the Jewish students in the class. Perhaps, if she and one other friend found themselves in a class at Sakhnin, they would also be 'quiet and polite.' Once again, the exchange points to majority expectations of minorities who should, it seems, blend in to what is viewed as majority culture.

Those students who expressed a positive sense of surprise were those who found a common basis they hadn't expected:

DB (DY): At first I was a little bit suspicious about the meeting but when we started working together I felt regret for my first thoughts. The girls were very friendly and it was nice working with them .

RA (DY): At the meeting, I realized that the girls from Sakhnen were just like me. They are students in college, friends, girlfriends, sisters, and daughters- just like me. We have seen the same movies lately, and go out with friends on the same sort of outings.

My initial thoughts about the project were a bit negative, but now that I've met my partners for the assignment, I'm feeling much more positive and excited. I hope that through the project process we will continue to teach and learn from each other.

Once again, it is the Sakhnin students who show unqualified enthusiasm:

CS (Sakhnin) : It was a wonderful experience I will never forget. I enjoyed my time very much. I met A and M they were very nice. All the group were lovely and cute. I also would like to say that this is a new way of learning (communicative learning) and I like it very much

AY (Sakhnin): My expectations of the meeting with David Yellin came true. The meeting was very amazing and exciting. I enjoyed (it). I'm very satisfied about all the things that were there: the activities, the conversations, all things. I had been scared before I saw my group but when I saw them my feelings changed completely. ... I learnt many things during this meeting but the special thing is: It does not matter who you are, because we are finally humans.

Suggestions for change in the group's presentation were usually preceded or followed by a compliment—especially when coming from the Sakhnin students. For example:

AS (Sakhnin): Hi R! I think that you should put key words in your powerpoint. Also, I want to tell you that I enjoyed alot in reading your article.

Both sides used reinforcement and congratulatory language, yet the praise was more evident in the Sakhnin students' reactions to the Yellin students' postings:

BK (Sakhnin): I found your article interesting, so thank you for that.

Or this qualified compliment (and suggestion for change):

BK (Sakhnin) I just wanted to tell you that you have done a very nice job but I found some mistakes...

Whereas superlative language was also evident:

SA (Sakhnin): I want to tell you that your power point is very amazing.

TA (DY) Hi M. Very nice power point! 😊

Final meeting reflections:

Student writings about the final meeting reflects an attitude change toward ‘the other’, and the change is most noticeable in the DY group, which had shown greater initial reservations. The Sakhnin students made greater use of superlatives (‘fantastic, amazing, outstanding’), whereas the language employed by the DY students was more moderate (‘interesting, good, treated us well’), and what remains to be investigated is whether or not this difference reflects a cultural difference in discourse style.

SA (Sakhnin): This course was very interesting, amazing and beautiful. It was fantastic to work with students from another college, another nationality and another religion. As a result of human's beings need to feel equal with other people,

AR (Sakhnin) Meeting students from David Yellin College was a good step.. We faced some difficulties, such us, carelessness and different opinions. However, I consider this problem as little one because we, thankfully, didn't face any racial problem. This course has given me a chance to learn more and more about Jewish people which are our neighbors in this country.

Regarding to the two face-to-face meetings with the students from David Yellin, I'd rather we had met more because it's much more interesting and effective to talk to someone face-to-face.

JA (DY) The meeting opened my mind and changed what I thought about arabs. I understand now that we are very similar and that they can be very good people. I think now I respect them more because I understand they are just like us.

TA (DY) The final meeting was very exciting; I got the feeling that trough out the semester we developed not only team work skills but also friendships. I was specially impressed by the hospitality shown by the students at Sachnin.

In-depth questions

Question 1: What was your first reaction to the idea of working with Arab/Jewish student?

Reactions were sharply divided. Three of the students from Sakhnin reported excitement, curiosity, and interest. One discusses her apprehensions: ‘I thought that they will hate me anyway, no matter what.’ Of the four students from David Yellin, three reflected on their

initial fear and apprehension: ‘scary and annoying’, ‘I was confused...I didn’t want to do a project with Arabs’, ‘my first reaction was terrible, I didn’t want to do it, I felt like I was being forced...’. Only one student wrote: ‘I didn’t have any objection to working with Arab students; ...I’m used to it because in David Yellin we are studying with Arabs.’ Thus, the replies to this question stand in stark contrast to Tropp et al’s findings that members of minority groups have lower expectations of inter-group encounters than do members of the majority group.

Question 2: Describe your feelings following the first meeting.

All four students from Sakhnin expressed an awareness of initial awkwardness, but a ‘thawing’ of the atmosphere as the meeting progressed. Even the student who had predicted that the Jewish students would ‘hate me no matter what’, felt comfortable by the end of the meeting. The four Jewish students were more guarded in their descriptions: two mentioned that their curiosity has been aroused by the meeting, and one spoke of the meeting being ‘more comfortable than I thought it would be’, while the other was *surprised* that the Arab students were so nice and polite.

Question 3: Did your feelings change from the first to the second meeting? If so, explain in what way.

In response to this question, the four students from Sakhnin expressed the opinion that the second meeting was more successful than the first. One attributed this to the fact that the second meeting took place in Sakhnin: “...*we were the host and that made me feel like it is a must that my friends from David Yellin feel most welcome, and feel the warmth we prepared for them in our humble hospitality.*”

One of the students from David Yellin expressed fear and reluctance about the visit to Sakhnin (“I didn’t want to go there and wished they would come to Jerusalem”), whereas others mentioned that the ‘times we communicated’ had helped build a relationship.

Question 4: Did you hold stereotypes about the other group before meeting them? If so, did the course change your views? If your answer is yes, which influenced you most: Face to face meetings, collaborative e-learning, or reflective journals?

Once again the difference between the two groups was clear. Three of the Sakhnin students claimed to have held no stereotypes regarding Jews (“we are all human”, “no – none whatsoever.”) However, the one student who had predicted that the Jewish students would ‘hate me no matter what’, explained that her past experiences in working with Jewish students who ‘weren’t nice to me at all’ had colored her expectations, and found that “my views have been affected and changed.” The Jewish students’ replies were interesting in their uniformity. One student claimed to have no stereotypes: “Not all of them are terrorists..” Another one stated: “I do have stereotypes...but I do distinguish between good and bad and I

know that not all Arabs are terrorists...". A third said that, "As a student who lives next to Arab villages, I had many stereotypes,"...and the fourth: also admitted to holding stereotypes.

Question 5: "Do you think you would like to keep in touch with anyone in the other group? Explain."

All four of the students from Sakhnin expressed a willingness and an interest in continuing the connection (although one added, "It depends on how much the other group is willing to initiate."). One explained that she wanted to 'learn more about Jews', another simply that 'I would like to get to know them better.' Of the four Jewish students, only one mentioned that 'one girl is my friend on facebook,' but qualified this with, "but I don't think I'll have any other connection with her." The other three students negated any possibility of a continued connection: "We don't have a lot in common and they live far from here," "What's done is done and there isn't a purpose for keeping in touch," and similarly, "We had a connection over the year for the project. But now, after we finished everything, everyone went their own way. Moreover, the distance is a problem."

Discussion

Findings point to the fact that students from Sakhnin (the minority group), expressed fewer negative attitudes in their journals at the beginning of the course than did their Jewish counterparts (the majority group), is in stark contrast to the trend noted by Tropp et al (2006) who found that members of minority groups (American Blacks) had less positive expectations of inter-group interactions than did members of majority groups (American Whites). Inter-group reactions between Blacks and Whites in the United States and those between Israeli Arabs and Jews have not been built on similar foundations, and perhaps the Arab students from the Galilee, for whom interaction with the Jewish population is a fact of life, are more positive simply because they have more experience with one-to-one interaction. The Jewish students, on the other hand, for whom the Arab population of Jerusalem is largely transparent, find the prospect of interaction foreign, unwelcome, and even threatening. Although the theme of apprehension appears in the reflections of both groups, it was the Jewish students who actually recoiled from the idea of the meetings and the collaboration, often expressing a stereotyped view of Arabs, making the 'Arab=terrorist' equation, even if it was in the negative: 'Not all Arabs are terrorists'.

On the whole, the course provided students with a glimpse into the world of the 'other'. The feelings of apprehension or fear held by both sides is a clear indication of the distance we, as a society, must travel. Indeed, the negation of commonality expressed in some of the Jewish students' reflections should sound loud warning bells to teacher educators throughout Israel, even though some reflections written by the Jewish students show that they did travel a certain distance from a departure point of fear and negation.

Conclusions

While recognizing that a one-year course has serious limitations, the researchers would hope that some of the students' discoveries will filter down into their classroom teaching strategies and eventually, reach the consciousness and awareness of the individual schoolchild. . In Israel, where Arab and Jew live side by side but remain entrenched in positions of mutual ignorance and isolation, teachers who have participated in a course which 'humanizes' the other group by discovering common interests and goals might be responsible for a ripple effect—for a younger generation able to go beyond bias, stereotypes and fear.

The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, stylized circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, curved lines. The upper-left portion of the circle is a light red color, while the rest of the circle is a light blue color, matching the text. The lines are not perfectly circular, creating a sense of movement and flow.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, light blue circular arc that is partially visible. A second, larger, light red circular arc is also visible, partially overlapping the blue one.

Appendix I*

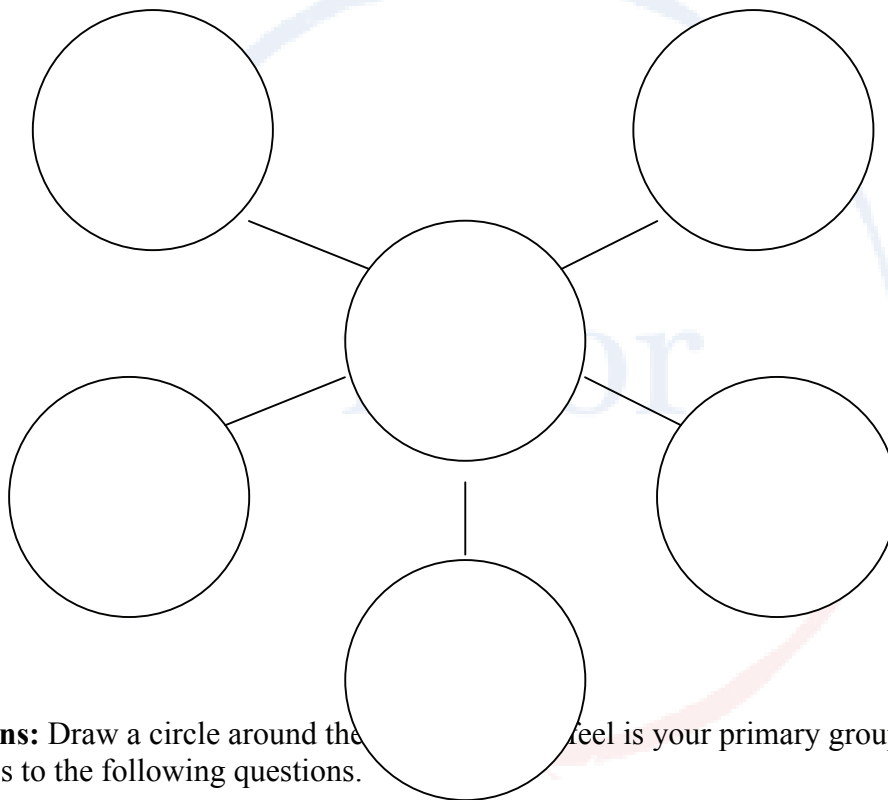
Examples of activities done within and between the groups:

We all belong to many groups

This activity highlights the multiple dimensions of our identity. It addresses the importance of defining what is important about ourselves as well as the importance of challenging stereotypes.

Part 1

Directions: Place your name in the center circle below. In each of the outer circles, write a group with which you identify. This can include anything: Asian, female, sister, athlete, student, Muslim, musician, or any group with which you identify. Try to avoid using personal characteristics, such as “adventurous” or “creative.”



Part 2

Directions: Draw a circle around the group that you feel is your primary group and share responses to the following questions.

1. Share a story about a time when it felt good to be a member of your primary group.

Share a story about a time when it was challenging or difficult to be a member of your primary group.

WORKSHEET: WHEN YOU SAY CONFLICT, I THINK OF...

Directions: When you hear the word “conflict,” what words do you think of? Using the following scale, place a number by each word in the list.

- 1= think of this word very often
- 2= think of this word sometimes
- 3= don't think of this word much at all

___ difference ___ innocent ___ hurt ___ anger
___ win/lose ___ decision ___ normal ___ disagree
___ guilty ___ unfair ___ struggle ___ right
___ clash ___ violence ___ fight ___ people
___ learning ___ wrong ___ war ___ ideas
___ agreement ___ against ___ separate ___ change
___ avoid ___ intervene ___ help

What other words do you think of? List them in the space below.

*Activities from:
Milofsky, A. (2001). *Conflict resolution for English language learners*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Institute of Peace.



Appendix II: Indepth Interview Questions

Dear student,

Hereby are some questions about the course "Dealing with Diversity". Your feedback is important to us. Please try to be as honest as possible!

1. What was your first reaction to the idea of working with Arab/Jewish students?

2. Can you describe your feelings about the first meeting?

3. Did your feelings change from the first to the second meeting? If so, explain in what way.

4. Did you have any stereotype about the other group before meeting them? If so, did the course have any effect on your views? If the answer is yes, which part of the course affected it? (face to face meeting/ collaborative elearning/ reflective journal?)

5. Do you think you would like to keep in touch with anyone in the other group? Explain

6. Please give your opinion regarding the course!

Thank you!
Aliza & Manal

The Ways of Intercultural Communication to Promote Multicultural Education in Georgia

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Introduction

The process of globalization and technological development has given a significant importance to the detection of problems connected with intercultural communication and implementation of effective strategies for their elimination. Improvement of current situation imperatively requires focusing on the issues of multicultural education. The future generations need to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to become successful members of the Global World within their own countries and any other place. This will give them tools for effective interaction while working with people from diverse cultures.

These practical requirements are encouraged by the change of public perception - the recognition of the cultural diversity as an absolute value combined with the vulnerability of the existence of many traditional cultures, and the danger of their extinction. In the global society it is crucial to recognize that there are different cultures with different cultural norms, practices and expectations.

The purpose of this paper is to give a brief historical background of multiethnic and multicultural Georgia, overview the current situation and outline the needs for multicultural education (ME) in Georgia. The paper describes the measures taken by the Government of Georgia, as well as the role of international projects in promoting ME and preserving cultural diversities at the same time. As intercultural communication (IC) is the core issue in ME, it will dwell on the ways of IC focusing on the current language policy of the Ministry of Education and Science (MES) of Georgia and Georgian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in order to enhance the process of integrating ethnic minorities in educational, social, cultural and political life of society, and in a broader context, to help citizens of Georgia to integrate with the contemporary global world.

General Background

The emergence of multicultural education as a social phenomenon was stipulated by practical demands after World War II - fast economic development of many countries and regions, revolutionary changes in technology and the globalization of economic activities.

It becomes increasingly clear that technological development and cooperation in various fields necessitates closer cooperation among different cultures. These changes highlighted the urgency of intercultural communication, which, in turn, entails considerable emphasis on issues of multicultural education.

Transferring multiculturalism in education creates intercultural educational environment. Multicultural education and intercultural pedagogy has no alternative. According to Ouellet (Ouellet, 1991, cited in Intercultural Learning T-Kit 2000, p. 56) intercultural training promotes:

- Better understanding of cultures in modern society;
- Improvement of communication skills between representatives of different cultures;
- Open attitude towards cultural diversity;
- Social interaction skills, development of sense of identity and belonging to mankind.

National Background

Georgia is a multiethnic state. Abkhazians, Osetians, Armenians, Jews, Azeris, Greeks, Kurds, Russians and other nationalities have lived for centuries side by side with Georgians.

Foreign historians, alongside with Georgian scholars (Muskhelishvili, Anchabadze, Takaishvili, Javakhishvili, et al.) recognize that the religious and national conflicts, animosity towards different cultures was not characteristic to Georgia. It is well known that Georgia, where Jews have lived for centuries, is most likely a unique country where there has been no expression of institutionalized anti-Semitism.

The basis for ethnic, religious and cultural tolerance was formed and supported by long-term and multilateral relations with neighboring civilizations.

The peaceful coexistence, communication and civic integration among various ethnic and religious groups living in Georgia have become a severe problem due to the Soviet legacy. Intercultural relations among them are impeded by ignorance of cultural inheritance and national traditions of different nations. All of these contribute to the establishment of ethnic, religious and cultural stereotypes, alienation, and isolation. The Policy of Multicultural Education has become much more consistent since 2005.

Namely, the following documents determining multicultural education policy in Georgia have been worked out and endorsed by the Georgian Government: "National Concept and Action Plan for Tolerance and Civic Integration" (Government of Georgia, Ministry of Education and Science, 2009) and "Multilingual Education Strategy and Action Plan" worked out by the Ministry of Education and Science (2009). Within the framework of the latter, under the auspices of the "Multilingual Education Program", bilingual education program was piloted in 40 non-Georgian schools.

According to the statistics (2009) of the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, there are 234 non-Georgian and 140 mixed type schools in Georgia, which is about 11% of the total number of public schools. There are approximately 72 thousand ethnically non-Georgian students. As for the number of teachers in non-Georgian schools it amounts 9.5% (6541 teachers) of the total number of public school teachers (68779 teachers) (Government of Georgia, Ministry of Education and Science, 2012).

Considerable attention is given to the issue of multicultural education and relationship in certain documents and training programs elaborated by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia. According to the Georgian Law on General Education (2004), the citizens of Georgia, to whom the Georgian Language is not their native language, have the right to get general education in their native language. Consistent with the second paragraph of the 13th article of the same Law, it is stated: in a public school the use of studies for the purposes of religious indoctrination, proselytism or forcible assimilation is forbidden" (Government of Georgia, Georgian Law on General Education, p. 21). The 6th paragraph of the same article reads: "a public school is obliged to keep and promote the establishment of tolerance and mutual

respect among pupils, parents and teachers regardless of their social, ethnic, religious, language and ideological affiliation" (Government of Georgia, Georgian Law on General Education, p. 21) and so forth.

Curricula of social sciences, foreign and native languages stipulates to develop intercultural competences of a pupil. One of the basic goals of the mentioned curricula is to shape a tolerant citizen having human dignity and rights. This and other requirements stated in educational documents are adequate to international experience though the only declaration of the adopted decisions and no practical implementation still remains to be a basic problem.

Measures taken

According to the Law on Higher Education of Georgia (2010, p. 6) among the goals of higher education it is stated:

- A) To promote the development of Georgian and world culture values, orientation on the ideals of democracy and humanism, which are necessary for the existence and development of civil society;
- B) To realize personal potential, develop the creative skills, train the competent persons capable of satisfying modern requirements, provide for competitiveness of graduates on domestic and international labor markets.

What specific steps are taken towards these goals?

Based on the above, it is obvious that the issue of multicultural education in the context of a multicultural society is of utmost importance. Significant steps have been taken to promote multicultural education in Georgia. As language is the most powerful tool for intercultural communication, we would like to briefly outline the current language policy in Georgia.

Ministry of Education and Science (MES) of Georgia has initiated several programs that focus on the importance of teaching the Georgian, as the state language, to ethnic minorities living in Georgia in order to enhance the process of their integration in educational, social, cultural and political life of society. Namely, the program "Teaching Georgian as a second language" trains Georgian Language and Literature teachers to send in the multiethnic regions, such as Samtskhe-Javakheti, Kakheti and Kvemo Kartli, where the ethnic Armenians and Azerbaijanis represent the majority of the population. In 2009-2012 86 teachers were trained according to this program, and 75 teachers employed in these regions.

Another program aimed at promoting teaching Georgian is "The Georgian language for future success". The goal of this program is to promote the process of state language teaching in the above mentioned multiethnic regions of Georgia in the framework of strategies for civic integration of ethnic minorities. Within this program volunteer native speakers of Georgian, with a bachelor's degree, are recruited to teach in multiethnic regions. Both of these programs are sponsored by the MES, providing additional incentives, like scholarships to cover the full tuition fee for MA degree studies, additional salary, etc.

Also, there is a special 1-year (2 semester) Georgian language preparation educational program for Azerbaijani and Armenian students at Georgian HEIs. The aim of this program is to support ethnic minorities living in Georgia to be able to fully integrate into the civic society and contribute to its development. Tbilisi State University can train up to 352 ethnic Azerbaijani and Armenian students annually.

As a post-Soviet country, Georgia is at a turning point in its history. For centuries, while other countries and cultures were globalizing, Georgia's borders were closed to the outside world. Now, as a sovereign state, Georgia has the opportunity to integrate with the rest of the world – linguistically and culturally.

As part of a series of extensive reforms to the Georgian educational system, Teach and Learn with Georgia (TLG), a progressive education movement initiated by the Georgian government and the President of Georgia, was created in 2010 at the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia to bring native English speakers to volunteer in Georgian schools and live in Georgian communities, serving as language teachers, communication partners, and cultural ambassadors. The primary goal of TLG is to improve the English language skills of Georgian students, teachers and families, which is essential to Georgia's ability to assimilate into the modern world. Further, bringing native English speakers from diverse cultures into not only the classroom, but the communities, as well, encourages interaction and the sharing of values and customs.

Following intensive strategic planning, the first group of volunteer English teachers arrived to Georgia in July 2010. By April 2013, three years after the program was announced, 46 groups of around 3000 volunteers, from over 43 countries, have been placed throughout all nine regions of Georgia.

Besides the above mentioned, there are also a number of international projects aimed at promoting multicultural education in Georgia. Since 2012, five higher education institutions and two non-governmental organizations from Georgia have been involved in the Tempus project - "Development of International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training (DOIT) initiated by Gordon Academic College of Education (Israel) and coordinated by Dr. Rhonda Sofer. Alongside six higher education and one non-governmental institutions from Israel there are five educational institutions from Europe involved in the project. The number of institutions involved in consortium and the scope of project clearly shows the topicality of multicultural education for involved countries and institutions.

The project aims to promote multicultural education by creating both syllabi for theoretical courses on cultural, ethnic, religious, etc, diversity, and for pedagogical approaches proper. The latter course under the common title "Pedagogical Approaches that Promote Multicultural Understanding in the Classroom" is aimed at BA, MA level students, as well as in-service teacher training programs. Within this course, the unit titled "Communication and Social Media" was developed by DOIT project members Nino Chiabrishvili (Ilia State University), David Malazonia (Ilia State University), Izabella Petriashvili (Tbilisi State University) and Ina Baratashvili (Tbilisi State University).

Today it is becoming increasingly obvious that collaboration in various fields entails close communication of people belonging to different cultures. Contacts with

cultures, that are not similar to their native, have become everyday life experiences of individuals. This makes the issue of intercultural communication and understanding extremely challenging.

The unit on Communication and Social Media was designed according to holistic approach, on the basis of the following formula: Knowledge + Skills + Attitude /Disposition = Competence

In the process of incorporating the holistic approach we shared the idea developed by James Banks (2004, p.7), that for multicultural education teacher should be able to learn and also be able to teach to students following three things: to know, to be able to do, and to care: “Knowledge - Skills – Attitudes” model, which is also called "Three H" model after the first letters of three important words – Head, Hand and Heart.

Thus, according to the model, it is important: (a) to know, or Head – one should have knowledge, (b) to be able to do, or Hands – one should have skills, (c) to want to do, or Heart – one should care.

Let us briefly introduce the rationale for our course:

Good communication can help to promote a productive multicultural environment. Communication is at the core of any business, especially in the field of education. The course is about how we share information, how we establish trust, how we develop relationships and how we maintain effective relationships in multicultural settings. The course will promote effective communication in diverse environment; show the risks and difficulties of misunderstanding reasoned by miscommunication; offer effective tools of skillful verbal and non-verbal communication. Social media as a potent tool of communication in the contemporary world can be efficiently employed for promoting effective intercultural communication among representatives of diverse cultural backgrounds. It is important to teach students how to get maximum benefit by using various new media - social media technologies to establish positive, mutually beneficial communication.

The objectives of this educational unit are incorporated based on Banks’ 5 dimensions for Multicultural Education (2013). Namely:

1. The dimension of knowledge construction:

- To improve basic skills in listening, outlining, using verbal and visual supporting materials, language use, nonverbal cues, and other components of effective oral communication;
- To enhance awareness of the importance of social media in multicultural communication

2. The dimension of content integration

- To provide examples of successful/unsuccessful communication; analyze/discuss the reasons; provide tips for successful communication

3. The dimension of Equity pedagogy:

- Learning oriented on action (e.g. creating and carrying out an event via social networking);
- Project Based Learning (PBL)

4. The Dimension of prejudice reduction

- To show the risks of miscommunication and offer effective tools of successful communication

5. Empowering school culture

- To develop relevant skills for establishing effective intercultural communication on school level via personal communication & social networking

Conclusion

Georgia has a rich experience of peaceful coexistence in a multicultural environment. However, the new challenges have been posed by globalization in multicultural countries like Georgia. The responses to these challenges obviously should be found in the system of education in the form of creating and developing strategies and tools that promote multicultural education. The government of Georgia with the Ministry of Education and Sciences, Higher Education Institutions, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders have taken meaningful steps. However, the 'cultural threats' still remain the main threat and do not allow us to be satisfied with what has been achieved, because 'Today, despite information technologies such as the World Wide Web, there is no 'global village culture' and we have not reached Francis Fukuyama's 'end of history' (Hofstede, 2005, p. 426). Intercultural Communication is an important tool that could be helpful in preserving and developing the multicultural environment. Perfection of intercultural communication is a continuous process and it requires constant efforts from individuals involved in the field of education and from the entire multicultural community.

Finally, we hope that the work done within the TEMPUS project DOIT: Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training – the developed syllabi, readers and other educational materials – will be beneficial not only for the participating HEIs, but other institutions working in the field of Multicultural Education.

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The logo for the International Association for Frontiers in Education Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue arc that curves from the bottom left towards the right side of the page. There is also a faint, light red arc on the left side of the page.

Museum to Open Skies: The Cemetery as Proposal for Pedagogical Practices

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The European Conference on Education 2013

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Abstract

We realized different ways societies express the feeling about death, but always keeping the idea of preserving the memory of the dead by the image in an attempt to keep alive their identities. Thus the tomb constructions inside the public and private cemeteries shows this concern to preserve the memory through works of renowned artists, tombs of important personalities, texts and other traces that tell the story of the people buried there, making the space a museum the open sky.

The cemetery is analyzed from the perspective of the Open Air Museum, where we propose that the educational activity is made through study of the tombstones and funerary monuments, starting from the following assumptions: Source historic regional culture; expression of religious belief through symbols; analysis of artistic taste inserted into works of art, source of political ideology through the celebration of civic memory, a form of preservation of ethnic identities and ultimately a source of historical and artistic heritage. Thus, the communication aims to present how teachers can use the cemetery as a pedagogical resource that assists in the practice and promotion of education in the Humanities. We believe that the cemetery can be used as a guiding theme generator and to assist the rescue of a proposal in transdisciplinary teaching practice.

Keywords – Cemetery – Pedagogical Practices – Tombstone Art

Initial Considerations

Think about the space for the dead is to think about the cultural society that organizes and gives meaning to that space. Unlike the common thought that assigns to the cemetery, delegating elements often superstitious and supernatural, these - the cemeteries - are full of meanings social, political, religious, cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

Therefore it is necessary to develop a hermeneutic about the productions and expressions contained in the holy camps, seeking to interpret the contextual way the symbolic elements of the cultures found there.

We realized different ways societies express the feeling about death, but always keeping the idea of preserving the memory of the dead by the image in an attempt to keep alive their identity. Just as there is a need to keep alive the identity of the dead, there is also the need to preserve the cultural identity of a society at a given period of time.

Cemeteries are great examples of this need to keep "alive" the cultural identity of a particular group, which express this idea in different ways, either through epitaphs, statuary, photographs or symbols. This type of evidence is associated with the mode of symbolic domination, according to Baczko (1985, p.332), any collectivity produces a symbolic system that understands the social imaginary, so being an instrument for the preservation of cultural memory.

Preserving the memory of the dead strengthens the affirmation of cultural identity, which according to Le Goff (1994, p. 476) "memory is an essential element of what is called identity, individual or collective, whose quest is one of the fundamental activities of individuals and societies today." It also states that in certain cases, is associated with the memory of the dead of the society in which it appears, around the common memory.

The cemeteries preserve identity at a time when visualize the social differentiations are highlighted because the major monuments are intended to seconded members of dominant groups while the middle class goes to the catacombs modestly decorated, so at certain periods the cemeteries of our cities reflect social stratification (Bellomo, 2000. p.51).

As Geertz,

The meanings may be "stored" in symbols: a cross, or a snake with feathers. Such religious symbols, dramatized in rituals and reported in myths, seem to assume, somehow, at least for those who resonate with them, everything that is known about how the world is, the quality of emotional life that it supports, and how should behave who is in it. Therefore, the sacred symbols relate an ontology and a cosmology (2008, p.94)

The symbol is also the symbol of artistic culture. Different from religious symbols that express the faith of the individual, family and community also buried there, tomb art often seek to exalt a particular element through the social status of the family, the artistic taste and also the ethnic origins of family members. Thus, these elements

gravestones express directly the social cultural changes in a given region in a given time period.

So, thinking in school practice, the study of heritage can be performed in the spaces cemeterial, since in all districts there are at least a cemetery, and there are also schools in each city, with these teachers from higher education, and these last, the object of our educational project, because we believe that education should not only be conceived only theoretically, but also experienced in its many aspects.

Working with the graveyard theme in the classroom is something that requires planning, creativity and mostly rhetorical skill in time to convince the pedagogical coordination and students to visit the graveyard space with pedagogical purpose. This need to convince the school community to study issues related to the cemetery is on the idea of "blindness of death" in the words of Edgar Morin: "We pretend that death does not exist because everyday life is slightly marked by the death" (1997, p.63).

The graveyard area has numerous resources for study and is an excellent educational tool that can rescue the student's interest and to assist the teacher of Humanities to develop a differentiated and creative activity with their students.

Think the graveyard as a resource for teaching and learning is something bold in the field of education, since it is about many theories, but hardly puts them into practice. For learning to act, it is necessary to rescue the idea of Reciprocity of Doll:

The willingness to learn is an intrinsic motive, ie who finds in practice both the source and the reward; becomes a problem only under special conditions, such as a school where a curriculum determines confined to students and follows is a fixed path. The problem is not on learning itself, but the fact that the school levies fail to awaken natural energies that sustain spontaneous learning - curiosity, the desire for competence, aspiration to follow a model and dedication to social reciprocity. (1997, p. 125)

Therefore, working with the space graveyard will cause the curiosity of the academic group and formulation of numerous questions that will be sought by the students themselves. In addition, the interest also unveil the unknown that according Wadworth: "The unknown and unpredictable and can cause cognitive conflict interest" (1993, p.154)

Considering that the cemetery is a place of collective memory, individual, religious and cultural, we can use the idea Zanella to affirm the pedagogical usefulness of learning that the study of space graveyard can offer:

Memory is a very important factor in learning, since without it the learning would become meaningless. It is the memory element that makes the connection between yesterday and today, and although there is still substantial knowledge about its functioning, it is known that through it, at least in part, what has been learned will be retained and somehow some facts can be reactivated by the memory. Memory is important because it allows the identity of yesterday, establishing a relationship with today, with now.

Retention means the recognition and relearning, processes always present when it comes to learning. (2003, p.27 - 28)

Thus, lack of memory and cultural heritage can be understood through the study of symbols expressed in the tombs of the cemeteries, making it an excellent tool for conceptual memory reactivation, since it takes to reflect on the finitude of life.

With the use of space in a graveyard academic debate, you can share stories of life inside a classroom would possibly restricted to individual thought. The sharing of stories is a feature of rapprochement between educator and student as expressed Klein: "We are all, finally, stories" in play "and the educational process (in general, not just religious), we wish that from the stories read divided and experienced, our students become increasingly subject and protagonists of their own history." (2008, p.87)

Modernity, Cemetery, Religion and the Denial of Death

We believe that in today's society, building stately funeral works no longer be the object of the biggest concerns of the family. Until the mid-1970s, exquisite tombs indicated social status (Bellomo, 1988. p.19). Thereafter, society has found new ways to establish riches, for example through the acquisition of automobiles of high market value. This issue has intensified since the 1990s, a period of strong political, technological and cultural.

For Morin (1997, p.44), when man individualizes death becomes aware of its inevitability, and seeks to create myths and beliefs that deny the finitude of existence through immortality, resurrection, reincarnation, among other ways that eternize its existence. Thus, to overcome the pain of the loss of individuality, it would seek to preserve the particularity of the individual. The symbolic representations set out in cemeteries, then would act towards less homogenize death than to individualize the dead, so that his personality does not disappear.

The cemetery then assumes the character of perpetuating individual identity through the funeral works, is a tombstone, a mausoleum, a cross or any other form of eternal keeping alive the memory.

Today we see an appreciation of the urban plan of the new cemetery, which contains comfortable lounges, gardens, flower shops, restaurants, and other amenities.

In a society of fast and disposable spend time and money on something that is not focused for pleasure, quite the contrary, it is something that should be avoided and when not possible, mitigated to the maximum. Therefore, rituals and events related to death are not always so important. Grief and especially dressing in black, came to thin, and so sets up an escape for greater individual reflection on the topic. For Bauman and his book *Postmodernity and its discontents* death is something that should be isolated:

One strategy is to hide from view the death of those close to oneself and expel it from memory; put the terminally ill care professionals; trust the old

ghettos in geriatric long before they are entrusted to the cemetery, the prototype of all ghettos; funerals transfer away from public places; moderate the public display of grief and sorrow; explain psychologically suffering loss as cases of therapy and personality problems. On the other hand, however, as Georges Balandier recently reminded us, death is trivialized to the proliferation of images. (1998, p.198)

Finally, we conclude that the cemeteries, pass through a structural revisiting, in which even the religious expressions of cemeteries in large urban centers, before directly linked to confessionalidades now acquire elements that demonstrate a religious bricolage, that way including elements from several religions and even profane¹. These characteristics that make it so rich to develop educational activities.

Not just knowing that a legacy of cultural value is considered relevant. You need to know and disseminate these values, become aware of what it means or might mean to a social group or community. One should also find out and inform the public about all the operations necessary for its preservation: operations including the maintenance, preservation, restoration, usage, and other administration because the cemetery can be considered an open air museum and should be exploited as a source educational.

With the passage of this practice in the classroom, we believe that graveyard research should not be only in academic discussion, but it must be disseminated to elementary students (final series) and high school students from the classes of History, Religion, Philosophy, Sociology, and Theatre Arts. This practice will make be able to attract attention from teachers and students to make learning meaningful and interesting in the area of humanities, which are usually branded as theoretical disciplines and uninteresting to new views of postmodern society.

¹ Another manifestation of this denial of death or the feeling of death is the creation of Parks Cemeteries in Brazil. They have as main feature the architectural organization of space tombstone in a standardized way, favoring the landscape, structured as a park. There is no demonstration of mourning and finitude of existence. The issue will be addressed in another article.

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Hard Skills Will Qualify You, with Soft Skills You'll Rank the First

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The aim of this paper is to address the urgent need of transforming university curriculum in the realm of interpersonal skills. The standard of university education in the Czech Republic is very high regarding knowledge, facts and hard skills in general. However, it does not at all correspond to the level of real-life skills, skills that embrace interacting with people, as demonstrated frequently by our students during their lessons. It addresses the issue of incorporating these, so called soft skills, into university curriculum, either as a compact course, as individual seminars or as individual activities introduced within regular coursework. The stance of the authors is, that such implementation is of utmost significance to all students, regardless of their field of study or level of education.

The definition of soft skills, as we see them, corresponds to the definition of Oxford dictionary and reads: soft skills are “personal attributes that enable someone to interact effectively and harmoniously with other people.” And as groups (both informal and formal) are becoming most relevant at workplaces, considerably more than individual people, this social harmony is considered requisite, since “it is the ability to harmonize that, all other things being equal, (it) will make one group especially talented, productive and successful, and another – with members whose talent and skill are equal in other regards – do poorly.” (Goleman, 1996, p.160)

After careful needs analysis regarding our students, we defined the key areas that needed to be covered, and consequently compiled a list of relevant essential skills. The next step logically being, coming up with activities that would help students in acquiring these crucial skills. What were those key areas?

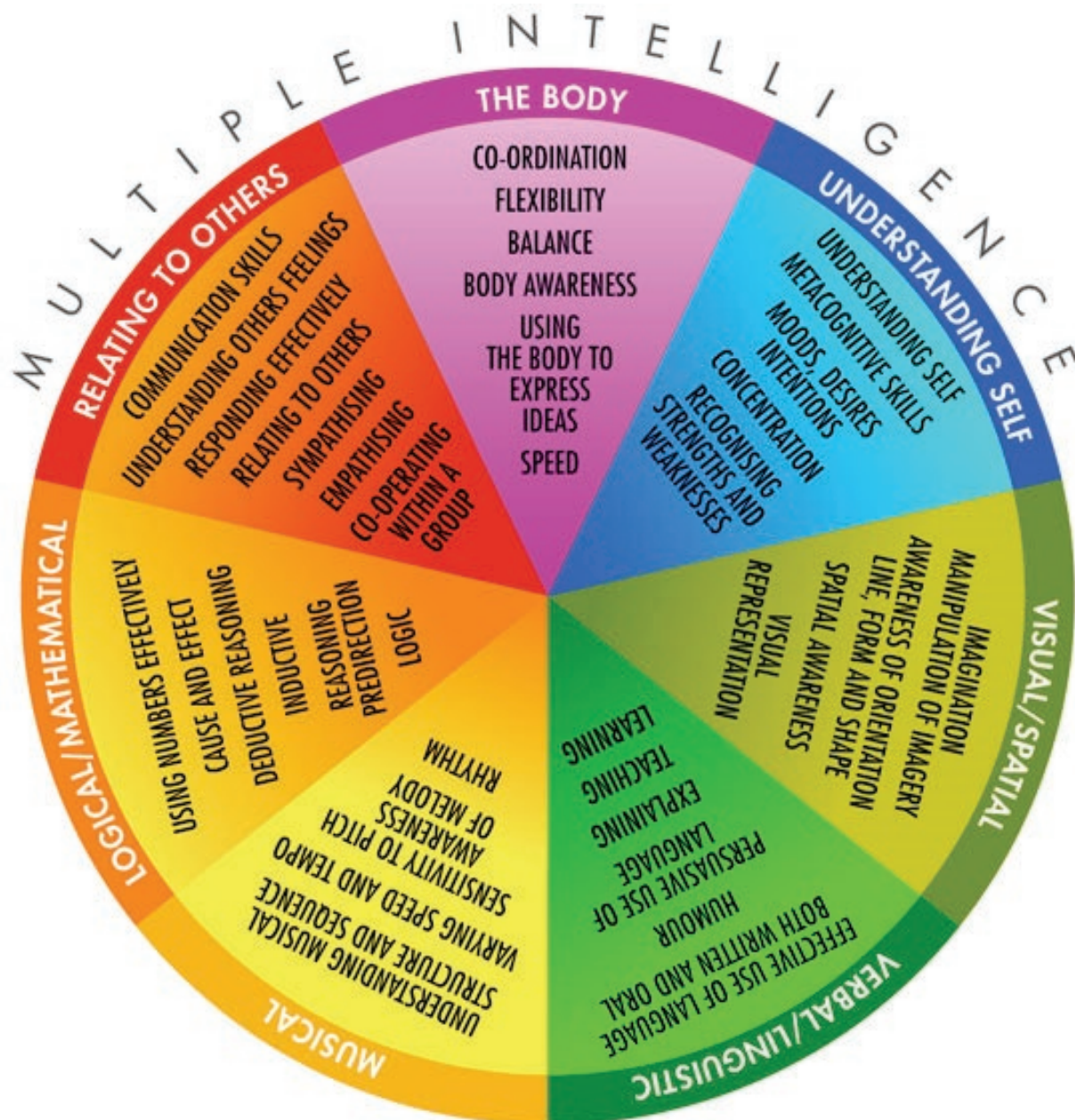
- **Ability to communicate well within a group** of peers as well as outside that group - to verbalize a message clearly, to get the message across, to understand the underlying code of a given communication exchange, level of formality, voicing a complaint, artful critique; clarity, conciseness, concreteness, correctness, coherence, completeness, courtesy, but also verifying the desired impact of the message on its recipients,
 - **ability to work in a team structure** - identifying team roles, outlining their functions and implications, determining one’s own inclinations towards a certain team role and highlighting the importance of every one of them in a team, cooperation within a team, leadership, conflict mediation,
 - **ability to make decisions and solve problems** - on individual as well as group basis, different perspectives when approaching a problem,
 - **ability to plan, organize and prioritize work** - criteria to consider, what information is needed, what information is redundant, who needs to be consulted,
 - **ability to obtain and process information** - informal and formal sources and channels of information,
 - **ability to analyze data** - input in general, decoding systems, understanding the underlying principles and sets of implicit social rules,
 - **ability to sell or influence others** - how to present oneself and things, what works in presenting to people, what doesn’t, implicit messages, focused praise, body language and how to consciously use it, validating feelings.
- Affecting and complementing all these abilities is also,
- **self-reflection** (knowing oneself, ways of self-motivation, learning how to learn, analyzing one’s weaknesses, strengths, opportunities and threats, listening to feedback on one’s own performance and being able to learn from it, determining which area

one is good at and making the best of it along with trying to make the best of the weaker areas).

After further observation, it was revealed, that for the purpose, the requisite are even more intangible skills and abilities, such as **empathy, intuition, trust, creativity, playfulness** (“If little kids could play more, you’d have better engineers, better managers and more inspiration in the workplace. If you deny a baby or a toddler the chance to play, and then put him in a preschool where he is always competing and being measured, you get fear and that leads to an unwillingness to take risks. You end up with boring adults... who look stellar on paper but lack spark, social awareness and gumption in person. They would rather be told what to do than take a problem by the scruff of the neck and solve it with a flash of brilliance. (Nigel Cumberland, former headhunter, now coach, in Honoré 2008, p.56) **initiative, self-discipline** (such as handling failure, learning from one’s own mistakes, managing change or delaying gratitude) and **cooperation**. As farfetched for university education as it sounds, it is actually feasible to train people in those.

We presumed that what was needed, were practical, authentic, hands-on experience activities that would show to students the correlation between the theory and reality without us telling them; therefore bringing into practice the key principle of education, learner learning on his or her own and therefore remembering forever. Taking inspiration everywhere, from children games through teambuilding activities to creating new dimensions to popular, always working, language teaching strategies, we compiled a portfolio of activities that can be used for virtually any purpose and any target group with a certain amount of tailoring. Some of the activities were as follows:

- **Self-presentations:** students were asked to prepare at home 5-minute-long mini-presentations of themselves; they were given absolute freedom as to the format or data they wanted to share. These presentations were then filmed and played back to students towards the very end of the course after having acquired all the necessary background. They were given a follow-up series of reflection and feedback activities to guide them through evaluating their own work as well as that of other participants. The essential elements here were: **preparation** –as they were thinking it through, they were actually getting to know themselves, which is a start to any soft skill; **presenting** – practising their presentation skills as such and realizing that a good presentation is in fact a performance, so a good degree of **creativity** is needed. They learned that getting feedback from fellow students and teachers is useful but that providing feedback on their own performance is even more useful and much more difficult than on work of other people. By comparing what they saw, they could discriminate what worked and where they failed and why, realising what they like with others and what they don’t, where to find inspiration for enhancing their skills and what they wanted to avoid at all costs.
- **Howard Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences** – self-reflection on what intelligences are their own, using activities from the book *Knowing Me, Knowing You*.



Source: <http://www.tumblr.com/tagged/multiple-intelligences>

- **Team work** – intuition – assessing the personality of somebody you have only just met and describing it – checking if other people can guess who is being described (checking accuracy of their estimates), creating an ideal team worker and presenting him/her, guiding a blinded partner through a minefield and being led in return, putting oneself into someone else's shoes...

At a certain point, we were requested to create an optional intensive course for students of Masaryk University. After the course was run several times and we reflected deeply on the feedback, we were then asked to tailor the course for language teachers, who come to the Pedagogical Faculty for more training in their own free

time. Invariably, the student-teachers could not indicate enough how essential this was in their everyday teaching and how crucial this training was.

It was rather challenging as we could not anticipate the outcome before we actually carried the course through. However, the feedbacks showed that it was a valuable and strategic decision and that calling attention towards these skills was long longed for. When participants reflected on the course, they often mentioned that the authentic situations gave them priceless experience that would change their perspective forever. They highlighted the uniqueness of the environment, since a language course is an ideal place for such training. They also emphasised that in this context, a typical classroom challenge of having a multifaceted audience, was actually a benefit, an added value, as it demonstrated naturally all the different types of people we encounter in real world. Therefore, just as we presumed, the cumulative advantage was beneficial, not taking into account the additional benefit for the teachers, and that is, virtually leading them to see how to work with their own students by setting an example. Nevertheless, some participants voiced certain reservations relating to the nature of the course – Czech reality being very conservative – that less extrovert students would not be able to benefit from the course or that result-oriented students would feel they haven't done much.

After evaluation of the course though, it was evident, that our assumption turned out valid; our mission now is to incorporate individual elements of soft skills into all courses we teach, since in a classroom, just as in a real world, there are always people to get along with. To support our argument, we put together a presentation of all relevant data to be presented at this conference and to show how these things relate to success of graduates when looking for a job and also when starting to work in one because for example in Canada 67% of senior executives say soft skills are a major characteristic missing in (job) candidates. (www.workopolis.com)

The challenges were numerous. Soft skills are intangible and, as such, it is difficult to measure the success of mastering them. Result-oriented teachers feel they aren't working productively with the class. On top of it, teaching these skills is teacher-demanding, one activity will work with one group and not with another and therefore creativity, intuition and improvisation are of utmost importance.

The positives outweighed the challenges as the lessons were always different and unique, bringing a new perspective to everybody involved, including the teachers. What works very well here is co-teaching as these groups are invariably full of insights and questions and it is crucial to adopt the material as we go along. This is best done when two teachers are present, as one is always leading an activity and the other is free to prepare the following one or is making sure everybody understood the instructions etc. With two teachers, it is worthwhile to apply the good cop – bad cop model and let the students know at the very beginning, who is who, as they are then more comfortable with somebody providing the critical point of view. Another considerable advantage is, that it can serve any purpose, any topic can be approached from that perspective, even grammar (reported speech, I wish, future, conditionals, hypothetical structures and others.) And, as was previously mentioned, unlike with ordinary classes, the more diverse the group, the better. All in all, it raises students' awareness regarding inter-personal issues and they are then able to continue the work in this area on their own, which is the desired course of action as the key here is

intermittent reinforcement. The teacher and student become more of a partner to each other and students are partly co-creating the course, bringing it close to the principles of self-directed learning or learners' autonomy, where the student is no longer instructed in what to do and how to do it. The intrinsic idea here is, to accept the students as partners and experts on their own learning (Karlsson, Kjisik, Nordlund, 2006). Nobody knows them better than they know themselves (especially not a teacher who encounters them 13 times a term for 90 minutes in a seminar group of 15). Furthermore, when the students are more involved in taking the responsibility, making the decisions and self-reflection, they are prone to show more effort in the whole learning process (Dornyei, Z., 2001).

There is another argument in favour of teaching soft skills at universities, and that is, as we as teachers, as well as the participants realised, that there is not much opportunity to acquire soft skills and to learn about them at our universities. Departments and faculties typically presume that students miraculously know how to present, how to interact, how to perform etc., and therefore do not provide any additional training in this field. The courses of English as a foreign language, English for academic purposes and specific purposes then allow students to discover and subsequently develop the skills and soft skills that will frequently be applied in their mother tongue in their respective major subjects. This is a very natural course of matters that had not occurred to us before and that naturally directs the EAP and ESP courses into the role of an instrument that helps the students both with their language skills and with their relevant studies in their mother tongue.

To sum it up, soft skills are ideal for language learning, especially at universities, they bring an element of fun into the classroom, they raise awareness; **create a platform for sharing and acknowledging differences** and they make BETTER students as well as TEACHERS. They bring more personal relationship between teachers and students which is positively sought after. Last but not least, they help our students to be more employable and better workers when employed.

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Effectiveness of Social Problem-Solving Skills Training in Reducing some Behavioral Problems For Children with Mild Intellectual Disability

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Abstract

An important area of development for children with intellectual disability is the development of social skills and social relationships. To interact and be accepted among one's peers, a child must be able to interpret social situations and problems appropriately, select an acceptable strategy for dealing with the situation, and enact that strategy. Research indicates that individuals with intellectual disability have limited social or interpersonal skills, suffer from several behavioral problems and are more likely to experience psychological problems than those without, and consequently are more in need of psychological services. A critical review of the literature related to social problem-solving skills training (SPSST) in children with intellectual disabilities concluded that there is some evidence that training may be effective in improving some aspects of social behavior of those children. However, there is a need for further investigations to evaluate the efficacy of this kind of training in reducing maladaptive behaviors of those children. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the effectiveness of a social problem-solving skills training program in reducing behavioral problems for children with mild intellectual disability. A classic pre-post test design was used, with an experimental and a control group each of which consists of (6) children (aging 10-13) with intellectual disability. The participants of the experimental group participated in 21 group sessions of social problem-solving training over seven weeks. The findings indicate that the social problem-solving training has been successful in reducing some behavioral problems. Limitations of the current study and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: Social problem-solving training; intellectual disability; mental retardation; adaptive behavior, behavior problems; Egypt

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Introduction and Rational

An important area of development for children with intellectual disability is the development of social skills and social relationships (Jacobs et al, 2002). The ability and tendency to interact socially permeates almost all aspects of one's life, but it is particularly important during school years when children spend a large amount of time with their peers. To interact and be accepted among one's peers, a child must be able to interpret social situations and problems appropriately, select an acceptable strategy for dealing with the situation, and enact that strategy.

Research indicates that individuals with intellectual disability have limited social or interpersonal skills are more likely to experience psychological problems than those without, and consequently are more in need of psychological services (Nezu, Nezu, & Arean, 1991). Consequently, there is a great need for developing independent social problem solving competencies among individuals with intellectual disability so that they may effectively handle interpersonal problem situations that they face daily.

Furthermore, as children with mental retardation are more completely integrated into their schools and communities, they will have more opportunities to interact with their same-age peers. Therefore, it is important to develop those children skills in order to be able to interact socially with their peers and with others. Recent research has focused on the social problem solving of children with and without mental retardation (e.g., Leffert and Siperstein, 1996; O'Reilly, et al, 2004; Crites & Dunn, 2004; Anderson & Kazantzis, 2008). Social problem solving is important because it is a prerequisite for appropriate social behavior. Students must be able to accurately interpret the social situation and generate and select appropriate strategies.

A critical review of the literature related to social problem-solving skills training (SPSST) in children with intellectual disabilities concluded that there is some evidence that training may be effective (Castles & Glass, 1986; Foxx, Kyle, Faw, & Bittle, 1989; Nezu et al. 1991; Loumidis & Hill, 1997; O'Reilly, et al, 2002, Beelmann, 2003; O'Reilly, et al, 2004; Crites & Dunn, 2004; Anderson & Kazantzis, 2008). These interventions have been shown to improve social behavior of children with intellectual disabilities. However, there is a need to develop further intervention programs to reduce challenging or disruptive behaviour of those children.

Additionally, some authors argued that problem solving may be an effective method for promoting the generalization and maintenance of social skills because the participant is taught a generic set of social rules that can be adapted to different social interactions (Gumpel, 1994; O'Reilly et al., 2006). Individuals may therefore be able to use the verbal rules to manage their social behaviour after training.

Furthermore, several studies have demonstrated that such interventions can produce long-term positive changes in social behavior (Foxx & Faw, 1992; O'Reilly, Lancioni, & Kierans, 2000). For example, O'Reilly & Glynn (1995) examined a social problem-solving intervention with two school children with intellectual disabilities who were described by their teachers as being withdrawn during class. Both students were successfully taught to initiate and respond with their teachers during regular classroom routines. They also began to generalize social initiations to other contexts within the school (e.g., with peers during recess) and maintained these skills after the removal of intervention.

Abstract

Moreover, Anderson & Kazantzis, (2008) found that social problem-solving training has been successful in improving maladaptive behavior and problem-solving skills for individuals with intellectual disability. They examined whether social problem-solving training can improve psychological distress in individuals with intellectual disability and a psychiatric diagnosis. Three participants from a vocational community centre with mild intellectual disability, comorbid mental illness, and challenging behavior, participated in 15 individually delivered sessions of social problem-solving training. Social problem-solving skill, behavior, and psychological distress measures were used to assess outcome. All three participants showed improvement in social problem-solving skills, and two participants showed improvement in depression. Improvement was maintained at 4-week follow-up. The results provide preliminary evidence that social problem-solving training could be an effective intervention tool for the treatment of psychological distress in individuals with mild intellectual disability.

Despite the richness of the international literature, there is a dearth of such studies in the Egyptian context. Therefore, the mentioned findings are particularly significant as no prior Egyptian research has examined whether social problem-solving training can improve social problem-solving skills and adaptive behavior in individuals with intellectual disability. Hence, this study aims to investigate the effectiveness of a training program for developing social problem-solving skills for children with mild intellectual disability. To achieve this aim, the following hypotheses will be tested.

Hypotheses:

1. There will be significant differences between the mean scores attained by the experimental group on the post-test and the pre-test on adaptive behavior scale (behavior problems section) in favor of the post-test.
2. There will be significant differences between the mean scores attained by the experimental group and that of the control group on the post-test of adaptive behavior scale (behavior problems section) in favor of experimental group.
3. There will be no significant differences between the mean scores attained by the experimental group on the post-test and that of the same group on the follow-up test on adaptive behavior scale (behavior problems part).

Method

A classic pre-post test design was used, with an experimental and a control group. The participants of this study were (12) children with intellectual disability (aging from 10-13). They were divided into two groups; one experimental and one control each of which consists of (6) children. The control group was matched to the experimental group on age, general intelligence, social problem-solving skills, adaptive behavior, and family socio-economic level. The central goals of the training program were to improve the child's social problem-solving skills and adaptive behavior skills and to reduce some behavioral problems. The behavior problems were measured using the second section (behavior problems) of the Arabic version of the adaptive behavior

scale (Sadek, 1985). This scale was administered immediately before and after intervention and at a six weeks follow-up.

Children assigned to the experimental group ($n = 6$) received 21 sessions. Sessions lasted approximately 35 min and were administered three times per week. The treatment was originally derived from procedures developed by D’Zurilla, and Goldfried, (1971); Spivack, Platt, and Shure (1976); shure (2001) and D’Zurilla, and Nezu, (2007). Modifications and extensions were made to focus on social problem-solving skills and adaptive behavior to emphasize interpersonal situations in everyday life. The training combines cognitive and behavioral techniques to teach problem-solving skills (e.g., generating alternative solutions) to manage interpersonal situations (e.g., with parents, teachers, siblings, and peers; at home, at school, and in community). Within the sessions, practice, modeling, role playing, corrective feedback, and social and token reinforcement were used to develop problem-solving skills.

Parents were actively involved in the program. Parents were brought into the sessions to watch, to assist the trainer, and to foster use of the problem-solving steps in the home. The parent received written guidelines regarding how to prompt and to assist the child, received feedback and social reinforcement from the trainer as needed to develop parental skills in prompting and reinforcing the child's use of the steps, and assisted the child in the completion of homework outside of the sessions.

Results and discussion

The results of the study showed that there was statistically significant improvement in the experimental group ($p < 0.01$), but not in the control group (NS) on the degree of adaptive behavior. Specifically, there were significant differences at the 0.01 level of significance between the mean scores attained by the experimental group on the post-test and the pre-test on adaptive behavior scale in favor of the post-test. Namely, some behavioral problems of the experimental group (e.g. aggressive behavior, rebellious behavior, withdrawal, antisocial behavior, inappropriate social behavior and emotional and psychological disorders) were reduced. Furthermore, Improvement was maintained at 6-week follow-up. However, there were no significant differences between the mean scores attained by the control group on the post-test and the pre-test on problem solving scale and adaptive behavior scale.

These findings concur with the results of (Castles & Glass, 1986; Foxx, et al 1989; Nezu et al. 1991; Loumidis & Hill, 1997; Beelmann, 2003; O’Reilly, et al, 2004; Crites & Dunn, 2004; Anderson & Kazantzis, 2008) which showed that social problem-solving training was successful in developing adaptive behavior, and reducing some behavioral problems.

The findings indicate that the social problem-solving training has been successful in improving adaptive behavior and reducing some behavioral problems for individuals with intellectual disability. The results provide preliminary evidence that social problem-solving training could be an effective intervention tool for the treatment of maladaptive behavior in individuals with mild intellectual disability. Further research

is required to investigate the effectiveness of such intervention in reducing different behavioral problems.

The logo for the International Association for Frontiers of Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, brush-stroke-like arcs. The upper arc is a light red color, and the lower arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The arcs are thick and have a slightly irregular, hand-drawn appearance.

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Can we Master the Art of Motivating Students?

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Abstract

It has always been a difficult task for any modern educators to provide relevant and challenging material that is also interesting at the same time. In an effort to turn-on passion for learning in students, educators around the world have constantly adopted all kinds of innovative techniques to make their presentation attractive and interesting, including combining technologies for interactive learning.

This task is not always easy, especially in many subject areas where the students are only enrolled because they are required to. With the constant transformations in education environment, this task is getting harder and harder as we are in contact with more students from a broad spectrum of academic ability and many different cultures. In some units, the majority of the students are only interested in obtaining a passing grade, with some resorting to plagiarism instead of participating and learning to pass the unit whilst regarding learning anything valuable as only a remote possibility.

This paper looks at this aspect in the teaching of statistics, a subject area that students may choose to do as a planet unit, as an elective or simply because of their program requirement. In particular, a description and methods are provided of the way in which students at Macquarie University in Sydney and University of Canberra in ACT, Australia are motivated to engage and learn more about this fascinating area of study.

INTRODUCTION

Educators around the world have always been improving on different ways to master the art of motivating students and it will always be quite challenging. Most of us are forever updating and improving the lecture material presentation to be exciting, fun and informative hoping that the students would actually want to learn more about it.

This is no exception in tertiary education, although there may be some who say that it shouldn't be necessary for us to motivate them at all, since, by the time they get to university at least, they should be able to motivate themselves. How nice would it be if it were true?

With the advancement in technology, the education system in its constant state of change can offer better accessibility and innovative learning to the students. In particular, through online technologies, such as i-Learn (a Learning Management System designed to enhance online student learning and collaboration), Echo (recorded audio and video of lectures), virtual lab together with other modern approaches to education, the learning experience should be interactive, fun and easier.

1. OUR STUDENTS

The number of students entering tertiary education has been constantly increasing in Australia and it became almost a natural continuation in education from high school to universities. Hence the majority of the students entering universities aren't exactly doing this to quench their thirst for higher learning and research. For many, the main reason for obtaining a degree is simply because they are expected to for a better chance in life.

Then there are also students who do not quite make the required cut-off mark to enter a tertiary institution and enrol through the college type institutions currently in abundance that have affiliations with, or are part of, larger universities. In return for paying quite hefty full fees, these students can study at the college and are essentially guaranteed entry into second year of university if they can manage to pass. In particular, these colleges attract many international students who are keen to enter an Australian university (or an university in an English speaking country) but did not have the necessary marks or English proficiency for direct entry.

These days many students are desperate for a passing grade with their common saying of, "I just want to graduate." Hence, for many, the first criteria in choosing a unit to study is whether the material is easy and/or they have materials, especially assessment tasks from students from previous offerings.

It is inevitable that the role of universities and academics must change as the culture of student composition and their expectation in tertiary education change while maintaining academic standards. After all, the students are their prospective clients.

3. STATISTICAL THINKING

Before the 20th century the subject of 'statistics' was merely regarded as a branch of mathematics and very few people viewed it as being worthy of a subject in its own right. However, because of its practical nature, there is now a market demand for properly trained statisticians across a wide variety of fields.

Samuel S. Wilks, mathematical statistician, paraphrased H. G. Wells from his book *Mankind in the Making*, 'Statistical thinking will one day be as necessary for efficient citizenship as the ability to read and write.' (Wilks, 1951, pp. 1-18). Perhaps at the time many saw this as just another statement that could be classified as science fiction.

The measure of a good educator is in making a subject that may well not be particularly exciting into one where the students will cry out for more. This is particularly true of statistics, where the audience is 'captive' and would certainly not be there unless they were forced. Changing the negative attitude of the masses into a positive one requires great skill, time and dedication. Without this the teacher is doomed to failure, as are many of the students.

Fortunately, the subject of statistics lends itself to an array of practical examples to which many students can relate. With 2012 London Olympic games just behind us, we have a seemingly endless supply of data that are crying out to be analysed. Even those students that have little or no interest in sport (and there aren't all that many of them), the examples manage to provide an attractive and welcome relief from the humdrum stereotype of statistical examples involving agricultural experiments and the like.

4. GENERAL MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES

There are many techniques that the experienced educator can use to attract the interest of their class. A brief listing and description is shown below, but they are by no means exhaustive.

- Showing genuine enthusiasm for what we are teaching. It is essential to be passionate about what you are teaching and be willing to listen to and assist those students who are experiencing difficulties. This is particularly important with growing number of international students with some difficulties in English language.
- Having the lecture title as informative as possible to reflect the practical use of the knowledge it contains while at the same time being attractive. This often requires the omission of words such as 'theoretical' or 'advanced', which can be a deterrent to a student even attempting a subject.
- Placing an emphasis on the students' understanding of the subject by making the lecture well structured and as interactive as possible. This can be achieved by the presentation of theory, always followed by practical examples of how this can be applied in practice. Then promote a discussion of the merits of the technique.
- Providing students with data that are Australian (where possible), as well as being topical and relevant to the subject at hand. Examples include Olympic and other sporting data that are both interesting and challenging. In the case of the units in Project Management, statistical information from actual construction projects can be gathered to make the material much more relevant.

- Using modern computer software that is typical of that used in the business world. This is particularly important for those students who are in their final year and who will be shortly joining the work force in this field. Examples include the commercial programs Microsoft Project 2010 and Microsoft Excel.
- Latest technologies, smart phones and modern iOS devices that 99% of our students are inseparable from these days, to provide convenient, anytime anywhere learning approach to effectively clarify and demonstrate the ideas presented in lectures as well as a timely feedback of their assessment tasks. For example, online quizzes, assignment submission and receiving marked assessments with comments added files.
- Inviting guest speakers from industry to present a real-world perspective on particular topics has always proven to be a very successful teaching tool. Indeed, as a result of this initiative, several of our students have subsequently obtained full-time employment with those organisations. Businesses involved include the consulting Operations Research Group, global marketing research firm ACNielsen and Aristocrat Limited.
- Inviting guest speakers from business who are Macquarie graduates to talk of their experiences and how what they have learned can be applied to practical business situations.

5. REMARKS

The task of finding new ways to motivate students is a never-ending one and requires much skill, perseverance and dedication on the part of the educator. This paper has presented only a few of the ideas that we have used successfully in teaching units at Macquarie University and the university of Canberra. It is, of course, essential that educators are themselves genuinely motivated before trying to motivate their classes. Even though they may have taught a particular subject many times, it must be remembered that the material is new to the students, and if the presenter look bored then it's hard to blame the audience for not getting terribly excited about it all.

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Potentialities of Shared Management for a Sustainable Society

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to outline the factors that contribute to a feeling of motivation on the part of the school community and to encouragement of its participation in issues related to the school routine. We specifically sought to understand whether the management framework adopted by the school, the object of this study, contributes to the active participation of the community to facilitate the implementation of projects related to environmental education for a sustainable society. The methodology of this qualitative research was a review of the literature and application of questionnaires as data collection instruments. We concluded that the factors that contribute to the school community participating in the elaboration and implementation of the educational policy project of the school, the object of this study, lead to its shared management model favoring the implementation of educational projects for a sustainable society.

Keywords: Shared management, Environmental Education, School and community relationship

1. INTRODUCTION

The participation of the school community in the administrative and pedagogical processes of successful schools has stood out as an important tool for achieving good results at the same time that demand grows for a society that adopts sustainable practices of development. This scenario leads to the consideration that sustainability, with the school as the basic element for spreading this information, is structured on three basic foundations: shared management, environmental education and sustainable society. The logic established through the relationship of these three foundational elements in the school is that shared management allows environmental education to be applied and disseminated in the most effective way, which promotes a sustainable society. Thus, the theme of this study is shared management as the element which facilitates implementation of environmental education projects for constructing a sustainable society.

We seek, then, to carry out a study of the acts of participation of the school community that may assist in the development of environmental education projects. In this context, two questions directed the research - first, to understand what motivates the members of the school community to participate; and, secondly, to determine if the school provides opportunities that value this participation and which may become elements that favor the implementation of projects directed toward education for sustainability. Thus, the challenge of this study is to understand and indicate the importance of shared management when it incorporates environmental education for promoting a sustainable society.

The methodology used in this study was research of a qualitative approach with field study and application of questionnaires. The school chosen as the object of case study for this research is a public school located in the Distrito Federal, Brazil, and it was chosen as a successful model of good educational results achieved through the implementation of shared management. The purpose of this study was to outline the elements or factors that contribute to a feeling of motivation on the part of the school community and to encouragement of its participation in issues related to the day-to-day school routine, and to identify the actions which favor the effective participation of the community in the school under study, seeking to analyze if the shared management model implemented in the school, the object of study, is adequate for the development of educational projects for sustainability.

In regard to organization, this article is divided into seven items, the first being this introduction. In the two subsequent items, a review of the specialized literature regarding shared management in the school and the relationship between it and environmental education are presented. There is a specific item in respect to shared management in the educational policy project (projeto político pedagógico - PPP) of the school under study and, subsequently, the methodology used in the study, the analysis of data and final considerations are presented.

2. SHARED MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOL

Democratic management requires a redefinition of power relations within the school organization with a view toward overcoming the current model; by means of this democratic management, school officials are no longer the only ones to make

decisions, and sharing of responsibilities arises. This is because educational work consists of activity of a collective nature, the success of which presupposes, according to Lück et al (2010), the participation and effective integration of all the agents that belong to the school community.

It is important to recognize that whenever society comes across situations of change in its structure, new demands are made on the school since the presuppositions of education for citizenship that society comes to require are altered. For that reason, Penin e Vieira (2002) urge the school to remain attentive and flexible to the changes that are inherent to historical periods. Thus, flexibility constitutes a great challenge for school management that is guided by democratic principles, as reinforced by the words of Hora:

The need for promoting coordinated action between the school and the community it serves is fundamental. The understanding that the school is not a body isolated from the global context of which it is a part must be present in the process of organization such that the actions to be developed are directed to community needs [...] In this sense, it is necessary to understand the conceptions of community and the relationships that the school establishes with its immediate social context (2009, p. 59).

For this study, we intend to collect and analyze data that allow understanding of the relationship that exists between environmental education and shared educational management, considering the latter as a microcosm of the socioenvironmental governance which is established within the school.

More generally, management may be understood as the administrative practice that defines and directs the use of financial, material, information, technological, human, and partnership resources, as well as the policies and alliances for achieving goals (COSTA, 2007). The elements of participation and of human interactions are intrinsic to management, as may be observed in the concept elaborated by Lück (2009, p. 21), according to which management may be understood as “a process of mobilization of the competence and energy of collectively organized people so that, through their active and competent participation, they most fully promote the attainment of the goals of their work unit, in this case, educational goals”.

The management concept itself presented by the authors points to the idea that this occurs through the integration and interaction of people focused on a determined goal. Shared management is therefore the process of making decisions and elaboration and implementation of planning which occurs together with the participation of the agents affected by the results of an organization. It is also associated with the strengthening of democratization of the pedagogical process as of the moment at which all those that are affected by the educational process come to be recognized as legitimate parties to intervene in the process of constructing the school educational project. It functions through the creation of formal and informal spaces which facilitate responsible participation of the entire school community in the policy and pedagogical decisions, and its purpose is directed to the contribution that participation offers as a necessary and indispensable instrument for attaining positive results in the school (SANTOS, 2008).

3. THE RELATION OF SHARED MANAGEMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

Education is a basic tool for social and economic development and the greater the number of agents involved and committed to its process of formulation and implementation, the more effective its action becomes. In the face of this reality, and based on the premise that education constitutes an indispensable element for sustainable development, the following research problem arises: what are the strategies adopted by shared management that favor the implementation of a successful model of environmental education?

It is expected that research may help in understanding shared management, and how the action of the most diverse social agents within the school contributes to the formulation of a successful model of environmental education, contributing to sustainable development.

Sachs (1992) considers that there is an intermediate route between sounding the alarm in respect to running out of natural resources and optimism in respect to the belief that technology is a solution. Within this scenario, education becomes a driving force for sustainable development. Upon discussing this theme, Síveres (2010) states that education alone, in an isolated way, is not capable of promoting sustainable development, but that it is a fundamental tool for equality of access to opportunities for quality of life for all and also for development of social and environmental awareness. Thus, it is capable of generating actions that collaborate with the development and continuity of a sustainable society where government entities, private initiative and organized civil society unite around the concept of sustainability, creating a governance structure where knowledge and action are complementary and generate forms of social and economic growth aligned with the need for preserving and caring for the environment.

Therefore, environmental education arises as an important tool for the construction of rational production models that may promote sustainable development. It is considered that environmental education must be promoted under an interdisciplinary pedagogical and methodological model for it is observed that “although there was the development of environmental knowledge in various themes of the natural and social sciences, this knowledge was not fully incorporated in the curricular contents of new educational programs” (LEFF, 2001, p. 241).

Legislation on environmental education policy in Brazil was instituted by Law no. 9.795/1999 and by decree no. 4.281/2002. According to this legislation, environmental education consists of processes through which individuals and the collectivity construct social values, knowledge and skills directed to environmental conservation; all have the right to environmental education and this must be an essential and permanent component of the educational system.

According to legislation, environmental education must occur in both the formal and informal dimensions of education, and must be present in the curriculum at all levels of formal education, both in public and private institutions. Furthermore, according to

legislation, there must be incentive for environmental education to occur with individual and collective participation, this being an exercise of citizenship where partnerships between public and private institutions should be encouraged and promoted with a view toward sensitizing collective society in regard to environmental issues (Law no. 9.795/1999 and Decree no. 4.281/2002).

It is possible to make environmental education the common theme of the process of transition to a sustainable society. However, for this to occur, it is necessary to join education and environmental ethics, building a new educational model where “the environmental principles and values promoted through a pedagogy of complexity” (LEFF, 2001, p. 243) lead the student to perceive the interrelations that exist between his own development and the reality of the social, economic and environmental milieu that surrounds him, which confers a subjective feature to knowledge.

That requires an educational model that is only possible from the interdisciplinarity of environmental education. Thus, it may be affirmed that the unity between shared management and environmental education should happen “within a strategic process that encourages collective reconstruction and subjective reappropriation of knowledge” (LEFF, 2001, p. 246); only that way is it possible to achieve the stage of development necessary for constructing a sustainable society.

Environmental education must be worked on within an interdisciplinary perspective, composing a set of learning objectives for the development of a sustainable society, leading to integration of this theme, which will run through the series of school subjects and pedagogical experiences. Corroborating this proposal, Soares (2008) affirms that the relationship between education and sustainable development becomes stronger on site, with the interaction of the entire community. In the same vein, Weller e Pfaff (2010) draw a relationship between education and shared management when they analyze that of the seven strategies proposed by the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, three of them are directly connected to a participative model of education:

- i. social mobilization and establishment of prospects;
- ii. consultation and accountability;
- iii. partnership and networks;
- iv. empowerment and training;
- v. research and innovation;
- vi. information and communication technologies;
- vii. monitoring and evaluation.

Based on this proposal, there is the need for reformulation of the practices and methodologies used in education so that education is more aligned to contribute to the foundations of structuring sustainable development, for teaching may no longer be directed solely to a manner of transmitting knowledge, but rather create an approach in which teachers and students work together to acquire knowledge and migrate to the practice of participation in the decision-making process. Thus, students participate in the decisions regarding the way they should learn, at the same time in which learning may occur in an understandable language, drawing it nearer to the personal and professional day-to-day life of the student.

It is important that the educational process also be relevant locally, in other words, that it relate to the overall local happenings that have an effect on the life of the student and also of the community in which the student and the school lie. This requires that the concept and practices of sustainable development be adapted to the local culture and reality (WELLER e PFAFF, 2010).

Within these considerations, shared management becomes a conditioning factor for education aligned with sustainable development, for environmental issues brought to social awareness have made ecological principles come to be discussed within the most diverse types of scientific subjects. Thus, an age of environmental knowledge permeated by the most diverse sciences has been ushered in.

Therefore, “the environmental problematic has led to the transformation of the theoretical and practical knowledge on which the dominant social and productive rationality is based” (LEFF, 2002, p. 161). Thus, the economic, scientific and technological rationality of modernity is aligned with the need for joining the most diverse branches of science for the purpose of elaborating integrated projects that may allow a logic of production capable of promoting sustainable development.

4. SHARED MANAGEMENT AS A PEDAGOGICAL POLICY

The educational policy project (PPP) of the school is planning that presents all the strategies and objectives that will be followed by the school in order to achieve its mission of educating and forming citizens in the best way possible. Thus, all the pedagogical directives of the school are defined in it. In a shared management model, the manager directs the application of this document, which is formulated and implemented with the aid of the entire school community.

We observe that in the first part, the PPP of the school which is the object of this study was concerned with explaining the creation of the PPP and the manner that it would be applied. It presented the purpose of this Project and defined the results to be achieved. The school gives priority to meeting the needs that the community presents – an example of this is Youth and Adult Education (Educação de Jovens e Adultos – EJA 1st and 2nd phases), which was implemented in the school due to community demand. In addition, the school has a listing of multidisciplinary projects, all undertaken with the participation and encouragement of the community. Some were given awards of recognition, both for the school and for individual students. The PPP itself highlights the publication of a book written by the 1st grade students whose main theme is the environment, specifically the conservation of a park located in proximity to the community. The book, published in 2004 and entitled “*Sucupira Park is Ours*”, had a printing of 800 copies. Other projects listed in the PPP make reference to partnerships with public and private institutions and to the participation of the school in festive and competitive events, as a way of highlighting their importance within that community.

Participative management is present in the PPP of the school, as may be seen in the following objectives which were presented for 2010 in the school:

- A. Encourage lectures, workshops, dinners and fairs to promote the social integration of those active in the school and consequently bolster

improvement of self-esteem of students, teachers, service workers and the general community institutionally connected to this school;

- B. Creation of specific dates for the participation of the entire community in the school environment, with activities like lectures, workshops, games, diverse artistic and cultural displays and activities which meet the criteria of the Education for Life Week (Semana de Educação para a Vida);
- C. Invite the community to greater presence in school decisions so as to strengthen institutions like the APM (Parent-Teacher Association) and School Council/Security and Promotion of Peace;
- D. Organize a preliminary agenda with the school segments to define the matters to be dealt with in meetings;
- E. Create opportunities for at least three events that contribute to qualitative improvement of the self-esteem of students, teachers and service workers;

The PPP of the school dedicates a specific item to the presentation of shared management, and then presents diverse projects and actions directed to sharing of responsibilities with the community in its objectives for the year 2011, such as:

- A. Rendering of accounts of the resources and benefits obtained during the school semester to the diverse segments of the school;
- B. Search for partnerships, with mobilization of local businesses for the needs of the school by means of visits, and invitations for getting to know the facilities and the realities of the pedagogical/administrative work of the Teaching Unit;
- C. Refinement of the Count on Me Project (Projeto Conte Comigo), a human resource bank of the school composed of people of the community that may make their abilities available for carrying out small repairs in the school;
- D. Carrying out events like festivals, drawings and bingos to raise funds for the teaching unit;
- E. Rendering of accounts every two months to the entire school community regarding revenues and expenses of the resources managed by the APM, in the parent-teacher meetings;
- F. Search for partnerships, governmental resources or otherwise, for the purpose of carrying out remodeling of the playground and bathrooms of the teaching unit in question;
- G. Holding systematic meetings every two months with the School Council for the purpose of defining the use of financial resources directed to the School.

5. INDICATORS OF THE ROUTE TAKEN

The route taken by this study especially counted on the assistance of the stakeholders of the educational institution (parents, students, teachers and employees) who contributed to the proposed reflection. For that reason, the option was made to collect data for this study with a qualitative approach through a review of the literature, and field work with a semi-structured interview. Thus, the documentary sources of the study were reports, journal articles, magazine articles, academic articles and books. And, in relation to the interviews, the questions presented in table 1 were raised.

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. As part of the school community, at what times are you called on to participate? 2. In which actions, projects and activities do you participate in the school? 3. What motivates you to participate in the school community? 4. Does the school provide opportunities that value your participation? 5. What are the benefits for this school in following a Shared Management model? 6. Does your participation strengthen the Shared Management model taken on by this school? |
|---|

Table 1 – List of questions of the semi-structured interview.

Source: Prepared in research.

Data collection also included the educational policy project (PPP) of the school under study. This document, whose main points were presented in item 4, helped in contextualization of this case study through presenting important information for understanding how the community drew near to its own history and the school. This information served as a basis for a comparative study of the reality experienced before implementation of this management model and that, which was achieved after implementation, checking if the new shared management model creates an adequate environment for environmental education for promotion of a sustainable society.

Based on this premise, a research study was prepared with two basic questions, which were applied to both teachers and parents of students of the school, which is the object of this study. All of this focused on verification of the essential features for implementation of a successful shared management model and its contribution to environmental education with a view toward a sustainable society.

In the field work, it was seen that the school which was the object of this study did not offer resistance to the shared management model. According to the reports collected, we have the impression that the community had already felt a pressing need for sharing between the school and the members of that location; however, they didn't know exactly how the participation should come about, there was no project. At the time of presentation of the Educational Policy Project, the desires were met, with practically mass participation from the beginning of application of the project.

The purpose was to study the relevance of participation of the community in a shared management model. Based on existing literature, it was observed that the diverse authors studied understand a relationship of responsibility between school and community as a characteristic of successful shared management, and the school should be an open space, common to all, accessible to participation. This participation is an alternative to the problems faced by the school community as a whole.

Considering that this study is a first analysis in regard to the relationship between shared management and environmental education for a sustainable society, it was possible to verify that the interaction and integration of the school community promoted by shared management creates an ideal space so that in the school an environmental education project toward a sustainable society be implemented.

The school is enriched by the exchange of experiences and by the opportunities that are created in the context of developing partnerships and of achieving recognition within the local community and on the national scene. Moreover, the goals of improvements and refinement are more easily achieved, considering that the actions

implemented benefit not only the educational institution but return to the members of that location.

The community should be motivated to have a proactive stance, leaving a reactive, non-participative and obsolete profile behind for the educational needs of today's youth. Parents should seek involvement in the school in a spontaneous way and, for that to occur, they should find a school, which always welcomes them and is accessible for the debates that may be necessary.

The extent to which the community seeks out the school serves as a thermometer, a way for the manager to measure how his/her management is proceeding and, in a timely manner, correct the issues or items that may be in discord with the pedagogical project assumed. Hearing the community is the main factor for shared management to work, for that is the way results will be felt and evaluated, just as proposed objectives will be renewed and actions to be carried out will be directed.

The manager occupies the position of school director, but should manage not only that. In a shared management model, the manager is more a mediator than one who holds power; he/she must seek out projects and means of interaction that facilitate the growth of all those who are part of the school community.

In a shared management model, the power for deciding the path of the school does not belong to a single agent; responsibilities and obligations are taken on by all: parents, managers, teachers, students and employees. This power appears in diverse forms and may arise at various times, whether in a social activity, a joint community effort, a parent-teacher meeting, a volunteer service or an informal conversation.

The educational environment only contributes to the transformation that brings about a sustainable society if it is critical and reforming. That makes it necessary to create new teaching practices within the school that promote respect for the environment and for others, understanding others as all those that make up the social space of which the individual is part. Thus, the relationship between environmental education and a sustainable society, and education itself as a whole, must be treated as a window that opens to knowledge, and not as an instrument that places the student in a position of being held back or controlled. Such inferences establish shared management as the guiding element of environmental education for a sustainable society since, in pedagogical practice and in school routine, shared management introduces inclusive and reflexive mechanisms where all people (students, teachers, members of school administration, service workers, family and local community) create a space for construction and reconstruction of a sustainable society.

Thus, we consider that in the school which is the object of this case study, shared management is the most adequate management model so that environmental education occurs as an element that promotes a sustainable society. Through the instruments that the school uses in shared management, there is the interaction of all the members of the school community, increasing motivation and the efficiency of the projects developed by the school. Environmental awareness and knowledge and activity directed to environmental preservation are thereby spread and they reach a greater number of individuals, attaining the ideal of a sustainable society.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular arc that starts from the bottom left and curves towards the right. A red arc is also visible, starting from the top left and curving downwards.

Reading Experiences and Avoidance in Freshman Classes

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Abstract

For many ESL students, a lack of reading competence continues to hamper them throughout their university careers, making study onerous at times. Concern in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) about students' reading skills or attitudes to reading is not confined to universities as it has been a topic of discussion in newspaper articles over recent years. Reluctant readers or weak reading skills are a national concern. Many of our students, like some L2 students identified in the USA literature as Generation 1.5, appear to have no strong grounding in literacy in any language, and this is a likely factor in the difficulties they face. This research aimed to find out whether or not weak reading skills are perceived as a problem by the students, what their reading experiences were both in school and in their homes, what they do read and what they avoid. Information gathered from questionnaires reveals that more than 40% of students do not find it pleasurable to read in their first language. While this is a concern and suggests they may have insufficient experience with literacy in either their first language or English, approximately half the students have parents who act as role models for them when it comes to reading. Another significant factor in the educational experiences of these students is that the majority of them have attended private, fee paying schools due to the country they live in providing no government schooling for expatriates. Despite the best efforts of parents in selecting schools, it appears there is something missing in the reading experiences of these students, and it appears to be limiting their engagement with the task. Through an exploration of students' previous experiences and current engagement with reading tasks, the research aims to uncover the extent to which reading issues are hampering the students in their university work and to look for ways assist them to develop better reading skills.

1. INTRODUCTION

The population of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), a small but wealthy country, is approximately 5 million with the majority of people being expatriates. Current, only about 20% are Emirati nationals, many of them below 30 years old. If current trends continue, the demographic forecast raises many issues such as national identity, citizenship, multiculturalism and sustainability, all of which impact the lives of UAE citizens and residents.

English medium education, including tertiary, is popular in the UAE. Students come from many parts of the world, especially the Middle East, as well as from within the UAE to study in the universities. Students must pass the TOEFL test with a score of 530 or greater to enroll in academic classes. Others take a preparatory program before gaining access to the degree programs. Once enrolled, reading appears to be an unwelcome, possibly avoidable, task for many of the students taking writing courses as part of General Education Requirements (GER), and many have difficulty writing for academic courses.

This research attempted to find out from the students what their experiences with reading had been prior to enrolling at the university as well as their attitudes to reading now and the impact on their studies.

Research Questions:

1. What were students' reading experiences at school?
2. Was reading modeled in the home?
3. Do students read the set materials for writing classes? If not, why not?
4. Do students perceive any academic difficulties due to their reading practices?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Concerns about students reading skills are a national concern in the UAE. There are many issues to consider such as the role of English and Arabic and the educational experiences of the students.

2.1 The Role of Arabic and English in the Community and in Schools

In the UAE, an Arabic speaking country, English is the language of daily exchange; it is the language of business allowing communication among diverse nationalities. The instrumental uses of English are recognized by the students in the region both for employment and for study there and overseas (Malallah, 2000).

There are two main distinctions in terms of schools in the UAE, government and private. Although all schools must teach Arabic, it is emphasized in markedly different ways depending on how seriously it is taken by the individual school. In addition, many private schools are English medium. Despite a small number of participants having other first languages (L1), Arabic and English are the languages relevant to the study.

2.2 Changes in Government School Education

In the government schools, the primary language of instruction is Arabic, but English (EFL) is included at a rather basic level from secondary school onward. Writing beyond the alphabet and vocabulary items is rare.

Most single-sex government schools have retained a traditional knowledge transmission approach to teaching as this was the model used when formal education was established. Students who have attended Arabic medium schools, whether government or private, experience difficulty getting access to the prestigious English language universities in the region. These students know what they are up against: “Whether we like it or not English is the dominant language in universities and in the workplace” (Al Najami, 2007a, p. 6).

Concern over the education system in the government schools is evident in the repeated references to reforms in the local press. Outmoded teaching methodologies mean students struggle to write in Arabic as well as having little access to English leaving them weak in their L1 and L2 (Khuwaileh & Al Shoumali, 2000). In recent years, the UAE ranked 112 out of 128 in primary education, so the concentration on rote memorization is a target for reform (Shuey, 2007). Changes are giving rise to optimism about the future of education in the UAE. *Madares Al Ghad* (MAG), experimental government schools, have raised administrators expectations of a positive impact:

MAG students consistently scored between four and six per cent higher than students in non-MAG schools. . . . Through use of research-based practices in educational methods and techniques, professional development of teachers and administrators, and innovative curricula that combine international best practices with regional sensitivity and cultural norms, MAG is designed to change approaches to education that will meet the requirements and urgent needs of the nation. . . . in both Arabic and English. (Chadwick, 2009)

According to Chadwick (2009) the weaknesses in the government schools are being addressed through moving to a learner-center classroom culture and introducing teachers to modern methodology and assessment. This is the rhetoric of hope, but change is not likely to be dramatic as the MAG approach is still only available in some schools. In addition, in 2013, a change in administration at ministerial level could lead to other changes as yet unclear.

In various areas, change is slowly coming to the UAE education system. Parents are being encouraged to be more involved with their children’s education (Sabry & Zaman, 2012). Reading skills are now recognized as essential and frequently discussed in the media. Even so, on average, Arabs read as little as four pages of literature a year (Swan and Ahmed, 2011).

2.3 Private School Education and Literacy Implications

In addition to government schools, there are the international schools, but the degree to which they include English and address the language needs of students are vast. Many private schools are businesses attracted to the region by the high proportion of young people. Evidently, “26 per cent of the population will be under the age of 14 by 2020” (Ahmed, 2013, para. 12). At the upper end of the market, private schools expect to charge “between Dh46,325 and Dh92,650 a year, with an option for boarding taking the cost up to Dh152,650” (Ahmed, 2013, para. 16). But are students getting the education their parents are paying for?

Comments from Arabic teachers in private schools suggest that the declining emphasis on Arabic is taking a toll on young Arabs’ abilities to communicate fluently in Arabic without peppering sentences with English (Al Najami, 2007b), a phenomenon often called *Arabizi*. Anxiety about the displacement of Arabic literacy by English is growing. According to Nazzal (2012a, para.6) there is a decline in reading, a perceived “decline in the love of

Arabic” and a lack of awareness that regular reading improves academic performance. There are fears in the UAE that at least partly due to English language schools and the attraction of English media, Arabic language will continue to decline in popularity negatively impacting national identity (Nazzal, 2012a). This shows the dichotomy facing a country that wants to embrace the opportunities accessed through its multicultural population while preserving its identity.

Many non-native English speaking students in the UAE may fall into the category known as “Generation 1.5”, a term usually reserved for immigrants to English speaking countries to describe students who have had experiences in English speaking education contexts over a number of years, but experiences which may have “neglected attention to linguistic forms and de-emphasized corrective feedback” leaving the learners with little awareness of their weaknesses in academic English (Frodeson & Holten, 2003, p. 150). Generation 1.5 students need to be encouraged to read more and develop hypotheses making and testing skills that are essential in academia (Lay, Carro, Tien, Niemann, & Leong, 1999).

3. THE STUDY

The impetus for this study was the apparent lack of engagement with the reading tasks and the impact on university studies. Many freshman students appear to find reading for class a chore and a bore. The study involved freshman university students taking an academic writing class. This course required students to read articles of relevance to the Middle East frequently written by Arab or Asian writers as well as newspaper articles and other students’ essays.

The students at the university where this research took place come from both private and government schools in the UAE as well as from many other countries. Most are speakers of English as a first or second language (L1 or L2). Most students can converse with reasonable accuracy, but too often the written material these students produce demonstrates limited vocabularies, and a lack of awareness of basic features of writing such as sentence boundaries, verb form/tense, prepositions and articles.

3.1 Methodology

In order to get as clear a picture as possible, information was gathered from a variety of sources. An on-line survey gathered information on the students’ attitudes to reading, and reading experiences recalled from school days and the home. Approximately 380 students took part over three semesters.

In addition, students in three 100 level writing classes filled out short questionnaires about their reading preparation prior to classes as the semester proceeded. Volunteers also took part in short focus groups discussing their school experiences with reading and writing tasks, their attitudes to reading in general, as preparation for a classroom activity and as a tool in university studies.

3.2 Results and Discussion

The demographic information revealed that students from 35 countries took part in the questionnaire. The most highly represented countries were in the Middle East as would be expected (Table 3.1). Although the majority of the students did not hold UAE citizenship, 46% of them were born in the UAE and approximately 60% of them had completed their primary and secondary schooling in the UAE, as well.

Table 3.1 Most Frequently Represented Nationalities

Nationality	Number of Students
UAE	55
Syria	45
Egypt	44
Jordan	25
Palestine	24

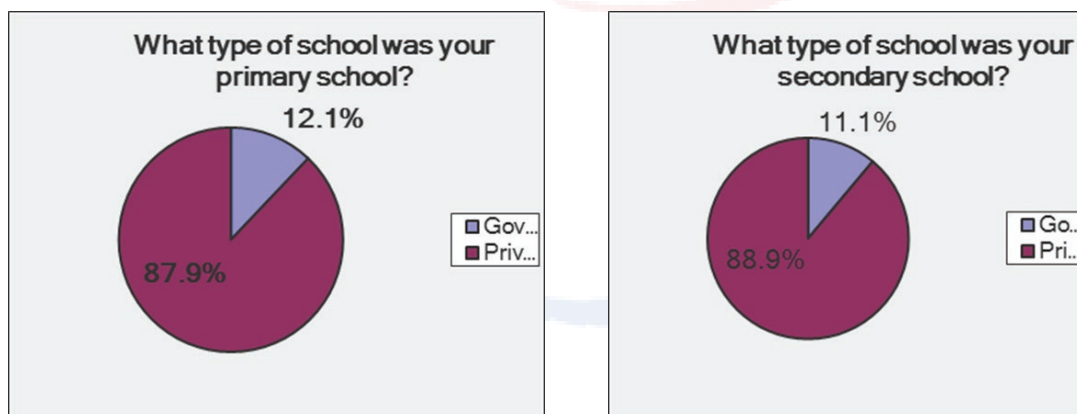
3.2.1 Private or Government Schools

The majority of respondents had attended private primary and secondary schools regardless of where they had attended school (Figure 3.1). In the UAE, the cost of private schooling is factored into most professional salary packages for ex-pats as there is no other option for most of families. The state schools are principally for Emirates. But, in Dubai “56 per cent of Emirati students choose private schools over public schools” (Nazzal, 2012b). Most of these are English medium schools.

3.2.2 Reading Experiences at School

Although the students who participated in the survey represent 35 nationalities, most of them spoke either Arabic (247) or English (64) as a first language. Altogether, speakers of languages other than Arabic or English as first languages came to 61 but only 32 of them did not consider either Arabic or English as an equal first language. However, 46.3% of students claimed they did not read books in class in their first language at secondary school. So the lack of access to reading in their first language is not easily explained by considering that their first language may not have been represented at their school. There is some other factor at play here as well. Perhaps, as some Arabic teachers have claimed recently, many English medium schools offer little support for the students’ Arabic literacy.

Figure 3.1 Private or Government Schools



It seems that a large number of students had little or no regular reading activities in school. In addition, although they appeared to spend about the same amount of time reading in their L1 as in English at primary school, L1 reading diminished at secondary (Table 3.2). At secondary school level, while 33.2% report reading in English on a daily basis, a disturbing

38.6% report seldom or never reading in their first language in class (Table 3.2). Fewer students report seldom or never reading English texts in class, but it is still a high enough proportion to be alarming.

Table 3.2 Frequency of Reading in Class by Language and School Level

Primary Reading	School	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>	<i>Seldom</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Cannot recall</i>
English		25.8%	35.5%	21.2%	7.5%	9.9%
L1		26.8%	28.1%	25.4%	12.6%	7.1%
Secondary Reading	School	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>	<i>Seldom</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Cannot recall</i>
English		33.2%	36.7%	22.6%	5.7%	1.9%
L1		25.4%	22.1%	31.5%	17.1%	3.9%

The majority of students reported that at secondary school they had access to a library and that there were books in both English and their L1, although 13% claim not to have had a library at all and 19.4% had no books in their L1 available. Use of the library was not prioritized for many students with 68.8% of students seldom or never borrowing books from the school library (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Borrowed Books from the High School Library

	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Weekly</i>	<i>Seldom</i>	<i>Never</i>
<i>Percentage</i>	2.4	22.6	40.8	28

Interestingly, a large percentage of students (77%) reported that they enjoyed reading in English, and fiction was marginally more popular than non-fiction.; however, fewer enjoy reading in their L1, which for the majority is Arabic (Table 3.4). As many of these students have attended English medium schools, their experiences have been largely as readers of English in education settings and not their L1. That so many of these university students are antipathetic towards reading (English 23%, L1 41%) suggests that they do not anticipate needing to read to be successful students or perhaps read but take no pleasure in it. Sadly, at every available opportunity a few students offered the information that they hate reading.

Table 3.4 Enjoyment Reading Now

	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>
English	77%	23%
First Language	58.2%	41%

3.2.3 Parents as Reading Models

Although a large percentage of students reported that they see their parents reading materials such as newspapers, few of them appear to see this as reading for pleasure. Less than half of the students reported that their parents regularly read for pleasure and approximately 10% reported that this never happened (Table 3.5). This could well have more to say about the students' attitudes to reading than the parents. Perhaps at this stage in their lives the students see reading as information gathering rather than pleasurable.

The majority of students reported that their parents read in Arabic, although some reported that one parent tended to read in Arabic and the other in English or another language. Many of these students appear to have been in an English language environment at school and Arabic or another language environment at home. This suggests that considering their domains of use for their languages could be a fruitful line of enquiry when trying to understand the issues they face reading and writing as freshmen.

Table 3.5 Modeling of Reading Behavior by Parents

One or Both Parents:	Daily	Weekly	Seldom	Monthly	Never
Read a newspaper	71%	19.2%	6%	1.6%	2.2%
Read a book	21%	32.5%	28.4%	10.1%	7.9%
Read for pleasure	19.8%	28%	30.2%	12.1%	9.9%

3.2.4 Student's Perceptions of the Preparation for University Provided by Schools

In focus group discussions about the way the school had prepared them for university, the majority of students appeared to think now, at the end of their first year, that they had not been well-prepared. Most students had not been aware of an emphasis on reading although some had read a few standard pieces of literature. One student said that he felt a sense of achievement having got through the whole of *Macbeth*, which was read in class. However, they did little writing in response to material they read. In his mind, reading was a task that had to be completed and a feeling of pride on completion was what he had gained.

Most students complained about the lack of instruction they had had in writing even if they had gone to an English language school. The average length of an essay written in secondary school appears to have been about 300 words. Few students received feedback on the quality of their writing. Often their writing activities took the form of short answers to questions or the writing of stories. This was reported by students who attended Arabic schools and those who attended English ones, too.

One student claimed three essays were set in the school year, but they wrote none and were not held accountable. He felt this was the schools fault and I found myself agreeing.

3.2.5 Reading Practices in Freshman Writing Classes

Many freshman English instructors report that students appear reluctant to do the preparatory reading for class. During this study, as part of each evaluation I asked students to tell me

whether or not they had done the reading and if not, why not. Their responses about why they did not read were sometimes the only things they wrote as they had not prepared at all and this behavior persisted. Frequently, only three or four out of fifteen students had read the material thoroughly.

I was astounded to find that the main excuse offered for not having done the reading was because they had been working for another course even when there was likely to be some type of evaluation. For example:

I did not read the article because I have to finish a civil engineer lab report which take a lot of time to do it.

A more eloquent response sometimes came my way:

To be honest I didn't read it because when I finished my project and assignments for the other classes yesterday I couldn't keep studying, I needed a break. But today I forgot that we have a quiz or a summary so the time passed and here I am.

Other students might mention that they had just skimmed the reading or had not understood it. This suggests that students expect the teacher to make the reading understandable or offer easier texts. They did not appear to see that they had an obligation to work with the text, possibly a reflection of the type of teaching methodology they had experienced at school where the teacher was the transmitter of knowledge, the students largely passive.

3.2.6 Reading Practices across the Curriculum

Information gathered from focus groups with three classes revealed that many students do not perceive there to be a need to read much for their courses. In two of the three groups, the majority of students claimed not to have to read textbook chapters for their other classes. When asked why they bought the textbooks, it seems that some did not buy them. In addition, often the chapter information was presented in class by PowerPoint, and they solved the problems at the end of the chapter then revised the slides for the exams. One class, where the majority of students were taking architecture courses that have a reputation for setting high standards, reported a need for regular reading preparation for class because there were quizzes each day in the first ten minutes of class.

None of the students had been given a reading list at this point in their academic career. In fact, when I explained what I meant by a reading list, books other than the textbook that cover the same or similar material and that may supplement the students' knowledge, they were surprised and somewhat horrified that this might be ahead of them in later years.

4 IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It was clear that the students who had attended government schools had had little English instruction. They were able to communicate orally in English, perhaps due to its prevalence in the country, but many felt the school had not prepared them for university writing courses for two reasons: little English language experience, and limited experience writing even in Arabic.

Many students graduate from secondary school with weak skills in English despite their private school education. Lack of attention to reading suggests that schools and perhaps parents are failing to foster a love of reading. However, the number of students that reported enjoyment reading in English was a pleasant surprise. The disinterest in the library may be

because they have not been introduced to a library as a pleasant place as youngsters or they prefer to read on-line or e-books.

Of concern was that far fewer reported enjoyment reading in their L1, which was usually Arabic. Although parents model reading in the home, particularly in Arabic, for many students it is seen as an instrument for information gathering rather than a pleasurable activity. Also, the prevalence of English entertainment in general makes English more attractive especially when Arabic is not keeping pace in entertainment and literary fields. So the material available may also be failing the students.

Arabic remains the language of communication in the home, but *Arabizi* is often used with friends and is appearing in the classroom and the home. Also, at the university, it is possible to study Arabic in English. Even L1 Arabic speakers take this course if they are not strong readers and writers of Arabic. It appears that many of the students fit the Generation 1.5 pattern having weak literacy in both their L1 and L2 for numerous reasons, though they are competent and confident orally in both languages. Due to their oral competence, it is easy for these students to assume they are more competent in English than they are and this assumption is reinforced if the standard of reading and writing accepted, even in private schools, is low.

Students seemed to have done little reading, written only short essays and had been given a grade rather than clear feedback on their successes and weakness as writers. Although many students expressed frustration with the mismatch between what was taught at school and what was expected at university, as freshman, few had been asked to write extensively outside of writing classes. If, as the majority of freshman students appear to think, reading the textbooks and writing essays is not an essential skill at university apart from in the writing courses, writing instructors will continue to have a hard task persuading students of the benefit of what they are teaching. Quizzes, according to the students, are one way to get them to read. However, this is only if the course has status, and if they recognize that failing the quizzes will significantly reduce grades.

Everyone has to apportion their time, instructors and students alike. The students often seemed to allocate work for writing courses the lowest priority, a reflection of the courses' status. In addition, the excessive use of the expression 'midterm' for multiple assessments throughout the semester may be one way that other courses build their status.

It is interesting that regular quizzes motivated some students to prepare for architecture classes, but not for writing classes. Clearly, writing classes do not have the status that is part of activating the students.

The main limitation of the research was that there was no opportunity to get information from the schools the students had attended. It is not easy to get private schools to talk about issues that might reveal weaknesses in the education system. Private schools are particularly sensitive about the potential for negative results as they are businesses as well as schools. Therefore, this research is based on students' perceptions and the behaviors observed in university writing classes. Further research that includes classroom observations and discussions with school teachers and administrators would add much to this study.

It appears that students are graduating from secondary school with oral competence in more than one language, but not necessarily with the literacy skills in their L1 and L2 to segue seamlessly into academic programs. As freshmen, students sometimes experience a shock when their reading and writing competence is queried, or they struggle to pass courses.

Raising awareness of the value of reading and writing competence is needed and requires the cooperation of schools. It also requires university departments to adhere to academic standards as grade inflation is not the answer.

When students do not do the reading required for class, it is seldom because they hate reading, although that is true of a small percentage. It appears to be more because they have put the time allocated for study into working for another course. Writing instructors may need to make their courses more meaningful if they are to compete for students' attention. Also, university courses across the curriculum that do not require students to read and write, preferring instead to take the easier option of offering pellets of predigested information via PowerPoint presentations, are undermining writing instructors' aims. In addition, in these tight economic times, retaining the students by keeping them happy may be more important than addressing the quality of the education offered in private schools and universities.

Educators are failing the students when they ignore endemic literacy weakness. They are doing students, and their fee paying parents, a disservice if they accept writing that is "Globish" . . . and the dumbing down of teaching that comes about when literacy weaknesses are not explicitly addressed (Poirier, 2013, para. 22).

So, can we do anything about reading avoidance? Probably, the best thing individual freshman writing instructors can do is to try to raise the status of the course.

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Fostering Scientific Literacy in the Classroom

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Abstract

This study considered scientific literacy as a serious aim of science curriculum; and advantageous to science and technological development. It was also revealed as complex processes that involve interplay of factors as revealed in the results obtained in this study. Two hundred and ninety-four secondary school graduates took part in the study from institutions located in the southwest zone of Nigeria.

This study was carried out to investigate the factors that foster scientific literacy in the classroom.

Descriptive research of the survey type was employed in this study. This involved the administration of a self-constructed and validated instrument in gathering information on the variables.

The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Six research questions were raised to guide this study.

It was found out that the scientific literacy of the respondents was generally low.

Respondents who attended public schools were less scientifically literate than their counterparts that attended private schools. It was revealed that male respondents were more scientifically literate than their female counterparts. Interest has a positive influence on scientific literacy. Provision of laboratory was inadequate, supply of equipment was deprived, group-work was inadequate, level of engagement during science lessons was poor, and theoretical work/practical work balance was in favor of theory. However, all respondents were of the opinion that the science curriculum was adequate.

In conclusion, high quality of laboratory facilities and activities, and well-implemented curriculum are vital in fostering of scientific literacy in the classrooms.

Keywords: scientific literacy, scientific inquiry, scientific concept, science curriculum, laboratory activities.

Introduction

To foster scientific literacy in the classroom means to empower students to understand the policy; to improve enquiry and critical thinking skills; make connections about our interaction with the natural world. Miller, (1998) defined scientific literacy as the ability of an individual to display an understanding of basic scientific concept and construct, such as the molecule DNA, the structure of the solar system; the understanding of the nature and process of scientific inquiry, as well as a pattern of regular information consumption. Although the concept of scientific literacy was developed in the 1950s, (Hurd, 1958), it remains a universal timeless goal for science education. It has become an internationally well-recognized slogan. In an ideal world, an individual's progress towards scientific literacy continues throughout life. It begins with a firm foundation in the elementary school.

According to Jenkins, (1994) scientific literacy stands for what the general public needs to know about science, limitations of science, coupled with some understanding of scientific ideas. The American Association for the advancement of science (AAAS) document titled "science for all Americans" described a scientifically literate person as one who is aware that science and technology are human creations with strengths and limitations; understands key concepts and principles of science; is familiar with the natural world and recognizes both its diversity and unity; and applies scientific knowledge and skills for individual and social purposes (AAAS, 1990). According to Murcia (2005), scientific literacy is developed when the science curriculum incorporates a wide variety of learning episode that emphasizes the following:

- Learning from the concrete to abstract and from the familiar to the unfamiliar;
- Learning from the local settings to the global settings;
- Hands on;
- Cooperative and individual performance;
- Learner self- evaluation and curriculum embedded assessment;
- Developmental appropriateness of process and content;
- Cooperative learning by learners and leaders recognizing interdisciplinary connections;
- Assessment of the risks and the benefit while making choices;
- Movements toward independence; and
- Responsible decision making in real world situations.

Success in the above-mentioned goals can only be achieved when educators have enabling resources, adequate materials, applied training and time to implement the teaching of science in an engaging and meaningful fashion. Bybee and DeBore, (1994) therefore suggested to curriculum developers that science education programmes must be rich enough to facilitate the continuous development of scientific literacy. There is need for science programmes to include powerful learning episode that are relevant and engaging to all learners. It is suggested that curriculum materials should include attitude, problem solving, application, technology and societal issues. It should also reflect current understanding of nature of learners and of learning. It is also suggested that there should be an increase in the amount of time allotted for science instructions. Appropriate experiences should be provided for targeted youth audience and provide alternative assessment techniques that match the learning events more closely.

According to Murcia, (2005) scientifically literate citizens would have a general, broad and useful understanding of science. Scientific literacy contributes to our competence and disposition to use science to meet the personal and social demand of our life at home, at work and in their community. Without a reasonable level of scientific literacy, citizens of the future would be unable to appreciate science's interaction with society or their role and the role of others in decisions, values and actions shaping humanity's future

Murcia, (2005) went further by equating scientific literacy with:

Nature of science;

Interaction of science and society, and

Scientific terms and concepts.

Scientific literacy is clearly about *knowing* but it is also about *a way of thinking and acting*. Being scientifically literate requires the confidence, interest and or disposition to use or put into action a blend of these knowledge dimensions for engaging with science in context. As such, it requires the ability to:

Use science as a tool for inquiry or discovery;

Use science for learning, informing or contributing to problem solving;

and, critically reflect on "the use" or "role" of science in context. To teach for scientific literacy in the primary years involves the laying down of strong foundations in the compulsory years of science education. It demonstrates the interaction of knowledge dimensions when thinking and acting scientifically. In particular, when focused on the Primary years, it can highlight opportunities for building into children's innate curiosity about their natural environment and the world around them. Natural curiosity could be a motivation for learning important foundational habits such as investigating, observing, measuring, reasoning from evidence, using scientific language to describe experiences and making informed decisions based on scientific ideas.

Making informed decisions requires children to build foundational understandings of the dynamic, creative and ultimately tentative nature of scientific research findings and knowledge. They would need to develop critical thinking and questioning skills in order to appreciate the role science can take in the solution of social or personal problems or dilemmas.

One possible answer to the question, how could we most effectively engage students with the various dimensions of this framework so that our teaching and learning practices foster scientific literacy could be found in student-centered inquiry driven by real world contexts. This approach would require the blending of knowledge types from within the discipline and from across disciplines students think and act in a scientific way. Some factors that may enhance or foster acquisition of scientific literacy in the classroom are listed below:

Science learning as well as scientific literacy may be fostered through teaching models that promotes inquiry. Inquiry refers to diverse ways in which scientists study the natural world, propose ideas, and explain and justify assertions based upon evidence derived from scientific work. It also refers to more authentic ways in which learners can investigate the natural world, propose ideas, and explain and justify

assertions based upon evidence and, in the process, sense the spirit of science. (Hofstein & Lunetta, 1982).

In the 20 years since our 1982 review was published, the science education community has substantially expanded knowledge of students' understanding of science concepts and of the nature of science. There has also been a substantial paradigm shift in thinking about the ways in which learners construct their own scientific knowledge and understanding. In addition, substantive developments in social science research methodologies enable much richer examination of laboratory and classroom processes and of students' and teachers' ideas and behaviors. Furthermore, throughout the past 20 years the exponential growth of high-technology tools has powerful implications for teaching, learning, and research in the school laboratory.

Learning According to (NRC, 1996, if the laboratory is used properly, especially in this current era in which inquiry has re-emerged as a central style and advocated for science teaching and inquiry. It is a multifaceted activity that involves making observations; posing questions; examining books and other sources of information to see what is already known; planning investigations; reviewing what is already known in light of experimental evidence; using tools to gather, analyze, and interpret data; proposing answers, explanations, and predictions; and communicating the results. Inquiry requires identification of assumptions, use of critical and logical thinking, and consideration of alternative explanations.

The term *inquiry* has been used in multiple ways in the science education literature. It has been used somewhat broadly to refer to learning science in classrooms and labs in which the students and their teachers explore and discuss science in a "narrative of enquiry" context. As the science education field develops, it is increasingly important to define and use technical terms like *inquiry* in the learning of science with greater precision and consistency, and progress to these ends is visible in recent scholarship. *The National Science Education Standards* in the United States and other contemporary science education literature continue to suggest that school science laboratories have the Furthermore, attention should be paid to the development of literacy level of learners in each specific area of the cognitive domain.

Students' perception about science lessons is affected by the laboratory facilities and equipments. The laboratory has been given a central and distinctive role in science education, and science educators have suggested that rich benefits in learning accrue from using laboratory activities. We are living in an era of dramatic new technology resources and new standards in science education in which learning by inquiry has been given renewed central status. The laboratory provides a unique medium for teaching and learning in science.

Researchers have not comprehensively examined the effects of laboratory instruction on student learning and growth in contrast to other modes of instruction, and there is insufficient data to confirm or reject convincingly many of the statements that have been made about the importance and the effects of laboratory teaching.

In this study, the focus is on whether some or all the factors mentioned actually have the capacity to foster scientific literacy in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

The problem identified as the driving force for this study was whether scientific literacy as a goal of science curriculum in the secondary school was being achieved among the students. Scientific literacy is a major science education goal to which the

teaching and learning are focused. It is therefore a surprise to note that students who have passed out of the secondary schools demonstrate little knowledge of science and poor application of scientific skills. This is evident in the lack of fundamental approach to science as a creative process for investigating, reasoning, critiquing and communicating about ideas among learners.

The conditions in schools today make concerned citizens to ask some questions such as “to what extent is scientific literacy being fostered in schools”? What are the factors that are capable of fostering scientific literacy in schools? Are these factors being adequately addressed, so as to make a success in the pursuit of educational goals? The focus of this study therefore is on the classroom as a major transformative space and a gateway to transform the young citizens by making them to become scientifically literate through the teaching and learning of science and to investigate the factors that are capable of influencing it.

Significance of the Study

This study could assist science educators to see the need for better teaching in the schools. This study could help identify areas and reasons why students should learn science more effectively in secondary schools.

This study could also help educators identify the causes of the unpopular nature of science and technology due to lack of interest and then design appropriate structure and map out strategies for necessary adjustments.

Population

The population used for this study was made up all the freshers i.e. those who have gained admission into higher institutions within the Southwest Zone of Nigeria. The population used was not expected to have interacted with new science learning in their new faculties or via university courses (GST). To achieve this, the researcher served the questionnaires to the faculties and departments involved just before the beginning of the new session, In order to ensure that the respondents were truly fresh.

Sample and Sampling Technique

Two hundred and ninety five students formed the sample for the study. The sample was selected using multi-stage sampling technique. The first stage involved the stratification of institutions in the southwest zone of Nigeria into State and Federal Universities, and the selection of seven universities, which took part in the study as qualified samples. The second stage involved the stratification of the students into male and female, public and private former schools. In the third stage, Science students were purposively selected from chemistry, physics, Biology, microbiology and mathematics departments, and finally random sampling technique was used to obtain the sample that took part in the study.

Research Questions

1. What is the scientific literacy level of respondents in each specific area of the cognitive domain?

2. Who is more scientifically literate between those who attended public schools and those who went to private schools?
3. Who is more scientifically literate between male and female students?
4. Who is more scientifically literate between the respondents with low interest in science and those with high interest in science?
5. What is the status of laboratory facilities and equipment in the respondents' former schools?
6. What is the respondents' perception about their science lessons?

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Results

To answer question one, scientific literacy was broken into six variables, which are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The respondents' scores in each of these areas were used to place them into high and low literacy categories as displayed in table 1 (see table 1).

Table 1 Scientific literacy level of respondents in each specific area of the cognitive domain

Variable	Respondents N=294			
	High literacy		Low literacy	
	N	%	N	%
Knowledge (Recall) Sec. D (Item a-r)	81	27.55	213	72.45
Comprehension Sec. E1 (i-iv)	49	16.66	245	83.33
Application of scientific knowledge to technology Sec. E2 (v-ix)	68	23.13	226	76.87
Application of scientific concepts and principles solving day-to-day problems. Sec. E3 (i -xxvii) (i-vi)(Analysis)	85	28.91	209	71.09
Inquiry skills, design and communicating results to others i.e. (Synthesis) Sec. E4 (a-d)	48	16.33	246	83.67
Reasoning Skills (Evaluation) Sec. E5(e-h)	50	17.01	244	82.99

In table one, it was observed that majority of the respondents 213 (72.45%) possessed low scientific literacy in terms of the knowledge of science content they possessed, while the remaining 81 (27.55%) demonstrated the possession of good scientific knowledge. 245 (83.33%) and 49 (16.66%) of the respondents possessed low and high scientific literacy respectively, in the area of comprehension.

Comprehension is just a step higher on the Bloom's Taxonomy of learning objectives; hence one wonders why the number of respondents who scored low increased under comprehension. Also 226 (76.87%) and 68 (23.13%) of the respondents possessed low and high scientific literacy respectively, in the area of application of knowledge to technology. We may wish to ask this question again "is scientific literacy as goals of science curriculum in the secondary school being achieved among the students"? Scientific literacy is a major science education goal to which the teaching and learning are focused. It is therefore a surprise to note that the respondents, who were secondary schools leavers, demonstrate little knowledge of science and poor application of scientific skills.

It was also observed that 209 (71.09%) and 85 (28.91%) of the respondents possessed low and high scientific literacy respectively, when ability to apply scientific concepts

and principles to solve day-to-day problems was considered. This confirms trends of experiences in the society, which show that there is a gap between classroom learning and the level of usefulness of learners to themselves and the society.

246 (83.67%) and 48 (16.33%) of the respondents possessed low and high scientific literacy respectively, in the area of analysis. Analysis being third to highest on the bloom’s taxonomy of objectives, it was observed that the number of respondents scoring low, was highest. With respect to the ability to reason scientifically, 244 (82.99%) and 50 (17.01%) of the respondents possessed low and high scientific literacy respectively.

This is a problem that is a reflection of non availability of suitable laboratory materials and other facilities, poor science teacher quality and quantity, large classroom size and time constraint, heavy teaching load, examination system; and the general lack of understanding of science inquiry process skills (Onwu, 1992) and (Olanrewaju, 2001)

To answer question 2, the respondents were dichotomized into two i.e. those who attended public schools and those who attended private schools. Their scores in each of the dimension of scientific literacy measured were used to place them into high and low scientific literacy categories. This can be seen in table 2 (see table 2).

Table 2 Scientific Literacy Level of respondents with respect to the variables measured among those who attended public and private schools.

Variables	Public = 195				Private = 93			
	High literacy		Low literacy		High literacy		Low literacy	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Knowledge (recall) Comprehension	23	11.8	172	88.2	36	38.76	57	61.3
Application of Scientific Knowledge to technology	02	1.01	193	98.1	36	38.7	57	61.2
Application Concept/Principles to solve day-to-day Problems ((Analysis)	16	8.20	179	91.08	38	40.9	55	59.1
Inquiry Skills, Designing and Communicating to others (Synthesis)	43	22.1	152	77.4	48	51.6	43	48.4
Reasoning Skills (Evaluation)	04	2.05	191	97.9	38	40.9	55	59.1
	27	13.8	168	86.2	28	30.1	65	69.9
Overall (scientific literacy)	19	9.7	176	90.26	37	39.8	55	9.2

In table 2, a global view of the result revealed the fact 23 (11.8%) of the respondents who attended public schools scored high and 172 (88.2%) scored low on the scientific literacy level rating scale in the area of knowledge. While among those who attended private schools 36 (38.76%) respondents scored high and 57 (61.3%) had low scores.

In the area of comprehension, 02 (1.01%) of the respondents who attended public secondary schools scored high and 193 (98.1%) scored low marks on the literacy level rating scale. While among the respondents from the private schools 36 (38.7 %) scored high and 57 (61.2%) scored low marks.

In the area of application of knowledge to technology, only 16 (8.20%) of the respondents from the public schools scored high and 179 (91.8 %) had low scores. While 38 (40.9%) of the respondents who came from private schools scored high and 55 (59.1%) had low scores.

43 (22.1%) of the respondents from the public schools scored high in the area of application of concepts and principles to solving day-to-day problems and 152 (77.4%) had low scores on the scientific literacy level rating scale. While 48 (51.6%) out of their counterparts from public schools had high scores and 43 (48.4%) scored low.

In the area of synthesis, 04 (2.05%) of the respondents from public schools scored high on the scientific literacy level rating scale and 191 (97.9%) had low scores. While 38 (40.9%) respondents from the private secondary schools scored high and 55 (59.1%) had low scores.

27 (13.8%) of the respondents from the public secondary schools had high scientific literacy level scores and 168 (86.2%) had low scores, while among their counterparts from private secondary schools, 28 (30.10%) scored high and 65 (69.9%) scored low marks in the area of reasoning skills or evaluation.

To answer question 3 the same procedure as in questions 1&2 was employed in organizing the male and female respondents according to their scientific literacy level. This is displayed in table 3 (see table 3)

Table 3 Scientific Literacy Level of respondents with respect to the variables measured among Male and Female Students

Variables	Male = 169				Female = 124			
	High literacy		Low literacy		High literacy		Low literacy	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Knowledge (recall)	45	26.6	124	73.3	30	24.2	94	75.8
Understanding	40	23.7	129	76.3	18	14.5	106	62.7
Application of Scientific Knowledge to technology	52	30.8	117	69.23	20	16.1	104	83.9
Application Concept/Principles to solve day-to-day Problems (Analysis)	55	32.5	114	67.5	25	20.2	99	79.8
Inquiry Skills, Designing and Communicating to others. (Synthesis)	38	22.5	131	77.5	16	12.9	108	87.1
Reasoning Skills. (Evaluation)	32	18.9	137	81.1	18	14.5	106	85.5
Overall (scientific literacy)	47	27.8	125	74.2	21	16.9	103	82.1

A global view of table three, revealed that 45 (26.6%) of the male respondents scored high and 124 (73.3%) scored low on the scientific literacy level rating scale in the area of knowledge. While among the female respondents 30 (24.2%) scored high and 94 (75.8%) had low scores.

In the area of comprehension, 40 (23.7%) of the male respondents scored high and 129 (76.3%) scored low marks on the literacy level rating scale. While among the female respondents only 18 (14.5%) scored high and 106 (62.7%) scored low marks.

In the area of application of knowledge to technology, 52 (30.8%) of the male respondents scored high and 117 (69.23 %) had low scores. While only 20 (16.1%) of the female respondents scored high and 104 (83.9%) had low scores.

55 (32.5%) of the male respondents scored high and 114 (67.5%) had low scores on the scientific literacy level rating scale in the area of analysis. While 25 (20.2%) of female respondents had high scores and 99 (79.8%) scored low marks.

In the area of synthesis, 38 (22.5%) of the male respondents scored high on the scientific literacy level rating scale and 131 (77.5%) had low scores. While only 16 (12.9%) of the female respondents scored high and 108 (87.1%) had low scores.

32 (18.9%) of the male respondents had high scientific literacy level scores and 137 (81.1%) had low scores in the area of reasoning skills, while among their female counterparts 18 (14.5%) scored high and 106 (85.5%) scored low marks.

To answer question four, the respondents were classed into high interest and low interest groups. Those whose interest scores lie within the middle score and the highest interest score were categorized as high, while the respondents whose interest scores lie within the lowest score and the middle score were categorized as low interest group. The frequency distribution and percentages of each group was obtained and displayed in table 4. (See table 4). Figure 1 was also drawn to illustrate the level of scientific literacy possessed by each category of respondents.

Figure 1 was drawn in order to display the scientific literacy mean score of the respondents in each category.

Figure 1 Scientific literacy level of high and low interest groups

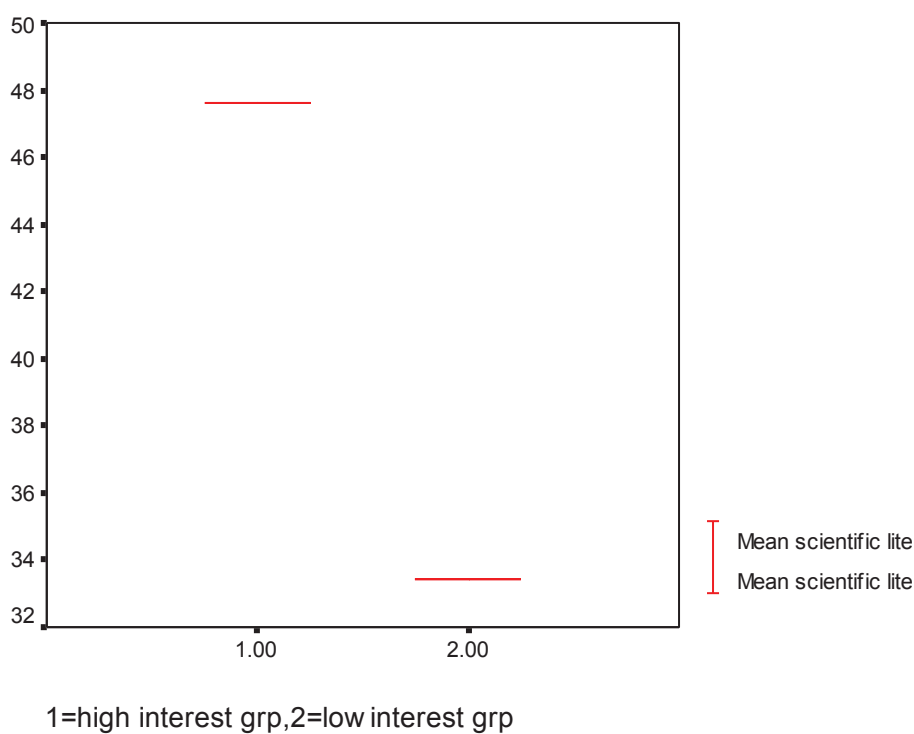


Figure 1, is a line graph, which reveals the mean difference between the high interest group and the low interest group. Two horizontal lines could be observed. The first horizontal line represents the mean scientific literacy level of the high interest group whose mean corresponds with 48 on the y-axis. The lower horizontal line represents the scientific literacy level of the low interest group whose mean is a little above 32.

To answer question five, the responses to items a, b, and c were sorted out. The result of the frequency count and percentages, which represented the status of laboratory were displayed in table 5a. (See table 5a). Also the responses of the respondents were sorted into three; well equipped, fairly well equipped, and poorly equipped. The frequency count and percentages, which represented the ratings of the laboratory equipment, was displayed in table 5b. (See table 5b)

Table 5a Provision of laboratory facilities in the respondents' schools.

Section B Item 7	Respondents N = 295			
	YES	%	NO	%
(a) Presence of Integrated Science Laboratory				
(b) Biology combined with other Laboratory	28	9.5	269	90.5
(c) Biology, Chemistry, Physics combined	250	84.74	45	15.3
	95	32.20	200	67.80

From table five (a) above, it was observed that about 90.5% of the respondents did not have a separate laboratory for integrated science, 84.74% of them had their biology laboratory combined with another type of laboratory. It was not common to have the three types of laboratories combined.

Table 5b Students' rating of laboratory equipment in their former schools.

Section B Item 8	Students' Rating N=288					
	Well equipped		Fairly well equipped		Poorly equipped	
Schools	N	%	N	%	N	%
	88	30.6	86	29.8	114	39.6

In table five (b), a greater percentage of respondents (39.6%) regarded their laboratories as poorly equipped, (29.8%) described theirs as fairly well equipped and only (30.6%) rated theirs as well equipped.

To answer question 6, the responses of the respondents to each of the question items 6-11, which is either 'yes' or 'no' was obtained by frequency count and percentages. The perception of the respondents about their science lessons, which was indicated frequency and percentages, was displayed in tables 6-11. (See tables 9-11)

Table 6 Extent to which the respondents were involved in group work

Item	Respondents N=295			
	Yes	%	No	%
My science teachers often gave us work to be done in groups	137	46.44	158	53.55

In table six, the situation as revealed was not impressive. Group techniques have greater advantage over individual techniques. 53.55% responded negatively while 46.44% responded positively in favour of the statement that says “My teacher often gives us work to be done in groups”.

Table 7 Respondents’ view about their level of engagement during science lessons.

Item	Respondents N=288			
	Yes	%	No	%
My science teacher kept us working all the time	127	44.09	161	55.90

In table seven, a greater percentage (55.90%) of the respondents believed that their teachers did not engage them enough, while the remaining 44.09% responded positively.

Table 8 Extent to which the respondents related their ability to remember with classroom involvement.

Item	Respondents N=288			
	Yes	%	No	%
I easily remembered what I learnt because I was involved in doing something as the lessons proceeded	84	29.16	204	70.83

In table eight, 70.83% of the respondents did not attribute the remembrance of what they learnt to their involvement in classroom activities. While only 29.16% responded positively

Table 9 Respondents’ view about the time spent on teaching theoretical aspects of science

Item	Respondents N=288					
	Lot of Time		Fair Amt. of time		Very little	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
State the amount of time spent in teaching theoretical aspects	122	42.36	157	54.51	9	3.12

In table nine, It was obvious that a lot time was used in teaching the theoretical aspects of science at the expense of practical work.42.36% of the respondents testified that the time spent on teaching the theoretical aspects was much, while only 3.12% of the respondents had a contrary opinion.

Table 10 Respondents’ view about the ratio of practical / theory period

Item	Respondents N=294					
	3:1		2:2		1:3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Compare the theory/practical period with a good ratio	93	47.94	101	52.06	-	-

A close look at the responses to the item in table ten revealed the fact that much time was spent on theoretical work as observed earlier. Not a single respondent thought otherwise. 47.94% described it with a ratio of 3:1, and 52.06% described with a ratio of 2:2.

Table 11 Opinion of the respondents with regard to the adequacy of the science curriculum content covered.

Item	Respondents N=288			
	Yes	%	No	%
Will you say that the topics in your science curriculum at the secondary school level were enough to prepare you for further studies	288	100	-	-

In table eleven, all the respondents i.e. 100% believed that the curriculum content designed for secondary schools was adequate as a background for further studies.

Discussion

In this study, it was observed that a number of factors are capable of enhancing scientific literacy.

The findings as observed in this study were discussed below:

From the result obtained in table 1.it could be observed that scientific literacy level of the secondary school graduates was generally low This conforms to studies carried out on population or sections of population in some other countries of the world, e.g. United States of America, United Kingdom etc.

The researcher must quickly make it clear at this juncture, that, this pattern of result is not new neither is it the first in the world. A report of similar to this was given by National Science Foundation (2000) concerning the adults in the United States American. Cheung and Taylor (1991) reported a similar situation in the United Kingdom. This occurred between 1960 and 1969, leading to the first serious attempt to evaluate the science curriculum on a large scale and subsequent emergence of a new Nuffield Science Course. The case of Japan was reported by Takemura, (1986).

The type of finding in this research is expected to lead to a conscious building of an appropriate curriculum that would include relevant contents, and encourage scientific thinking, which are capable of fostering Scientific/Literacy.

In this research, the focus is an important phase of curriculum, which is the 'curriculum goals' or 'outcome'. Hence all that were observed are expected to have implication for curriculum implementation and instruction Scientific/Literacy. Curriculum evaluation is supposed to be a part of curriculum development, and for Nigeria, it should not be different. This research finding is a feedback that should inform, teachers and curriculum planners and in fact all stakeholders as to the necessary steps to be taken to improve science curriculum practice in Nigeria that fosters Scientific/Literacy.

The outcome of this research points to the fact that we need not see acquisition of cognitive scientific knowledge during classroom learning as the only source, through which scientific literacy can be acquired.

Some students believe that school is a waste of time: it confines them against their will in physically unattractive surroundings, imposes on them a code of conduct, which they regarded as unfamiliar and un welcomed. Sometimes students are presented with a science curriculum that they regard as remote from real life. Even if they make the effort to learn science, they are presented almost daily with unappealing messages about the nature of science and scientific practices. Science is presented as complex and difficult, and only accessible to 'experts' who have subjected themselves to a long and arduous training. Frequently, scientific knowledge is characterized as established and proven knowledge that is not to be challenged or doubted by mere students. Moreover, it is often presented in an unfamiliar and depersonalized language. For many students, all this constitutes such a formidable barrier that they are unable to make satisfactory progress. It became imperative for Scientific/Literacy to be fostered by manipulating some variables.

There should be a conception of scientific literacy that can re-direct science and technology along more socially just, environmentally responsible and ethically sound lines. Scientific literacy means knowing what scientific resources to draw on, where to find them and how to use them (Fourez, 1997). The real function of scientific literacy is to help people learn to think for themselves and to reach their own conclusions about a range of issues that have a scientific and/or technological dimension. Scientific literacy should be sought not because it improves the economy, produces more technological 'goodies' or provides job opportunities for individuals, but because it liberates the mind. It also enables us to decide which experts to trust and which conclusions to rely on. The scientific literacy measured in this study was linked with the secondary school science curriculum.

In this context, scientific literacy is taken to mean the extent of acquisition of scientific knowledge and principles, skills and its applications. The result obtained indicated a low level of scientific literacy among the product of the science curriculum. For scientific literacy to be seen as the blueprint of the science curriculum, then such a curriculum must not only emphasize cognitive aspects, but also the processes of inquiry, which incorporates a way of knowing how to solve day to day problems, including values and limitation of science.(Hodson,1994),(Hodson, 2009), Fourez, 1997)

The fact that respondents who had their secondary education in private institutions scored higher in all dimensions of scientific literacy than their counterparts who came

from public secondary schools as observed in table 2, indicate the fact that Scientific/Literacy may be fostered by status of school. This observation is corroborated by the significant difference in the scientific literacy of respondents from public and private schools as seen in table two. Teachers in private school, under close supervision of the proprietors and proprietresses would compensate for any inadequacy in the area of facility and equipment by improvisation and the application of several other measures that will boost the performance of their students. The school management knows that good performance is one of the best means of advertising their schools. On the other hand, visitation to well-established private secondary schools and international colleges reveals the reasons why parents struggle to put their children in private institution despite the high school fees paid. If scientific literacy means knowing what scientific resources to draw upon, where to find them and how to use them; help people to think for themselves and to reach their own conclusion this attributes is characteristics of international school students whose learning most of the time is ICT supported. (Kaller, 2011) In private school students acquire the thorough knowledge of science underlying all important issues. It is therefore not a surprise that private school students are more scientifically and technologically literate hence supporting Fourez 1997.

In figure 2 (a) and (b) the same effect could be observed between interest in science and scientific literacy. There was a higher frequency of the respondents in the high interest group having high scientific literacy level scores as well as a higher mean of scientific literacy. In other words, interest fosters Scientific/Literacy. This view is supported by Garrete and Locklear (2007); Junge et al; (Detjen, (Andy2010)

In table three, it was observed that about 90.50 % of the respondents did not have a separate laboratory for integrated science, 84.74% of them had their Biology laboratory combined with another type of laboratory. It was not common to have the three of the laboratory combined in one.

The integrated science teacher, in a research carried out by Oluwatele (1997) on the assessment of the junior secondary school pupils' performances in categorized learning environments, confirmed that old schools have better science learning environments than the fairly old and new schools. Now, with the introduction of the integrated science core-curriculum, one is expecting a positive move toward the provision of a special laboratory, which will contain facilities and equipment as well as appropriate learning environment for meaningful teaching, and learning of integrated science. Hence if 90.50% indicated that they had no integrated science laboratory in their former secondary school then, one wonders if learners were exposed to activity oriented, and learner-centered curriculum

This is a confirmation that one of the reasons for the low level of scientific literacy among all categories of respondents was due to lack of adequate provision for laboratory integrated science laboratories. The fact that a good-learning environment promotes better achievement of learning objectives cannot be overemphasized.

Table 5b, revealed that greater percentage of respondents (39.6%) regards their laboratories as poorly equipped. This could be true when one considers the fact that the old mission schools which used to be the best by all standards are now depending on old glory. The new schools, which sprang up two to three decades ago, had their

laboratories built with a little less standard than what obtained during the colonial days. More often than not the aging and damaged facilities and equipment were almost always not replaced. (Oluwatelure, (1997). Obviously, schools would lack many facilities and equipment, which they ought to provide for learners.

The situation as revealed in table 6, was not impressive. Since group technique has greater advantage over individual technique. The researcher saw this as a very serious problem because; it placed a limitation on the learners. Group work gives room for sharing of ideals, among learners. This is opposed to find of GSA 2012, which suggests that activities have a positive effects scientific literacy.

In table 7, 55.90% of respondents believed that the ideal type of classroom interaction was absent. A greater percentage of the respondents believed that their teachers did not engage them enough

In table 8, it could be observed that 70.83 % of respondents did not attribute the retention of what they learnt to their involvement in classroom activities while only 29.16 % hold a different opinion. Classroom involvement is very crucial because it is through this process that learners actively take knowledge, connect it to the previously assimilated ones. This is in line with Brooks and Brooks (1999) who believed that a good learning is a process whereby students themselves are the primary actors. Learners are to actively interpret and impose meaning through the lenses of their existing personal knowledge. Ibe and Nwosu (2003) in agreement said the right type of science learning is that which enhances process skill acquisition, intellectual skills and attitude needed in learning of science.

Table 9 revealed a general discountenance of laboratory work and classroom activities, and much time was spent on theoretical aspects.

42.36% see theory/practical ratio as tilted towards teaching of theory aspects of science while 54.51% see both of them carrying equal weight. None see process skills being given a position that supersedes the theory. The result is bound to have effect on the scientific literacy scores of respondents.

Okoli, (2006) in her work also discovered this. Her findings revealed that students taught using investigative laboratory approach performed significantly better than those taught using the expository method. The implication of this result was that science teachers used more of direct teaching techniques.

In table 10, the phenomenon as revealed in table nine was confirmed. The respondents were generally of the opinion that periods of practical were not enough.

In table 11, 100% were positive about the potential of the science curriculum and its capability to make them functional members of the society as well as laying a good foundation for further studies. In the America society a different upheld. According to them most of the science learning is done outside school (Falk and Dierking, 2010); Detgen (1995) dubeck et al.

Conclusion

In view of the findings in this research it could be concluded that the scientific literacy level of the subject sampled in the south west zone of Nigeria is generally low and this is a reflection of the impact of the school science curriculum with which they were prepared. Although the respondents were of the belief that the science curriculum with which they were prepared was adequate, it was obvious that there is still a gap to be filled. One of the goals of science education is acquisition of scientific literacy by citizens, hence it should be fostered by manipulating important factors some of which were highlighted in this study. If the factors manipulated in this study is properly managed in schools scientific literacy will be enhanced among learners as well as among citizens in the nation.

Recommendation

It is recommended that other agency of scientific literacy such as the media home and the public bodies should be empowered by the Government and be made relevant to the nation's science education programmes.

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Productive Discourses through the Integration of Out-of-school Media in Science Learning

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Abstract

The use of out-of-school media (e.g., magazines, movies) in classroom teaching is often targeted at generating student interests towards the academic subject. However, there is much potential in using out-of-school media to foster disciplinary and critical literacy of the subject. A science curricular programme that we have designed and implemented was to juxtapose and compare students' self-selected out-of-school media with traditional school-based texts. With data taken from a research study with a class of high school physics students in Singapore, this paper illustrates the quality of discourses produced by the students as they went through the programme. Through a discourse analysis on selected students' work and interviews, this paper analyses how students made connections between physics and the content they identified in their chosen media. In particular, evidences of the students' active processes in connecting everyday and scientific discourses are shown and discussed. These processes demonstrate learning outcomes that go beyond mere understanding of science content knowledge to an awareness of the disciplinary norms of scientific knowledge. They also demonstrate the kind of productive and critical discourses that could emerge from a curricular approach of juxtaposing and integrating out-of-school media in school-based science learning.

1. Introduction

The use of out-of-school media such as movies, newspapers, video games and Internet sites is a common strategy to engage students' interest in the learning of academic science. In the USA, a commissioned paper by the National Academy of Science (Rockman et al., 2007) concluded that "the media are the most pervasive disseminators of informal science education". Research in this area has also highlights a positive relationship between out-of-school media and student motivation and engagement in science learning (e.g., Falk, Donovan, & Woods, 2001). Although out-of-school media is seen as a positive contributor to the learning of science, the integration of media in formal school curriculum is largely confined within several boundaries. First, the use of media are mostly based on educators' assumptions of mainstream adolescent interests (e.g., soccer, crime investigation) rather than ethnographic studies of actual students' personal interests situated in their local communities. Second, most educators see out-of-school media as providing a source of information aligned or misaligned with institutionalised content standards and neglect the critical literacy element of discerning the varying socio-political agenda of out-of-school media. These gaps exist in both in research studies as well as classroom practices within science education.

As an attempt to address these gaps, a curricular intervention that uses a different approach in harnessing out-of-school media for science learning was implemented in this study. The key element in this curricular intervention was to have individual students brought self-selected out-of-school media to the classroom and compare them with traditional school-based texts and media. Through this intervention, it was found that out-of-school media have the pedagogical potential in fostering disciplinary knowledge and critical literacy of the subject matter other than the predominant thinking of generating student interest in the subject. In particular, the kind of discourses generated by some students was found to be of a nature unlike what had been observed in most science classroom discourses.

In this paper, I begin by outlining the theoretical and pedagogical perspectives that inform this study. This is followed by a description of the curricular intervention undertaken in the study and the methodological procedures in the collection and analysis of data. The learning outcomes and processes from two students are then presented. For the purpose of this study, I use discourse analysis to show the nature of the discourses generated by these two students as they related their out-of-school media to the disciplinary knowledge and practices of physics.

2. Theoretical Perspectives

The theoretical basis of this study is informed by research in New Literacies, which is characterised by a broadened view of literacy and media and their roles in the contemporary classroom (Leu, O'Byrne, Zawilinski, McVerry, & Everett-Cacopardo, 2009). A central view in New Literacies is the framing of literacy as forms of social practices unique to the "Discourse" (with a capital D) of a particular sociocultural community (Gee, 1996). Discourses are manifested in characteristic patterns in the way we speak, write, think, act, and use various media in our everyday practices. These ways of interactions are deeply embedded in our membership and participation in various communities, and learned through our habitual ways of interacting with people, tools, and media in those communities (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Thus, New Literacies research provides the theoretical insight that sees learning through media not as a matter of decoding/encoding information, but as a form of enculturation into the discourse communities that produce and use various media as part of their social meaning-making practices (Street, 2003). As such, the incorporation of popular

media in a science classroom should not be seen as an individualised learning of a decontextualised form of knowledge, but as a larger interaction between two or more Discourses. From these perspectives, I conceptualise a classroom as a physical, cultural, and semiotic space where the Discourses of multiple social communities converge through the interaction of the various participants (e.g., students, teacher, researcher) and the respective media they bring.

Furthermore, the focus of incorporating out-of-school media is not about the information embedded in the media, but rather on the opportunity that can be generated by creating a contrasting juxtaposition with school-sanctioned Discourse in a classroom setting. The ensuing conversation between contrasting Discourses is what researchers call a “third space” (e.g., Gutierrez, Baquedano, & Tejada, 1999; Moje et al., 2004). Deriving from Bhabha’s (1994) cultural theory, the notion of a third space has recently been used in education in constructing an “in-between” cultural space jointly negotiated among multiple (sometimes competing) Discourses brought into the classroom. Barton and Tan (2009, p. 52) define a third space as one where different Discourses “coalesce to destabilise and expand the boundaries of official school Discourse.” This occurs when multiple cultural practices in different discourses are deliberately juxtaposed to be mutually challenged, integrated, and transformed so as to generate new forms of understanding and literacy practices (Moje et al., 2004). It is argued that a third space would provide a rich setting for learning as the students navigate the various Discourses that are brought into the classroom.

In order to create the conditions for a third space to evolve, I further draw on the pedagogy of multiliteracies to inform the design of a curricular intervention for this study. Multiliteracies was developed by the New London Group (1996) with the goal of responding to the shifting nature of literacies in a rapidly changing political, economic, and technological world. The pedagogical framework of multiliteracies is based on an integration of four factors: situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice. Situated practice begins with a meaningful immersion in the learners’ knowledge and experiences. This is relevant to the incorporation of the students’ out-of-media in the curricular intervention. Situated practice is then followed by an overt instruction to help students connect their out-of-school media and the knowledge associated with it to academic science learning. The purpose of overt instruction is not only to meet curricular standards and benchmarks, but also to facilitate the development of critical framing, which involves understanding that all forms of disciplinary knowledge are points of view shaped by particular combinations of language and representations under certain social, historical, and political influences. In this way, critical framing helps students interpret the social and cultural context of different texts and constructively critique them. Eventually, critical framing allow students to creatively extend the texts to produce new ones of their own in new contexts, and this is the end goal of transformed practice.

3. Methodology

Informed by the theoretical notions of third space and multiliteracies as described earlier, a curricular intervention was designed and implemented in a high school physics programme in the following manner:

1. Situated practice – Each student selected an everyday media artifact related to his/her personal interest and a physics topic (e.g. mechanics, electricity). The type of media selected by the students includes a range of videos, websites, articles on news, and magazines. The phenomenon embedded in the media became a personal context for the student to explore and learn about the physics concepts or principles behind the phenomenon.
2. Overt instruction – From the personal context, the student then identified a question about an interesting phenomenon from his/her chosen media and then wrote a scientific explanation for this question using physics knowledge and language learned in school
3. Critical framing – The student also had to write a critical evaluation of his/her chosen media in terms of the accuracy, reliability, bias and/or simplicity of the information that was presented in the media.
4. Transformed practice – The student presented his/her explanation and critical evaluation through a glog, which is a form of digital poster (see <http://www.glogster.com>). By creating a space for students to juxtapose their out-of-school media with an academic form of scientific explanation and evaluation, the completed glog signifies a hybrid product created through the convergence of in- and out-of-school Discourses.

The above curricular intervention was implemented as a year-end physics project for a cohort of 231 physics students studying in a junior college (JC) in Singapore. These students have all completed the first year of a two-year GCE A-level physics programme. The implementation of the project was carried out in collaboration with six physics teachers from the JC. Out of the cohort of students, 53 students (33 boys and 20 girls) were invited to participate in the research study aimed to examine the process of their learning as they went through the designed curricular intervention. These students were purposefully selected by their teachers according to a maximum variation sampling strategy (Patton, 2002) in the following categories: (1) gender, (2) physics test scores, and (3) students' interests and hobbies.

The research question in this study was: How do students connect the in- and out-of-school Discourses that were juxtaposed in the curricular intervention? In particular, the four factors of multiliteracies – situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing and transformed practice – were used as an analytical framework to divide the research question into the four respective components. Data collection consists of student interviews, students' artifacts (e.g., media selections, glogs) and videos of lectures and tutorials during the enactment of the curricular approach. For the findings reported in this study, the data comes primarily from the interviews with the students and their completed artifacts (i.e., glogs). There were two semi-structured interviews with the selected students at the beginning and end of the physics project. The first interview was conducted to find out more about the students' interests and how they made connection between their interests and the physics concepts they have learned in school. The second interview was conducted after the students had completed the project which required them to present their explanation and critical evaluation on their chosen media. This interview aimed to unpack the learning process and the steps taken by the students in completing their projects.

4. Analysis and Finding

For the purpose of this paper to illustrate the quality of discourse that can be generated through the juxtaposition of out-of-school media with school-based texts, I present two instrumental case studies (Stake, 2000) to provide insights on *how* students connect the in- and out-of-school Discourses that were brought into the classroom. Due to the contextual nature of the analysis, my purpose is not to make universally generalisable claims about the learning with out-of-school media nor evaluative statements about the success of the enacted curricular intervention. Rather, it is to gain a deeper insight into a pedagogical possibility that warrants further research study and educational investment.

The first case study comes from a male student called Shen, who is an avid fan of *Fringe* – an American television (TV) series about a group of government agents who investigate unexplained events related to a mysterious parallel universe. He has been watching every episode from the series since he was twelfth years old. In a particular episode selected by Shen for the project, the event revolves around how an electromagnetic pulse (EMP) bomb triggered the death of a human being. From this episode, Shen identified the following question for him to investigate in the curricular project: Can the victim be killed by an EMP bomb? The following is an excerpt from Shen's explanation in his glog:

In the "Fringe" video, a victim had been exposed to an **electromagnetic bomb**. It is suggested in the video that this bomb reseted her **electromagnetic charge** in her body. This causes all the charge in her body to move faster hence killing her. This leads us back to our **physics related phenomenon about force on a moving charge**. However, in this case, it is the **bomb creating a strong magnetic field** that causes the moving charges in a human body to move abnormally.

In accordance with the first stage of the enacted curricular intervention (situated practice of multiliteracies), Shen situated his learning in his interest of science fiction. In particular, an episode from one of his favorite science fiction TV series heightened his curiosity on EMP and thus led him to find out more about it. Because the curricular intervention requires students to make a direct connection to a physics concept they had learned (a form of overt instruction of multiliteracies), Shen related what he heard from the TV episode about "electromagnetic charge" to what he was currently learning in physics about "force on a moving charge". As he referred to his lecture notes, he revealed in the interview how he came to deduce that in order for the EMP bomb to "create a strong magnetic field", it should comprise a solenoid (a coil of wire):

Yah, cause what I know right is the bomb is mainly just strong electromagnetic field so the only way, one of the ways **we learnt in JC is the solenoid**. So maybe it could be a solenoid in the EMP.

In his glog, he reproduced a schematic diagram of the solenoid based on what he saw in his lecture notes (see Figure 1).

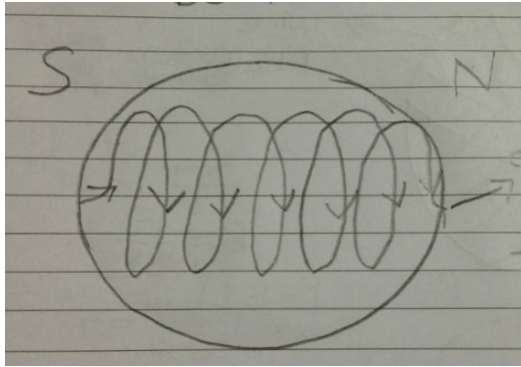


Figure 1. A schematic diagram of a solenoid in an EMP bomb drawn by Shen

From this deduction, Shen then went on to postulate how the solenoid in the EMP could upset the human body. This is where he related to his biology knowledge where he had learned that the nerve system in the human body contains charged particles in motion (see Figure 2 for a biology textbook's diagram reproduced in Shen's glog). By making these connections, he concluded in his glog that:

This leads us to the conclusion that due to the upward force, it causes acceleration in the charged particles. This causes the charge to move faster in the human body hence solving the solution of how it killed our victim in "Fringe".

By synthesizing these connections, Shen was actively generating new knowledge that was beyond what he had learned from GCE A-level physics and biology. In fact, while Shen was searching on the Internet about the EMP bomb, he suspected that the information is classified because he could not find much information about it. As a result, he revealed that he had to develop "some theory of my own" about how the EMP works. This was where he came out with his "own theory" that the EMP bomb must contain a solenoid and a large amount of electrical charge in order for it to work. As we will subsequently, he later went on to test his theory by making some calculations based on the formulae he was taught.

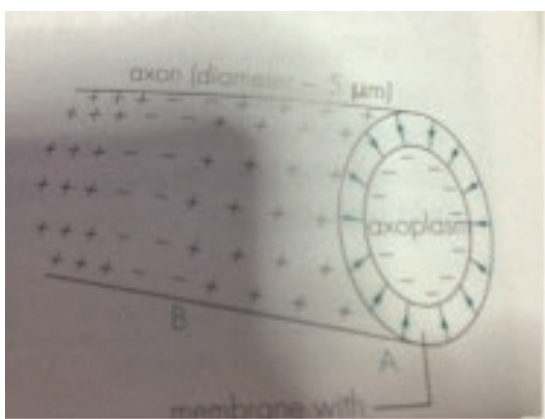


Figure 2. A diagram of charged particles in a human body shown in Shen's glog

Having explained how the EMP could theoretically kill a person, Shen did not stop at this conclusion in his glog. As required in the critical evaluation of the curricular intervention (informed by critical framing of multiliteracies), he went on to check the feasibility of the

EMP bomb killing a human being. To do so, he realised that he had to make some estimation based on several physics formulae he had learned. In his glog, he calculated what would be the electromagnetic force acting on a charge particle in the human body and noticed that it is numerically insignificant. Thus, he inferred that the EMP bomb as portrayed in the *Fringe* episode “may not be workable because of the high amount of energy needed”.

According to Shen, checking the feasibility of an idea is a prerequisite part of checking its reliability. He made the distinction between feasibility and reliability as follows: “Feasibility is theoretical whether it can work. Reliability is for the [*Fringe*] video to see whether they are lying or whether they are stating some correct facts or not.” Thus, based on his calculation, he concluded that the *Fringe* video is not reliable because the idea is not feasible. This led him to write in his glog:

This **source may be deemed unreliable** as the science may stretch beyond facts so as to attract the audience attention towards the TV series. Hence, the electromagnetism discussed in the video may be a little far from its actual scientific theory.

Shen’s example illustrates a characteristic of critical literacy where he evaluates the reliability of a source in his out-of-school media exposure. Furthermore, it also demonstrates his awareness that in order to check the feasibility and thus reliability of a scientific argument in a source, he needs to carry out a certain disciplinary practice employed by scientists, which is to make estimations based on known formulae. This illustrates what the New London Group (1996) calls the meta-language awareness of using certain linguistic or representational practices in the critical framing of scientific knowledge and disciplinary norms.

In sum, Shen’s juxtaposition of the various texts (e.g., *Fringe* video, physics lecture notes, biology textbook) as he completed his blog illustrates a possible outcome that resulted from an in-between space (i.e., third space) of multiple Discourses converging in the classroom. Through this convergence, Shen was able to make good connections between his out-of-school media and what he learned in school physics. Furthermore, the juxtaposition also allowed him to critique knowledge from one Discourse using the knowledge and disciplinary practices of another Discourse. In other words, a transformed practice (last stage of multiliteracies) has taken place whereby he looked at a science fiction genre through the lens of a scientific genre.

The second case study comes from a female student called Salima, who is interested in martial arts. During the curricular intervention, she chose a particular documentary series from the History Channel called *The Human Weapon*. In this documentary, she became interested in a Ninjutsu move called a Hamukai. As she wanted to find out more about the physics behind a Hamukai, she framed the following question for her project: What are the factors that contribute to executing a good Hamukai? The following is an excerpt from Salima’s explanation to this question in her glog:

In executing a successful Hamukai, several factors were taken into consideration. The factors are **moment, force and energy**. Moment is the product of the force and perpendicular distance about a **pivot**. In this movement, the **elbow** can be seen used as a **fulcrum**. Therefore it will also act as a **pivot**.

Similar to Shen, as a form of situated practice, Salima situated her learning for this project in her interest on martial arts. From the overt instruction in the curricular intervention, she then drew a connection between Hamukai and the physics concepts of “moment, force and energy”. As shown in the above excerpt, she began by identifying the relevant “factors” from physics that account for the Hamukai move and giving a definition of the physics concept of “moment”. She then correctly made the bridge between the position of the opponent’s elbow (personal context) and the location of the pivot (a physics term), in doing so, she was able to explain the effect caused by the Hamaukai. She further explained it during an interview as follows:

So using moment itself, it’s force times the perpendicular distance. So the further away you are from target, since force and perpendicular distance is involved in the duration of moment, so if let’s say the distance is constant, so if you put in more force to actually execute this move, it will result in more moment and thus more pain at the affected area.

In making her explanation, Salima referred to her lecture notes in mechanics during the project as seen from this excerpt from the interview:

For me, I took time in actually trying to find out or see the concepts that can actually relate it to the moves that’s executed in this video. So I actually will flip through my notes, my physics notes, to actually see what concepts are actually related to this video.

When it comes to the critical evaluation, Salima differed in her approach as compared to Shen. Whereas Shen examined the reliability of the *Fringe* video by checking the feasibility of its scientific idea, Salima evaluated the reliability by checking the background of the author and the purpose of the video. Thus, she wrote the following in her glog:

The History Channel is a US-based international satellite and cable TV channel owned by A&E Television Networks. It originally broadcast documentary programs and historical fiction series since 1995. It has broadcast many television shows that are beneficial to users. Therefore, it a reliable source for information which makes this video from Human Weapon a reliable one.

Compared to Shen, Salima’s evaluation may not seem to demonstrate a meta-language awareness of checking a scientific claim by using some forms of science disciplinary practice such as numerical estimation. This could be attributed to a major difference in the genre between science fiction and science documentary, whereby the ideas found in science documentary tend to be less far-fetched compared to science fiction. Thus, this makes it more difficult for students to critique the feasibility of those ideas. Nevertheless, Salima’s evaluation is still a crucial form of critical literacy in checking the author’s background and the intended purpose of the media source.

In sum, Salima’s juxtaposition of the science documentary and her physics textbook illustrates another example resulting from a third space of multiple Discourses converging in the classroom. Like Shen, Salima was able to make some connections, both affectively and conceptually, between her out-of-school media and what she had learned in school physics. While she was not able to critique the knowledge presented in the out-of-school Discourse to the extent demonstrated by Shen, the juxtaposition of *The Human Weapon* video presented

her with the opportunity to develop the habit of critically examining out-of-school media that are related to science.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

From the analysis, Shen's and Salima's cases illustrate the learning outcomes and processes that occurred during the enactment of the designed curricular intervention, which was based on the theoretical notions of third space and multiliteracies. While Shen's case was more exceptional, Salima's example was somewhat representative of the 53 students who participated in the research. From these examples, we saw how out-of-school media were used in the curricular intervention to foster both science content knowledge and critical literacy, in addition to generating students' interests in the subject matter.

Furthermore, we also saw two characteristics of productive discourse that emerged through the juxtaposition of out-of-school media and school-based physics texts. First, both examples illustrate there was an active generation of knowledge through the mixing of different language and ways of knowing. In Shen's case, he generated new knowledge that went beyond what he had learned in school as he conjectured the making of a killer EMP bomb and further tested its feasibility through the use of physics principles and calculation. For Salima, she was able to apply what she had learned about moments to a novel situation related to her personal interest in martial arts. The second characteristic of productive discourse is a meta-language awareness and critique of different social ways of constructing knowledge. This was most evident in Shen's case where he learned that in order to check the feasibility of a science argument presented in out-of-school media, he had to use a certain disciplinary practice employed by scientists, which is to make estimations based on known formulae. In Salima's case, while she did not develop this meta-language awareness, she learned to evaluate the source of an out-of-school media by checking on the source's authors and intended audience.

In this preliminary study, I have focused on the process of *how* students connect the in- and out-of-school Discourses that were juxtaposed in the curricular intervention, and used two instrumental case studies to illuminate this process. The next stage of the study will investigate, using the same data, the extent of *how much* the students were able to connect the in- and out-of-school Discourses during the curricular intervention. This will involve a more systematic coding that will be developed from this qualitative case study. This will be useful in evaluating the effectiveness of this curricular intervention that aims to develop disciplinary knowledge and critical literacy of science through the use of out-of-school media.

6. Acknowledgements

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The Role of Student Agency in Bridging Informal and Formal Learning

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1 Introduction

Agency has been described as “the socioculturally mediated capacity to act” (Ahearn, 2001). Educational research often frames this capacity to act in terms of motivation emerging from an internal disposition (Eccles et al, 1993; Guthrie & Davis, 2003; Ivey, 1999; Wigfield, Eccles, & Rodriguez, 1998). Underpinning this stance is the assumption that the capacity to act is located within the individual. Consequently, there has been insufficient attention paid to how other people and objects in a given social context can catalyze and mold the individual’s actions and propel him/her along a learning trajectory. Therefore, in this paper, we propose a shift from an examination of motivation to the study of agency, particularly in relation to the effect of networked relations between people and/or objects.

Studies on agency have provided insights into different facets of this construct. Some of these studies examine agency with respect to the choices people make about texts, reading pace, and activities as they engage in meaning-making (Guthrie & Davis, 2003; Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, Mueller, 2001; Heron, 2003; Ivey, 1999; Mitchell and Reid-Walsh, 2003; Sullivan, 1991). Other studies consider how society facilitates or limits agency in relation to positions within social networks, commitment to familial and tribal or ethnic relations, and access to knowledge critical to livelihood and career prospects (Gallagher, 2007; Hinchman, Alvermann, Boyd, Brozo, & Vacca, 2004; Mazak, 2007; Moje & Lewis, 2007; Moje, 2000; O’Neil, 2007; Perry, 2007). However, few studies have traced at a microgenetic level the interplay of the individual and the objects in a given social context and how this gives rise to young people acting agentively as text interpreter and producer.

The small-scale examination described in this paper is part of two larger studies in which students participating in a physics curricular programme made linkages between their chosen out-of-school texts and several physics concepts learnt in school. This paper reports on two cases—one in Singapore and the other in the US—in which students act deliberately and strategically to engage in science literacy practices that are being developed in the curricular programme. It explores how high-achieving students in different ways creatively accessed, navigated and integrated out-of-school and in-school discourses as “convertible and transformative resources” (Luke, 2003, p.139) to support and nurture their learning of physics. The paper thus represents an attempt to, first, address questions of student agency, that is, when, how, and why young people decide to engage in learning and extend their own learning across contexts (Moore & Cunningham, 2006). Second, it seeks to ascertain whether there are teaching practices or learning environments that could be leveraged to enhance the sense of agency in adolescents who do not achieve at high levels in school.

2 Theoretical Frame

We begin by explicating the notion of agency upon which our analysis is based. Agency may be conceived as “[t]he strategic making and remaking of ourselves, identities, activities, relationships, cultural tools and resources, and histories, as embedded within relations of power” (Moje and Lewis, 2007, p.18). It is closely related to identity. However, the key difference is that identity reflects who we are, whereas agency is the active making of who we are and will to be. Agency is enacted to shape our identity, that is, the way we wish to be or appear to another to give us

access to the economic, social and cultural capital we so desire (Bourdieu, 1977). It is, therefore, very much tied how we relate to people, communities and artefacts across time and space.

As such, we have chosen to view agency from the perspective of Actor Network Theory (ANT) where it is construed as arising from and being distributed amongst interactions between people and objects in networks. These interactions may be conceived in terms of orientation, directionality, and proximity (Leander and Lovvorn, 2006). Leander and Lovvorn (2006, p.301) caution against locating agency within individuals, artifacts, technology or structures as this could lead to “romanticizing” humans and their practices or a “naïve formalism” and “technocentrism” as texts, tools and structures are then perceived as some kind of magic bullet. The intent in ANT, therefore, is to identify and understand the networked relations which give rise to agency.

3 Methodology

The purpose of the larger study was to create a learning environment where students interacted with multiple genres of texts, e.g. out-of-school and school science texts. This was achieved by means of a curricular intervention aimed at helping students connect informal and formal learning in science. In this curriculum, students chose an out-of-school text (e.g., magazine, video, TV episode) and applied disciplinary content to analyse the text. The first study was conducted in a high school (grade 9-11) honors physics class in Michigan, USA. The second study was held in a high school (grade 11) GCE A-level physics course in Singapore. The data sources from both studies include students’ selection of out-of-school texts and student artefacts and interviews. We selected one case from each of the aforementioned studies—Lucy (USA) and Shen (Singapore). Each of them served as an instrumental case study, helping to provide insight into our understanding of how agency materialised (Stake, 2000).

Our data analysis sought to answer the question of how agency is realised when students come into contact with texts used in different contexts, serving different purposes and audiences. To address this question, we carried out a microgenetic analysis (Kuhn, 1995; Siegler & Crowley, 1991) of the interview data. We adopted Clarke’s (2005) qualitative method of analysis called *situational mapping*. This method enabled us to articulate the elements in a situation of inquiry and the centrality of the role they played within this situation. It also facilitated a thorough examination of the relations amongst these elements. As such, the students’ agentic moves are identified by means of a relational analysis of their chosen artefacts and discourses across time and space. This relational analysis enabled us to address questions of student agency—how it can be realised, construed and examined. Nevertheless, it is important to note that such situational maps only provide a snapshot of these relations within a given timeframe. Such relations can change considerably through negotiations, re-positionings, and the addition and deletion of people and objects (Clarke, 2005).

4 Analysis and Findings

Our generalising categories are drawn from Clarke’s (2005) work which is itself based on Strauss’s (1993:252) several “general orders” within his negotiated/processual ordering framework. For the purposes of our analysis, we have

chosen to focus on the interactions between one “individual human actor” (the student) and the full range of “non-human actants” such as their chosen out-of-school texts, their physics textbook, school assignment, and Internet resources.

In our analysis, we traced the moves the two individuals (Lucy and Shen) undertook between the various non-human actants in their network. The directionality of these moves is reflected in the arrows shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. The one-way arrows indicate how the student’s interaction with one text led to his/her interaction with a subsequent text. The two-way arrows reflect iterative movement between two texts. All nodes represent texts which contributed towards the students’ efforts at completing the assignment task. More specifically, these texts (i) initiated changes in the way the student interacted with existing texts in her life and/or (ii) catalyzed interactions with new texts. We used the node size to distinguish the centrality of the role played by each text in the network. This centrality was determined by the number of links to a given text. The nodes are numbered based on the sequence of text interaction described by the student during the course of the interview. Texts within the formal domain are encircled in red and texts within the informal domain are encircled in green.

Case 1

Lucy, a veteran in the school colorguard team, spent a lot of time in colorguard practice. During the curricular programme, she had to tackle the assignment tasks which required her to identify a media resource depicting a phenomenon she was interested in and considered relevant and apply the notion of force and its relevant equations. She chose an amateur video of a colorguard toss on Youtube made by a student to illustrate physics principles. She drew from her personal experience of tossing a rifle where she placed a bit of tape on her rifle to help her take note of the pivot point. She said that she did not use the school physics textbook much but turned to the Internet search instead. She did not specify how she used the Internet or what she searched for. She had a notebook for jotting down physics equations she came across in tests. This was for identifying relevant equations as the starting point for tackling what she considered the mathematical aspect of the assignment. She also included a diagram to show the direction of hand movements (i.e. force) when a toss occurred in her written explanation. Table 1 (below) lists all the non-human actants she interacted with during the curricular programme.

Table 1: Lucy’s texts from the formal and informal domains

Formal Domain	Informal Domain
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assignment task • A notebook with physics equations learned during the course • Written explanation, with a self-drawn diagram, equations and a calculation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal experience of tossing a color guard rifle • Out-of-school text: A video clip of a color guard toss • Internet search

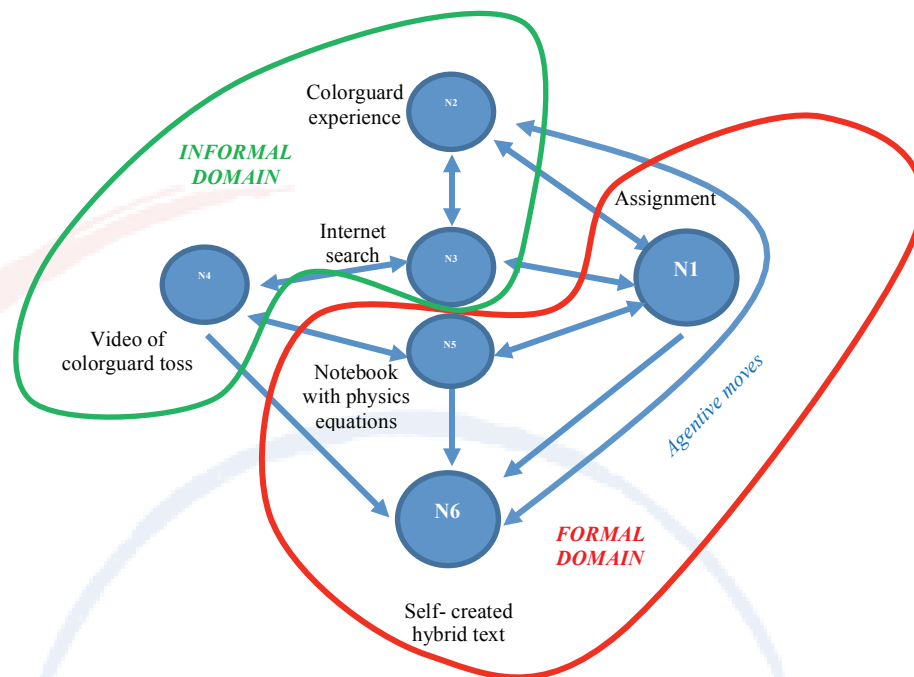


Figure 1: Lucy's agentic moves across texts from the formal and informal domains

We looked at the agentic moves she undertook as she negotiated various texts to complete the assignment task. The first node (N1) was her assignment task. She connected her understanding of the assignment task with her colorguard experiences (N2) to help her make a decision about which video on the Internet (N3) to select. Her colorguard experience thus mediated her interactions with the media resources on Youtube resulting in her selection of a specific amateur video on colorguard tosses (N4). Lucy then followed up by drawing on more texts to support her efforts at completing the task. She drew on her personal experience of colorguard tosses (N2) and referred to her notebook with physics equations (N5) to help her apply and explain the physics concept of force in relation to toss. Her interactions with a variety of texts concluded with her production of a self-created hybrid text (but primarily academic text) (N6) comprising a written explanation of how the notion of force can be applied to a colorguard toss, a self-drawn diagram with some resemblance to a vector diagram illustrating the direction of the force, and equations and a calculation for the forces in operation.

These agentic moves across the various texts illustrate how Lucy navigated texts across the formal and informal different domains in order to complete her assignment. We see a learning trajectory which began and ended with the texts (i.e. the assignment task and the self-created hybrid text) in the formal domain which played a central role in the network. These texts are the *raison d'être* for her interactions with other texts within the network. Nevertheless, the other texts are what we will concern ourselves with as these were the texts Lucy herself brought into the network to support her learning endeavour. Lucy demonstrated that she could with ease identify a video clip depicting a physics concept because her personal experience of colorguard mediated her interactions with her chosen clip. This suggests that when students possess personal knowledge and/or experience of a phenomenon in the informal domain, they

were far more likely to be able to perceive salient connections with the formal domain. More significantly, the texts which Lucy brought into her network were all notably hybridized to some extent. The video clip of the colorguard tosses had already incorporated some explanation of the notion of force. Her notebook contained physics equations which she had gleaned from her lessons. Lucy also chose not to refer to her school physics textbook to develop her explanations and evaluation for her assignment. It is probable that, in Lucy’s case, she found the texts which had undergone some degree of processing more accessible and more useful in helping her bridge the formal and informal domains.

Case 2

Shen, an avid sci-fi fan and video gamer, first watched the sci-fi TV series Fringe when he was 12. He too tackled the assignment task which required him to identify a media resource depicting a phenomenon he was interested in and considered relevant and apply physics concepts and principles. He chose an episode from the TV drama series Fringe which had a storyline on how an electromagnetic (EMP) pulse bomb was used to kill someone. He then sourced for information from a variety of school and library textbooks to give him a better understanding of how an EMP bomb worked and how it could kill a person. He pulled together all these different bits of information in a digital poster he created. His digital poster included a link to a video clip of the Fringe episode, self-drawn diagrams of an EMP bomb and the movement of electrons within the nervous system, equations and calculations. Table 2 (below) lists all the non-human actants he interacted with during the curricular program.

Table 2: Shen’s texts from the formal and informal domains

Formal Domain	Informal Domain
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assignment task • Library physics textbook on electromagnetism • School physics textbook on the topic of solenoids • Biology textbook on how electrons are transmitted in our body • Books to support plausible values for strong magnetic field, flux density, and body velocity • Student-created glog/ digital poster to present his explanation and calculation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An episode of TV drama series Fringe which focuses on the use of an electromagnetic pulse bomb (EMP) to kill someone • Internet search on EMP bomb

We also examined the agentic moves he undertook as he navigated these texts to complete the task (see Figure 2). The first node (N1) was his assignment task. He connected his assignment task requirements with his experience of watching the sci-fi television drama, Fringe (N2), and then looked through the various episodes for one suited to his assignment. He decided on the episode involving the use of an electromagnetic pulse (EMP) bomb to kill a person and had access to the entire

episode (N3). He used this episode as a starting point for further interactions with a variety of texts to account for how the bomb worked and how it affected people. His initial search on the Internet (N4) for information on the EMP bomb yielded nothing substantial as, to the best of our knowledge, it has yet to be invented even though it is theoretically conceivable. As such, he went back to the basics to find out more electromagnetism (N5). He then turned to various school and library texts to explain how an EMP bomb could be made. He proposed using a solenoid to generate a magnetic field (N6) and conjectured how the electrons in the body could be affected by this electromagnetic field (N7). He also referred to some texts to generate some realistic numbers or measurements (N8) so that the bomb would have the intended effect of killing someone. All these texts represent additional resources from the formal domains which Shen brought into the network to support his efforts.

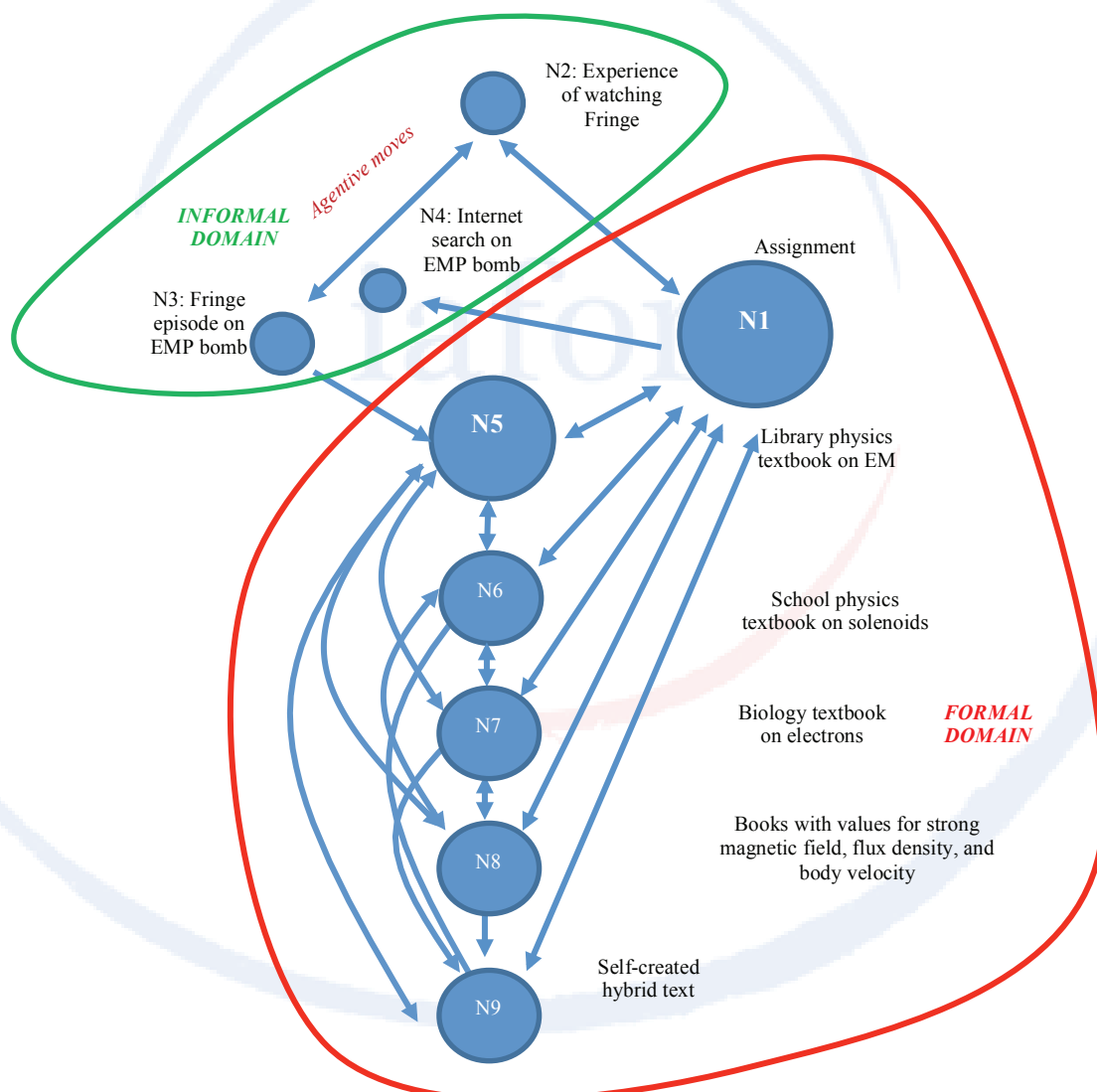


Figure 2: Shen's agentic moves across texts from the formal and informal domains

In navigating texts across the formal and informal different domains to complete his assignment, Shen's learning trajectory began and ended with texts (i.e. the assignment task and the self-created hybrid text) in the formal domain. The assignment task had

the most central role in his network. However, another text which also played a significant role was one he had brought into the network—the library book on electromagnetism. Once Shen had decided to focus on this topic, this book connected the Fringe episode and the assignment task as well as a variety of other texts from the formal domain. His understanding of electromagnetism was essential in his efforts to develop a plausible theory on how the EMP bomb might work. When Shen began accessing a variety of school and library textbooks (N5 - N8), he appeared to move from one text to another in a linear fashion. Each new text gave him further insights into how the bomb worked and how it would affect the body and also exposed gaps in his understanding. This then led him to source for further information in another text in order to develop a coherent and plausible explanation. However, we have used two-way arrows as he had to combine information from all these different texts to develop his digital poster and this required iterative movements to and from the different texts. The outcome was a self-created hybrid text (N9) with an excerpt of the Fringe episode and many self-drawn diagrams of electromagnetic waves in the bomb and the body and calculations geared towards helping his audience understand the plausibility of this phenomenon.

Our analysis highlights the different agentic moves adopted by high-achieving students to bridge formal and informal learning. Shen's agentic moves bore only a slight resemblance to Lucy's. The assignment task had a key role in both their networks. This assignment task catalysed interactions with texts from both the formal and informal domains and concluded with their creation of a self-created hybrid text. However, the differences between Lucy's and Shen's approach represented visually in Figures 1 and 2 are more telling in terms of the varied strategies employed to connect the formal and informal domains. The network diagrams illustrate differences in (i) the extensiveness of their network with respect to the formal and informal domains and (ii) the role played by their chosen media resource.

Lucy and Shen differed in terms of the extensiveness of the network relations they constructed with texts from the formal and informal domains to help them complete their assignment. Lucy's approach was far more typical of those adopted by the other students in the two studies. She applied physics concepts to a text chosen from the informal domain to explain the observed phenomenon (i.e. a colorguard toss) and turned to a couple of other texts and her own experience and understanding of the sport to help her complete this task. In contrast, Shen's approach was unusual in that he used the initial chosen text to generate a question for which there was no existing answer. This opened pathways to many other related physics and/or biology concepts and texts from the formal domain. As such, Shen turned to personal knowledge gleaned from one of his prior readings on electromagnetic waves within the formal domain and his interactions were mostly with academic texts.

This difference in the extensiveness of their networks is due to the role played by their chosen media resource. Lucy chose a hybridized text from the informal domain which had already been analysed by another student to help her apply the notion of force. The hybridised text facilitated her efforts at bridging her formal and informal learning. In contrast, Shen deliberately chose a media resource depicting a theoretically plausible phenomenon rather than an observed phenomenon. This opened up a space for exploration. It seeded an idea and got him to consider the plausibility of the phenomenon occurring in the real world. It gave him the room to generate his own

explanation. To do this, he had to search across several texts in different subject areas within the formal domain to enhance his understanding of electromagnetic waves before he could make any claims about the nature of the bomb and its impact on the human body.

5 Conclusions

Students need agency to be not just recipients, but also producers of disciplinary knowledge, developing a keen sense of the purposes of their practices and the needs of their audience as they engage in practices to demonstrate their own understanding of science concepts. Both these cases demonstrate students' agency in how they connected their learning across the formal and informal domains. Our network diagrams also illustrate the agentive moves students took in navigating different texts across these domains. These reflect variation in (i) the extensiveness of the network with respect to the formal and informal domains and (ii) the role played by their chosen media resource. Our analysis based on these network diagrams indicates that there is a need to move beyond the commonly held belief that agency is located within those who proactively engage in meaning-making to an examination of the effect of networked relations between people and/or objects. It also enables us to move beyond student selection of text as basic pedagogical strategy to understanding how students employ self-selected texts. In so doing, it highlights possible ways to intervene in these networked relations to facilitate adolescents' agentive moves in their learning endeavor.

Both interest and relevance are important components facilitating student agency in the learning of science. To do this, we need to encourage students to select popular media resource with which they are most familiar in order to fully draw on their understanding of how the resource can be analyzed to illustrate the application of physics concepts. However, student agency may be limited by a framework of choices concerning the languages, discourses, and texts to which one has access (Moje & Lewis, 2007; Purcell-Gates, 2007). Consequently, in some cases, teachers may need to give students greater exposure to using extant hybridized texts as a form of scaffolding as students initially engage in applying and explaining a physics concept in relation to an everyday phenomenon. Educators should also consider guiding students to select popular media texts which provide the opportunity not only to apply physics concepts to an observed phenomenon but also to conjecture about that which has not been observed. These need not necessarily reside in the realm of science fiction. For example, students could perhaps work out the size of an asteroid and its trajectory and crash site in order for this event to generate enough dust cloud to wipe out the dinosaurs.

In addition, it is important to acknowledge that students differ in their receptive and productive capacities with respect to academic literacies. As such, teachers may need to model the process of applying physics principles to everyday phenomenon in a way which is aligned with the preferred literacy practices of their students to facilitate the development of their receptive capacity. For example, they may choose resources with a lower prose density and which incorporate multimodal representations. Second, teachers may need to explicitly introduce physics literacy practices and transform their students' existing literacy practices to enhance their productive capacity. Such interventions would equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills for them to act agentively to support their engagement in a learning task.

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The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs. The outer arc is a light red color, and the inner arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The arcs are positioned such that they appear to frame the text, with the blue arc being closer to the text and the red arc being further out.

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The Effect of Eclectic Teaching Strategies Utilizing British Poetry in Developing Students' Reading Proficiencies in English Language

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Abstract

In Iraq, students learn English as a foreign language, and most of the Iraqi syllabi at schools and universities are borrowed from British syllabi (with some modification to fit the Iraqi culture). Literary classes, as a part of this intention to develop learners' proficiency in English, have an important role to improve the learners' competence and performance in using English.

As instructors of literature, we do believe that poetry, if properly used in teaching, can enlarge learners' vocabulary, raise learners' reading comprehension skills side by side with cultural and intercultural awareness.

The aim of this paper is to reveal the effect of eclectic reading strategies in developing students' reading proficiencies via poetic texts. The participants of the study are from first grade at the Faculty of Education for Humanities at the University of Anbar, Iraq. The first grade consists of two classes (A and B). Group A is taught via traditional method, and group B is taught via the eclectic method.

Since English is a foreign language, the researcher used the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, which identify stages of proficiency, as opposed to achievement. Also, because they assess what individuals can and cannot do. This is regardless of where, when, or how the language was learned or acquired. These guidelines are not based on a particular linguistic theory or pedagogical method, and are intended for global assessment, for all these reasons the researcher used ACTFL to assess his students' reading proficiencies.

The results revealed that utilizing eclectic reading strategies via poetry, with its aesthetic values, have developed the students reading proficiencies and the poems' texts have developed students' vocabularies as well.



Background of the Study

Although dramatic changes have taken place in foreign language teaching methodology, what we notice is that most of the Iraqi teachers have no interest of these recent changes. They still following traditional approaches and methods (chalk and talk) in which the teacher is the only speaker and the students have practically got nothing to do other than listen to what the teacher says, no matter whether they enjoy it or not.

On the other hand, when learners are taught English poems, they just listen to the teacher who helps learners solve linguistic puzzles. Many teachers still focus too much on lexical and grammatical points and pay less attention to practice in various reading skills and strategies so as to develop the learners' creativity of reading and other skills.

Poetry plays a powerful role in increasing students' literacy skills wherever it is taught. According to the best definitions, poetry may be defined as the embodiment of beautiful or elevated thought, imagination, or feeling, in language adapted to stir the imagination and emotion, by the connections of words. Poetry often uses particular forms and conventions to suggest alternative meanings in the words, or to evoke emotional and sensual responses as well.

As a form of literary art, poetry has sustained and nourished us for thousands of years. Throughout recorded history, people from all cultures used poems to share the full range of human experience. By associating poetry with pleasure we allow young people to make a connection with the minds of these thinkers and continue this tradition (Coe, 2013). Poetry plays a very important role in our lives. For example, it awakens our senses, connects us with ourselves and others, and leads us to think in synthesizing ways, as required by its use of the language of metaphor (Hoogland, 2011).

The purpose of using poetry in the adult EFL classrooms is to create a learning environment by increasing vocabulary; building listening comprehension, enhancing speaking, reading, and writing skills and expanding cultural knowledge.

Significance of the Study

Many methods and strategies have been implemented by English foreign language teachers to teach English language in Iraqi. For the researcher best knowledge, none of them have utilized poetry as a way to teach the reading skill. Since the researcher is following the ACTFL proficiency guide lines to measure his students' reading proficiency which demand the implementation of the 4 Cs (Communication, Culture, Connection, Comparison): Communication in language other than English; Culture is to gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures; Connection refers to other disciplines and how to acquire information; Comparison means developing insight into of language and culture; and the 5th C, we may add, the Communities that lead to participate in multilingual contexts at home and around the world.

Based on the above criteria, the researcher chooses five types of poetry: Descriptive (Winter); Reflective (An Irish Airman Foresees his death); Narrative (Lord Randal);

Lyric (To —); and Sonnet (Time). These types hope to meet the criteria (4 Cs) of the ACTFL proficiency guide lines. Concerning *Culture*: the researcher used five types of poetry which represent different types of thinking and cultures. For *Connection*: the researcher used poetry as a means to teach reading skills. Concerning the *Comparison*: the researcher asked students to compare and to have an insight look of the themes and the types of the five different poems. Concerning the communities: the researcher asked students to read and pronounce some words in Standard English which may have a connection to the society. Also, to take in consideration the place, time, and the social background of each poem.

Thus the significance of this study is to prove the effectiveness of implementing ACTFL proficiency guide lines and its bodies (4 Cs) in teaching English language in general and reading skills in particular, and the results of this study may be a starting point for other researches in the given field.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study is stemmed from the fact that there is a lack of empirical research papers in Iraq using poetry in foreign language teaching especially in teaching English language in general and reading skills in particular. Thus, there is a critical need for such type of studies to be conducted in order to measure specific benefits of teaching poetry that may affect the prevailing attitude in the foreign language community.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to reveal the effect of selected reading strategies in developing first year students' reading proficiencies via poetry texts at the Department of English, Faculty of Education for Humanities at the University of Anbar, Iraq.

Questions of the Study

The study is trying to answer the following questions:

- 1- Are there any statistical significance differences ($\alpha \leq 0, 05$) in the first year students' reading proficiencies due to the teaching strategies?
- 2- Do the students' reading achievements meet the criteria of the Advanced Low/Mid level of the ACTFL proficiency Guide lines?

Literature Review

Harwayne (2001) emphasizes that carefully selected poetry enables very young learners to believe they can read and inspires older learners to want to read for the rest of their life.

Routman (2003) mentions the types of texts often used in this particular instructional activity. She states "shared/choral reading involves the teacher and combines reading aloud with interactive reading and shared reading. That is, using one copy of an engaging text, such as a poem, the teacher leads the class in reading aloud and, thus, allows for an engaging context to model all aspects of the reading process.

Pinnell and Scharer (2003) state that poetry in shared/choral reading and language immersion are mentioned regularly as ways of improving facility and comprehension in reading. Poems, like scripts and speeches, are meant to be read aloud, and their meaning is carried in the oral interpretation, as well as in the words. The rhyme, rhythm, and repetition that pervade poetry serve to build fluency.

Walter (2006) incorporated poetry as part of her first grade reading instruction. She believed that the use of poetry with first graders made sense since her students had had many experiences with chants, rhymes, and jump rope songs. Poetry, she believed before starting her study would build on their experiences and language play. She also led her students in discussion about each poem's vocabulary, use of poetic language, perspective, and even line breaks. Eventually, Walter's students shared poems they had found, as well as ones they had written.

Teaching Reading Via Poetry

A part from the chosen reading methods to teach students to read, implementing poetry with English foreign language students is suggested by many educators as a means to improve reading proficiency. Vardell, Hadaway, and Young (2002) believe that poetry read aloud encourages oral fluency and is the basis for reading in a new language. As students participate in shared reading, they practice their word calling and pronunciation. In addition poetry is useful with all ages and grade levels, which a definite benefit is given that ESL students enter school at any age or grade level. Poetry can cover all grades because of its form and use of language, and can offer background and cultural knowledge into the culture as well. The combination of form, language, and information, which poetry provides, can help students to learn words and concepts, stay motivated and interested, and even participate as equals.

Fahola et al (1996) found that "poems, with their rhythm and repetition, are easily memorized and can be used to teach phonemic awareness and print concepts to English language learners.

Hadaway et al (2001) determined that for English language learners, teacher-guided choral reading of poetry satisfies many of the ingredients essential in developing oral language proficiency.

Gasparro and Falletta (2004) found that the use of poetry in the ESL classroom enables students to explore the linguistic and conceptual aspects of the written text without concentrating on the mechanism of language.

Hancock (2009) examines the effectiveness of an instructional method using daily poetry reading and weekly poetry writing in improving first grade students' literacy. While the reading and writing achievement of all the study's first graders were examined, English as a second Language students, or Limited English Proficiency students were investigated as a subgroup. The results of the study revealed that the poetry and non-poetry groups are not different significantly in their scores, nor did the Limited English Proficiency students from the two groups differ in posttest. Poetry did have an effect on the oral test scores between the two groups, with the poetry group as a whole scoring significantly high assessments than their non-poetry counterparts. Lastly, there was no difference in writing scores between the poetry and

non-poetry groups, either for the students as a whole class, or for the subgroup of Limited English Proficiency students.

Design and Methodology

This part presents the procedures the researcher used to conduct the study. It contains the description of the participants, sample, instrument, procedures and the statistical analyses.

Participants of the Study

The participants of the study were from first grade at department of English at the Faculty of Education for Humanities at the University of Anbar- Iraq.

The first grade consists of 109 students who are divided into two classes (A and B). Group A consists of 55 students and was taught via traditional method (CLTA), and group B consists of 54 students and was taught via the eclectic method.

Instruments of the Study

The researcher used the **Directed Reading Thinking Activity** as an instrument to teach reading skill. The strategy engages students in a step by step process that guides them through informational text. It is designed to move students through the process of reading text.

DIRECTING. The teacher directs and activates the students' thinking prior to reading a passage by scanning the title, chapter headings, illustrations, and other materials. Teachers should use open-ended questions to direct students as they make predictions about the content or perspective of the text (e.g., "Given this title, what do you think the poem will be about?").

READING. Students read up to the first pre-selected stopping point. The teacher then prompts the students with questions about specific information and asks them to evaluate their predictions and refine them if necessary. This process should be continued until students have read each stanza of the poem.

THINKING. At the end of each section, students go back through the text and think about their predictions. Students should verify or modify their predictions by finding supporting statements in the text. The teacher asks questions such as:

- What do you think about your predictions now?
- What did you find in the text to prove your predictions?
- What did you we read in the text that made you change your predictions?

In addition, the researcher design reading achievement post test.

Procedures of the Study

The researcher taught group A via traditional method (not eclectic), while group B was taught via the Directed Reading Thinking Activities and as following:

1. Selection of the poem. The researcher selected five styles of poems.
2. the researcher prepared a **DRTA** by marking breaks at thought-provoking stopping points in the poems texts, points where students can form and justify their predictions in response to questions similar to 'What do you think will happen next?' and 'Why do you say that?'
3. Explaining the purpose of **DRTA** and the procedure involved. The researcher explained to students how the stops at different points when the teacher read the poem, perhaps when finish reading a verse of the poem, to check if the students understood what the teacher had read so far. The researcher explained to the students how he refocus on students' purposes for reading, form new predictions, read, stop and reflect, and repeat the cycle.
4. The researcher explained that thoughtful readers always think about what they know about the poem and use this knowledge to form predictions about what the poem might be about. The researcher informed students that there is no right or wrong prediction, as long as it is relevant to the topic of the poem and its style.
5. Introducing the text to students. The researcher read the title and asked students to read the title of the poem and its style, and asked them to predict what the poem might be about. The researcher encouraged students to use their relevant background knowledge of the topic in reference to its style, available text features, and their knowledge of genres to predict and justify their predictions. The researcher listed students' predictions on the whiteboard to refer to throughout the **DRTA** process.
6. Reading with students, stopping at the first marked break. The researcher asked students to confirm, reject or modify their predictions in light of what they learned. The researcher asked students to explain their decisions. Was the information explicitly stated, and in the text, or did they make inferences.
7. Then the researcher asked students to form and justify new predictions before he reads the next stopping point. The researcher asked students to evaluate their predictions after each section of text is read and refer back to the text to compare their predictions with the text.
8. The researcher continued the cycle of reading, predicting, confirming, and revising, until the poem had been read.
9. The researcher asked students to explain how they used their background knowledge, and predicting, justifying, confirming, rejecting, and revising their predictions, which helped them when they were reading independently.
10. The researcher helped students assess how well they predict, justify, confirm, reject and modify predictions when they read. He helped them set personal goals about what they would like to do better in relation to these strategies and recorded their comments. He referred back to these notes during individual reading conferences with students. He reused all the steps above with each type of the selected poem.

Reliability of the Instrument

To ensure the test reliability, the researcher followed test/retest technique. The researcher applied it to a sample of (20) students who were excluded from the study with a two-week period between the test and the re-test. The reliability of the test was

calculated using correlation coefficient and found to be 0.89. This seems appropriate for conducting such a study according to the criteria adopted by statisticians.

Instructional Material

The instructional material is the first year introduction to poetry course which includes more than 20 poems, but the researcher covers only five poems during the application period.

Statistical Analyses

To answer the study question, descriptive methods (means and standard deviations) were used for post test for English language reading test for both the experimental and control groups.

In addition to a Two-Way ANOVA (Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a collection of statistical models used to analyze the differences between group means and their associated procedures (such as "variation" among and between groups), the statistics used T- test to show equivalence, and Two- Way ANOVA to answer the research question.

Findings and Discussion of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of using poetry for teaching reading on first year students' achievements at the University of Anbar. The researcher followed the equivalent post test two group designs. Therefore, the means, standard deviations and one-Way ANOVA analysis of variance were used to analyze data. The results are displayed based on the questions of the research.

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	89.78	7.894
Control	78.79	11.121

Table 1: Shows the means and standard deviations of the achievement of groups on the posttest.

The researcher also conducted a one-way analysis of variance to analyze the posttest achievement scores of the two groups. Table 2 shows the results.

Source	Sum	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	1911.224	1	1911.224	21.199	.000
Error	10398.442	116	89.642		
Total	12309.66	117			

Table 2: Summary of the one-way analysis of variance of the achievement of the control and the experimental groups on the post-test

To answer the first question: Are there any statistical significance differences ($\alpha \leq 0, 05$) in the first year students' reading proficiencies due to the teaching strategies? Table 2 shows that the level of significance is .000 which is statistically significant at $\alpha \leq 0, 05$ on favor of the experimental group.

To sum up, the researcher believes that the difference in the achievement of the first year students was attributed to the using of DRTA for teaching English reading via poetry. The experimental group subjects managed to significantly improve English reading. The improvement achieved by the control group subjects, however, was not statistically significant. By comparing the results achieved by the two groups, the researcher concluded that the improvement achieved by the experimental group may have been attributed to the way they rendered instruction; teaching reading accompanied with poetry. This result consists with the study of Harwayne (2001); Routman (2003); Gasparro and Falletta (2004); and Walter (2006) who prove that teaching reading via poetry has a significance effect on developing reading proficiency.

To Answer the second question of the study " Do the students' reading achievements meet the criteria of the Advanced Low/Mid level of the ACTFL proficiency Guide lines? ". The findings of the study revealed that the experimental group has reached the criteria of Advanced Low/Mid level and students are able to: meet basic work, social and academic communication needs. Able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly when presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing control of the language. Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, and simple technical material written for the general reader.

Conclusion

Learning English via poetry is not easy for students who are studying English as a foreign language since native speakers of English language themselves face some difficulties in learning in the same way. So, it was found that using poetry may help students comprehend a text and enjoy analyzing it. The final outcome and the production of the testee show that DRTA via poetry for teaching reading enhances students to study reading with entertainment. Moreover, it improves their level in literature as they gain the skills of analysis and criticism in general.

On other hand, while there is an agreement that teaching poetry is important at any level in learning English, some students view poetry and other literary classes as an optional part of curriculum in the Faculty of Education for Humanities; more as a supplement to the curriculum rather than an essential component. They believe that it does not address content standards. The study showed that the opposite is more accurate. Poetry is an excellent tool for implementing standards, as well as providing ample opportunity to promote higher level of thinking.

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Evaluating the Impact of Students' Disconnection with Mathematics on Academic Achievement of Primary Five and Six Pupils

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Abstract

The study was carried out to find out the impact students' disconnection with some topics in mathematics have on academic achievement of primary five and six pupils. A case study research design was adopted to study 23 pupils from primary five to primary six in a particular private school. A four-point Likert scale questionnaire enquiring on areas of disconnection in mathematics learning within the time frame of primary five to six having 10-items, and a mathematics achievement test having 20-items measured with four options multiple choice questions evaluating mastery of course content were the instruments used for data collection. Findings showed that pupils' disconnections with certain topics in elementary mathematics reduce their learning achievements in the subject. Learning disconnection showed an direct relation to academic achievement. In order words, there exist a positive correlation between areas of pupils' disconnection and achievement in mathematics.

Keywords: Evaluating, Impact, Students' disconnection, Achievement in Mathematics

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Introduction

Mathematics is a science subject that deals with numbers, quantity and space (Courant & Robbins 1996). It is as important to a nation as protein is to a young human organism, and a vital tool for the understanding and application of science and technology; a discipline that plays the vital role of a precursor and harbinger to the much needed technological and national development- an imperative in the developing nations of the world (Bassey Joshua & Asim 2006). Mathematics is an indispensable part of the intellectual equipment of every cultured person, and it involves solving and discussion of solutions to mathematical problems. But today, unfortunately, the traditional place of mathematics in education is in grave danger. The teaching and learning of mathematics has degenerated into the realm of rote memorization; the outcome of which leads to satisfactory formal ability but does not lead to real understanding or greater intellectual independence (Courant & Robbins 1996).

Teaching mathematics is about educating learners, and for the learners to be educated mathematically; they must acquire mathematical knowledge, skills, and ability that will enhance applicability of concepts learnt effectively. Individual learner must be taught how to develop strategies and procedures specific to the content, and the development of more general skills which are necessary to understand how to derive a formula, a procedure, or a rule (Fuson & Briars 1990 Kamii & Joseph 1989) As such, the process of teaching and learning must involve an effective three-way communication between the teacher, the learner, and the instructional materials /strategies employed.

How well a teacher is able to communicate effectively with the learners, and the learning materials/strategies determines the extent learners are able to comprehend, learn, and perform well in mathematics (NBTE, 2008). Thus, in the new mathematics, the focus should be on problem solving, mathematical reasoning, justifying ideas, making sense of complex situations and independently learning new ideas. Students should be provided with opportunities to solve complex problems, formulate and test mathematical ideas and draw conclusions (The Education Alliance 2006).

A growing body of research in learning generally and mathematics learning specifically shows that pupils' achievement is more heavily influenced by teachers' quality than by pupils' race, class, prior academic records or the school a student attends (Aaronson Daniel Barrow & Sander 2007 Rivkin Steven Eric & John 2005 Gladwell 2008 Kristoff 2009 Felch Song & Smith 2010). The benefits associated with being taught by good teachers are cumulative. Scholarly studies indicates that the achievement gaps widens each year between students with most effective teachers and those with least effective teachers and this suggest that the most significant gains in students achievement will likely be realized when students receive instructions from instructionally competent and effective teachers over consecutive years.

The need for effective instruction in mathematics in Abia State particularly and in Nigeria generally is sequel to demand for mathematics teaching to focus students on problem solving, mathematical reasoning, justifying ideas, making sense of complex situations and independently learning new ideas. Students must be provided with opportunities to solve complex problems, formulate and test mathematical ideas and

draw conclusions. Students should be able to read, write and discuss mathematics, as well as use demonstrations, drawings and real-world objects in participating in formal mathematical and logical arguments (Battista 1999).

Reformers argue that the culture of the mathematics classroom should change. The teaching and learning of mathematics should not be on mirroring the subject as some unknowable reality, but should be in solving problems in ways that are increasingly useful to one's daily experience (Confrey 1991). As such, the teacher should encourage discussion, and allow students to generate and test their own theories.

Disconnection which a construct of great importance to students' learning adjustment in our technologically driven society of today is defined as a rupture in a relationship that result to withdrawal from the mutuality that had or should exist for a relationship (Edward 2010). A connection is experienced in a relationship when both parties experience a mutual, and growth fostering relationship. Indicators of disconnections include feelings of isolation from others (in this case, the subject- mathematics), and a lack of desire to learn and grow. It could involve the state or experience of being isolated from a group or an activity to which one should ordinarily belong or actively participate. A situation of which leads to the interpretation of the activity; in this case- the mathematics topics or curriculum as irrelevant to ones current and future needs.

Disconnection is a useful construct for understanding the mechanisms associated with undesirable learner outcomes and in developing strategies to circumvent student academic failure (Redden 2002 Taylor 2000 Thorpe 2003). The causes of pupils/students disconnections in the teaching- learning environment of mathematics are multifaceted and could include curricular, institutional, and socio-cultural factors (Brown Higgins & Paulsen 2003 Huffman 2001 Redden 2002 Rokach Bauer & Oreck 2003 Taylor 2001 Trusty & Dooley-Dickey 1993).

In the case of curricular disconnection; the main focuses of this study, pupils/ students feel incongruent with curricula and devoid of opportunities to establish meaningful connections. Such disconnection results in apathy in the learning process (Parish & Parish 2000). According to Mann (2001) disconnection is caused by a teaching-learning process characterized by compliance and bereft of creativity.

In most learning environment, the learner is largely removed from the content to be learned; individual opinion is devalued and reliance on personal perception is dismissed as unscientific. Rather, excessive focus is on utilitarianism, instrumentalism, measurable performance indicators, and standardized competencies (Frosh 1991). But as cautioned by Barnett (1994) 'to reduce human action to a constellation of terms such as 'performance,' 'competence,' and 'skill' is not just to resort to a hopelessly crude language with which to describe serious human endeavors rather, it is to obliterate the humanness in human'. Therefore, the barn of this study was to chronologically observe the selected sample of pupils and their mathematics teacher over a period of two years in order to discover possible areas of disconnections in the teaching- learning process and subsequent effects on the pupils' achievement.

Purpose Of The Study

Specifically, this study sought to:

- ❖ Identify topics in mathematics in which primary five and six pupils experience disconnection during the teaching-learning process
- ❖ To understand their disconnections with mathematics so that the information can be used to inform mathematics teachers in primary five and six on areas they need to change and adopt other teaching strategies
- ❖ To add to the body of knowledge that already exist regarding students disconnections in mathematics learning

Literature Review

A growing body of quantitative research supports the focus on students' disconnections and teachers' instructional effectiveness. A recent concept paper published by the American Mathematical Society has been influential in identifying some common areas of agreement about mathematics education. The identified areas of agreement are based on three fundamental premises which are students' basic skills with numbers, students' mathematics reasoning about precisely defined objects and concepts, and students' ability to formulate and solve problems.

The areas of agreement emerging from these premises according to Ball, Ferrini-Mundy, Kilpatrick Milgram Schmid & Scharr (2005) include the facts that:

- ❖ Mathematical fluency requires automatic recall of certain procedures and Algorithms
- ❖ Use of calculators in instruction can be useful but must not impede the development of fluency with computational procedures and basic facts.
- ❖ Using and understanding the basic algorithms of whole number arithmetic is essential.
- ❖ Developing an understanding of the number meaning of fractions is essential.
- ❖ Teachers must ensure that the use of "real-world" contexts for teaching mathematics maintains a focus on mathematical ideas.
 - ❖ Mathematics should be taught using multiple strategies; however, the teacher is responsible for selecting the strategies appropriate for a specific concept.
 - ❖ Mathematics teachers must understand the underlying meaning and justifications for ideas and be able to make connections among topics.

Karen (2010) studied the disconnections introductory college mathematics students experience with mathematics using the experiences of six former mathematics students from their earliest memories forward to present day. The study employed an interpretive case study and an action research methodology to present a detailed, historical record of the students' interactions and disconnections with learning quantitative material. The study has three primary purposes that included: to record faithfully each participant's story dealing with quantitative/mathematical learning experiences, to understand their disconnections with mathematics so that the information might be used to inform the author's reflective practice, and to add to the body of knowledge that already exists regarding students' difficulty learning mathematics. Findings of the study indicated that overlaying relational theory,

reflection, and students' knowledge construction leads to increased understanding, and brings the needs of students more clearly into focus while providing ways to proceed in the future. Students' firsthand accounts of a lifetime of disconnection with mathematics are unforgettable and compelling.

In another study by Vagliardo (2008) on nursing students' conceptual understanding of mathematics for nursing; described the nature of students' conceptual understanding of mathematics to resemble Cantor's Dust, fractalized, and discontinuous. In its most severe form of discontinuity, meaning for conceptual relationships between fractions, decimals, percents, and proportional procedures do not exist, are incorrect, or are inadequately developed. The study reported that in the absence of meaningful conceptual connections, students nurses rely on isolated knowledge of arithmetic methods, formulaic approaches, assumed infallibility of calculating devices. Thus, a significant numbers of students entering nursing school are inadequately prepared to use mathematics confidently and reliably in their work as nurses.

Elementary school mathematics is the starting point of mathematics learning and mathematics education. Therefore, the mathematics teacher should explain mathematical concepts and facts in terms of simpler concepts and facts so that pupils can easily make logical connections between different facts and concepts and recognize the connection when they encounter something new inside or outside of mathematics that is close to the mathematics they understand.

Methods

This study adopted case study research design. According to Yin (1984) a case study research method is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

The area of this study- Abia State is made up of seventeen (17) Local Government Areas. It is one of the five states in the Southeast geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Abia State is situated between latitudes $04^{\circ}45'$ and $06^{\circ}07'$ north and longitudes $07^{\circ}00'$ and $08^{\circ}10'$ east. Imo, Anambra and Rivers border it in the west, northwest and southwest respectively (Abia State Government 2013).

The sample for this study were 23 pupils in primary five who were systematically observed from September 2010 along side with their mathematics teacher until they completed their primary school education in July, 2012.

Purposive sampling technique was utilized since the researcher sought to understand what has occurred in the mathematics teaching- learning classroom, and the relationships between these occurrences (Honnigman 1982 as cited in Merriam 1998). This purposive sample provided real-life accounts of these pupils' experiences with learning mathematics and elicited rich informational cases to study in order to understand a variety of issues the participants identified as leading to disconnections in mathematic learning.

A pupil-to-pupil interview was used to collect data, which allowed the researcher to see learning experiences from an individualistic perspective. A measuring instrument tagged: “Topics of Disconnect and Mathematics Achievement Test” (TDMA) was used for data collection. The instrument had three sections; Section A sought some background information about pupils families, number of siblings, position in family, school(s) attended, and extracurricular activities. Section B contained 10-items short structured questions on possible topics of disconnect such as binary numbers, prime numbers and prime factors, multiplication of decimal numbers, ratio and proportion, algebra, temperature (relationship between centigrade and Fahrenheit), and problems on quantitative reasoning. Section C was a twenty-items mathematics achievement test (MAT) that covered topics identified by pupils and their teacher as area of disconnect.

Data analysis which in the views of Freeman (1998) is an objective look at the facts in a research work in order to construct appropriate meaning based on the information collected was done using description, simple mean, and correlation analysis. The 10-items short structured questions on possible topics of disconnect such as binary numbers, prime numbers and prime factors, multiplication of decimal numbers, ratio and proportion, algebra, temperature (relationship between centigrade and Fahrenheit), and problems on quantitative reasoning were analyzed using simple mean. Mean scores in Table 1 are expressed on a 4-point Likert Scale from 1 (low disconnect) to 4 (high disconnect). Individual pupils’ responses to items in section B of the research instrument were then correlated with their achievement scores on the 20-items Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT).

Results

The results of data analysis are as presented in Tables1, and 2

Table1: Mean analysis of topics of disconnect in primary school mathematics learning

	x	n
1. Addition, subtraction, and multiplication of binary numbers 4.74		23
2. Prime numbers and prime factors 3.52		23
3. Multiplication of decimal numbers 4.36		23
4. Ratios and proportions 3.81		23
5. Algebra-opening of brackets and grouping like and unlike terms 4.21		23

6. Temperature: Relationship between centigrade and Fahrenheit 4.15	23
7. Quantitative reasoning 4.38	23

Table2: Pearson-product moment correlation between topics of pupils' disconnection and achievement in mathematics (N=23)

Topics of disconnection	r
Addition, subtraction, and multiplication of binary numbers	0.818
Prime numbers and prime factors	0.721
Multiplication of decimal numbers	0.665
Ratios and proportions	0.553
Algebra-opening of brackets and grouping like and unlike terms	0.749
Temperature: Relationship between centigrade and Fahrenheit	0.712
Quantitative reasoning	0.689

Significant at $p < 0.05$, significant at $p < 0.01$

Tables 1 show the mean rating of respondents on mathematics topics taught within the primary school curriculum in which they experience disconnections, while Table 2 shows the Pearson-product moment correlation between topics defining pupils' areas of disconnections and achievement in mathematics. A strong positive correlation was found between pupils' disconnections and their achievement in the mathematics achievement test (MAT) administered at three different intervals (six months interval) of the study time frame.

Discussion

The finding of this study agreed with the views of Karen (2010) who studied the disconnections introductory college mathematics students experience with mathematics at the University of Albany, New York using the experiences of six former mathematics students from their earliest memories forward to present day. Karen's findings indicated that overlaying relational theory, reflection, and students' knowledge construction leads to increased understanding, and students' firsthand

accounts of a lifetime of disconnection with mathematics are unforgettable and compelling.

The outcome of this research work also agreed with the study by Vagliardo (2008) who carried out a study on nursing students' conceptual understanding of mathematics for nursing at East Stroudsburg University and found out that discontinuous nature of mathematical conceptualizations exist among students nurses and inadequacy of problem solving methods are based on undeveloped conceptual cross linkages. Specifically, nursing students experience disconnections in its most severe form in understanding meaning for conceptual relationships between fractions, decimals, percents, and proportional procedures. In essence, a significant numbers of students entering nursing school were found to be inadequately prepared to use mathematics confidently and reliably in their work as nurses. More so, the outcome of this study is agreement with the findings of Marzano (2004) research work on classroom instructions that work: research-based strategies for increasing student achievement carried out in the United States.

Conclusion

This study reveals the impact of students' disconnections during the instructional process on learning achievement. The results of findings strongly suggest that learning disconnection is associated with academic achievement in a positive association, and portrays unequivocally that the importance of a good teacher is no secret. There exist a strong relationship between teachers' quality and student learning connections or disconnections as such; teachers are key factors in an educational system. Their subject matter knowledge has great impact on students learning achievement as well as the curriculum design as a whole. A good and effective teacher should have a well designed curriculum, and well defined innovative strategies for implementing such curriculum. The teacher must always be open minded in order to recognize the individuality of every child and their different learning pace in the teaching -learning setting so as to meet each child's needs.

The significant role of the teacher as one of the principal focus in all curriculum development is well appreciated. The teachers participate actively in developing new teaching-learning procedures and are the principal consumer of innovations in the field of education. Teachers have different strategies of getting the curriculum content across to the learners, and thus, must be articulate in the course of helping the learners achieve pre-specified learning goals. An effective teacher will not treat all learners the same rather the teacher's individual characteristics will affect the way the curriculum content is presented to individual students because the teacher understands how children learn and develop and thus, are able to support their intellectual, social, and personal development.

Learning connectedness is the belief held by students that the adults and peers in their school care about their learning as well as about them as individuals. Students who feel connected to school and the content of each subject taught are more likely to have a number of positive academic outcomes. Therefore, teaching to enhance students' connectedness with the subject contents for each topic taught in every school subject presupposes that the subject teachers, and school administrators strives to identifies

strategies to foster positive learning attitudes among students. In addition, the students that experience such connectedness with the subject content, teachers, and the general school environment are more likely to attend school regularly, stay in school longer, and have higher grades and test scores.

Recommendations

In order for learners of mathematics and any other educational discipline to make meaning and construct knowledge from their daily classroom interactions; teachers should cooperate learning experiences that would help them understand and establish connections between their lives and mathematics or any other subject as the case may be. As such, the curriculum content design for each class session should be sequenced and paced along with the experiences that individual learner has with that content. An effective teacher and curriculum planner must understand some central concepts, and structures of the discipline he or she teaches in order to create learning experiences that will make the particular aspect of subject matter been taught meaningful for the learners.

A professionally wise teacher should use a variety of instructional strategies to encourage all diverse students' development of problem solving, critical thinking, and performance skills. A positive thinking teacher should understand the importance of motivation and should pass their positive attitude onto the student's in the classroom. Since being a positive role model for students is so important; a teacher must be a dynamic person who is always evaluating the effects of his or her choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community).

Finally, mathematics curriculum developers specifically, and educational curriculum developers generally should re-vision teacher education as a sustained and continuous teacher learning that begins at the pre-service stage and continues throughout a teachers' career. This is critical to the advancement of the teaching-learning in our schools generally and mathematics particularly. In-service professional development for teachers in our institutions of learning is critical in order to impact them with innovative knowledge and skills on how to most effectively teach for quality enhancement; a catalyst for quality assurance. The above call is inevitable if we are to solve the problem of students disconnect in learning.

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A Contrastive Study on Semantic Prosody of English and Chinese Logical Resultative Formulae

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Abstract

This article aims to make a contrastive study on semantic prosody of English and Chinese logical resultative formulae. In previous studies, based on corpus, we found that English has 13 most frequently-used logical resultative formulae and Chinese has 15, and in addition, both English and Chinese logical resultative formulae possess negative, neutral and mixed semantic prosody. In spite of this, both English and Chinese logical resultative formulae share something in common and diverge even when they express the same semantic prosody. Therefore, in order to reveal similarities and differences between English and Chinese, a corpus-based approach and a contrastive analysis approach are employed, and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the corpus established by the Center for Chinese Linguistics PKU (shortened as CCL) are chosen. Afterwards, a contrastive study is conducted from the four dimensions: quantity, collocates, semantic preferences and evaluative polarity. The study discovers that in English and Chinese, nine of the top ten most frequently-used formulae possess mixed or neutral semantic prosody and additionally, either English-speaking or Chinese-speaking people more frequently explain causes or effects with formulae that bear neutral or mixed semantic prosody. Differences are great in collocates, semantic preferences and evaluative polarity. This study reminds us that while teaching or learning English and Chinese logical resultative formulae, we should try to be aware of such differences in semantic prosody so as to avoid semantic clash in the context.

Key Words: semantic prosody, logical resultative formulae, contrastive study, corpus-based



INTRODUCTION

Logical resultative formulae refer to the formulaic language that expresses logical resultative relationship between two situations or events. (Li & Jiao 2012) In the previous two articles (Li and Jiao 2012, 2013), based on corpus, we discovered that in English, there are 13 most frequently-used logical resultative formulae, while in Chinese, there are 15. The 13 English logical resultative formulae are: *caused by, so that, now that, as a result, so...that, because of, due to, [result] in, as a result of, [lead] to, [result] from, thanks to, [bring] about*; and the 15 Chinese logical resultative formulae are: *yinci / (因此/thus), suoyi (所以/so), yushi / (于是/ then), jiran / (既然/since), yinwei / (因为/because), yinwei...suoyi/because...so (因为...所以/ because... so), jiran...jiu / since... then (既然...就/since... then), youyu...yinci/ since... thus (由于...因此/ since... thus), youyu...suoyi /owing to... so (由于...所以/because...so), yuanyin shi / The reason is..., 原因是/The reason...), yin'er /thus (因而/thus), zhisuoyi...shiyinwei /What it is is because ... (之所以... 是因为/What it is is because...), youyu /owing to (由于/since), daozhile / (导致了/lead to), zaochengle / (造成了/result in). In discourse, be they English or Chinese logical resultative formulae, they often show various semantic tendencies, i.e, they can attract collocates of the same or different semantic features, which habitually transmits not only conceptual meaning but also interpersonal meaning, namely the addresser's attitudinal meaning, also called semantic prosody in corpus linguistics. The term "semantic prosody" comes from Firth's "phonological prosody". In 1987, based upon Firth's notion, Sinclair coined this term. But until 1993 it was Louv who first made this term known to the public. Later on, this term was widely used by scholars such as Sinclair (1991, p. 112), Louv (1993, pp. 157-176), Stubbs (1995, 2001), Partington (1998, 2004), Tribble (2000, pp.74-90), Whitsitt (2005, pp. 283-305), Hunston (2007, pp. 249-268), Stewart (2010, p.1), etc. Now this term has become one of the most important notions in corpus linguistics. (Whitsitt 2005: pp. 283-305) As for its definition, different scholars conceptualize it in different ways. Roughly speaking, semantic prosody refers to the attitudinal meaning formed through habitual usage of a word or a class of words, which may be positive or negative or neutral or even mixed.*

Thus it can be deduced that since they frequently co-occur with a certain words, which have the same or similar semantic features, these English /Chinese logical resultative formulae have semantic prosody. In the previous survey (Li and Jiao 2012, 2013), it has been found that in English, *as a result of, caused by, [lead] to* tend to express negative semantic prosody, *so that, now that, as a result, [result] from and thanks to* neutral semantic prosody and *so ... that, [bring] about, because of, [result] in and due to* mixed semantic prosody, while in Chinese, *daozhile (导致了/lead to), zaocheng le (造成了/result in)* tend to express negative (neutral) semantic prosody, *yinwei...suoyi... (因为...所以.../because... so), suoyi (所以/so), yinci (因此/therefore), yushi (于是/ therefore), yin'er (因而/thus), jiran (既然/since), yinwei...suoyi... (因为...所以.../because... so), jiran...jiu... (既然...就.../since... then), youyu...yinci... (由于...因此.../owing to... therefore),*

youyu...suoyi... (由于...所以.../owing to... so), *zhisuoyi...shiyinwei...* (之所以...是因为.../What it is is because...) neutral semantic prosody and *yuanyin shi* (原因是/The reason is...) and *youyu* (由于/ owing to) mixed semantic prosody.

Then what are the similarities and differences between English and Chinese? Has this topic been studied? Up to now, scholars at home and abroad (Peterson & McCabe, 1985; Xu & Li, 2005; Liao, 2007) have studied resultatives in English or Chinese respectively and some contrastive studies related with syntactic and semantic similarities and differences of these expressions have been conducted. But none of these studies have paid attention to the similarities and differences of semantic prosody that English and Chinese logical resultative formulae carry. Therefore, this study will attempt to conduct a systematic contrastive study from four dimensions: quantity, collocates, semantic preferences and evaluative polarity

METHODOLOGY

Method Adopted

Quantitative Contrastive Study Method This method is the quantitative analysis study in the empirical research. The Chinese scholar Xu Yulong (2002), based on the characteristics of linguistic contrastive study, partitions empirical research into three categories: quantitative discourse contrastive analysis study, linguistic contrastive survey study and experimental study, among which quantitative discourse contrastive analysis study refers to the contrastive study of the distribution and the usage of two corresponding language systems and items. In this study discourse contrastive analysis study method is employed.

Data Sources

First, this study selects both English and Chinese data respectively from the contemporary text. The English data comes from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (shortened as COCA), which are roughly distributed evenly into five genres: spoken, fiction, popular magazine, newspapers, academic journals. The Chinese data is from the corpus established by the Center for Chinese Linguistics PKU (shortened as CCL). CCL consists of modern Chinese corpus and ancient Chinese corpus. The modern Chinese corpus, composed of such genres as oral talking, newspaper, journals, literature, TV programs, radio, films, translated works and academic papers, is used in this study.

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY ON SEMANTIC PROSODY OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE

From the Dimension of Quantity

In English, three logical resultative formulae *as a result of*, *caused by* and *[lead] to* has a tendency to express negative semantic prosody while in Chinese, two logical resultative formulae *daozhile* (导致了/*lead to*) and *zaochengle* (造成了/*result in*) has the same tendency. In addition, in English, five logical resultative formulae such as *so that*, *now that*, *as a result*, *[result] from* and *thanks to* tend to express neutral semantic prosody, while in Chinese, eleven ones including *yinwei...suoyi...* (因为...所以.../*because... so*), *suoyi* (所以/*so*), *yinci* (因此/*therefore*), *yushi* (于是/*therefore*), *yin'er* (因而/*thus*), *jiran* (既然/*since*), *yinwei...suoyi...* (因为...所以.../*because... so*), *jiran...jiu...* (既然...就.../*since... then*), *youyu...yinci...* (由于...因此.../*owing to... therefore*), *youyu...suoyi...* (由于...所以.../*owing to... so*), *zhisuoyi...shiyinwei...* (之所以...是因为.../*What it is is because...*) tend to express neutral semantic prosody. Finally, in English, there are also five logical resultative formulae including *so...that*, *[bring] about*, *because of*, *[result] in*, *due to* which are likely to convey mixed semantic prosody, whilst in Chinese, there are only two, i.e. *yunyin shi* (原因是/*The reason is...*) and *youyu* (由于/*owing to*) which fulfill the same function.

Apart from the differences in the number of logical resultative formulae, both English-speaking people and Chinese-speaking people share some similarities in using these formulae, for example, in expressing logical resultative relations, both of them incline to frequently use top ten formulae; in English they are *because of*, *so that*, *lead to*, *result in*, *due to*, *now that*, *so... that*, *thanks to*, *as a result of*, *as a result*; in Chinese they are *yinwei* (因为/*because*), *youyu* (由于/*since*), *yinci* (因此/*thus*), *suoyi* (所以/*so*), *yushi* (于是/*then*), *yin'er* (因而/*thus*), *jiran* (既然/*since*), *yinwei...suo* (因为...所以/*because... so*), *yuanyin shi* (原因是/*The reason...*), *jiran...jiu* (既然...就/*since... then*). And it can also be found that both English and Chinese-speaking people frequently explain causes and effects with logical resultative formulae bearing neutral or mixed semantic prosody.

From the Dimension of Collocates, Semantic Preferences and Evaluative Polarity

CONTRAST BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE EXPRESSING NEGATIVE SEMANTIC PROSODY

From the Dimension of Collocates and Semantic Preferences

Collocates refer to the words that co-occur with logical resultative formulae. Semantic preferences, based on the research made by Stubbs (2001, p. 65), Partington (1998, 2004), etc, can be defined as such: When a word frequently collocates with a group of words or several groups of words having the similar meaning, which presents fixed grammatical structures, semantic preferences occur.

TABLE 1 LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE EXPRESSING
 NEGATIVE SEMANTIC PROSODY

ELFR	Semantic Preferences	Collocates
As a result of	Disaster	War, invasion, massacres, etc
	Disease	Infection, heatstroke, surgery, etc.
	Tragedy	Pressure, wrongdoings, drought, etc.
Caused by	Disease	Suffering, disease, viruses, etc.
	Accident	Collision, accidents, explosion, etc.
	Nervousness	Stress, fear, pressure, etc.
Lead to	Unfortunateness	Tragedy, failure, risk, outbreaks, troubles, etc.
	Harm	Disease, deaths, injury, murder, etc.
	Bad feeling	Despair, tension, rampage, etc
	Corruption	Corruption, etc
CLFR	Semantic Preferences	Collocates
Daozhi le(导致了/lead to)	Abstract undesirability	Shibai(失败/failure), jieguo (结果/result), chansheng (产生/produce), beiju (悲剧/tragedy), xiajiang (下降/decrease), bianhua (变化/change), wenti (问题/question), weiji (危机/crisis), houguo (后果/outcome), etc.
Zaochengle (造成了/result in)	Concrete misfortune or damage	Sunshi (损失/loss), yingxiang(影响/impact), kunnan (困难/difficulty), hunluan (混乱/chaos), sunhai (损害/damage), yali (压力/pressure), pohuai (破坏/destruction), wuran (污染/pollution), weihai (危害/harm), shangwang (伤亡/casualty), etc.

From Table 1, it can be seen that although three English logical resultative formulae and two Chinese logical resultative formulae are similar in expressing semantic prosody, their collocates and semantic preferences are different. *As a result of* often collocates with such words as *war, invasion, massacres, infection, heatstroke, surgery, pressure, wrongdoings, drought, etc.*, which can be roughly divided into three types of semantic preferences: disaster, disease, tragedy, etc. *Caused by* always co-occurs with these words: *suffering, disease, viruses, collisions, accidents, explosion, stress, fear, pressure, etc.*, which belongs to three types of semantic preferences: disease, accident, nervousness, etc. [*Lead*] *to* is likely go together with the following collocates: *tragedy, failure, risk, outbreaks, troubles, disease, death, injury, murder, despair, tension, rampage, corruption, etc.*, which might be grouped into the following four sorts of semantic preferences: unfortunateness, harm, bad feeling, corruption, etc. *Daozhile* (导致了/lead to) is often followed by *shibai*(失败/failure), *jieguo* (结果/result), *chansheng* (产生/produce), *beiju* (悲剧/tragedy), *xiajiang* (下降/decrease), *bianhua* (变化/change), *wenti* (问题/question), *weiji* (危机/crisis), *houguo* (后果/outcome), etc.. These words can be said to express a kind of transformation, which is undesirable and abstract. So their semantic preferences are undesirable general transformation. But after *zaochengle* (造成了/result in), the following words can be frequently seen: *suishi* (损失/loss), *yingxiang* (影响/impact), *kunnan* (困难/difficulty), *hunlun* (混乱/chaos), *sunhai* (损害/damage), *yali*(压力/pressure), *pohuai* (破坏/destruction), *wuran* (污染/pollution), *weihai* (危害/harm), *shangwang* (伤亡/casualty), etc.. These words express the semantic preference of concrete misfortune or damage.

From the Dimension of Evaluative Polarity

TABLE 2 DISTRIBUTION OF EVALUATIVE POLARITY OF ENGLISH
 AND CHINESES LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE

		Positive	Neutral	Negative
ELFR	As a result of	10.87%	34.87%	54.35%
	Caused by	4.69%	37.50%	57.81%
	Lead to	16.67%	33.33%	50%
CLRF	Daozhile (导致了/lead to)	2.08%	8.33%	85.99%
	Zaochengle (造成了/result in)	0%	20%	80%

Table 2 reveals the sharp contrast between three English logical resultative formulae and two Chinese logical resultative formulae in terms of the distribution ration of the positive, the neutral and the negative evaluative polarity. Generally speaking, the differences of the distribution ration of the positive, the neutral and the negative evaluative polarity of the three English logical resultative formulae is not as big as that of the two Chinese logical resultative formulae. It is obvious that the evaluative polarity pattern for three English logical resultative formulae is: negative ^ neutral ^ (occasionally) positive while the dominant evaluative polarity for two Chinese logical resultative formulae is: negative and occasionally neutral; for *zaocheng le* (造成了/result in), there is no positive semantic prosody and for *daozi le* (导致了/lead to), there is a slim chance to have positive semantic prosody.

Thus, from the above analysis, it can be stated that, first, three English logical resultative formulae carry various delicate kinds of negative attitudinal meaning, which concerns with the consequences ranging from the most serious ones to the less serious and the least serious ones. For two Chinese logical resultative formulae, the attitudinal meaning is holistically expressed, and the words concerned express the general undesirability. The differences presented here may be due to each nation's character. English-speaking people may like to express their attitudes directly and openly while Chinese-speaking people prefer to express their attitudinal meaning implicitly and ambiguously. This feature also exhibits itself on the usage of logical resultative formulae.

CONTRAST BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULE EXPRESSING NEUTRAL SEMANTIC PROSODY

From the Dimension of Collocates and Semantic Preferences

TABLE 3 LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE EXPRESSING NEUTRAL SEMANTIC PROSODY

ELFR	Semantic Preferences	Collocates
Result from		study, studies, changes, exposure, experiment, (pollution, loss), etc.
Thanks to		audience, panel, subsidy, work, influence, sometimes (vigilance, deregulation), etc.
So that		+ Clauses beginning with the following words: They, It, We, Students, Children, etc.
Now that		
As a result		
CLFR	Semantic Preferences	Collocates
Yinci (因此/thus)	(1) referential meaning	zhege/这个, zhezong/这种, gongsi/公司, etc.
Suoyi (所以/so)	(2) transformation, impacts, insufficiency, etc.	fazhan/发展, bianhua/变化, yingxiang/影响, xianzhi/限制, jinzhang/紧张, qushao/缺少, etc.
Yushi (于是/then)	(3) cognition and affection	zhidao/知道, renshi/认识, liaojie/了解, xihuan/喜欢, haipa/害怕, xuyao/需要
Yin'er (因而/therefore)	(4) processes of saying (doing, existence, etc.)	tichu/提出, tongguo/通过/, caiqu/采取, jianyi/建议, etc.
Jiran (既然/since)	(5) the beginning and the result of an event or an action	kaishi/开始, chuxian/出现, huidao/回到, chanshengle/产生了, etc.
Yinwei (因为/because)		
Yinwei...Suoyi (因为...所以/because...so)		
Jiran...jiu (既然...就)/since...then)		
Youyu...yinci...(由于...因此/Owing to...therefore)		
Youyu...Suoyi(由于...所以...owing to...so)		
Zhisuoyi...Shiyinwei...(之所以...是因为.../What it is is because...)		

These logical resultative formulae shown in Table 3 can be classified into the domain of neutral semantic prosody, that is to say, they can collocate with any nominal words or even clauses beginning with nominal pronouns or nominal phrases without biased attitudinal evaluation. In English, five logical resultative formulae are of this feature and in Chinese, there are eleven which possess this feature. The semantic preferences of the collocates of these logical resultative formulae can be generally grouped into five types: (1) referential meaning, namely, these words can denote an entity existing in the reality; (2) transformations, impact, insufficiency, etc.; (3) the meaning of cognition and affection; (4) processes of saying, doing and existing; (5) the beginning and the result of an event or an action, etc.

The above-mentioned is what the five English logical resultative formulae and eleven Chinese logical resultative formulae have in common. The difference is that in English, *result from* and *thanks to* must be followed by nominal expressions while in Chinese, seven logical resultative formulae such as *jiran*(既然/since), *yinwei* (因为 /because) , *yinwei...suo*(因为...所以/ because... so), *jiran...jiu*(既然...就/since... then), *youyu...yinci* (由于/since...因此/thus), *youyu...suoyi* (由于/since...所以/so), *shiyinwei*(是因为/The reason is ...) can be followed by either nominal expressions or clauses.

From the Dimension of the Distribution of Evaluative Polarity

TABLE 4 DISTRIBUTION OF EVALUATIVE POLARITY OF ENGLISH LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE

ELRF	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Semantic Prosody
[Result] from	3.44%	77.59%	18.97%	Neutral/ Negative
Thanks to	30.43%	65.22%	4.35%	Neutral/ Positive
So that	0%	100%	0%	Neutral
Now that	1.12%	96.35%	2.53%	Neutral
As a result	0%	98.12%	1.88%	Neutral

TABLE 5 DISTRIBUTION OF EVALUTIVE POLARITY OF CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE

CLRF	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Semantic Prosody
Yici (因此/thus)	15%	75%	10%	Negative □ Positive □ Neutral
Suoyi (所以/so)	19.35%	59.68%	20.97%	Neutral □ Negative □ Positive
Yushi (于是/then)	6.85%	91.78%	1.37%	Neutral
Yiner (因而/therefore)	17.46%	66.6%	24.75%	Neutral □ Positive □ Negative
Jiran (既然/since)	4.44%	86.67%	8.89%	Neutral
Yinwei (因为/because)	5.88%	66.67%	24.75%	Neutral □ Negative
Yinwei...suoyi (因为...所以 /because...so)	3.82%	87.02%	9.16%	Neutral
Jiran...jiu (既然...就/since...then)	10.45%	80.23%	9.31%	Neutral □ Positive
Youyu...yinci (由于...因此/since...thus)	4.79%	87.55%	7.68%	Neutral
Youyu...suoyi (由于...所以/ owing to...so)	6.12%	76.39%	17.49%	Neutral □ Negative
Zhisuoyi...shiyinwei (之所以...是因为/What it is is because...)	25.82%	61.57%	12.61%	Neutral □ Positive □ Negative

From Table 4, it can be seen that among the five English logical resultative formulae,

two have the multivariate semantic prosody pattern and the other three have the univariate semantic prosody pattern. *Result from* and *thanks to* belong to the former and *so that*, *now that*, *as a result* to the latter. *Result from* and *thanks to* have almost the equal semantic prosody pattern, that is, for both of them the dominant evaluative polarity is the neutral one. The difference is that the second type of evaluative polarity for *result from* and *thanks to* is the negative one and the positive one respectively. And the ration of the negative one is much higher than that of the positive one.

For *so that*, *now that*, *as a result*, the dominant semantic prosody is the neutral one, because neutral evaluative polarity plays a completely dominant role and the other evaluative polarity rarely emerges.

From Table 5, it can be noted that among the 11 Chinese logical resultative formulae, seven have the multivariate semantic prosody pattern and four have the univariate semantic prosody pattern. *Yinci*(因此/thus), *suoyi* (所以/so), *yin'er*(因而/ thus), *yinwei* (因为/because) , *jiran...jiu*(既然...就/since... then), *youyu...suoyi* (由于/since...所以/so) and *shiyinwei*(是因为/The reason is ...) are of the feature of the former one while *yushi*(于是/ then), *jiran*(既然/since), *yinwei...suo*(因为...所以/because... so) and *youyu...yinci* (由于/since...因此/thus) are of the feature of the latter one. For the seven logical resultative formulae, the dominant evaluative polarity is the neutral one, the difference among them is that *yinci*(因此/thus), *yin'er*(因而/ thus), *jiran...jiu*(既然...就/since... then) and *shiyinwei*(是因为/The reason is ...) have positive evaluative polarity as the secondary evaluative polarity and the negative one as the third evaluative polarity, while *suoyi* (所以/so), *yinwei* (因为/because) and *youyu...suoyi* (由于/since...所以/so) have negative evaluative polarity as the second evaluative polarity and positive evaluative polarity as the third one.

For *yushi*(于是/ then), *jiran*(既然/since), *yinwei...suo*(因为...所以/ because... so) and *youyu...yinci* (由于/since...因此/thus), the dominant semantic prosody is the neutral one, because the neutral takes up the largest portion and the other two (positive and negative) only the tiny portion.

The above analysis reveals the fact that although English and Chinese logical resultative formulae have something in common in the aspect of semantic prosody, the differences between them are obvious. These differences may be accounted for by the following two reasons. First, the syntactic restriction is the impact factor. For example, English logical resultative formulae *result from* and *thanks to* must be followed by nominal expressions and *so that*, *now that*, *as a result* must be followed by clauses; yet, there is no strict syntactic restriction for Chinese logical resultative formulae. Second, it might be the complexity of a nation's character and personality

that caused the differences.

CONTRAST BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE EXPRESSING MIXED SEMANTIC PROSODY

From the Dimension of Collocates and Semantic Preferences

TABLE 6 LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE
 EXPRESSING MIXED SEMANTIC PROSODY

ELRF	Semantic preferences	Collocates
So...that		[Bring about] Positive: change, revolution, solution, reforms, etc. Negative: destruction, collapse, downfall, etc. Neutral: make over, etc.
Because of		
Bring about		
Due to		
Result in		
CLFR	Semantic Preferences	Collocates
Yuanyin shi (原因是/The reason is...)	Referential meaning	Duofangmian /多方面, jingji/经济, zhengfu/政府, lingdao/领导/, gaige/改革, touzi/ 投资, etc
	Increase or insufficiency	Zengjia/增加, quefa/缺乏, etc
	Cause	Yuanyin/原因, yuangu / 缘故, etc
	Transformation, impacts, insufficiency	Fazhan /发展, bianhua/变化, yingxiang/影响, xianzhi/限制, jinzhang /紧张, queshao/缺少, etc.

The logical resultative formulae presented in Table 6 are those which express mixed semantic prosody, namely, they can co-occur with any nominal expressions or clauses having positive, negative, and neutral attitudinal meaning. The collocates of these words are diversified. And semantic preferences of Chinese logical resultative formulae are multi-faceted; for instance, referential meaning, the increase or insufficiency, causes, transformation, impacts, insufficiency, etc. Here, such English logical resultative formulae as *so...that*, *because of*, *bring about*, *due to*, *result in* and Chinese ones as *yuanyin shi* (原因是/The reason is...) and *youyu* (由于/owing to) display similarities. The difference lies in the fact that for Chinese logical resultative formulae, after analyzing the data, the types of semantic preferences can be singled out, yet it's hard for one to pick out the types of semantic preferences of English logical resultative formulae from analyzing the corpus.

From the Dimension of the Distribution of Evaluative Polarity

Three findings can be drawn from Table 7. First, both English and Chinese logical resultative formulae have the multivariate pattern. Since the semantic prosody of these logical resultative formulae is mixed, it implies that three types of evaluative polarity can be seen in most cases, but it doesn't mean that the three types occupy the same position, rather, one can be the majority and the other two can be the minority. Second, for both English and Chinese logical resultative formulae, the representative evaluative polarity is the neutral one. And for both English and Chinese, the negative is the most often emerged evaluative polarity. Third, such English logical resultative formulae as *so... that*, *due to* and *result in* share this pattern: neutral ^ negative ^ positive, *bring about* has neutral ^ positive ^ negative pattern and *because of* negative ^ neutral ^ positive pattern. For two Chinese logical resultative formulae, different patterns can be found: *yuanyin shi*(原因是/The reason is) presents neutral ^negative ^positive pattern and *youyu* /(由于/since) negative + neutral + positive pattern.

TABLE 7 DISTRIBUTION OF THE EVALUATIVE POLARITY OF ENGLISH
 AND CHINESE LOGICAL RESULTATIVE FORMULAE

LRF	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Semantic Prosody
So...that	25%	45.59%	29.41%	Mixed (Neutral ^ Negative + Positive)
Because of	15.79%	40.35%	43.86%	Mixed (Negative ^ Neutral ^ Positive)
[Bring about]	31.71%	36.58%	31.71%	Mixed (Neutral ^ Positive +Negative)
Due to	13.30%	46.70%	40%	Mixed (Neutral + Negative ^ Positive)
[Result] in	17.24%	48.28%	34.48%	Mixed (Neutral ^ Negative ^ Positive)
Yuanyin shi (原因是 /The reason is...)	7.69%	48.08%	44.23%	Mixed (Neutral + Negative ^ Positive)
Youyu (由于 /since)	13.23%	39.71%	47.06%	Mixed (Negative + Neutral ^ Positive)

CONCLUSION

This article, starting from corpus-based approach, conducts a contrastive study on semantic prosody of logical resultative formulae between English and Chinese. This study reveals the complexity of the semantic prosody of logical resultative formulae between English and Chinese. These words are frequently used to express link (bridge) between two components; actually in discourse, while they are employed to express conjunctive meaning, they tend to express a kind of attitudinal meaning owing to their frequent collocation with the words which have the same or similar meaning potential. Both English and Chinese have these kinds of words and also same or different types

of semantic prosody. While teaching or learning English and Chinese logical resultative formulae, we should try to be aware of such differences in semantic prosody so as to avoid semantic clash in the context.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, serif font. The logo is surrounded by two large, overlapping, curved lines that form a partial circle. The inner curve is light blue and the outer curve is light red.

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A Didactic Proposal for Learning Reported Speech through Celebrity Gossip Blogs

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Abstract

Reported speech is usually referred to as a grammatical phenomenon that involves a transformation like the backshift of tenses. In many cases, certain uses of reported speech involve a stylistic device that writers may use when others “claim” to express certain opinions. This practice is frequent in celebrity gossip blogs, where bloggers portray celebs reporting the voices of anonymous sources in order to transmit their comments. The writer thus seeks to shift responsibility for his words to an external source, attributing the utterance, in many cases, to another speaker.

This study is aimed at second year Spanish students of oral and written communication for the degree in English Primary Education. I first describe some activities intended for reviewing the categories of reported speech through Leech and Short’s taxonomy in their book “Style in Fiction”. I will then show some significant instances from the corpus, considering that, in gossip blogging, three main types of verbal processes for reporting others’ words include hearsay, mindsay and perception verbs. Finally, I propose activities so that students recognise and further categorise the utterances, including some notions related to the topic of reported forms like summarising and paraphrasing. Furthermore, they will try to identify whether the blogger is responsible for the act of attribution. Some sociolinguistic considerations like the inclusion of informal language and the inventiveness that is typical of spoken discourses are also regarded.

The corpus for the analysis consists of fifty posts belonging to high-traffic celebrity gossip blogs. The methodological approach is mainly qualitative.

Introduction

Reported speech is usually defined as a grammatical phenomenon by which we report what another person has said without quoting their exact words. When we turn direct speech into reported speech we change the tense of the main verb by putting it one step further into the past. In many cases, certain uses of reported speech involve a stylistic device that writers may use when others “claim” to express certain opinions. This practice is frequent in celebrity gossip blogs, where bloggers portray celebs reporting the voices of anonymous sources in order to transmit their comments. The writer thus seeks to shift responsibility for his words to an external source, attributing the utterance, in many cases, to another speaker.

Blog genre has been characterised as a new genre of computer mediated communication, and has been defined as “an identifiable and well-recognised name for a type of communicative action” (Mauranen, 2013, p. 54). Some of its features are the following (Herring and Paolillo, 2006, pp. 442-443):

- They have now become a primary source of information.
- Dated entries are displayed in reverse chronological sequence.
- They possess a culturally-recognised name.
- They have a general purpose of sharing content with others through the Web.
- Audiences are huge and can participate with their comments.

As regards motivations for blogging, I stress the following (Nardi, Schiano, Gumbrecht and Swartz, 2004, pp. 43-45):

- Documenting one’s life. Depending on the audience and content, a blog can become a public journal, a photo album, or a travelogue.
- Providing commentary and opinion.
- Expressing deeply felt emotions.
- Articulating ideas through writing. Blogging provides two main benefits related to this notion that includes an audience to shape the writing and an archive of potentially reusable posts.
- Forming and maintaining community forums, by which readers express their view to one another in community settings belonging to different fields.

Blogs usually encompass two categories: diary (or personal journal) and filter. This twofold distinction is related to its overall objective: the diary category reports on the author’s life and the filter comments on happenings external to the author. Celebrity gossip blogs join the filter category because they report on other people’s affairs and encourage readers to respond. They usually follow the same general format in which a picture is posted, and this picture is accompanied by a comment, story, or a link to a more detailed article (Petersen, 2007). Talking about gossip is a widespread practice nowadays, and the Internet is transforming the nature and effects of gossip. Furthermore, gossip is becoming more permanent and prevalent, but it is not so selective when it comes to having a definite audience (Solove, 2007, p. 63). They can be seen as an interpretive approach to celebrity culture that call attention to audience meaning-making practices like gossip in the production of media texts (Meyers, 2012, p. 1030).

Traditionally, the use of newspapers in education is extended due to its focus on contextualised language. Similarly, celebrity gossip blogs offer stimulating material

that attracts young readers and is continuously updated. Celebrity gossip blog material fulfils several objectives in this study:

1. It brings about trendy topics reflected in a lively prose that is similar to oral language.
2. Due to variety of voices in the text, it can be used to explore the diverse uses of reported speech.
3. It proposes activities for the recognition and practice of this grammatical unit.

Methodology

The corpus for the analysis contains sixty posts belonging to high-traffic celebrity gossip blogs, during May 2010 and October 2012. The sites are the following: *Perez Hilton*, *Ted Casablanca's The Awful Truth*, *Lainey Gossip*, *Pink is the New Blog*, *Just Jared*, *Allie is Wired*, *I'm not obsessed! Gossip... without the guilt*, *The Superficial*, *Dlisted*, *Radaronline.com* and *TMZ*. The final corpus amounts to 17,563 words. The methodological approach is quantitative and qualitative. It is a text-driven approach, based on the manual search of small-scale text corpora. Students will look for instances in the sites provided during the dates selected.

This study is aimed to second year Spanish students who take the compulsory subject on oral and written communication for the degree in English Primary Education. Spanish speakers at this intermediate level usually classify reporting verbs into the following categories: statements, questions, orders and suggestions. They are supposed to express the different functions contained within these categories in the appropriate communicative context. They will revise their previous knowledge and acquire a new taxonomy of learning based on Leech and Short's (2007) model of speech and thought presentation.

Theoretical background

Initially, Leech and Short's model was devised for authors of literary texts. The model mainly refers to the presentation of a narrator of others' words, written or spoken, of their thoughts (Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010). Although this model starts basically from functional concerns, it establishes linguistic criteria that can be applied to a teaching context. In this study, the model proves to be useful as far as bloggers frequently report on what other people have said. The original model includes several categories of speech and thought presentation.

Taxonomy for speech presentation:

- Narrative report of speech (NRS): *Paul agreed.*
- Indirect speech (IS): *Paul said that he agreed.*
- Free indirect speech (FIS): *Paul was in agreement.*
- Direct speech (DS): *Paul said 'I agree'.*
- Free direct speech (FDS): *I agree.*

Taxonomy for thought presentation:

- Narrative report of thought (NRT): *Paul decided.*
- Indirect thought (IT): *Paul thought that he should do it.*
- Free indirect thought (FIT): *Paul should do it.*

- Direct thought (DT): *Paul thought 'I should do it'.*
- Free direct thought (FDT): *I should do it.*

The following changes occur when converting from Direct Speech and Thought into indirect forms of speech:

- The inverted commas are removed.
"I'm going to the cinema," he said.
He said that he was going to the cinema.
- The speech is marked by a subordinator (e.g. "that").
"I'm travelling to Paris next week."
She told us that she was travelling to Paris the following week.
- Any first and second person pronouns change to third person.
- The direction of movement verbs change (e.g. "go – come").
"I'll go in a minute," he promised.
He promised that he would come in a minute.
- Any present tense verbs change to past (including auxiliaries). Tenses are placed in their 'backshifted' forms.
"I haven't changed the paragraph."
She said that she hadn't changed the paragraph.
- Any proximal deixis changes to distal (e.g. "this – that").
"Please, pass me this bottle."
He asked me to pass him that bottle.

Some categories have some formal features that distinguish them from the two traditional categories of direct and indirect speech presentation. For example, NRS does not include references to the real speech but it indicates the speech act used, as in "He agreed". NRS often appears to avoid the report of a conversation that may not interest the reader. This category also entails the most intrusion by the narrator (Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010, pp. 88-89). In the example below, the blogger summarises the content of the conversations that has supposedly occurred between actress Tori Spelling and her former friends. It is improbable, however, that the blogger has access to private conversations, so he simply reports on the knowledge he possesses.

- *When Tori Spelling calls all her old 90210 cast mates, they either hang up on her face or pretend to be the maid and tell her they are dead and not to call again. That's because they are all co-presidents of the I HATE TORI SPELLING club. That's what Tori says anyway.*
<http://dlisted.com/2010/06/21/everybody-hates-tori/>, [Accessed 21 June 2010]

Whereas NRS represents a clear intrusion of the narratorial voice, the direct forms of speech and thought are not mediated by a reporter. In the discourse that I am considering, examples belonging to these categories are infrequent. It does not occur the same with indirect forms of speech and thought, where utterances must be carefully analysed inside context in order to decide whether they belong to the writer or the character under scrutiny. The forms belonging to free indirect speech usually merge the narrator's voice with the original speaker's voice. In the example below, the reader can't be certain about who says "she's more than a sick body". It is possibly the blogger's voice but from a strictly linguistic perspective there is no clear evidence whether he is giving his opinion or he is reporting what the girl has said.

- (...) *Eva thinks it's more than just her looks. She told Allure that she's into art and reads the Fountainhead. Saying she reads Ayn Rand automatically means she's more than a sick body. As for that body...*
<http://www.laineygossip.com/SIT-DOWN-Eva-Mendes/17269>, [Accessed 14 July 2010]

Averral and attribution

In non-fiction texts like gossip blogs, free indirect utterances can create certain effects on their readers, for the utterance can be attributed to either the author or the celebrity under discussion. In this respect, an important issue concerning the use of different voices in the text includes the distinction between averral and attribution. Hunston explains that “[i]f a piece of language [...] is attributed, it is presented as deriving from someone other than the writer. If a piece of language is averred, the writer him/herself speaks” (2000, p. 178). The next example is an averral:

- *So I guess there will be no more photo ops, no more paparazzi extravaganza and no more of this douchebag team. Speidi is no more! Yay.*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/05/heidi-montag-spencer-pratt-divorce-2/>, [Accessed 28 May 2010]

When someone other than the writer speaks, the piece of language is attributed. For example:

- *Charice, in the same interview, said last week's face makeover was part of her big preparations for her appearance on the hit show's second season.*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/07/charice-gets-botox-for-glee-video/>, [Accessed 19 July 2010]

In this blogging practice, the writer avers the utterance wherein the attributed proposition is embedded in those cases in which someone else reports some news about celebs. In the following example (1), the blogger is the source of the whole utterance (Hunston, 2000; Bednarek, 2006):

- *But at an event last week in New York, one source states Gwen "was pulling at her shirt to keep it away from her body. It seemed really strange - but then, when she turned to the side, I could see why. She definitely had a baby bump!"*
<http://perezhilton.com/2010-05-12-gwen-stefani-pregnant#sthash.ai8osIHf.dpbs>, [Accessed 12 May 2010]
- The blogger avers that
But at an event last week in New York, one source states Gwen "was pulling at her shirt to keep it away from her body. It seemed really strange - but then, when she turned to the side, I could see why. She definitely had a baby bump!"
(source = Self), and within this averral attributes the proposition

"was pulling at her shirt to keep it away from her body. It seemed really strange - but then, when she turned to the side, I could see why. She definitely had a baby bump!" (source of embedded proposition = Other).

(1') *But at an event last week in New York, one source states Gwen "was pulling at her shirt to keep it away from her body. It seemed really strange - but then, when she turned to the side, I could see why. She definitely had a baby bump!"*

Source of utterance: Self (blogger)

Basis of Self's knowledge of attributed proposition: hearsay ("states")

Certainty of Self's knowledge: not explicitly marked

(1') *"was pulling at her shirt to keep it away from her body. It seemed really strange - but then, when she turned to the side, I could see why. She definitely had a baby bump!"*

Source of proposition: Other ("one source")

Basis of Other's knowing: perception

Certainty of Other's knowledge: high ("definitely")

The blogger knows about the proposition "was pulling...baby bump!" because an unidentified source states so. The basis of knowledge is based on hearsay ("state"). Besides, I recognise the category of perception as the basis of Other's knowledge, as signaled by the verbs "seemed" and "see", and the adverb "definitely".

Self does not usually comment on the certainty of his/her knowledge. In fact, most examples contain hearsay verbs like "tell", "claim", and "report". Likewise, the basis of Other's knowledge is not explicitly marked in many cases. Although the complexity of this analysis is not part of the didactic proposal of this study, it offers an overview for the reader who is interested in the study of different voices in the text.

In celebrity gossip blogs, the most frequent verbal forms relate to how the blogger transmits the information, either attributed or averred. I include the following classification (Sánchez-Cuervo, 2013):

1. Hearsay verbs: "claim", "say", "look like", "tell", "add", "report". For example:
 - *The Daily Mail claims that the Sex and the City Franchise has come to an end.*
<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-06-29/is-sex-and-the-city-over-for-good>, [Accessed 29 June 2010]
 - *Our spy tells us Mandy seemed to think she accidentally cut someone else in line and so she let that person? as well as a couple others, just to be safe? order ahead of her.*
<http://uk.eonline.com/news/183692/caught-mandy-moore-being-just-the-nicest-ever>, [Accessed 1 June 2010]

- *The snitch added, “Ryan was adamant he didn’t want anyone to know he was in Nashville to see Julianne...because their relationship is still in early stages and Ryan really, really likes her.”*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/07/julianne-hough-thought-ryan-seacrest-was-gay/>, [Accessed 22 July 2010]
 - *Page Six reports that in Tim's newest book "Gunn's Golden Rules", he writes all about Anna Wintour and Andre Leon Talley's ridiculous ways.*
<http://dlisted.com/2010/06/21/look-at-this-fancy-bitch/>, [Accessed 21 June 2010]
2. Mindsay verbs: “think”, “know”, “guess”, “be sure”. For example:
- *Sure, there were a few arm gropes here and there, some giggles and ear whisperings going on, but we don't think Bar has much to worry about. What's a bachelor to do when his go-to gal isn't around? Flirting only comes naturally for the stud.*
<http://uk.eonline.com/news/182067/caught-is-leo-still-on-the-prowl>, [Accessed 20 May 2010]
 - *Sorry, Twi-Hards! We know how hard it is for you when all the behind the scenes dramz compromises the integrity (ha!) of the films! LOLZ!*
<http://perezhilton.com/2010-05-12-wtf-greene-and-lutz-want-how-much-for-breaking-dawn>, [Accessed 12 May 2010]
 - *Don't worry Twi-hards, I'm sure Taylor's glorious abs will be in many more movies to come.*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/06/taylor-lautner-to-quit-acting-for-college/>, [Accessed 6 June 2010]
 - *This is insane. Talk about getting every last DETAIL. I am GUESSING the waiter who tended to Jennifer Aniston and actor Christopher Gartin during their date at the Sunset Tower Hotel and Restaurant in LA had an agenda.*
<http://imnotobsessed.com/2010/07/06/a-little-birdie-took-notes-during-jennifer-anistons-recent-date/>, [Accessed 6 July 2010]
3. Perception verbs: “seem”, “appear”, “look”, “sound”, “see”, “reveal”, “show”, “confirm”. For example:
- *(...) According to an investigation, it appears that Gaga and her fans may have been the victim of a very cruel hoax.*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/06/lady-gaga-falls-for-twitter-hoax/>, [Accessed 3 June 2010]
 - *He's definitely had a rough few years, but it sounds like Steven Tyler of Aerosmith is getting back on his feet!*
<http://perezhilton.com/2010-06-28-aerosmiths-steven-tyler-talks-addiction-band-drama>, [Accessed 28 June 2010]

- *See the way I remember it was that Hilary Duff looked really healthy. And then all of a sudden, around when she was dating Joel Madden, she looked really unhealthy.*
<http://www.laineygossip.com/Miley-Cyrus-on-holiday-with-dad-Billy-Ray-in-Mexico-May-2010/16851?celebrityId=20334>, [Accessed 25 May 2010]
- *"By setting a precedent and suing Closer, Prince William is making a stand for the future," a source previously revealed.*
<http://radaronline.com/exclusives/2012/09/kate-middleton-nude-photos-legal-fees-free-prince-william/>, [Accessed 17 September 2012]

Proposal of activities

The development of the activities relies mainly on the identification and practice of different categories of speech and thought presentation. Students will apply this taxonomy bearing in mind the triple classification of verbs for the transmission of knowledge. Most exercises will be done in pairs or small groups of three students. They are to be carried out in two sessions of two hours.

1. Identify the speech categories in the following utterances according to Leech and Short's model:
 - *What's next? Babies getting work done right out of the womb? Seriously, she's only eighteen.*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/07/charice-gets-botox-for-glee-video/>, [Accessed 19 July 2010]
Answer: FDS
 - *Sharon Waxman's TheWrap is reporting Megan Fox really did quit Transformers 3 because Michael Bay was "verbally abusive toward her" (...).*
http://www.thesuperficial.com/megan_fox_quit_because_michael-05-2010, [Accessed 21 May 2010]
Answer: IS
 - *She asked what the lamest Hole song was and cursed at people when they gave the wrong answer.*
<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-06-29/hole-performs-a-disastrous-3-hour-concert-in-washington-dc>, [Accessed 29 June 2010]
Answer: IS
 - *A source tells Radar that Jeremy will check into Celebrity Rehab early next week.*
<http://dlisted.com/2010/07/07/you-saw-this-coming-37948/>, [Accessed 7 July 2010]
Answer: IS
 - *The controversy article talks about Ricky as a father and reveals the he is happily attached to a Puerto Rican man.*

<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-06-10/ricky-martin-twins-do-people-en-espanol-magazine-again>, [Accessed 10 June 2010]

Answer: NRS

2. Try to identify whether the previous utterances are averrals or attributions. Justify your answer.

Answers:

- Averal. The blogger gives her opinion about the dangers of surgery at an early age.
- The whole utterance is an averral that contains an attribution starting with the verb phrase “is reporting”.
- The whole utterance is an averral that contains an attribution starting with the verb phrase “asked”.
- The whole utterance is an averral that contains an attribution starting with the verb phrase “tells”.
- Averal. The blogger summarises the content of the article about singer Ricky Martin.

3. Label each verbal form according to the classification into hearsay, mindsay and perception verbs.

Answers:

- This extract does not contain any verbs found in the categorisation given to specify the source of knowledge.
- The verb “report” is within the hearsay group.
- The verb “ask” is within the hearsay group.
- The verb “tell” is within the hearsay group.
- Being a narratorial report of speech, it includes one hearsay verb and another one belonging to the perception class.

4. Find other five examples that correspond to this triple arrangement from the sites selected.

Answers:

- *I think it's fairly obvious that she's sleeping in the photos - are there no boundaries as to how creepy you can get Michael Lohan?*
<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/07/michael-lohan-sold-nude-photos-of-kate-major/>, [Accessed 25 July 2010]
(Mindsay verb)
- *A new still from the film shows the actor in peak condition, with his tanned torso looking incredibly toned and taught.*
<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-05-28/james-mcavoy-has-been-cast-as-professor-xavier-in-x-men-first-class>, [Accessed 28 May 2010]
(Perception verb)
- *He praised the new film Eclipse saying it was his favourite in the series.*

<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-05-31/kristen-stewart-taylor-lautner-answer-fan-questions-in-oz>, [Accessed 31 May 2010]

(Hearsay verb)

- *But it appears no one had given Hilton any advice on the local customs, after opted for a revealing, backless maxi dress with plunging neckline.*

<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-06-04/paris-hilton-goes-to-egypt>, [Accessed 4 June 2010]

(Perception verb)

- *I think McAvoy's casting as Professor X is genius ... I cannot wait to see who they will cast opposite him as a young Magneto/Max Eisenhardt.*

<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com/2010-05-28/james-mcavoy-has-been-cast-as-professor-xavier-in-x-men-first-class>, [Accessed 28 May 2010]

(Mindsay verb)

5. Rewrite the examples using synonyms belonging to the same category of hearsay, mindsay and perception. For example:

- “I know/ guess/ am sure that it's fairly obvious that she's sleeping in the photos (...).”
- “A new still from the film reveals/confirms the actor in peak condition (...).”
- “He praised the new firm *Eclipse* telling us/claiming/reporting/adding it was his favourite in the series.”
- “But it seems/looks like/ sounds no one had given Hilton any advice on the local customs (...).”
- “I guess McAvoy's casting as Professor X is genius (...).”

6. Rewrite these sentences from the corpus into indirect speech using the same reporting verb:

- He previously said, “the thing I love is that my home hasn't changed. I still help out with the garbage.” (...)

<http://allieiswired.com/archives/2010/06/taylor-lautner-to-quit-acting-for-college/>, [Accessed 6 June 2010]

He previously said that the thing he loves was that his home hadn't changed. He still helped out with the garbage.

- He had more than \$700 million in assets under management, the feds claimed.

<http://radaronline.com/exclusives/2010/05/read-court-document-celebs-caught-30-million-ponzi-scheme/>, [Accessed 27 May 2010]

The fed claimed that he had had more than \$700 million in assets under management.

- They carried her to the car. And I thought: “I will never forget this.” <http://dlisted.com/2010/06/21/more-of-this-tim-gunn-more-of-this/>, [Accessed 21 June 2010]
He thought that he would never forget that.
- “She was super friendly to the other people waiting in line,” another afternoon eater dished. <http://uk.eonline.com/news/183692/caught-mandy-moore-being-just-the-nicest-ever>, [Accessed 1 June 2010]
Another afternoon eater dished that she had been super friendly to the other people waiting in line.
- “I think we can get awfully sexy with a PG-13,” Rosenberg said nodding her head. (...) <http://uk.eonline.com/news/188670/breaking-dawn-screenwriter-final-films-will-be-way-hot->, [Accessed 4 July 2010]
Rosenberg said that she thought they could get awfully sexy with a PG-13.
- “This is a movie for the girls because women like action too,” Jessica insisted. <http://www.justjared.com/2010/06/04/jessica-biel-women-like-action-too/>, [Accessed 4 June 2010]

Jessica insisted that that was a movie for girls because women liked action too.

7. The following extract is an example of NRS (narrative report of speech). It summarises the content and is useful to progress the narrative (Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010). Transform the narrated sequence into hypothetical original speech using various reporting verbs. For example:

- *LeAnn Rimes has finally had enough of Twitter. The singer posted a series of Tweets last night to announce that she is taking a “break” from Twitter for a while. The decision comes on the heels of photos showing LeAnn kissing her boyfriend, Eddie Cibrian, while wearing a “skimpy” bikini and his young son sitting right to him.* <http://imnotobsessed.com/2010/07/08/leann-rimes-quits-twitter-after-fannbacklash/>, [Accessed 8 July 2010]

*“I’ve had enough of Twitter”, LeAnn Rimes complained.
“I’m having a break from Twitter for a while,” the singer announced.
“LeAnn is kissing her boyfriend, Eddie Cibrian,” said the source.
“She was wearing a skimpy bikini and Eddie’s young son was sitting right to him,” added the source.*

8. Find other two examples of paraphrasing and summarising in the corpus provided and rewrite it using direct speech forms.

– Example 1

Clinton told cops at the scene that Connelly had come over “to borrow \$150.” He insisted that he hadn’t seen the brawl and speculated the women were tussling over a boyfriend. Police were called to the scene but didn’t have enough evidence to file charges. So now the victim is suing Clinton and the other woman for more than \$500,000!

<http://radaronline.com/exclusives/2012/09/bill-clinton-brother-roger-clinton-paid-women-fight-court-documents-lawsuit/>, [Accessed 25 September 2012]

– Example 2

The housekeeper alleged that she was terminated from her employment because she was an illegal immigrant and that could have derailed Whitman's quest to become California's first female governor.

<http://radaronline.com/exclusives/2012/10/mitt-romney-october-surprise-gloria-allred/>, [Accessed 19 October 2012]

As said above, the analysis of indirect forms of speech poses some problems pertaining to the source of the utterance. Jeffries explains that this is due to “an ambiguity between the implication that these words are somehow quoted from the character concerned and the interpretation by the reader that there is a narrator giving his/her opinion or an omniscient narrator ostensibly presenting the ‘truth’” (2010, p. 136). In this line, the opinion section that is represented in a post must be studied considering the authority of the text producer, the context, and content of the text. The reader must also regard the manner of speech and thought presentation (2010, p. 137). After putting into practice Leech and Short’s model through several exercises, students are asked a more difficult task that involves the writing of a short piece of news about a celebrity that they admire or they just want to criticise. This activity will foster their creativity while they get familiar with recent Hollywood talk.

Before doing the activity, students analyse the following excerpts and discuss whether the words belong to the character under discussion or to the narrator:

– Excerpt 1

I asked about them when I was in Cannes. With local freelancers and European reporters permanently assigned to the couple in Italy and France. They’re happy. It’s all fine. There’s nothing remotely scandalous to go on. Us Weekly claims in fact that the two were quite affectionate and loving at the party.

<http://www.laineygossip.com/Brad-Pitt-Angelina-Jolie-with-Maddox-and-Pax-at-Malibu-party-Memorial-Day-weekend-31may10/16897>, [Accessed 31May 2010]

This passage concerns Brad Pitt and Angelina Jolie’s relationship. When readers examine the statements “they are happy” and “it’s all fine”, they must decide whether it is the reporters, the blogger or the actors’ opinion.

- Excerpt 2
Robbie lives in LA now with Field and is currently selling his country estate at a loss, not only because he's never there, but also because he can't afford to maintain it anymore.
<http://www.laineygossip.com/Ewan-McGregor-and-Robbie-Williams-at-LAX-May-2010-01june10/16908>, [Accessed 1 June 2010]

In this instance, similarly, readers must interpret who says “he’s never there” and “he can’t afford to maintain it anymore”. Is it the writer’s speculation, or singer Robbie Williams’ report? It is not clear whether the content is verbatim. The choice of informal words in both quotes suggests that they could be the actual words used, so there appears a form of FIS where the voice of the writer comes through the narrative style (Jeffries, 2010, p. 139).

9. Create a short piece of gossip about a current celebrity in about 100 words. Use some of the verb forms discussed in this type of discourse, and include the following:
 - Direct and indirect form representations.
 - Narrative report of speech in the form of paraphrasing or summarising.
 - Some language expressions used in informal language.

Conclusion

Gossip celebrity blogs embody a lively discourse that contains genuine and contextualised pieces of language. With this proposal, students have encountered a motivating and attractive approach to the English language that is not usually found in textbooks. They have also got familiar with popular culture elements related to entertainment and the world of celebs.

Students have used the corpus to practise grammar content related to the subject of oral and written communication in English and have improved their reading and writing production skills. In particular, students have used this corpus to reinforce and expand different occurrences of reported speech. In addition, they have learned a new taxonomy of speech and thought presentation through Leech and Short’s model. They have looked for the most common occurrences in the report of gossip through a triple classification of hearsay, mindsay and perception verbs. They have also learned to distinguish between averral and attribution and have tried to establish the authorship of several utterances that contain paraphrasing and summarising. In this line, they have improved some aspects of their communicative competence:

- The linguistic competence that concerns the learning of new words related to informal language, and the transformation of syntactic structures present in the practice of reported speech.
- The sociolinguistic competence that entails the use of certain structures associated with the playful tone of gossip blogs.

Some suggestions for further research include the ideological implications of the gossip blog that are particularly present in the study of indirect forms of speech. The range of voices and the ambiguity in the identity of characters may become a challenge for the student interested in the study of the different forms of speech presentation.

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Blog websites

Allie is Wired.

<http://allieiswired.com>.

Dlisted.

<http://www.dlisted.com>.

I'm not obsessed! Gossip... without the guilt.

<http://www.imnotobsessed.com>.

Just Jared.

<http://justjared.buzznet.com>.

Lainey Gossip.

<http://www.laineygossip.com>.

Perez Hilton.

<http://perezhilton.com>.

Pink is the New Blog.

<http://www.pinkisthenewblog.com>.

Radaronline.com.

<http://www.radaronline.com>.

Ted Casablanca's The Awful Truth.

http://uk.eonline.com/uberblog/the_awful_truth/index.html.

The Superficial.

<http://www.thesuperficial.com>.

TMZ.

<http://www.tmz.com/>

The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, stylized circular graphic composed of two overlapping, hand-drawn style arcs. The upper arc is a light red color, and the lower arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The overall effect is a soft, circular frame around the text.

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School Extracurricular Activities and Academic Achievement

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0381

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Abstract

The school years are when all the facets and characteristics of childhood development are acquired. Schools aim to provide a comprehensive learning environment in a range of academic subjects, supported by a range of other extracurricular activities including Physical Education & School Sport (PESS), and non-sport activities such as music. However with the focus of the school years often being examinations of more cognitive subjects, other school activities can be overlooked during important periods of the school years such as the school-leaving examinations. This presentation will discuss the relationship between PESS, non-sport extracurricular activities and academic achievement. Supporting the “Healthy Mind, Healthy Body” philosophy, our studies show that school children involved in school sport and part of a school sports team during their school leaving examinations tend to show a positive academic benefit. Similarly our research shows that school children involved in extracurricular, non-sporting activities such as music show a similar positive impact on their school academic achievement. This is attributed to these sporting and non-sport extracurricular activities developing personality traits that are also associated with high achievers in education. However, the nature of the extracurricular activity seems to be important. Extracurricular activities such as competitive sport and instrumental music may have a greater impact on the characteristics associated with academic achievement than lower profile extra-school activities and recreational activities. Extracurricular activities are not often examined but can develop personality characteristics that confer motivation to learn and to attain high achievement.

Introduction

Education means leading out the individual nature in each man and woman to its true fullness (Lawrence, 1922). At school, children learn about a range of cognitive subjects that form the basis of the school curriculum. Schools often support these cognitive curriculum subjects with extracurricular school activities, both sport-based and non-sport-based. They are often the most enjoyable part of the school years and are designed to assist students to develop personally, socially and intellectually (Lawhorn, 2009). One of the main outcomes from the school years is the school leaving examinations that qualify the student to go into further or higher education or a career of their choice. This high pressure time for both pupil and school can result in an increasing focus on cognitive subjects during these final years of school when teaching and learning can take precedent over the time available for extracurricular activities. Despite this, research suggests PESS and non-sport extracurricular activities have consistently shown a benefit to academic achievement (Bradley et al, 2013; Sallis et al., 1999; Shephard, 1997; Schellenberg, 2004; Wetter et al, 2009). This paper aims to further investigate the reasons why some extracurricular activities can confer academic benefit.

School and Sport

In Ireland school often starts at approximately 4 years of age with primary school (Figure 1). Typically the first two years of primary school are termed infant school and first class follows this at approximately age 6 years. Primary school continues up to sixth class at age 12 years. Secondary school continues from approximately age 12 years to age 18 years. Secondary school culminates in the school leaving examinations, called the Leaving Certificate (LC) in Ireland, completed over the final two years of secondary school from 16-18 years of age. This qualification is used to go on into further or higher education, or onto a vocation career pathway.

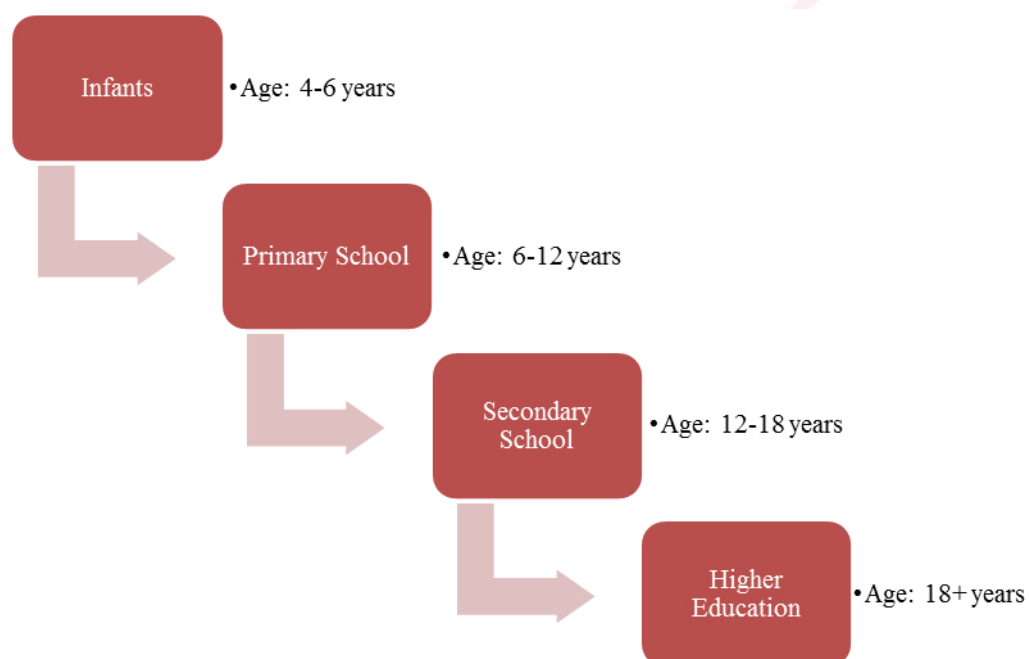


Figure 1: A typical school life age progression.

Many sporting National Governing Bodies use a similar process for developing Long Term Athlete Development plans for their sport, to nurture and promote the performance of their athletes (Figure 2). The 'Active Start', 'Fundamental Skills' and 'Learn to Train' phases tend to correspond to the primary school years and the 'Train to Train', 'Train to Compete' and 'Train to Win' phases are for secondary school and beyond. The average age of an Olympic athlete at London 2012 was 25.9 years for female athletes and 27.0 years for male athletes. If it takes ten years or 10000 hours to become an expert in any particular discipline (Simon & Chase, 1973; Baker et al, 2003) then ten years prior to the London Olympics, most of the athletes would be at school completing their school leaving examinations. This can create conflict between school and sport.

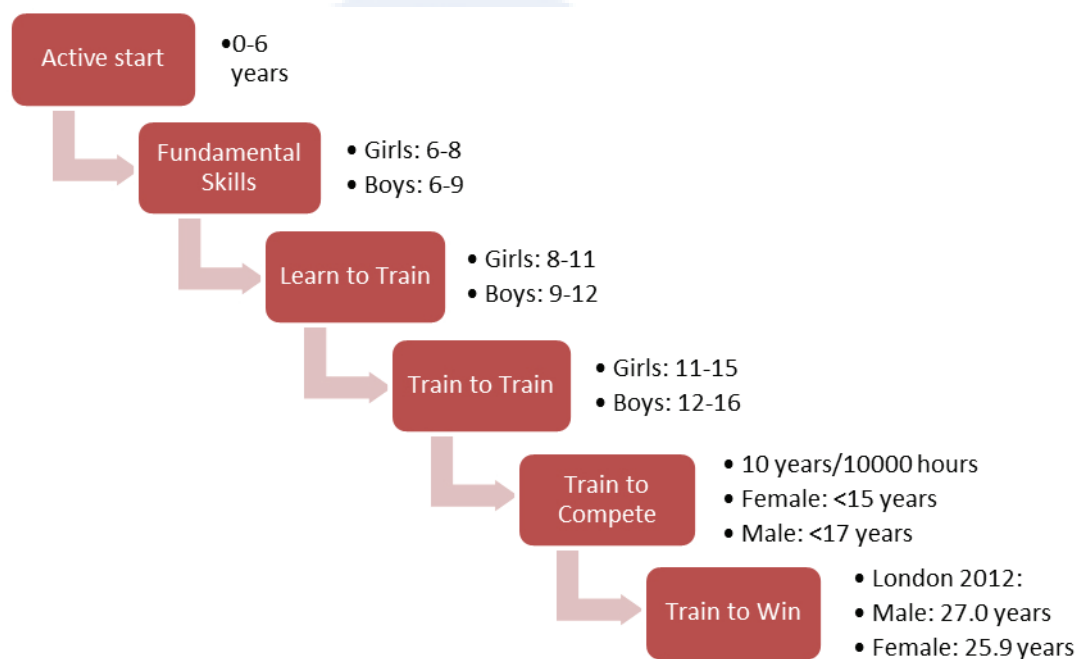


Figure 2: A typical Long Term Athlete Development Plan for a sport.

Methods

To investigate the relationship between school sport and academic achievement we looked at results from a fee-paying, all boys secondary school in Ireland (high Socioeconomic status according to Rock, 2010). In Ireland the majority of secondary school students sit the Leaving Certificate (LC) school leaving examinations. This typically consists of six to seven subjects with a maximum of 100 points per subject. The top six subjects count towards the leaving certificate giving a maximum LC score possible of 600 points (Table 1).

Grade	Points (Higher Paper)
A1	100
A2	90
B1	85
B2	80
B3	75
C1	70
C2	65
C3	60
D1	55
D2	50
D3	45

Table 1: Higher Paper Leaving Certificate points allocation.

Our research questions were:

- What is the influence of school sport participation on LC score?
- What is the influence of school sport type on LC score?

The results of 402 students over a 4-year period, from 2008-2011 were correlated with their presence on a school sports team that was both competitive and represented the school in that sport. There were three sports that fitted these criteria during the LC school years: Rugby, Soccer and Rowing. We classified Rugby and Soccer as “Team Sports” as they can only be played as such. We classified Rowing as an “Individual” sport as although it can be performed as part of a two, four or eight member team, it can also be carried out as an individual and a significant part of the training and preparation for rowing was based around the individual, in contrast to the team sports.

Results

Being a member of a school sports team and representing the school in that sport gave a significant 25.4 point benefit to the leaving certificate score ($p < 0.05$; Figure 3). This supported previous findings and was attributed to the positive association between sport, extraversion and conscientiousness. Participation in sport is associated with positive emotions such as feeling energetic, being efficient, organised and systematic (Courneya & Hellsten, 1998; Saklofske et al, 2007). However, when the relationship between type of school sport and academic achievement was analysed, rowing, categorised as an individual sport resulted in a much greater benefit to the LC score, giving a significantly higher 73.4 point benefit ($p < 0.05$) over the next highest category, Rugby (Figure 4).

These differences were attributed to the different personality characteristics of athletes of individual and team sports. Athletes of individual sports show greater conscientiousness and autonomy, whilst athletes of team sports show greater levels of agreeableness and sociotropy (Nia & Besharet, 2010).

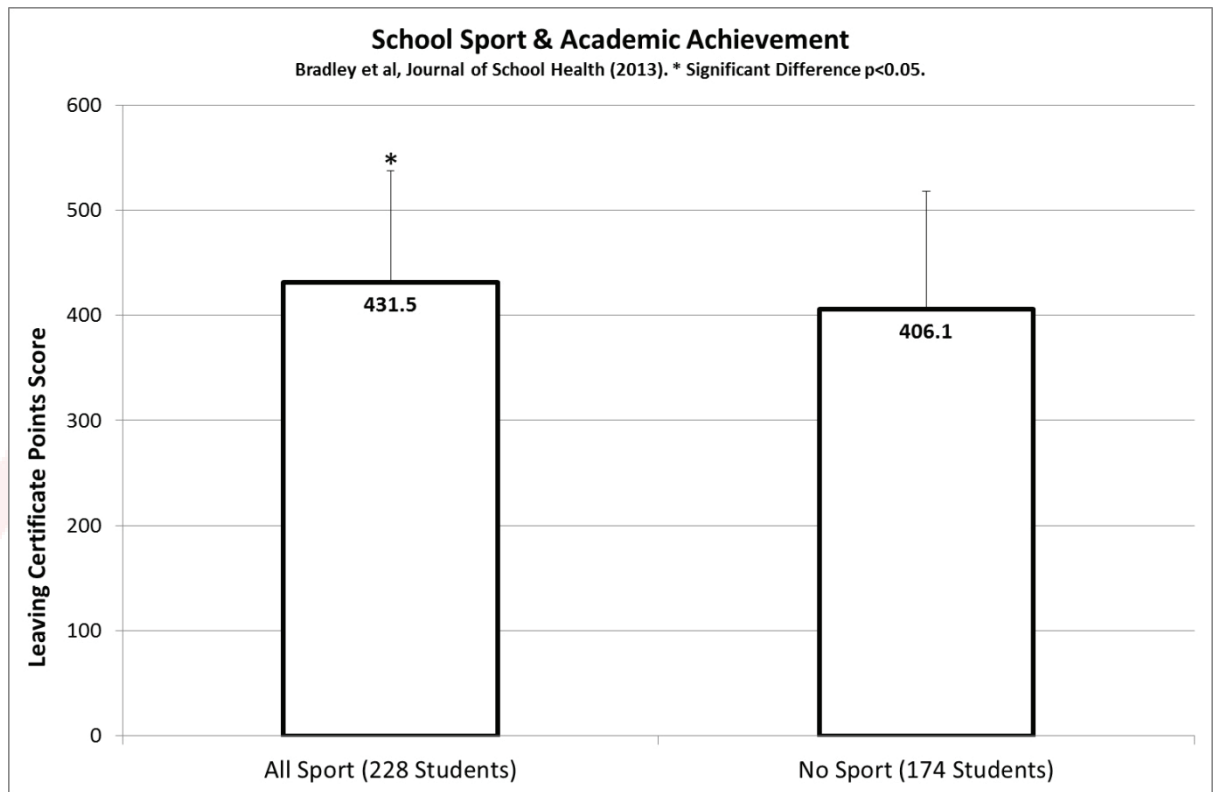


Figure 3: Graph of the leaving certificate points score from students who simultaneously represent the school in a competitive sport during their school leaving examinations years and those students who do not participate.

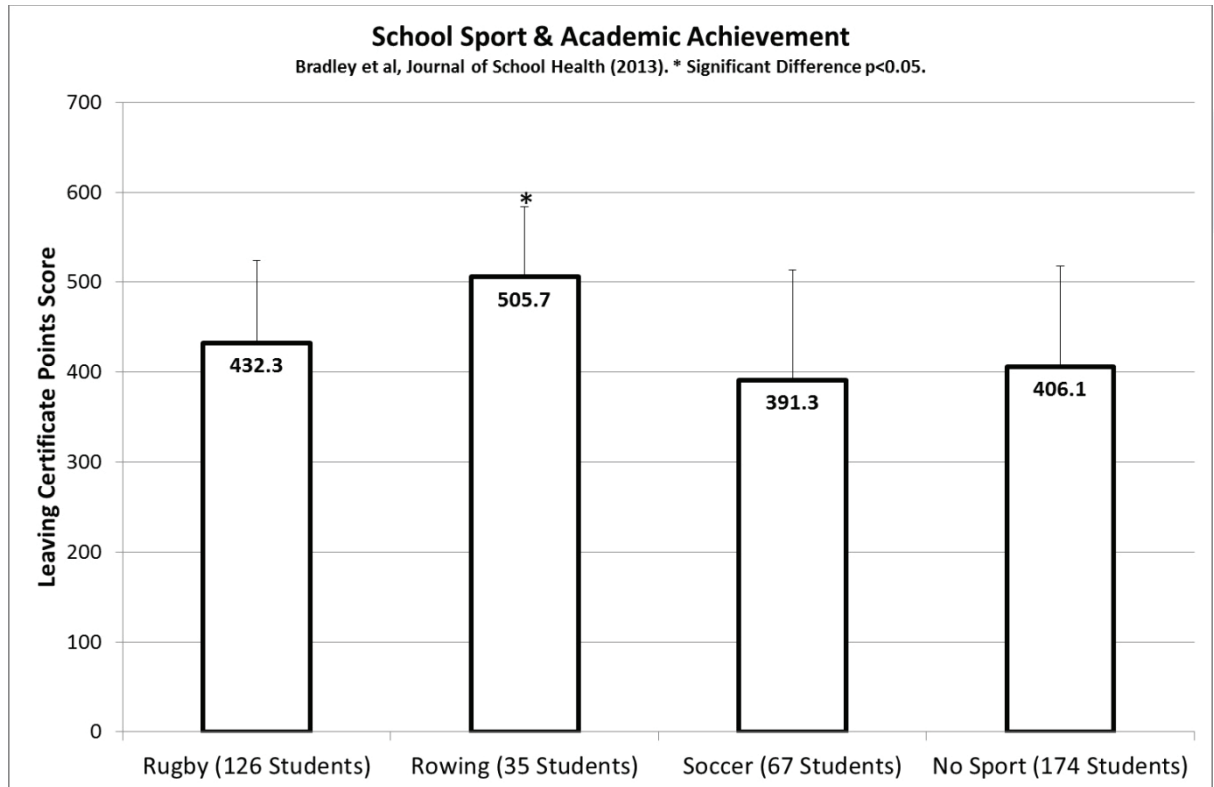


Figure 4: Graph of the leaving certificate points score and category of sporting participation during the school leaving examination years.

Discussion

Academic Benefit and Personality

Previous research has shown either a consistent benefit or no detrimental impact from PESS on academic achievement (Bradley et al., 2013; Sallis et al., 1999; Shephard, 1997; Bailey et al., 2009; Pate et al., 2011). The reasons for this apparent benefit are however unclear (Bailey et al., 2009). Physical fitness has been shown not to be related to cognitive performance in adults (Etnier et al., 2006) but physical fitness has been linked to academic performance in 3rd-5th grade students (Castelli et al., 2007). Sports performance itself has been shown to be weakly related to cognitive performance (Dexter, 1999). The personality traits from sportspeople of both individual and team sports, of conscientiousness, autonomy, agreeableness, being organised and efficient are similar to the personality characteristics of academic high achievers, of self-motivation, self-regulation, self-efficacy and openness-to-experience (Hong & Aquilino, 2004; Hong et al., 2009; Corrigan et al., 2013). If personality characteristics are the main determinant of the benefit to academic performance from PESS, then this benefit is not limited to extracurricular school sport. Extracurricular non-sport activities will potentially be able to provide a similar effect. Extracurricular music has been shown to be associated with particular personality characteristics such as conscientiousness and openness-to-experience (Corrigan et al., 2013; MacLellan, 2011). These characteristics are similar to both the characteristics from academic high achievers and to those characteristics of students who practice extracurricular sport alongside their school leaving examinations.

Criteria for Academic Benefit from an Extracurricular Activity

Further investigation of the Individual and Team sports discussed above (Bradley et al., 2013) show a further difference between the sports (Table 2). The two sports associated with the greatest benefit to the LC scores (Rowing and Rugby) are both practiced 5-6 days per week and only with the school team. Soccer in comparison is only practiced twice per week with the school team, but further practice is permitted with extra-school clubs. This further supports the personality characteristics associated with academic achievement. Regular practice will encourage an organised, conscientious and systematic personality to manage the extracurricular activity whilst still managing the curriculum demands. Competitive sport is generally more structured and associated with higher intensity activity. Vigorous activity has been shown to bestow greater impact on academic achievement compared to moderate activity (Coe et al., 2006). By representing the school in that discipline, greater self-esteem and school social capital, and a greater level of school connectedness will be encouraged.

Extracurricular Sport	Involvement
Rowing	Practice 6 days/week, twice on some days, all with the school team.
Rugby	Practice 5 days/week, all with the school team
Soccer	Practice 2/week with school team, with some students attending further practice with clubs outside the school.

Table 2: Frequency of practice of the school representative sports in the Bradley et al. (2013) study.

Extracurricular music appears to have a similar influence on school academic achievement to extracurricular sport (Table 3). This may be due to similar personality benefits from each extracurricular activity. The criteria from extracurricular sport, of being competitive, being practiced regularly and representing the school can easily be applied to a non-sport extracurricular activity such as music. Typically, school music involves a weekly lesson with accompanying home practice on several evenings a week. Extracurricular school music can involve membership of a school orchestra or choir that can mean performances in a ‘competitive’ environment and these performances can be representing the school in music events.

Comparison	Mean Effect Size (Range)
School Sport and Academic Achievement (leaving certificate score from 16-18 year old secondary students; Bradley et al, 2013)	0.27 (-0.14 to 0.91)
Music and Academic Achievement (average school mark from 8-12 year old primary school students; Wetter et al, 2009)	0.61 (0.26 to 0.95)

Table 3: Mean (range) of effect sizes calculated from two studies investigating how extracurricular sporting and extracurricular non-sporting activities influence academic achievement.

Summary

Extracurricular activities can benefit school academic achievement. For an extracurricular activity to promote academic achievement it needs to fulfil several criteria:

- Be ‘competitive’: Extracurricular school sports are structured around the competition rules of the game. Extracurricular school non-sport activities such as music and the orchestra have a similar strong structure and involve ‘competitive’-type activities during performances. This encourages self-efficacy and an openness-to-experience personality that benefits both academic and extracurricular activity achievement.
- Be practiced regularly: Training at least 5-6 times per week with the school team, or a weekly lesson with associated home practice seems to be required to promote academic benefit. This requires in individual to be organised, conscientious and systematic over their extracurricular activity and their school work to manage both effectively.
- To represent the school: By representing the school the extracurricular activity will promote a strong school connection that will enhance self-esteem and social capital.

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The Effect of Animated Cartoons on Teaching English Grammar: A Study of St Louis Nursery and Primary School, Ikere -Ekiti, Nigeria

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Abstract

This study examined the effectiveness of utilizing censored animated cartoons in teaching and learning English Grammar at St Louis Nursery and Primary School, Ikere-Ekiti, Nigeria. An experimental design was used in comparing the effect of animated cartoons and traditional approach to vocabulary development on the experimental group and control group respectively. The subjects for the study comprised eighty four pupils in basic four in the private school selected for the study. The subjects were exposed to pre-test before the six-week intensive programme and post-test after being exposed to six weeks of intensive teaching. The experimental group viewed and were taught the prescribed items of the syllabus using the animated cartoon, “Word Girl”, as classroom material, while the control group were exposed to the traditional grammar approach for six weeks. T-test was used for statistical analyses of the data. The results showed that there was significant improvement in the academic performance of the experimental group than the control group.

Keywords: Animated cartoons; teaching English Grammar; Vocabulary Development; Children

Introduction

The task of teaching English to second language learners, especially the young ones, demands a pedagogical approach that is expected to assist the young learner in overcoming both linguistic and communicative hurdles (Singleton, 2003). Many scholars subscribe to the hypothesis that there is a special period for learning second languages and that when such a period is over, it is difficult to gain proficiency in that language ((Moon, 2004). Furthermore, there is evidence that adolescents are much quicker and more efficient learners than children, the consequence being that children need special learning aids in acquiring necessary communicative skills in the second language. According to Carmeron (2003), taking these pedagogical traits into account while determining the language instruction, is of utmost importance. Recently, Faloye , (2007) notices that the paradigmatic shift from teacher-centredness to learner-centeredness has been emphasized in the context of meaningful learning of English at the developmental stage in schools . As posited by (Schwartz, 2003), the teacher is expected to contextualize the grammar lesson using various strategies including audio visuals, props, story telling, games and “implicit” or “explicit” teaching.

Research has showcased the suitability of educational games and animated cartoons to the learning environment when it comes to educating children (Faloye, 2010). The presence of fantasy and colourful pictures in teaching materials such as animated cartoons arouses the interest of the young learner and reinforces the learning of abstract items in second language instruction (Arikan, 2009). Consequently, teachers become interested in utilising controlled animation in teaching children in various language classes. If the children are learning as they watch animated cartoons, they are not just sitting there wasting brain power. The *Word Girl* , as pointed out by Kristina (2012) , is a cartoon that encourages children to pick up vocabulary words and their practical usage in real life situations.

Statement of the Problem

Children have a strong instinct to explore their environment which is evidenced in the way they like to touch and play with attractive objects. In second language learning, traditional method used in the teaching and learning process makes the teacher the central figure in the classroom which in turn, creates a passive, explicit and de-contextualized language instruction setting which is viewed by Pinter (2006) as inappropriate for the pedagogical needs of young learners. As revealed by most studies, language teachers do not utilise necessary contextualised and motivating means of teaching children English grammar which eventually leads to unsuccessful linguistic and communicative outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

It is believed that new teaching strategies should be incorporated into the teaching and learning of English as a second language in primary schools in most parts in developing countries . Consequently, many researchers have worked in areas involving the utilisation of contextualised strategies in

language instruction over the alternative approaches at primary school level. However, most of the work done in the field understudy have concentrated on games , pictures, songs used for teaching children. Therefore, it was deemed necessary to determine the effectiveness of animated cartoons “Word Girl” in teaching English grammar to pupils in a private school in comparison to the dominant use of traditional teaching methods in the same school context

Research Questions

The following research questions are designed to determine the effectiveness of animated cartoons in teaching English Grammar to pupils in St Louis Nursery and Primary School, Ikere-Ekiti.

- (1). Is there any significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group and control group?
- (2). Is the utilization of animated cartoons on the teaching of English Grammar effective?

Hypotheses

The following null hypothesis was generated for this study to provide further guidance to the research questions earlier stated:

1. There is no significant difference between the performance of pupils taught with animated cartoons and pupils taught without animated cartoons using their pre-test scores in English Grammar.
2. There is no significant difference between the performance of pupils taught with animated cartoons and pupils taught without animated cartoons using their post-test scores in English Grammar.

Research Design

The study utilised the experimental design involving the experimental group and control group. The experimental group was exposed to contextualised language instruction through animated cartoon series “Word Girl” while the control group was exposed to an essentially traditional grammatical syllabus in line with the guidelines stipulated by the Ministry of Education.

Population

The population of this study consisted of 103 primary three pupils in St Louis Nursery and Primary School, Ikere-Ekiti during the 2010/2011 academic session.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Eighty four (84) subjects were selected for the study using random sampling technique. Therefore, the random sampling technique was used to select forty two male pupils and forty female pupils for the study. The experimental group consisted of forty two subjects while the control group totalled forty two. Hence, the experimental group comprised twenty one male and twenty one female subjects while the controlled group consisted of twenty one male and twenty one female subjects.

Instrument for Data Collection

The instrument for data collection of the study consisted of a pre-test designated as “Test A” and post-test as “Test B”. The test was composed of five reading comprehension passages with the study words inserted in sections of the test material adopted for Grades Primary 3 Test Paper 2.0 for pupils aged 9 – 11.

Method of Data Collection

The researcher and a research assistant administered a pre-test on the experimental group and control group simultaneously before the commencement of the experiment. The experimental group was exposed to treatment by using animated cartoon series’ and interactive sessions in learning selected aspects of English Grammar, with particular emphasis on vocabulary development, while the control group were taught vocabulary development as an aspect of English Grammar with traditional and non-interactive methods such as Grammar Translation Method. Six weeks after the administration of the pre-test, the same content of the pre-test (post-test) was administered to measure pupils’ post application performance.

Method of Data Analysis

Inferential statistical analysis was employed in analyzing and interpreting data retrieved from the instrument. The retrieved scores from the pre-test ‘A’ and post-test ‘B’ were subjected to inferential statistics for the analysis. Specifically, the hypotheses I and II were tested at $P= 0.05$ level of significance by using t -test as a statistical tool.

Results and Discussion of Findings

The results and findings of the study were analyzed and discussed according to the statistical data arrived at through the application of T-Test Analysis.

Hypothesis I.

There is no significant difference between the performance of pupils taught with animated cartoons and pupils taught without animated cartoons using their pre-test scores in English Grammar.

Table I

Variables(group)		Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-table
Experimental	42	2.44	15.78	82		
Control	42	2.33	15.12	82	1.97	-1.68

*At $P < 0.005$, t-table (-1.68) is $>$ t-calculated (t-cal), 1.97. Therefore null hypothesis (Ho1) is upheld

Discussion

At $P < 0.005$, using two-tailed test, t-table (-1.68) is greater than t-cal (1.97). Therefore, there was no significant difference between pupils taught without animated cartoons and those taught with animated cartoons using their pre-test scores in English Grammar. This level of significant difference resulted in the upholding of the null hypothesis at $P < 0.005$.

The implication of this statistical analysis suggests that the level of academic performance of the experimental groups and the control group in English grammar showed no significant difference due to the absence of treatment at the stage of the study. It is inferred that the use of traditional grammar approach to teaching English Grammar was responsible for the insignificant difference in the pupils' academic performance as earlier evidenced in the statistical analysis where the experimental group obtained a mean score of 2.44 while the control group obtained 2.33 as their mean score. Also the Standard Deviation (SD) of the experimental group (15.78) and control group (15.12) signifies a level of insignificance going by the decision rule earlier stated for table 1.

Hypothesis II

There is no significant difference between the performance of pupils taught with animated cartoons and pupils taught without animated cartoons using their post-test scores in English Grammar.

Table 2

Variables(group)	n	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-table
Experimental	42	41.50	14.96	82		1.68
Control	42	40.60	4.33	82	2.23	1.68

*at $P < 0.005$, t-cal (2.23) $>$ t-table (1.68). Hence, Ho II is rejected.

Discussion

The table (2) reveals that the t-calculated (2.23) is greater than the t-table (1.68). This implies that the value was not in the critical region. Hence, there was significant difference between the pupils taught with the aid of animated cartoons and those taught without animated cartoons using their post-test scores in English Grammar. It is inferred that there is significant difference in the post-test scores of the experimental group and the control group due to treatment on the former. The variation in the mean scores and

standard deviation of the experimental group (41.50, 14.96) and that of the control group, (40.60 and 4.33) suggests a significant effect of treatment on the experimental group.

General discussion of findings.

The findings that emanated from the statistical analysis earlier presented in table 1 and table 2 of the study reveal the need for a restructuring of the mode of delivery in the English language classroom. It has been observed by major stakeholders in the education sector in Nigeria in general and Ekiti State in particular that there is urgent need for a paradigmatic shift from teacher- centeredness to learner-centeredness in terms of teaching and learning strategies both for public and private schools. Furthermore, the findings have paved way for the need to introduce the use of instructional media such as educational films and censored animated cartoons for enhancing the grammatical potentials of children. The wave of criticisms spreading throughout the country concerning the dwindling level of communicative and linguistic competence at all levels of education suggests that urgent surgical linguistic procedures should be embarked on by the appropriate personnel, most importantly at the primary level of education. In addition, the finding of the study revealed that children learn new words faster and at ease thus developing their vocabulary. It was pleasing to observe the keen interest the pupils in the experimental group showed in the use of the animated cartoon designed for this study. Most of them were reluctant to leave the classroom, even after each lesson ended.

Conclusion

The current evidence cannot be regarded as being conclusive and perfect due to likely study design and analysis shortcomings. However, the study revealed the dire need for those responsible for primary school administration in Ekiti State and Nigeria as a whole to equip schools with accommodation and facilities such as large screens or projectors with satellite services where censored animated cartoons would be programmed and used for educational purposes. This monumental step in the right direction would assist language teachers in interacting with the learners in a learner-friendly environment with the aim of improving the communicative competence of the learners. This learner-friendly approach to learning English as a Second language, especially at the primary school level, is expected to make the children eager to attend classes. Resultantly, the communicative competence level of the learners in the use of English should improve.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings in this study, the following recommendations are made to improve the communicative and linguistic abilities of pupils in primary schools in Ekiti State through the use of censored animated cartoons:

1. The provision of specific halls for the viewing of programmed animated cartoons should be made in public primary schools.

2. Training programmes/workshops should be organised by the Government for the language teachers on the pedagogical technicalities involved in adopting censored animated cartoons for developing the vocabulary of children in English.

3. The curriculum for Colleges of Education, Ikere Ekiti and Faculty of Education, Ekiti State University should provide for the teaching of the utilisation of animated cartoons as a pedagogical supplement for second language education at the relevant educational levels.

The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs. The outer arc is light blue and the inner arc is light red, creating a stylized circular frame around the text.

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The Role of Guidance and Counselling in Effective Teaching and Learning in Schools: The Nigerian Perspective

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Abstract

The total development of a child can only take place in an environment conducive for teaching and learning. It is in realization of the above that all educational services which can promote teaching and learning in schools are given prominent attention by educational planners. Counselling services are among the school educational services. It is believed that guidance and counselling services in school shall develop, assess and improve educational programmes; enhance teaching and improve the competence of the teacher and reduce cost for the children. Therefore, this paper focuses on the need for effective counselling services in schools. Similarly, the paper seeks to examine the concept of counselling, the different counselling services like educational, vocational and socio/personal, and associated problems of guidance and counselling as it affects teaching and learning in Nigerian Schools. Finally, the paper recommends that individuals be made to understand, appreciate and accept guidance and counselling services in schools because of the roles they play in effective teaching and learning.

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Guidance and counselling is described as an enlightened process whereby people help people by facilitating growth and positive adjustment through self-understanding. (Kolo 2001). Akinade (2012) defines guidance and counselling as a process of helping an individual become fully aware of himself and the ways in which he is responding to the influences of his environment. It further assists him to establish some personal meaning for this behaviour and to develop and classify a set of goals and values for future behaviour. Corey (1988) regards counselling as a process which occurs in one to one relationship between an individual troubled by problems with which he cannot cope with and a professional worker whose training and experiences have qualified him to help others reach solution to personal needs. Okoye (1990) viewed counselling as an interactional relationship designed to facilitate the personal development of information leading to effective decision making and awareness of the self.

Counselling is a learning process in which a counsellor helps an individual or individuals learn, understand themselves and their environment and be in a position to choose the right type of behaviours that will help them develop, grow, progress, ascend, mature and step up, educationally, vocationally and socio personally. (Egbo, 2013).In other words, counselling is a transformative process of helping people to learn all that are to be learnt both in and outside the School.

Abolade (2000) describes teaching as a set of activities that are designed to bring about changes in the behaviour of learners. Bamgbaiye (2005) sees teaching as explaining, demonstrating, guiding and counselling by the teacher in order to effect a change in the learner. Okoye (2010) stated that the main aim of teaching is to help someone acquire or change some skills, attitude, knowledge, idea or appreciation. In other words, it is to bring about some desirable changes in the learners, she also noted that teaching is said to be effective only when the learners have been able to achieve the set behavioural objectives. Nnabuike, (2012) believes that a teacher is also a learner because there is no end to learning.

Okoye (2010), views learning as the mental activity by which knowledge and skills, habits and attitudes, virtues and ideas are acquired, retained and utilized resulting in the progressive adoption and modification of conduct and behaviour.

Idowu (1989) sees learning as the acquisition of new behaviour or a change in behaviour whether positive or negative change. It also includes acquisition of knowledge, information, skills and cultures. He therefore noted that learning definitely will lead to change in one's thought, patterns and feeling. Learning also involves cognitive process especially mental reasoning. Thus teaching and learning go together; it is like buying and selling. If nobody learns it follows that nobody teaches. Nnabuike (2012) noted that the work of the teacher is to help students to learn through deliberate and conscious manipulation of information, knowledge, skill, values, attitudes and habits of the learners in order to bring about learning, leading to desirable changes in character. Based on the above, no effective teaching could be said to have taken place if learning has not occurred.

In most schools in Nigeria, most teachers are cheating instead of teaching. Some do not know the methods for teaching and so do not make any positive impact (teaching and learning); some abandon the teaching job for which they are being paid, to engage in petty trading, farming and even contract. (Odo, 2007).He noted that majority do not conduct research to get more

knowledge for effective, efficient and qualitative teaching and for upgrading of knowledge and ideas. He noted that some teachers do not care about the students under their care.

Kolo (2001) however, pointed out that teaching is a difficult task and therefore not every teaching that brings about pupils learning. He noted that you can take a horse to the stream but you cannot force it to drink water. In a sense, it is possible that one could put in his best effort to teach and yet some pupils fail to learn. This is where counselling comes in for there are pupils who find it difficult to learn due to some learning problems. Some do not understand why they are in school, what is expected of them and how to handle some of their problems. Guidance is a programme of service to individual students based on the need of each student, in understanding of his immediate environmental factors and the influences of such factors on the individual. It is designed to help each pupil adjust to his environment, develop the ability to set realistic goals for himself and to improve his total educational programmes while in school and post school life.

Main Goals Of Education In The National Policy On Education

In Nigerian Philosophy of Education, it is believed that education is a pivot for national development and all round development of an individual. In this end, the formulation of ideas, their integration for National development and the interaction of persons and ideas are all aspects of education. (Federal Republic of Nigeria 2004). The role of education in the development of an individual and the society at large cannot be overemphasized. Education is not only a veritable tool for the transmission of norms and values to the younger generations but also a tool for liberation from ignorance and high rate of docility. When teaching and learning improves, social vices shall reduce and the communities and the larger society shall enjoy peaceful co existence whose values cannot be overemphasized. For any nation to realize and attain its goals there is need to provide a conducive atmosphere for teaching and learning process. Hence, the Nigerian National policy prescribes that Nigerian philosophy of education is based on these three major goals:

- a. The development of individuals into a sound and effective citizen.
 - b. The full integration of the individual into the community and
 - c. The provision of equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens of the country at the primary, secondary and Tertiary levels both inside and outside the formal schools system.
- In order to make the philosophy of education work harmoniously with the Nigeria's national goals, education in Nigeria has to be geared towards self realization, better human relationship, individual and national efficiency, effective citizenship. National consciousness, national unity as well as towards social cultural economic political scientific and technological progress. Odo, (2007), asserts that Nigeria together with other members of the United Nations Organization and Common Wealth Countries planned to wipe out illiteracy by the end of 2015. Hence the need for guidance and counselling as a major tool to assist in enhancing teaching and learning in schools.

Objectives Of Guidance And Counselling In Schools

The objectives of guidance and counselling are not different from the objectives of education. The rationale behind counselling is that it is believed that individuals who understand themselves and their world will become transformed, productive, effective and happier human beings. The following are the objectives of guidance and counselling in schools.

1. To develop in students an awareness of opportunities in the personal, social opportunities and vocational areas by providing them with appropriate, useful information.
2. To help students develop the skills of self study, self-analysis and self-understanding.
3. To help all students in making appropriate and satisfactory personal, social educational choices.
4. To help students develop positive attitudes to self, to others, to appropriate national issues, to work and to learning.
5. To help students acquire the skills of collecting and using information.
6. To help students who are underachieving use, their potentials to the maximum.
7. To help children relate behaviour meaningfully to cognitive achievement and the chances of success in life.
8. To help students acquire as early as possible in their lives a positive image of self through self understanding and self direction.
9. To assist students in the process of developing and acquiring skills in problem solving and decision making.
10. To help build up/or sharpen the child's perception of reality, development of a sense of autonomy and to whip up the motivation for creativity and productivity.
11. To work with significant others in the life of the child, helping them to understand the needs and problems of the child with the purpose of creating, arousing and sustaining their interest in and their understanding of the child's needs, problems and goals so that the child could be optimally helped to attain those goals, handle those problems and meet those needs.
12. To help route the nations human resources into appropriate useful and beneficial channels thus preventing unnecessary economic bottlenecks.
13. To help identify and nurture human potentialities in various fields of study endeavours, thus ensuring adequate manpower in the various sector of the nation's economy.
14. To help build up in the individual Nigerians positive attitude to fellow Nigerians and a sense of commitment to the unity of Nigeria.
15. To help the child as early as possible to learn to appreciate Nigerian cultural values.

Major Counselling Services In Schools

According to Egbo (2008), the rationale for guidance and counselling in schools is based on the belief that prevention is always better than cure in every aspect of life. She therefore noted that counselling no doubt has the key for the prevention of almost all the problems associated with learning therefore the need to understand the services provided under the school guidance programme towards attainment of effective teaching and learning.

1. **Orientation service:** This is designed to assist students adjust adaptively when found in new school environment for effective learning. The teachers should also be given orientation on how to handle the learners from time to time.
2. **Information service:** This service is designed to provide students with data about educational, social and vocational opportunities. It involves collection of data for clients/students.
3. **Appraisal service:** Appraisal involves the collection, administration, interpretation and clinical usage of variety of test devices in order to provide effective counselling services to students. (Akinade2012).

4. **Placement service:** The goal of this service is to ensure that students achieve placement whether on programme of the study, a career, work study or even a medical treatment programme.
5. **Follow-up, research or evaluation service:** The goal of this service is to provide feedback on the effectiveness of school guidance through research into the concrete outcomes of the school guidance.
6. **Referral service:** This is sending a client to another person or agency for assistance where the counsellor is unable to solve the problem. The counsellor does not claim to know everything and so the need for referral to other needs of the students (Salawu 2000).
7. **Counselling service:** Oko (2006) stated that counselling service is the interaction between a client and counsellor that aims at solving or understanding the client's problems the more. He also stated that this interaction enhances effective teaching and learning.
8. **Teachers Forum:** The Teachers Forum is meant to gather all the teachers in the school to discuss teacher/students problems (Teaching and Learning). The counsellor uses this programme to introduce himself to the teachers and what he stands to do in the school. The counsellor invites some resource persons who will talk to teachers on some students need areas that affect teaching and learning, like Harmony in the place of work, cordial relationship between teachers and students, handling students without stress, different methods of teaching, learner's individual differences and so on.
Guidance and counselling services when rendered as it should be rendered in the schools bearing in mind the national goals of education will no doubt go a long way in ensuring effective teaching and learning in schools.

Problems Facing Guidance And Counselling In Schools

Odu (2004) stated that the main aim of guidance and counselling is to assist the student to develop physically, mentally, emotionally, morally and educationally to cope with the learning situations within and outside the school environment. Some of these services provided by counsellors are hindered because of the following problems;

1. **Lack of trained counsellors:** Despite the fact that there are many holders of higher degrees in guidance and counselling in Nigeria today, not as many are qualified to be real counsellors because they lack the skills necessary for the practice. There is limited number of trained counsellors in Nigerian schools and the ones already trained choose to go into non-school settings (Akinade 2012).
2. **Doubt about the efficacy of guidance and counselling:** Some people such as uninitiated colleagues, teachers, principals or administrators doubt the efficacy of counselling. They are skeptical about reliance on its use. (Orubu 1986, Akinade 1990).
3. **Lack of commitment of Government officers:** Ogunyemi (2003) noted that although the federal Government entrenched the guidance and counselling programme in the NPE (1981), there is still much to do when it comes to practical support and its implementation. He noted that more committed action will help the growth of the profession.
4. **Lack of or inadequate funding:** Guidance and counselling is not well funded today, the education enterprise has become a costly venture. Enough funds are not allocated to each school to run its various services. Where funds are available, very little is earmarked for counselling purposes. It seems the various levels of government (Federal, state and Local) do not want to stretch their budgets with extra demands from emerging unit such as guidance and counselling, yet it is known that effective counselling demands adequate

funding to purchase items such as psychological tests, journals and various publications, play gadgets, cardboards and various felt pens as well as money to organize activities such as Orientation, Excursions, career clubs and Career Day/week and furnishing a counsellor's office.

5. **Confidentiality:** Clients expect that their secrets or privileged information be kept secret or confidential and not exposed to others. However, referrals agents such as teachers, peers, parents, principals etc expect counsellors to divulge such information to them. Failure of the counsellor to reveal the "secret" may raise the degree of suspicion of his activities. Revealing the secrets lead to loss of faith in counselling and counsellors on one part will lose clients. Yet all these are happening. (Akinade 2012)
6. **Counsellors created problems:** Counsellors also create major problems to guidance and counselling delivery. Some are not fully committed to the counselling profession. Instead of being serious minded in their counselling duties, some join in the staff room discussions.
7. **Feeling of suspicion of the role/of integrity of counsellors:** Some school personnels still see the counsellor as having a "hidden agenda" or something to hide when a client goes into the counselling room (where this is available) some give counsellors negative or derogatory labels. This is more so where the other workers doubt the moral integrity of counsellors who give individual counselling to young ones. This feeling becomes more serious when a male counsellor treats female students and gives the interaction high confidentiality (Oladejo 2006).
8. **Blurred role of the guidance counsellor:** Several people in the society do not know the specific roles of the counsellor. Even in the school settings, where awareness is expected to be high, school personnel such as teachers and principals do not understand or they misconstrue the functions of the counsellors. For instance, Makinde (1980) wrote that head teachers see them as rivals instead of helpers.

Conclusion

Guidance and counselling is of paramount importance in effective teaching and learning in schools in Nigeria and globally. It is a transformer, reformer in educational, vocational and socio personal practices in every society. UNESCO 2002 has recognized the pivotal role which guidance and counselling plays in various spheres of human existence, hence it sponsored the development of training modules for counsellors. Counselling is aimed at helping an individual become aware of himself and his environment and therefore be in a position to choose the right type of behaviour, educational, vocational and socio personal in nature. Therefore guidance and counselling no doubt has a lot of roles to play for effective teaching and learning and therefore deserves maximum support of everybody.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for promoting effective teaching and learning in schools:

- 1) There is need for serious enlightenment on the part of the public to accept guidance and counselling. This will help develop strategies for school administrators and teachers to achieve a realistic perception of students in their school environment.
- 2) Government should support guidance and counselling practically by providing and making funds available for all the services in guidance and counselling.
- 3) Guidance and counselling should be made an integral part of the school programme and therefore supported by all concerned.
- 4) The guidance counsellor should be consulted by the school administration in implementing some of the counselling programmes.
- 5) Guidance counsellors on their own part school be committed to the counselling programmes through helping the teachers with the identification of students with learning problems and inform the teachers, so that different individualized methods can be used for effective teaching and learning.
- 6) Government should help to train and appoint qualified guidance counsellors in schools to help meet with the student's problems.
- 7) Parents also should be included in guidance and counselling programme through giving them progressive report of their children.
- 8) Counsellors should understand their limits in helping the students and therefore make use of referrals.
- 9) Counsellors should keep students secrets with utmost confidentiality.
- 10) There is need for the clarity about the services rendered by school counsellors. This is done by defining the counsellors roles, functions and objectives for the benefit of school administrators, teachers, students, parents, staff and community.

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Validity of Factor Structure of the TVET Graduates' Job Performance Inventory

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to empirically test the Malaysian Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) Graduates' Job Performance inventory. The study involved 287 respondents consisting of job supervisors of the TVET graduates. They were required to respond to a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. The inventory originally consisted of 29 items with two sub-scales; task performance and contextual performance. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted which suggested a three-dimensional construct for the instrument with high measures of reliability. The data were further analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis. The revised measurement model supported the adequacy of a three-factor measures with each indicator rendered statistically and practically significant loading. The factors were moderately correlated with each others. Divergent validity and convergent validity were supported. Thus, the three-factor model that represents Malaysian TVET Graduates Job Performance inventory is construct-valid. The practical implications of the findings are discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION

Much research has been done to determine the dimensions contributing to job performance. Several dimensions have been identified as the factors affecting job performance such as transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Purvanova et al., 2006; Christian et al., 2011), organizational justice (Greenberg, 1982; Devonish and Greenidge, 2010; Wang et al., 2010), work engagement (Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Christian et al., 2011) and public service motivation (Brewer et al., 2000; Leisink and Steijn, 2009; Kim, 2006). These are external factors influencing job performance. Instead, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) were looking into job performance from the work behavior perspectives.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) identifies two (2) types of employee behavior that contributes to the organizational effectiveness; task performance and contextual

performance. Task performance is defined as the effectiveness of a personnel performing work activities that contribute to the organization's technical core (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Whereas, contextual performance is the performance that is not formally required as part of the job but helps in shaping the social and psychological context of the organization (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). In short, task performance is oriented towards goal achievement and contextual performance emphasizes on promoting morale and showing personal concern (Conway, 1999). Conway (1999) further categorized task performance in two (2) categories; technical-administrative task performance and leadership task performance. Technical-administrative task performance refers to all non-leadership oriented tasks such as paperwork, organizing, planning, quality of output and business judgment. While leadership task performance involves human relations and people management including motivating, supervising and evaluating subordinates.

According to Griffin et al. (2000), task performance and contextual performance can be distinguished and leads to job performance effectiveness. They argued that task performance is more important in determining effectiveness. People with high attributions of task performance will perform better than that with high attributions of contextual performance. Several studies proved that task performance and contextual performance influence managerial decision. According to Motowidlo and Scotter (1994), performance is judged by supervisors as a two-dimensional attribute. Both attributes have different behavior and antecedents. It contributes independently to supervisors judgment about an individual overall performance. Belfort and Hattrup (2003) validated that managerial experience was positively related to perceptions of the importance of contextual performance behaviors reflecting compliance and extra effort. Whereas managers who performed more supervisory activities valued task performance more than did those who were less involved in supervision. It shapes the organizational, social, and psychological contexts serving as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes (Werner, 2000).

Most research was conducted in the area of validating task performance and contextual performance effects towards job performance effectiveness. Not much studies was done at the level of practical students undergoing practical training at work places using the instrument developed by Tett et al. (2003) in the Malaysian context. Therefore, the aim of this study is to empirically test the Malaysian Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) Graduates' Job Performance inventory based on the instrument developed by Tett et al. (2003). The inventory was predicted to be a three (3) – dimensional construct consists of technical – administrative task performance, leadership task performance and contextual performance that will influence job performance (Figure 1).

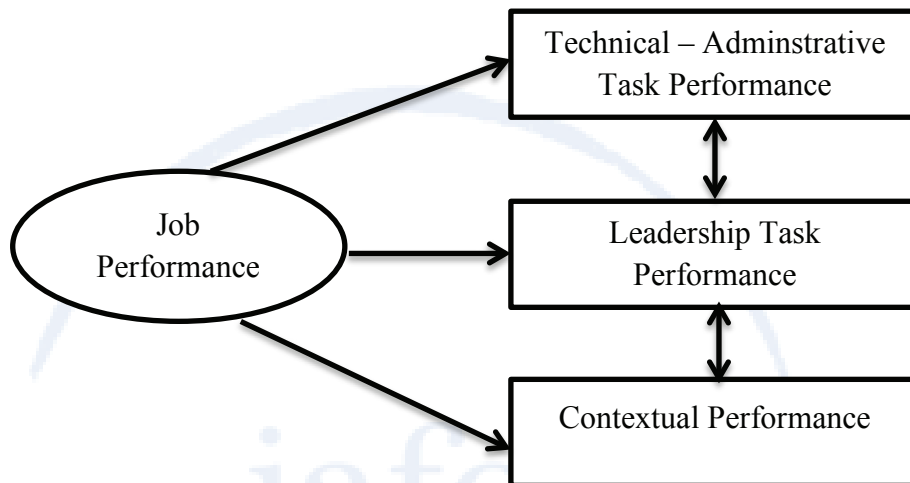


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework (Source: Author)

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sample

The stratified random sampling technique was used to choose the study sample, collecting a total of 287 respondents. The respondents were job supervisors of the TEVT graduates from various organizations; multi-national companies (29%), public listed companies (23%), government-linked companies (13%), small and medium enterprises (8%), government agencies (9%) and others (18%). From the sample, 72.8% of the job supervisors were males and 27.2% were females ranging from 21 to 65 years old. The samples were divided into two (2); data from 85 samples were used for exploratory factor analysis and the remaining, 202 samples were used for confirmatory factor analysis.

2.2 Instrumentation

A set of instruments consisting demographics information and work behaviors as the Malaysian TVET Graduates' Job Performance inventory was administered to the job supervisors. Respondents were asked to rate them using 5 – point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“Never”) to 5 (“Always”). The TVET Graduates Job Performance The demographic information of the respondents includes name of organization, location,

type of organization and supervisors background. The Inventory consists of 29 items, adopted and adapted from Tett et al. (2003). 18 of its item measure task performance and 11 of its item measure contextual performance.

3. RESULTS

The data were analyzed using SPSS 21 and Amos Graphics 21 and the instrument was empirically tested by exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The first stage of the data analysis was done using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify the factor structure of the Malaysian TVET Graduates' Job Performance. The second part of the data analysis was employed with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the factor structure.

3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted prior to the confirmatory factor analysis. EFA was run because the instrument was developed based on the literature that job performance consists of two (2) – dimensional construct. Further reading revealed that job performance consists of three (3) – dimensional construct. The principal component analysis (PCA) was used to explore the underlying constructs among job performance items.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure was .861. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 2701.821, p = .000$), which indicated that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix. These results suggested that factor analysis was appropriate and the sample size was sufficient for meaningful factorability (Pett et al., 2003; Kaiser, 1960). The choices of PCA and Varimax rotation were made based on the exploratory nature of this study and the low correlation among latent factors (Pett et al., 2003). The number of factors was based on the analysis of Kaiser Normalization criteria (Pett et al., 2003), scree plots, and theoretical frameworks in the related research (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Conway, 1999). Each of the three (3) factors had eigenvalues greater than 1. The three (3) factors accounted for 74.806% of the total variance explained. The high item-total correlations (.429–.874) indicated that all of the items related to the overall phenomenon. The three (3) factors and their factor loadings are detailed in Table 1 and consisted of the following:

- i. *Leadership – task Performance* consisted of ten (10) items that accounted for 66.016% of the total variance explained in the sample.
- ii. *Technical – administrative task performance* included nine (9) items and accounted for 5.065% of the total variance explained in the sample.
- iii. *Contextual performance* consisted of four (4) items that accounted for 3.275% of the total variance explained in the sample.

Table 1. Three Latent Factors Related to Job Performance Through Factor Analysis

Latent Factor and Constituent	Factor Loading Alpha	<i>M/SD</i>	
Factor 1: Leadership – task performance		3.83/.6823	.968
Communicates clearly and effectively	.822		
Comes to work on time	.788		
Completes work assignments	.784		
Has the ability to work independently	.772		
Has the ability to grow in the job	.746		
Meets deadlines	.745		
Works well with little supervision	.704		
Takes the initiatives in solving job-related problems	.696		
Does not hesitate in making decisions	.650		
Undertakes routine duties with energy and optimism	.636		
Factor 2: Technical – administrative task performance		3.77/.5692	.936
Plans the steps need to complete tasks	.719		
Able to seek information related to his/her job	.700		
Monitors current work unit progress	.675		
Works well under pressure	.661		
Has technical knowledge	.656		
Identifies work-related problems	.648		
Clearly specifies to others what needs to be done	.645		
Inspire others to achieve company goals	.640		
Complies with instructions, even if he or she disagrees with them	.620		
Factor 3: Contextual performance		3.75/0.6764	.930
Stay late to complete a job if necessary		.802	
Openly demonstrate public support for the company		.799	
Volunteers for extra assignments / tasks		.693	
Offers ideas for improving the work unit or organization		.678	
Defends supervisor decisions		.639	

The internal consistency reliability of the observed item questionnaire was examined using Cronbach’s alpha. The resulting alpha values ranged from .968-.930 which were very high and above the threshold value.

3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

3.2.1 The Hypothesized Model

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to empirically test the instrument. Local goodness-of-fit indexes evaluate the measurement model. The goodness-of-fit measurements used included: chi-square index, critical ratio, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

CFI compares a proposed model with the null measures. CFI values close to 1 are generally accepted as being indications of well-fitting models (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000). A CFI value greater than 0.90 indicates an acceptable fit to the data (Bentler,

1992), values of 0.80 and greater indicate a fair fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Higher values indicate a better fitting model.

The RMSEA is an index used to assess the residuals. It adjusts the parsimony in the model and is relatively insensitive to sample size. RMSEA values <0.05 indicate a good fit, and values up to 0.08 are acceptable if the other fit indexes are high (Byrne, 2010).

A smaller, non-significant chi-square index and critical ratio scores lower than 1.96 indicate a good fit (Byrne, 2010).

The hypothesized 3-factor measurement model was empirically tested using confirmatory factor analysis with AMOS (version 21) to assess the factorial validity of the measurement model. Items for each scale are assumed to load on their respective latent variables as shown in Figure 2. F1 represents leadership – task performance, F2 represent technical – administrative task performance and F3 represents contextual performance. The fit statistics showed that the model did not fit the data ($\chi^2/df = 3.37$; CFI = .865; RMSEA = .109). The results also suggest for a revision of the model since there were many cross-loaded indicators, some of which showed big error variances (Byrne, 2010).

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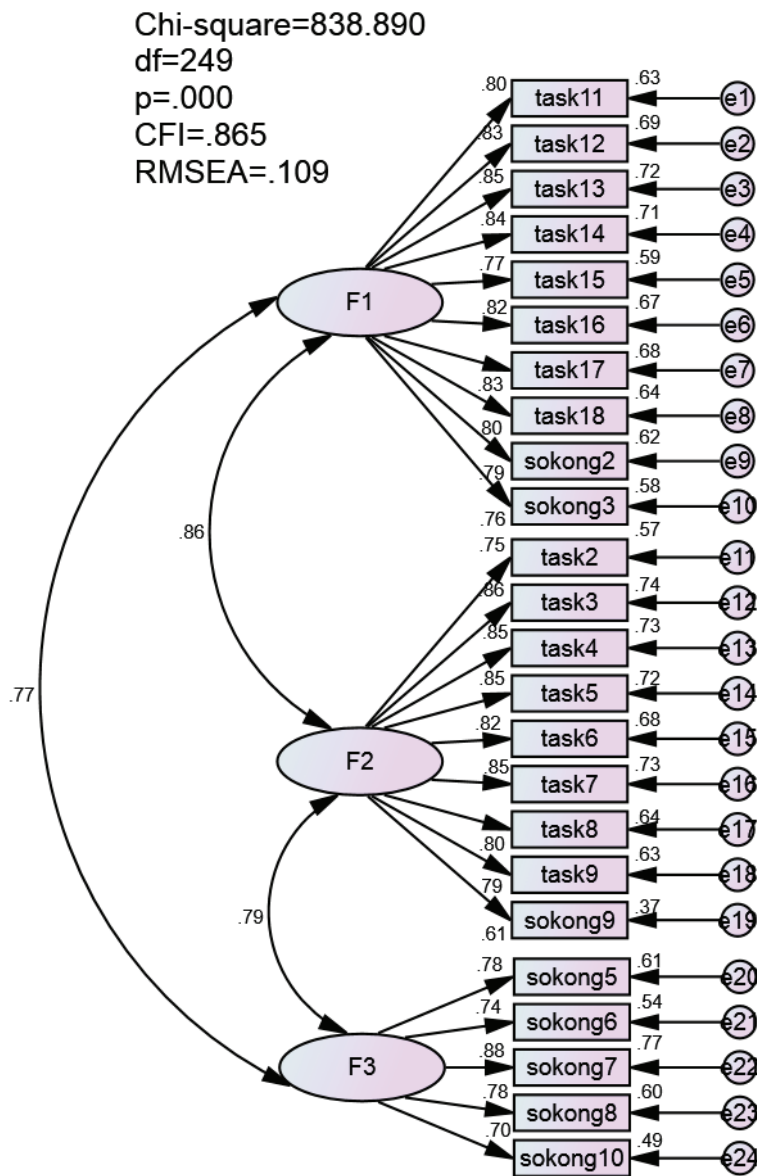


Figure 2: Malaysian Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) Graduates' Job Performance inventory.

3.2.2 The Revised Model

Figure 3 presents the revised 17-item three-factor measurement model analyzed by performing CFA.

This revised model was consistent with the data ($\chi^2(116) = 228.604$, $p = .000$; CFI = .958, RMSEA = .069). The direction and magnitude of the factor loading were substantial and statistically significant (Byrne, 2010). The model is free from offending estimates, and the internal consistency estimates satisfied the standard deemed necessary in scale construction. The Cronbach's alphas for the sub-constructs were .921 (leadership-task performance), .938 (technical-administrative task performance), and .858 (contextual performance).

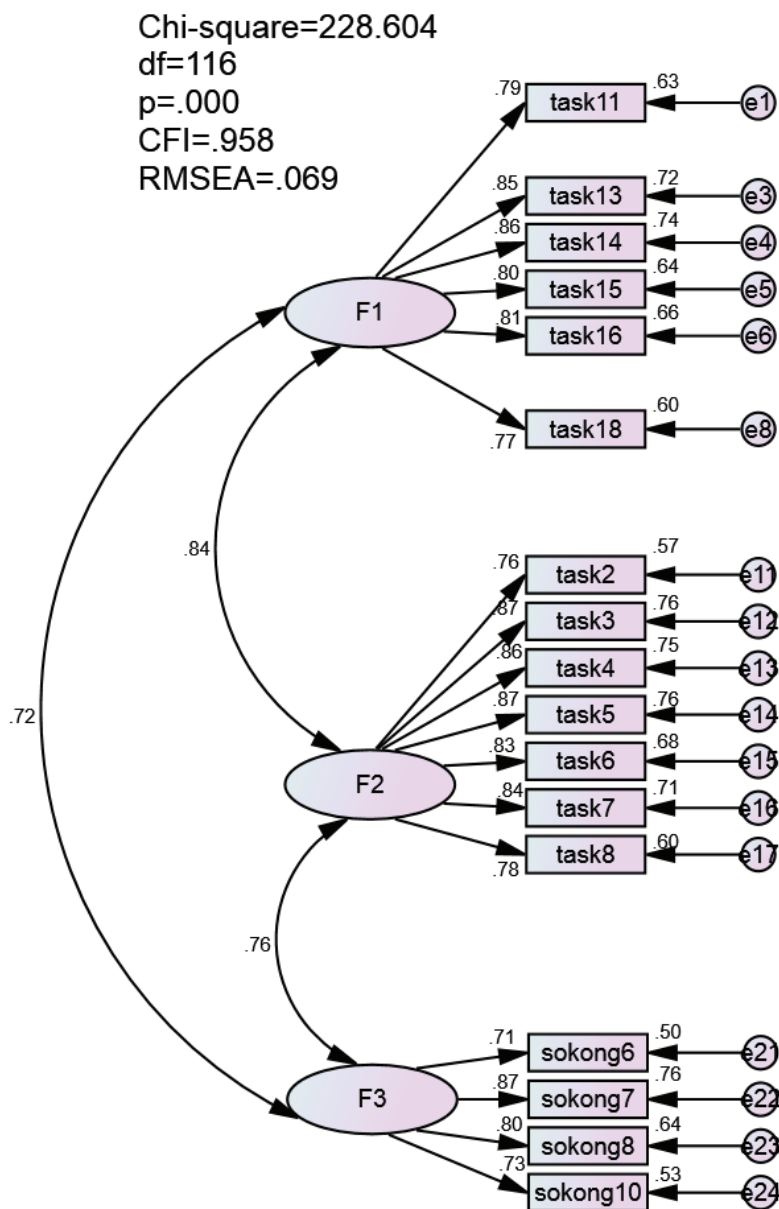


Figure 3: The Revised Model

4. DISCUSSIONS

This study is conducted to assess the reliability and validity of the Malaysian TVET Graduates' Job Performance inventory by applying both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The results of the EFA and CFA supported the literature by that Conway (1999) that job performance is a three – dimensional construct being leadership – task performance, technical – administrative task performance and contextual performance. Leadership – task performance is being represented by six (6) factors. Technical – administrative task performance consisted of seven (7) items and contextual performance is being represented by four (4) factors.

The findings of this study met the earlier expectations that the prevalence of distinct but somewhat interrelated, the dimensions of the job performance. The correlations among constructs can be considered high. The correlation between leadership – task performance and technical – administrative task performance is high due to the fact that there are measuring task performance. The correlation between task performance and contextual performance can also be considered high supporting the previous literature that both performances are much like the similar but measuring different attributes.

This study has implications for educational practices especially in assessing technical and vocational graduates job performances. Since the three-dimensional construct yields a valid and reliable measurement model, the job performance scale is, therefore, useful in conducting diagnostic assessment of the job performance of the technical and vocational graduates before placing them at the work place.

It was supported by previous literature that supervisor's preferences were being influenced by the attributes of the workers. At some extent, supervisors preferred workers with high attributes of task performance and vice versa. Thus, it is important to identify those attributes before placing them at the work place.

5. FUTURE RESEARCH

The study should be extended to a broader group of technical and vocational graduates from the Malaysian Education System. The high correlations between constructs denotes that the model could be extended to second-order model. Invariance analysis should be performed across gender and demographic location to empirically test the configural validity of the instrument.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, brush-stroke-like lines. The outer line is a light red color, and the inner line is a light blue color, matching the text. The lines are slightly offset from each other, creating a sense of depth and movement.

A Hybrid Method for Detecting Source-code Plagiarism in Computer Programming Courses

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Abstract

The paper presents a hybrid method for detecting source-code plagiarism in computer programming courses. For many programming courses, the students' assignments are in the form of electronic source files and it is difficult for the teacher to manually detect the plagiarisms among the assignments. Our system can compare two source files automatically and help to solve this problem. The principle of the system is summarized: Firstly, the source files are processed with intension of filtering the noise elements such as header file include statements, comments, input/output statements and string literals. Secondly, a feature-based detection component is proposed. For each source file, a feature vector is generated which include physic metrics such as the number of source lines and the number of total words, Halstead metrics such as the statistics of source code operators, execution flows and operands. Then the distance between two feature vectors is computed which is considered as the similarity between the corresponding source files. Thirdly, a structure-based detection component is proposed. For each source file, the source code is transformed into a sequence of well-defined tokens. Then to improve the computational efficiency each token is transformed into a single character using a mapping table. The LCS (Longest Common Subsequence) is computed for each two strings, which is considered as the similarity between the corresponding source files. Lastly, an integration component is proposed which uses a two-stage strategy to combine the above two separate components into one complete system. Experimental results show that our system can effectively spot the suspect program copies, even when they have some kind of minor modifications.

1 Introduction

When teaching an introductory computer programming course, it is commonly agreed that the emphasis of the course should be put on improving students' skills of problem analysis, algorithm design and coding. Therefore, in the practicing section, most courses will require the students to complete a sufficient amount of programming assignments and submit the corresponding source code files. However, this may bring a potential problem to the instructor: the source-code plagiarism. Plagiarism occurs when programming exercises are copied and transformed with very little effort from other students. Although finding plagiarisms manually is possible in theory, it is much too time-consuming in practice and very few instructors have the patience to thoroughly search for plagiarisms. Therefore, a powerful automated searching tool is being needed.

In this paper, we present a hybrid method for detecting source-code plagiarism automatically in computer programming courses. It combines a feature-based component and a structure-based component in one system.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present the related works on the automatic source-code plagiarism detection systems. Then we give a detailed description of our system in Section 3. In Section 4, the evaluation results are shown and discussed. Finally we conclude our work in Section 5.

2 Related Work

The previous source-code plagiarism detection systems can be roughly divided into two types: feature-based and structure-based.

The first known plagiarism detection system was an attribute counting program developed by Ottenstein (1976). It uses the basic Halstead (1977) metrics (number of unique operators, number of unique operands, total number of operators and total number of operands) to compare two FORTRAN programs and if all the four values coincide, the programs can be considered to be plagiarisms.

Other feature-based systems (Berghel & Sallach, 1984; Donaldson & Lancaster, 1981; Faidhi & Robinson, 1987) employ a similar strategy. For each program, a set of different software metrics are extracted and they make up a feature vector that corresponds to a point in an n-dimensional Cartesian space. The distance between two feature vectors can be seen as the similarity degree of corresponding programs.

The feature-based systems are efficient because they only need to compute a limit number of feature values for each program. However, they can hardly have very good performance because they throw away too much structural information.

The structure-based systems compare the structures of two programs directly. The basic idea is to convert each program into a stream of tokens and then compare these token streams to find common segments. The comparing algorithm needs to be designed carefully because it will determine the efficiency of the whole system.

Typical structure-based systems include Michael Wise's YAP3 (1992), Alex Aiken's MOSS and Guido Malpohl's JPlag (2000). The differences lie in the detection performance, the run time efficiency and the user interface.

Generally speaking, the feature-based systems are more efficient and have relatively lower performance, while the structure-based systems have better performance and are less efficient, especially when dealing with a large data set (Verco & Wise, 1996). Therefore a natural idea is to produce a hybrid system that combines both the structure and the feature comparison. For example, a hybrid method was proposed by Donaldson & Lancaster (1981). In the first phase, it uses eight features and proposes three different methods determine a similarity or difference factor. In the second phase, each assignment is transformed into a statement order sequence and the sequences of each pair of assignments are compared to determine if the structures of the assignments are similar enough to indicate plagiarism.

For the first author of this paper, he is teaching a computer programming course to non-computer science students at Tsinghua University, China. In every semester, there will be about 150 students enrolled in this class and in each week, the students have to complete five or six programming assignments. Therefore, in order to detect the plagiarisms in such a real situation, we have to consider the following aspects:

- We actually don't need a "perfect" plagiarism detection system. As a teacher, the more important thing is to educate the students not to cheat and let them know the consequences of cheating. The plagiarism detection system is just an auxiliary technical tool that helps us to find as many plagiarisms as possible in limited time.
- There needs to be a balance between effectiveness and efficiency. In every week, we will have five or six programming assignments and for each assignment we will receive 150 source code files. This is a large data set and the time efficiency is more important to us.
- Although there are several free plagiarism detection tools are available, it is still time consuming to use these tools. We have to prepare the data files in a local machine and submit them to the servers. In fact, we already have a powerful E-Learning platform for computer programming courses (Shi, Chen, Zhang and Luo, 2012). If we can integrate the plagiarism detection system into the platform, it will be convenient to use and no extra time is required because all the data are already there.

3. The System

The source-code plagiarism detection system consists of five main components: the pre-processing component, the feature-based component, the structure-based component, the integration component and the main process component. Figure 1 shows the framework of the system.

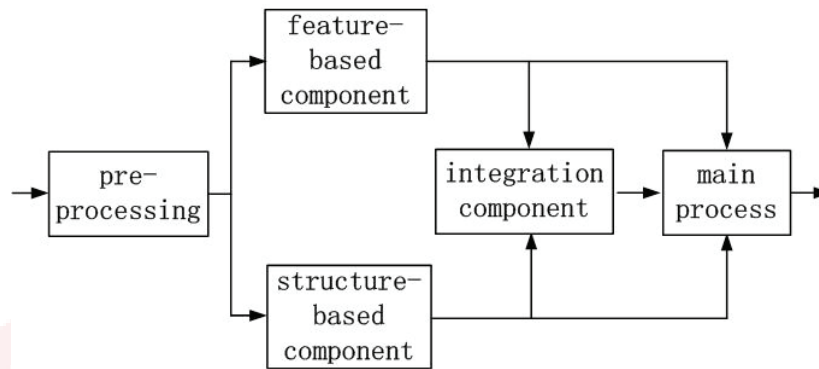


Figure 1. Framework of the system

3.1 Pre-processing Component

For each programming assignment, the students will submit the corresponding source code files. These files can't be compared directly because they contain many noise elements that have negative effects on measuring the similarity between source files. Therefore, we need a pre-processing component to filter out these noise elements.

Firstly, we need to filter out all the "header file include" statements. The following are some of the examples:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
```

For a valid C source file, the "header file include" statements are obviously necessary because they will tell the compiler the correct prototypes of specified functions and make the compiling go smoothly. However, these statements are meaningless when computing the similarity value of two source files. Instead, they may have negative effect. For example, a student may insert functionally useless "header file include" statements in a source file on purpose to make it look different with others.

Secondly, we need to remove all the comments and blank lines from the source files. Otherwise, one can easily fool the automatic plagiarism detection system by writing fake statements in the comment area. For example,

<pre>sum = 0; i = 1; while(i <= 10) { sum += i; i++; }</pre>	<pre>/* fake code r = 5; PI = 3.1415; area = PI*r*r; */ sum = 0; i = 1; for(; i <= 10; i++) { sum += i;</pre>
---	--

	}
--	---

From a programmer's point of view, the above two source segments are completely the same. However, an automatic detection system may think they are different because the second source segment has three more "statements" (the first three statements). Actually these statements are just comments and they have no effect on the running of the program.

Thirdly, we need to remove all the input/output statements. These statements are mainly used for user interface purpose and have few relationships with the core functions of the program.

Lastly, all the string literals are removed from the source files. Strictly speaking, a string literal is actually a type of data, not a statement. It is mainly used for program debugging and user interface purpose. Just like the comments, the string literals in a program can be easily used to fool the automatic plagiarism detection system. For example, one can define a carefully designed long string literal that contains all types of operators, operands and keywords in his program, and then this string literal will cause big troubles to any type of detection systems.

3.2 Feature-based Component

The first step of designing a feature-based detection system is to propose a set of feature values. In our system, we employ two types of features: physical features and Halstead's software metrics.

Physical features are quite straightforward. They include file size, number of source lines, number of words, number of characters, etc. In our system, we use two physical features, i.e. number of source lines and number of words. These two features seem to be more valuable than others.

Halstead features refer to the statistics of source code attributes, specifically, the usage of different identifiers. The identifiers in the C language consist of operators, keywords, predefined identifiers and user defined identifiers. In our system, we will consider six attributes of source code: arithmetic operator metrics, relational operator metrics, logical operator metrics, execution flow metrics, operand metrics and the number of different operands.

The feature extraction component in our system can transform a pair of source files into two feature vectors. Then the next step is to compute their similarity, which is summarized as follows:

Suppose we have two vectors G and H , we need to transform them into another two vectors G' and H' using the following formulas:

$$g'_k = \frac{g_k}{g_k + h_k} \quad (1)$$

$$h'_k = \frac{h_k}{g_k + h_k} \quad (2)$$

g_k : the k -th element of G
 h_k : the k -th element of H

After the transformation, each element value is limited in the range of $[0, 1]$.

Then the vector difference is computed using the following formula:

$$D = G' - H' \quad (3)$$

The similarity of the two feature vectors is defined as:

$$\text{sim} = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{|D|}{\sqrt{6 * sen}}, & |D| \leq \sqrt{6 * sen} \\ 0, & |D| > \sqrt{6 * sen} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

sen is the sensitivity coefficient whose value is in the range of $[0, 1]$. A smaller value indicates that the similarity detection is stricter, i.e., if the vector difference is bigger than a small value, the two source files are considered to be not similar to each other. In our system, sen is set to 0.2.

Suppose the physical similarity is S_1 and the Halstead similarity is S_2 , then the final similarity of two source files is computed using the following formula:

$$S = S_1 * W_1 + S_2 * W_2 \quad (5)$$

W_1 and W_2 are the corresponding weights, in our system, $W_1 = 0.2$, $W_2 = 0.8$.

3.3 Structure-based Component

A structure-based component is proposed to detect the source-code plagiarism automatically in another way.

3.3.1 Identifier Tokens

The first step of the structure-based component is to transform the source code into a sequence of well-defined identifier tokens. There are different kind of identifiers in a C/C++ source file such as keywords, reserved words and user-defined identifiers. They should be transformed into a set of standard tokens such that the modifications of the variable names, type definitions and function names will have no effect on the measurement of program similarity.

The paper defined the following identifier tokens for a C/C++ program:

- CLASS: user defined *class* in the program
- STRUCT: user defined *struct* type
- TYPE: data type
- OBJ: *class* instance
- FUNC: functions defined in the program
- VAR: data variables
- CON: constants

For an input source code file, all the identifiers are substituted with corresponding tokens using a set of rules. For example, all the keywords such as *short*, *int*, *long*, *float*, *char* and *bool* are substituted with the identifier token TYPE.

<pre>#include <stdio.h> #include <stdlib.h> struct student *creatLA(); struct student *creatLB(); void display(student *head); struct student { int id; int oper; student *pNext; }; void display(student *head) { student *p = head; while(1) { printf("%d\n", p->id); if(p->pnext == NULL) { break; } p = p->next; } } void main() { student *headLA, *headLB;</pre>	<pre>struct STRUCT *FUNC(); struct STRUCT *FUNC(); TYPE FUNC (STRUCT * OBJ); struct STRUCT { TYPE VAR ; TYPE VAR ; STRUCT * OBJ ; } TYPE FUNC (STRUCT * OBJ) { STRUCT * OBJ = OBJ ; while(CON) { if(OBJ . OBJ == CON) { break; } OBJ = OBJ . OBJ ; } } TYPE FUNC () { STRUCT * OBJ , * OBJ ; OBJ = FUNC () ; OBJ = FUNC () ; FUNC (OBJ) ; }</pre>
---	--

<pre> headLA = creatLA(); headLB = creatLB(); display(headLA); } </pre>	
---	--

(a) A C program

(b) The string of identifier tokens

Figure 2. An example of identifier token transformation

Figure 2(a) is an example C program. It will be transformed into a string of identifier tokens that is illustrated in Figure 2(b) after all the substitution rules are applied sequentially.

3.3.2 Digitization of the Token String

To improve the computational efficiency, each token is transformed into a single character using a mapping table. As we know, there are 10 digits, 26 lower case letters ('a' ~ 'z') and 26 upper case letters ('A' ~ 'Z'). Therefore, we totally have 62 single characters. Figure 3 is a part of the mapping table.

asm	0
auto	1
break	2
case	3
catch	4
const	5
const_cast	6
continue	7
default	8
delete	9

CLASS	A
STRUCT	B
TYPE	C
OBJ	D
FUNC	E
VAR	F
CON	G
static	H
switch	I
this	J

Figure 3. Part of the mapping table

For example, the token string illustrated in Figure 2(b) will be transformed into the following character string:

yB*E()yB*E()CE(B*D)CE(B*D,B*D)yB{CFCFB*D}CE(B*D){B*D=DR(G){m(D.
 D==G){2}D=D.D}}CE(){B*D,*DD=E()D=E()E(D)}

It is obvious that this string is far shorter than the original token string, which means it will need less processing time.

3.3.3 Similarity Measurement

For each two character strings, the LCS (Longest Common Subsequence) is used to compute their similarity degree. When detecting the plagiarisms among source code files, we should consider the fact that some students may make some minor modifications such as changing the order of function definitions. Therefore, the system divides

each character string into several blocks using the separator characters “{” and “}”. The LCS is computed for each block in the string.

```
s1_set = Code_split(s1)
s2_set = Code_split(s2)
lcs_len = 0
for s1_block in s1_set:
    max_lcs_len = 0
    for s2_block in s2_set:
        lcs_len_tmp = Lcs_len(lis_func, s1_block, s2_block)
        if lcs_len_tmp > max_lcs_len:
            max_lcs_len = lcs_len_tmp
    lcs_len += max_lcs_len
```

Figure 4. The LCS length algorithm

Figure 4 is the algorithm used to compute the LCS length of two strings $s1$ and $s2$. For each block in $s1$, find the corresponding block in $s2$ that has the longest LCS length with it and add that length to the value lcs_len , which is the LCS length of $s1$ and $s2$. Finally, the similarity degree between $s1$ and $s2$ is computed using the following formula:

$$sim = \frac{2 * lcs_len}{|s1| + |s2|}$$

3.4 Integration Component

Generally speaking, the feature-based methods are more efficient and have relatively lower performance, while the structure-based methods have better performance and are less efficient, especially when dealing with a large data set. In our system, we proposed a hybrid method that combines both the structure and the feature comparison. The algorithm is summarized in Figure 5.

- | | |
|----|--|
| S1 | input a pair of source files |
| S2 | compute their similarity $sim1$ using the feature based component |
| S3 | if $sim1$ is lower than a threshold value, $sim = sim1$, go to S6 |
| S4 | otherwise, compute their similarity $sim2$ using the structure based component |
| S5 | $sim = sim1*w1 + sim2*w2$ |
| S6 | return (sim) |

Figure 5. The integration algorithm

4. Experimental Results

A series of experiments are made to verify our system and sound results are achieved.

Generally speaking, it is not likely for a student to submit a program that is exactly the same as another student's program. He may make some changes in the program on purpose to make it looks different with the original one. Therefore, a good plagiarism detection system should be able to deal with these changes.

In the first experiment, for a given program submitted by a student, we modified some functionally useless statements in it and made a “new” program. For example, we added some comments and “header file include” statements, re-edited the program in another style and used the blank spaces, carriage returns and indentation in another way. However, when we used our system to measure the similarity of these two programs, the result was 1.0 which means they are regarded to be completely the same.

In the second experiment, we changed the names of different type of identifiers, such as the variable names, function names and user-defined *struct* names. Again, the measurement result was still 1.0. This is because the feature based component only computes the numbers and distributions of operators and operands, it does not care about the names of different identifiers. And in the structure based component, all the user-defined identifiers are substituted with a set of standard tokens.

In the third experiment, we changed the structure of the code. For example, we changed the order of some functions and substituted a function call with the body of the function itself. The similarity degree was more than 0.9.

We also used a real data set to testify the system. The data set consists of a group of source files submitted by the students in our class. There are 145 students and the length of each source file is about 100~200 lines. Those pairs of programs that have a relatively high similarity degree are examined by us manually. It turns out that for any pair of programs whose similarity value is greater than 0.7, there are always exist many code blocks that seem to be similar enough.

5 Conclusion

The paper presents a software tool that can help teacher to find the potential plagiarisms among the vast number of programming assignments. It is a hybrid system that combines two types of detection methods. The system consists of four main components: the pre-processing component, the feature-based component, the structure-based component and the integration component. Experimental results show that it can effectively spot the suspect program copies, even when they have some kind of modifications.

Ongoing and future work includes the further improvements of the system. For example, the user interface is a big problem. Currently the output results are saved in an Excel file, this is not convenient for the users to understand the results, especially when the data set is big. We need to develop a graphic user interface to present the results.

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The Impact of Educational Logistics on Entrepreneurial Success in Higher Education

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Abstract

The higher education sector is rapidly changing and growing along with its desire for global competitiveness. Entrepreneurial activities contribute to the competitive advantage of a firm as it aims to improve operations and add value to products being served to final customers. This in turn enhances customer satisfaction and ultimately leads to increased profits. It has been well documented that the higher education sector has used business models in their managerialistic approach to organizational structures as well as applied entrepreneurial strategies in satisfying the needs and preferences of their stakeholders. In this regard, the researcher reviewed concepts and theories on entrepreneurship as applied to the business sector and to the field of education. Moreover, the researcher would like to identify and investigate entrepreneurial activities and strategies which universities apply to the different processes of educational logistics. A structured interview was conducted to obtain data regarding entrepreneurial activities carried out by six of the top universities in Thailand. Although most of the expected results were stated by the representatives of universities, some answers fell under the definition of entrepreneurial activities but which weren't expected by the author. Also, the entrepreneurial activities and strategies discovered through the interviews were not limited or confined only to the educational logistics processes adopted by the author. The results of the study will aid universities in identifying opportunities for innovation and strategies in fueling educational entrepreneurship applied to educational logistics. Accordingly, expected outcomes could lead to the identification of a university's competitive advantage.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, academic entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial success, higher education, logistics, educational logistics

Introduction

Thailand's education reform instigated by the National Education Act in 1999 started the transformation of the Higher Education sector. One of the aims of the reform is to permit public universities to enjoy more autonomy when it comes to its management of academic affairs and personnel as well as the management of its financial and budget affairs. Traditionally, Thai higher education institutes are dominated by public sectors. But during the last 2 decades, private colleges, backed by the Thai private sector, has provided a significant portion of delivering higher education as the demand for it increased due to an increase in the demand of manpower for modern economic development. Consequently, the application of business models to the higher education sector has precipitated a managerialistic approach to organizational structures (Preston 2001). In as much as the main objective of businesses is to create value to customers, the higher education industry also aims to create value to its customers. The value that customers, which in this case are students of the universities, benefits from higher education should be far greater than the price (tuitions fees and other miscellaneous fees) they are willing to pay. The producers or the higher education institutions will only enjoy the surplus as long as the demand for its services exceeds supply. Also, suppliers (faculty) will enjoy more bargaining power as more new higher education institutions are coming into play. They would have a choice of the best institution where they can be more appreciated in terms of salary, benefits, tenure, and opportunities for research and get published, to say the least. In order for an institution to maintain its competitive advantage among other institutions, strategies and models to sustain the growing future competition in the market should be developed and implemented.

Nowadays, the demand for higher education is increasing due to global competition; so much so, globalization raises the expectations for service quality, availability, and reliability of these higher education institutions. The traditional way on how universities are functioning is not anymore sustainable as industrialization demands more from graduates, thus graduates demand more from academic institutions. Higher education institutions who neglect to strategize and plan their future course of action, as well as disregards the development of new business models may not survive the highly competitive global higher education environment. Accordingly, to provide these changes, the costs of education are consequently and constantly increasing while the perceived surplus acquired from these universities is surprisingly less or not commensurate when compared to the increase in cost. Thus, universities need to identify a source of competitive advantage through its ability to differentiate itself from other competitors by operating its business at a lower cost and at the same time giving more value to its customers.

In the creation of value, universities need to innovate and to engage in entrepreneurial activities, which identify opportunities in the economic system (Penrose 1980) and utilize existing resources for new wealth-producing endeavors (Drucker 1985). Entrepreneurship per se is composed of processes and activities which are not generally done in the ordinary business routine (Schumpeter 1949). Moreover, entrepreneurship exploits innovations and inventions to create new products, new means of production and new forms of organization, in which all must add value to the society (McGrath and MacMillan 2000 citing Schumpeter 1934).

Entrepreneurship involves behaviors such as initiative thinking, ability to organize and reorganize social and economic mechanisms to turn resources and situations to practical account, and an attitude which accepts that there is always a risk of failure (Hisrich, Peters and Shepherd 2007). In recent times where hyper-competitiveness sets the market (Porter 1996), entrepreneurial activities are encouraged by businesses to nurture and maintain continuous innovation (Antoncic and Hisrich 2001) and universities are forced by globalization to engage in these entrepreneurial activities or behavior in order to satisfy their consumers' needs and preferences (Eyal and Inbar 2003).

Entrepreneurs undertake entrepreneurial activities which creates value that consumers are seeking. The students of universities are considered as the consumers of educational output (Vanderstraeten 2004) whereas professors, lecturers, teachers, and the administration are considered as product providers. A strategy or an activity is recognized as entrepreneurial if it builds on innovation and defies the "dominant logic of competition" in an industry, for the purpose of profit creation (Prahalad and Richard 1986). An entrepreneurial activity involves the process of change, emergence and creation (Bruyat and Julien 2000). Furthermore, entrepreneurial activities involve four key considerations: the enterprising human activity, the assembly of unique bundles of resources, identification of market opportunities and/or utilization of innovative capabilities, the significance of the business and wider environments, and the creation of value (Ahmad and Seymour 2008). Implementing a change within the markets are offered in different ways such as an introduction of a new good or quality, new method of production, opening a new market, new supply source of new materials and establishing a new form of organization in an industry (Schumpeter 1934). Because an entrepreneurial activity requires innovation, creativity and originality, entrepreneurs are said to be risk takers (Covin and Slevin 1989); entrepreneurs use creativity and innovation to break through the norms and seize opportunities; entrepreneurs also explore and embark on new territories such as business ventures to generate value (Hisrich, Peters and Shepherd 2005). Entrepreneurs are business owners, incorporated or otherwise (Ahmad and Seymour 2008) who manage to redistribute economic resources from a low productivity area into a high productivity area which yields a greater return (Drucker 1985). In addition, an entrepreneur is a person or an entity who identifies, creates and innovates business opportunities, as well as manage new combinations of resources to gain the most profit (Leibenstein 1968). Moreover, entrepreneurs are 'pro-jectors' (Defoe 2001), a speculator dealing with the uncertainty of conditions in the future (von Mises 1996), a 'co-ordinator' (Walras 1954) and an 'arbitrageur' who identifies profit-earning activities and acts upon it (Kirzner 1973).

The word *entrepreneurship* in relation with the educational or academic context has not been directed to previously discussed concepts of "profit creation", "risk taking" nor the increased leaning to execute market activities. It simply refers to the organization's attitude towards self-reliance (Yokoyama 2006). Entrepreneurial activities, as defined in an educational setting, refer to the activities that encourage social awareness regarding the institution's accountability. Accordingly, entrepreneurialism is the process by which the universities become increasingly involved in these so called entrepreneurial activities (Yokoyama 2006). In a modern-day society, educational success is not achieved if it is limited and static. Dynamism,

adaptability and the ability to respond to the current changes of society, economy, human behavior and experience are all incorporated in the university-industry collaboration which results from being an academic entrepreneur.

Academic entrepreneurship is not a relatively new concept. By definition, it is the leadership process of creating value through acts of organizational creation, renewal or innovation that occurs within or outside the university and results in research and technology commercialization (Yusof et al. 2010). It is an environment that actively supports knowledge exploitation to stimulate entrepreneurial behavior among all the members of the institution as well as the academic community such as the increase of intellectual patenting and licensing and the creation of spin-off companies among academic researchers (Wright et al. 2007; Siegel et al. 2003). Universities and higher educational institutions are becoming more and more engaged in the entrepreneurial concept through understanding the market value of research and the continuous search for new institutional methods that utilizes the benefits of both scientific research and innovation (OECD 2003; Siegel 2006; Rothaermel et al. 2007). Research is an essential part of the process of innovation and its efficient transfer and fulfillment of its commercial role will return great benefits to the economy. Research and technology commercialization is the process of finding, developing and leveraging intellectual property that possesses high potential for commercial application.

Value creation occurs due to the independent participation of individuals (academic entrepreneurs) to instigate, renew, or innovate within or outside the boundaries of the academic community (Yusof et al. 2010). This phenomena result in commercialization of research and technology through university – industry partnership. A study conducted by Yusof and Jain (2007) states that the level of academic entrepreneurship orientation is directly proportional to the number of technological transfer and commercialization activities between the industry and the university. Universities and higher education institutions, as academic entrepreneurs, becomes agents of development in industrial innovation, technological advancement, economic growth and consequently social development. Moreover, as universities contribute and becomes agents of development, it creates a steadfast lean towards a more competitive society, it becomes more motivated in attaining its intellectual and social purpose (improving the quality of life) and becomes more reliable and accountable (Cargill 2006). These macro visions are the factors or challenges that contribute to the concept of entrepreneurial university. Avoiding entrepreneurial activities and behavior will eventually make universities irrelevant in a competitive market wherein alternative entrepreneurial entities are likely to threaten their monopoly (Dnicker 1985).

Educational logistics plays a vital role to reach entrepreneurial success of higher education institutions. It improves the internal dynamics of the institution (management organization) as well as its product generation (curricula, teaching methods, research, etc.) to achieve consumers' criteria (Council of Supply Chain Management Professional 2004). Logistics applied to higher education institutions increase competitiveness in the market by being more customer-focused (Bentley 2001). Consequently, effective development of products leads to a positive result of an increase in product demand and as a result, it steers towards entrepreneurial success.

In order to understand the impact of educational logistics in the entrepreneurial success of universities, this paper aims to identify entrepreneurship as applied to the field of education as well as investigate educational entrepreneurship components and their classified process on the basis of logistics application.

I. Objectives

Universities today are often becoming entrepreneurial, generally due to two reasons: a stagnant university loses its competitive advantage and insufficient job opportunities for graduates are increasing. The purpose of this study is to investigate and identify entrepreneurial activities and strategies which universities apply to the different processes of educational logistics contributing to the entrepreneurial success of universities. Moreover, this study aims to identify how the processes of educational logistics can contribute in initiating academic entrepreneurship thereby raising the quality of education. In order to explore the ideas stated in this paper and to seek empirical evidence on the impact of educational logistics to entrepreneurial success of universities, the researcher set her study objectives as follows:

- a. To identify entrepreneurship as applied to the field of education.
- b. To identify and study the educational entrepreneurship components and their classified process on the basis of logistics application.

II. Materials and methods

The scope of the study outlines the impact to a university's entrepreneurial success of entrepreneurial activities classified into educational logistics processes being implemented by several universities in Thailand. A comprehensive exploratory research was conducted to obtain data and information that helps the author increase her understanding of the concepts involved in this study, as well as the identification of the variables of the study.

Entrepreneurship components of universities was identified by the author and it includes: university's competency, product, human resource management, research and development, financial flexibility, estate management, student population growth, business industry collaborative efforts, contribution to the economic development of the country and social responsibility of the university. Processes of educational logistics adopted by the author and used in the study includes, but not limited to: student information management, examination, flexible study path of the individual student, staff workload planning, planning and timetabling, and space management (Bergstrom & Bulter 2009). In addition, logistics components also adopted by the author and utilized in the study includes: information & control, transport, inventory, packaging & utilization, and storage, warehousing and materials handling (Rushton, Croucker and Baker 2006). The study also dealt with entrepreneurial success of a university; it is often equated to a firm's success and its success depends on the effective methods being implemented to gain satisfaction from various stakeholders such as customers, employees, suppliers, government and the community (Pickle & Friedlander 1967; Robinson 1983). Also, entrepreneurial success of a university can be measured and expressed using financial and non-financial measures (Chivukula et al. 2009). A firm's success is generally measured using three factors: profit, which is the essential outcome of an entrepreneurial activity (Cantillon 1931), employment

creation, which indicates a firm's growth and social success that is it helps provide jobs to the community, and lastly, duration, or the length of active period (Lussier and Pfeiffer 2001).

Data Collection and Respondents

The author made use of a structured interview arranged for top administrators, department heads and/or professors of universities in Thailand. The study focused on six of the top universities in Thailand in terms of Quality Assurance scores given by the Ministry of Education. These universities were chosen so as to get reliable information about entrepreneurial activities being implemented by successful universities in terms of quality assurance components. Four interviewees per university were asked about several questions pertaining to the entrepreneurial activities and strategies implemented in the operations of the university. Furthermore, the entrepreneurial activities identified through a structured interview revealed some expected results by the author, as well as unexpected results which will be stated later on in this article.

Data Processing

The author summarized and classified entrepreneurial activities being implemented by the universities according to the components of logistics and educational logistics. The author presented qualitative data based on the questions of the structured interview. A summary of data were generated in order to present the findings of expected results. Unexpected results were also enumerated and described according to the author's interpretation of the data gathered.

III. Discussion of Results

Data were gathered through the use of a structured interview and expected results were accomplished as well as unexpected results. A detailed summary of the findings per entrepreneurship component in the questionnaire and the frequency of answers based on four interviewees per university or a total of 24 interviewees are presented below.

Question 1: How does the university encourage and support innovation and creativity throughout the university, including teaching, research, service and all operations?

This question pertains to data regarding the competency of the university. Expected data gathered includes innovation or creativity in teaching methods, research and academic services. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Frequency of answers to question 1

1.	The university offers study trips and company visits in and out of Thailand to expose students to different industries and experts in the field. [22/24]
2.	The university uses social media networks to post and share ideas such as new breakthroughs, case studies, etc. to reach a wide number of audiences. [4/24]
3.	The university uses an ERP system in its operation to manage its information flow between its stakeholders. [14/24]
4.	The university uses an e-office (used for example: online conferences) to effectively communicate between departments and campuses. [3/24]
5.	The university uses LMS or Learning Management System which utilizes media technologies in teaching and learning. [2/24]
6.	The university has an online database and an open-access journal wherein students, staff and the faculty can use for research. [24/24]
7.	The university utilizes CAI (computer assisted instruction) medium of teaching such as on-line writing labs, e-classrooms, e-learning portals, etc.) [7/24]
8.	The university houses their own commercial businesses (restaurants, airlines/aviation institute, etc.) to serve as training grounds for the students. [4/24]
9.	The university emphasizes on “Active Learning” wherein students get to learn more on real world situations rather than textbook teaching. [4/24]

Table 1 presents the answers of the 24 respondents regarding innovative practices and activities supported by the university. Among the nine answers given by the respondents, the highest frequency on entrepreneurial activity in relation to innovation lies with the benefit of having an online database which students, staff and faculty could access for research. All of the respondents from six universities stated this as one of their entrepreneurial activity contributing to the success of the university. Followed by study trips and company visits offered to students by the university which garnered a 92% response rate from the respondents. This shows that the respondents’ perception on having an easy access to online databases and open-access journals is an entrepreneurial activity which encourages its students, faculty and staff to conduct their own research. Moreover, going to study trips and company visits are perceived as innovative teaching methods and is seen as necessary to include in their program, apart from the traditional classroom learning. Additional answer includes an in-house newspaper used for dissemination of information.

Question 2: How does the university offer a course profile that reflects student demand and to meet workforce needs?

This question pertains to data regarding the product of the university. Expected data gathered includes course profiles offered by the university, as well as the process of offering new courses/programs. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Frequency of answers to question 2

1.	The university regularly and rigidly evaluates the need to create or change curriculum through surveys and meetings with experts in the field of study, alumni and academic administrators. [22/24]
2.	The university regularly evaluates its lecturers and professors’ performance in terms of teaching, advising, and research. [21/24]
3.	The university hires professional experts in the field to teach courses offered. [23/24]

4.	The university conducts follow-up surveys on its graduates in order to gauge the compatibility of teachings and real-life working conditions. [3/24]
5.	The university offers courses which focuses on the vocational field. [2/24]
6.	The university offers courses that would meet the ASEAN standards. [2/24]
7.	The university regularly amends the course syllabus to make it more current. [2/4]
8.	The university offers a special course for entrepreneurial students, taught by successful business owners and CEOs, with the aim of doing a collaborative project between the business and the students. [2/24]
9.	The university has opened an international program to accommodate the growing number of foreign students who wants to enroll at the university. [2/24]

In this section, the author received three dominant answers from respondents. 96% of the respondents (23 out of 24 respondents) stated that hiring professional experts in the field to teach the courses they are offering are perceived as a strategy that responds to student demands in relation to course profiles relevant in today's market. 92 % or a total of 22 out of 24 respondents stated that the university conducts a thorough investigation first through surveys and meetings with experts in the field, alumni and academicians before they create or change the curriculum/program and /or courses offered to students. They wanted to make sure that it will be more in line with what the industry needs with regards to the skills attained by students through these course programs. The third response which received a 87.5% response rate from interviewees confirmed that professors and/or lecturers are constantly evaluated to ensure the quality of teaching methods, advising skills and research works.

Question 3: How does the university attract and maintain high quality workforce?

This question pertains to data regarding the human resource management of the university. Expected data gathered includes strategies to attract and maintain high quality workforce. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Frequency of answers to question 3

1.	The university provides orientation for new staff and faculty in order to communicate the expectation of the university, as well as motivate them by expressing their role in its success. [7/24]
2.	The university offers free workshops and training seminars to faculty and staff for skill development. [23/24]
3.	The university offers teacher and staff exchange programmes to widen their perspective and knowledge. [7/24]
4.	The university awards promotions, scholarships, recognition and financial rewards based on work performance and/or research quality. [23/24]
5.	The university awards promotions to faculty members who can integrate the findings of their research in their teaching strategies. [3/24]
6.	The university encourages each department to conduct peer-evaluation in terms of teaching strategies and to give constructive criticism to its faculty members. [3/24]
7.	The university allows faculty members to maintain the practice of their profession aside from conducting classes (e.g. engineering faculty can still work in the private sector as engineers, professors in college of medicine still work as doctors in hospitals, etc.). [3/24]
8.	The university provides other benefits (health insurance, scholarships, etc.) to the immediate family members of the employee. [2/24]
9.	The university maintains the high standards of its lecturers through filtering – only lecturers with a doctorate degree or in the process of getting their doctorate degree, high standards of English skill, and is research active gets accepted and retained. [2/24]

10.	The university offers very good healthcare plan/benefits for employees. [4/24]
11.	The university has open communication between high management and the faculty and staff. [2/4]
12.	The university encourages its faculty and staff to pursue post-graduate studies and academic rankings for better academic preparedness. [2/4]

Although this section received a total of 12 answers, only two answers were common to the six universities. These two answers, which both received a 96% response rate, were perceived by the respondents to be very good selling points of the university in terms of competing for qualified workforce. The first answer involves trainings and workshops provided by the university, for skill development of their employees. The second answer involves rewards and incentives to employees such as recognitions, promotions, scholarship grants and financial incentives. Most of the interviewees argued that rewards given by the university motivates employees to work harder and stay with the university they are currently employed. They also stated that trainings and workshops, although initially are for the purpose of skill development of the employees, also helps the university to plan for the future with regards to maximizing the utility of talents inside.

Question 4: How does the university demonstrate their role as co-creators and custodians of knowledge in terms of research?

This question pertains to data regarding the research and development plan of the university. Expected data gathered includes the universities role in the creation of knowledge through research and its role as custodians of knowledge gained through research. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 4.

Table 4 Frequency of answers to question 4

1.	The university offers adequate funding to support its faculty in doing research. [24/24]
2.	The university houses an intellectual property center wherein it creates, protect and utilize intellectual property as well as enforce the rights of its author/originator through patents. [4/24]
3.	The university provides recognition and rewards for published researches made by the faculty. [20/24]
4.	The university supports researches which aid the community and/or the country by collaborating with other departments and outside organizations to disseminate the information either through seminars and workshops or through project creation. [24/24]
5.	The university provides funding for projects which portrays innovation in the field. [4/24]
6.	The university awards promotions and rewards to faculty members who can integrate the findings of their research in their teaching strategies. [3/24]
7.	The university houses an intellectual property center wherein it creates, protect and utilize intellectual property as well as enforce the rights of its author/originator through patents. [4/24]

Table 4 presents the responses given regarding the role of universities in the creation of knowledge through research works. Two answers received a full 100% agreement by the respondents. First, the respondents stated that the university has adequate research funds available to the faculty. The three public universities pride themselves for being recognized as research universities in Thailand. They said that the faculty is very much encouraged to pursue and focus on their expertise, but were given free reign in terms of research areas. The second 100%-response stated that the university supports research work that aids the community. They encourage their faculty to collaborate with other departments or organizations to create spin-off projects and knowledge dissemination to increase awareness of new information, business

practices and methods. The university is also motivating them through their second highest response which is the provision of rewards and incentives for published works.

Question 5: How has the university established a sustainable financial position?

This question pertains to data regarding the financial flexibility of the university. Expected data gathered includes strategies in sustaining financial position. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Frequency of answers to question 5

1.	The university employs a risk management system, and an investment analysis and planning system, to avoid unnecessary risks, control the probability and/or impact of unfortunate events, and to maximize the realization of investment opportunities. [19/24]
2.	The university aims to balance its short and long term plans in terms of finances. [2/24]
3.	The university has a financial expert (e.g. university management company) as its partner/investor which plans its finances. [4/24]

This section of the questionnaire involves the financial flexibility of the university in terms of a perceived sustainable financial position. Although almost all of the respondents stated that they were not very familiar or directly involved with the finances of the university, they said that they could relate this to the annual and interim reports that they receive or discussed during meetings. They also reiterated that every department has adequate budgets but every project which requires a substantial amount needs to go through a process or a committee to be evaluated and get approval. Some also mentioned that they have a clear audit process or a check and balance when it comes to finances.

Question 6: How will the university expand and maintain its estate over the next five years?

This question pertains to data regarding the estate management of the university. Expected data gathered includes planning estate expansion in the near future or over the next five years. It also includes how the university is maintaining its own estate and will maintain its estate in the future. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Frequency of answers to question 6

1.	The university regularly checks the satisfaction rate of users (students, staff and faculty) of university's assets. [7/24]
2.	The university has ongoing renovations of old buildings and construction of new buildings. [2/24]
3.	The university keeps an updated database of all its assets. [3/24]
4.	The university has long-term plans of increasing the number of its investments in terms of fixed assets. [24/24]
5.	The university has plans of increasing its business and commercial zones (e.g. malls/restaurants/stalls inside the campus that are paying rent). [9/24]
6.	The university effectively manages its wastelands and garbage collection in support of the university's image of being a green university. [4/24]
7.	The university continuously improve its estate through the construction of land improvements (e.g. bicycle lanes, tram lanes, e.g.) and expansion and renovation of rooms and buildings (e.g. skywalks to

	connect buildings, new building for library, new laboratories, mock rooms for special trainings, etc.). [20/24]
8.	The university has a regular maintenance schedule for all its assets. [8/24]
9.	The university keeps an updated database of all its assets. [4/24]
10.	The university keeps a master plan for flood crisis management. [2/24]

Table 6 presents the findings on entrepreneurial activities pursued by the university for the management of its estate. All of the respondents affirmed that the university they are currently employed have long term plans of increasing its investments on fixed assets. They also reiterated that continuous expansion, improvements and renovations have been on-going every year to maintain its estate. This is also for the purpose of accommodating a growing number of students, as well as improving and updating the facilities used by students, staff and faculty alike. Respondents from three universities mentioned that some of its assets are being rented out for commercial purposes. The primary purpose of this is to make those commercial establishments (convenience store, restaurants and fast food stalls, banks, etc.) easily accessible to the students, staff and faculty, while its secondary purpose is to earn extra income through rental fees.

Question 7: How will the university improve its student population growth over the next five years?

This question pertains to data regarding the student population growth of the university. Expected data gathered includes strategies, plans and projects used in improving student population growth over the next five years. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 7.

Table 7 Frequency of answers to question 7

1.	The university is planning to increase more on its 'international' aspect such as using English as the medium of teaching in certain subjects in the Thai program and offering an ASEAN Language Program in support of the AEC (ASEAN Economic Community). [8/24]
2.	The university is offering student exchange programmes to current and prospective students. [24/24]
3.	The university is offering student scholarships to current and prospective students. [8/24]
4.	The university is aiming to increase the number of students in its graduate programs (Master and Doctorate Degrees) by integrating an international aspect in their programs. [4/24]
5.	The university offers programs with broader scope in terms of job field (e.g. business management). [2/24]
6.	The university aims to raise the quality level of vocational education. [2/24]
7.	The university is aiming to increase the number of students through public relations, road shows in and around Thailand and other media advertising. [4/24]
8.	The university aims to raise the level of Quality Assurance and improve business service to motivate prospective students to enroll. [4/4]
9.	The university has overseas recruitment agencies and is utilizing several forms of advertising to reach a wide number of audiences. [4/24]

This part of the interview questionnaire gives light to the strategies being implemented by the university to attract and expand their student body. 100% of the respondents or 24 out of 24 respondents stated that the university offer student exchange programs to its current and prospective students. They even said that it is now a necessary requirement of students as more and more would like to get an

international perspective and experience. The respondents revealed that since it is now a demand of students for the universities to have connections with other educational institutions, preferably outside the country, the university has no choice but to comply and supply this demand. This in turn can be also a great advantage for universities to strengthen their connections and ties with the academic community, as well as, it will be easier to disseminate information and new knowledge from research. Three of the six universities stated that they are using advertising methods (road shows, print, commercial and online advertisements), in reaching their target market. Consequently, these universities which make use of advertising strategies are all private universities.

Question 8: How does the university demonstrate a provision of academic expertise to the needs of business development and growth?

This question pertains to data regarding the business industry collaborative efforts of the university. Expected data gathered includes university's provision of academic expertise in response to the needs of business development and growth. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 8.

Table 8 Frequency of answers to question 8

1.	The university has an intellectual database, storing original patented researches, wherein companies can have access. [8/24]
2.	The university has a research department which offers consultation and actual research for companies. [22/24]
3.	The university formed partnerships and collaborations with companies in order to communicate business practices through seminars and conferences. [4/24]
4.	The university offers seminars, workshops and trainings to various companies for the dissemination of best industry practices (e.g. HR practices, usage of IT software, etc.). [4/24]

Table 8 discusses the answers to business industry collaborative efforts which focus on the sharing of knowledge and current business practices and methods to the local industry. All six universities stated that they offer business advices and consultations, as well as industry & market research, and scientific and technological research to businesses.

Question 9: How does the university contribute to the economic development of the community in terms of job creation?

This question pertains to data regarding the economic development of the university. Expected data gathered focuses on job creation through university's strategies, action plans and projects. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 9.

Table 9 Frequency of answers to question 9

1.	The university promotes and encourages students to apply for internships and on-the-job trainings to increase their experience before they become part of the workforce. [24/24]
2.	The university provides seminars, workshops and in-house job training in order to increase the working skills of students for better job placement. [24/24]
3.	The university encourages students to create business plans and market research for local businesses and entrepreneurs in order to help the community. [16/24]

This section received a lot of answers from the respondents, while some answers overlap the answers to the next question which is about social responsibility of the university. All 24 respondents indicated that the university, especially the advisers of students, encourages the students to apply for an internship program or an on-the-job training. They argue that this experience would widen their perspective of when it comes to being a part of the workforce. It will also increase their interpersonal skills such as being a good team player working with a diverse group of people. Although some of the respondents stated that an internship course is not a requirement for the completion of a degree, it is still part of the curriculum and offered as an elective. Additionally, in order to better prepare their graduates and be employable by companies, universities deem it as a necessity to offer skill-building and improvement seminars, trainings and workshops. Even though not all of the companies stated that they encourage their students to join seminars, conferences, and workshops on creating business plans and research, most of the respondents state that they motivate students to get connected with the local industries through this. In this way, not only will the skills of students be enhanced, but also, students will get noticed by these local companies where they would most likely get employment. This is also a move of the university in order to push their graduates into getting hired by companies; simply by introducing them and letting the companies witness the skills of students through these types of projects.

Question 10: How does the university ensure the dissemination of existing best practices in the field to other universities, government agencies and stakeholders?

This question pertains to data regarding the social responsibility of the university. Expected data gathered includes strategies, action plans and projects to ensure the dissemination of existing best practices in the field to other universities, government agencies and stakeholders. A summary of results from the six universities is presented in Table 10.

Table 10 Frequency of answers to question 10

1.	The university joins and/or hosts seminars, workshops and conferences to share knowledge from published academic works and researches (sample topics: strategies and procedures in starting up a business, knowledge about health and how to improve their daily lives, farming techniques and practices, etc.). [24/24]
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The answer to the last question received 100% response rate from the respondents. They stated that seminars, workshops and conferences are the means through which they share new knowledge and be updated in their fields. Other answers in terms of fulfilling the social responsibility of the university includes outreach programs, Thai cultural immersion programs, medical and dental missions, volunteer work such as teaching kids in rural areas, etc.

The study adopted six processes in educational logistics namely: student information management, examination, flexible study path of the individual student, staff workload planning, planning and timetabling, and space management (Bergstrom & Bulter 2009). Most of the results gathered through the interviews did not match or cannot be classified by the author into any of the six educational logistics processes although she has identified the business logistic process the entrepreneurial activity can be classified into. The following table shows the classification of entrepreneurial activities into business logistic processes and educational logistic processes.

Table 11 Entrepreneurial Activities Classification

Entrepreneurial Activity	Business Process	Logistic	Educational Process	Logistic
1. The university offers study trips and company visits in and out of Thailand to expose students to different industries and experts in the field.	Packaging Utilization	&	Flexible Study Path of the Individual Student	
2. The university has an online database and an open-access journal wherein students, staff and the faculty can use for research.	Storage, Warehousing, Materials Handling	&	-	
3. The university regularly and rigidly evaluates the need to create or change curriculum through surveys and meetings with experts in the field of study, alumni and academic administrators.	Inventory		-	
4. The university regularly evaluates its lecturers and professors' performance in terms of teaching, advising, and research.	Transport		-	
5. The university hires professional experts in the field to teach courses offered.	Transport		-	
6. The university offers free workshops and training seminars to faculty and staff for skill development.	Information Control	&	-	
7. The university awards promotions, scholarships, recognition and financial rewards based on work performance and/or research quality.	Information Control	&	-	
8. The university offers adequate funding to support its faculty in doing research.	Information Control	&	-	
9. The university provides recognition and rewards for published researches made by the faculty.	Information Control	&	-	
10. The university supports researches which aid the community and/or the country by collaborating with other departments and outside organizations to disseminate the information either through seminars and workshops or through project creation.	Information Control	&	-	
11. The university employs a risk management system, and an investment analysis and planning system, to avoid unnecessary risks, control the probability and/or impact of unfortunate events, and to maximize the realization of investment opportunities.	Information Control	&	-	
12. The university has long-term plans of increasing the number of its investments in terms of fixed assets.	Storage, Warehousing, Materials Handling	&	Space Management	
13. The university continuously improve its estate through the construction of land improvements (e.g. bicycle lanes, tram lanes, e.g.) and expansion and renovation of rooms and buildings (e.g. skywalks to connect buildings, new building for library, new laboratories, mock rooms for special trainings, etc.).	Storage, Warehousing, Materials Handling	&	Space Management	
14. The university is offering student exchange programmes to current and prospective students.	Packaging Utilization	&	Flexible Study Path of the Individual Student	
15. The university has a research department which offers consultation and actual research for companies.	Transport		-	
16. The university promotes and encourages students to apply for internships and on-the-job trainings to increase their experience before they become part of the workforce.	Transport		-	
17. The university provides seminars, workshops and in-house job training in order to increase the working skills of students for better job placement.	Transport		-	
18. The university encourages students to create business	Transport		-	

plans and market research for local businesses and entrepreneurs in order to help the community.		
19. The university joins and/or hosts seminars, workshops and conferences to share knowledge from published academic works and researches (sample topics: strategies and procedures in starting up a business, knowledge about health and how to improve their daily lives, farming techniques and practices, etc.).	Transport	-

IV. Conclusion

This study has explored and determined entrepreneurial activities and strategies which universities have used in operating different processes of educational logistics in order to develop an approach in achieving their target market therefore strengthening their competitive advantage. Furthermore, this study contributes to the existing knowledge on entrepreneurial activities implemented by Thai universities today. The study revealed that most of the entrepreneurial activities stated by the respondents, through the use of structured interviews, cannot be categorized under the educational logistics processes adopted by the author, although it has been classified under an appropriate business logistic process. This revealed that universities in Thailand are adopting business strategies in order to meet the demands of the industry. Having provided empirical information regarding the activities of universities perceived as innovative and creative, the author further recommends a study on the impact of these activities on the entrepreneurial success of the university in terms of stakeholders' perspective (lecturers and staff, students and the local companies).

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Interactions between Individual Mind and Group Mind during Computer-based Concept Mapping

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Abstract

Concept maps evolve with practice. The question is how each mapping experience influences the performance of the next one. This study investigates how people's mental representation constructed from one concept mapping activity (e.g., individual mapping or collaborative mapping) influence the construction of mental representation in another mapping activity. The results show that individual mapping and collaborative mapping induce different impacts on the engagement and outcome of the subsequent mapping activity. It is important to understand how different combinations of mapping activities may help to prepare learners for future learning.

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Introduction

Concept mapping is a process of creating a two dimensional network of propositions to reveal one's conceptualization of a certain concept, or mental representations of the world. This mapping process has been shown to promote reflection on thought process, and to induce in-depth examination and integration of ideas (Kealy, 2001). It is generally considered a difficult task, and the performance of concept mapping often improves with practice. However, what is not clear is how would practice change people's mental representations and whether practice with different mapping activities (i.e., individual and collaborative mapping) would promote improvement more effectively than practice with the same one.

Research shows that instead of carrying around a set of premeditated or prepared mental representations in mind waiting to be presented, people construct mental representations in responding to the demand of circumstances. In other words, cognitive activity is activated, and shaped, by perturbations in the surroundings. The formation of mental representation is thus a result of interplay between prior knowledge and contextual stimuli (Winn, 2004). From this point of view, collaborative concept mapping (hereafter referred to as CCM) can provide more enriched stimuli to trigger learning than individual concept mapping (hereafter referred to as ICM), but too much perturbation can also lead to chaos. Understanding the interplay between individual mental representation and group mental representation is the key to help learners to benefit the most from concept mapping activity. In this study, we investigate how different scenarios of concept mapping influence the formation of concept maps. In specific, how high school students construct concept maps for a history lesson differently when they do it alone than when they do it collaboratively in groups. But first, we need to understand how the literature defines "difference" in concept maps.

Formations of concept maps

According to Lambiotte, Dansereau, Cross, & Reynolds, (1989), a concept map is essentially composed of three types of knowledge prototype: descriptive hierarchies, logic and action chains, and concept clusters. In addition, Hay and Kinchin's (2006) also proposed three conceptual typologies; i.e., spoke, chain, and net. While knowledge prototypes constitute the schematic building blocks for the formation of typologies, typologies of concept maps reveal varieties in the cognitive operations underlying the process of concept mapping. First, although descriptive hierarchies and concept clusters present different formations (i.e., the former features a top-down tree-like structure, whereas the latter features a center-to-periphery structure), they both address categorization and both branch out from the most general to the most specific—a structure manifests the spoke typology. According to Hay and Kinchin, when people create concept maps featuring the spoke typology, they often have concept-related knowledge but probably cannot fully explain the why and the how questions associated with it. Second, a logic and action chain presents a causal relation between nodes. A collection of logic and action chains can build up to a concept map featuring either the chain or the net typology. The chain typology has all the nodes lined up in one chain-like sequence. People who create chain-type concept maps have either problematic comprehension of the content, inadequate ability to restructuring the concepts, or inclination to rush through the mapping process. Without a firm grip on the logic and the organization of the content, chain-type thinking is prone to conceptual collapse. In contrast, the net typology, driven by logic and causal relations, requires mapmakers to reflect on and analyze the construct of the concept. It seeks diversified but inter-connected routes of thought to create

multifaceted, yet integrated, characterization of the concept. People who create net-typed concept maps show that they can think flexibly, innovatively, and systematically.

Collaborative concept mapping

As the socioconstructivist paradigm becomes one of the major thrusts in education today, whether, and if so how, collaborative learning can enhance knowledge construction and learning performance is a major concern to both educational researchers and practitioners. In this regard, CCM shows great potential, albeit still being considerably understudied (Gao, et al., 2007). When a group of people collaboratively create a concept map, they do not simply retrieve whatever is on their mind about the concept and then put it together. What they put forth on the map is actually contingent upon what others do to the map. The constant changing of the map presents continual perturbation to individual group member's otherwise blinkered cognitive operation. This process of collaboration not only promotes the activation of individuals' prior knowledge, but arranging nodes and links to other members' acceptance also requires group members to communicate their tacit understandings of what is being displayed on the map with each other (Gao, et al.).

In addition to the finding that CCM can lead to significant improvement in knowledge gain, and more effective knowledge construction, many studies also found that CCM can create stronger positive impact on learning than ICM. First of all, research shows that collaborative maps can represent the target concept with better quality than individual maps. Moreover, CCM activities are associated with stronger improvement in learning (measured by post-mapping achievement test, problem solving test, or comprehension test) than ICM activities, especially when the collaboration involves students creating, rather than completing, a concept map together in groups. Regarding the differential effect of varied contexts on performance of concept mapping, most of the studies comparing face-to-face collaboration with computer-mediated collaboration found no significant differences in post-mapping tests on learning outcome or mode of communication (Basque, 2004)

However, several negative effects of CCM are also reported in the literature. For example, research shows that CCM did not improve students' self-efficacy or attitude toward the learning task. In some cases, once incorrect notions were introduced, they were often unchallenged during the map creating process and eventually stayed in students' mind. Moreover, interactions among group members rarely focus on the most essential part of knowledge construction; that is, the creation and the arrangement of nodes and links, possibly because students normally pay little attention to each other's comments. Solutions to mitigate the negative effects and thus to generate better knowledge construction from CCM include providing scaffolding and support, combining concept mapping activities with other instructional strategies, and engaging map makers in pre-mapping preparation, for example, constructing propositions individually before collaboration begins (Cartre, 1998).

Method

This is a quasi experimental study conducted in a high school located in the central area of Taiwan with participation of one hundred and twenty five 7th grade students. These students were streamed into four classes of equal learning capacity on the basis of the result of an academic competency test taken in advance of the semester; therefore, no pre-study disparity between these four classes was expected. Participants spent an hour per week for five weeks on this experiment to learn how to use computer software (Cmap Tool) to create concept

maps for history content individually and collaboratively in groups. In the first week, the teacher (who taught all of the four classes) explained the idea of concept mapping and the use of Cmap Tool. In the following three weeks, the teacher explained and demonstrated the strategies of creating concept maps out of paragraphs from a history textbook. The lessons included how to identify key concepts and relations, how to arrange them into knowledge prototypes, and how to present the structure of the content in different typologies with branches and cross-links. The participants also practiced concept mapping with various history concepts. In the fifth week, the participants constructed two concept maps consecutively, and both times for the same history concept (i.e., the 228 incident). The four classes were randomly assigned to one of the following four mapping conditions: (A) ICM first, then CCM; (B) CCM first, then ICM; (C) ICM first, then ICM again; and (D) CCM first, then CCM again. Each ICM or CCM session lasted 30 minutes. The participants were instructed to discuss with their group members in the Cmap Tool's online chat room during CCM. All the actions in CCM along with the content of online chatting were screen recorded and then content analyzed. After the completion of the second concept mapping activity, the participants filled out a questionnaire which was translated and adapted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (i.e., MSLQ) by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie (1991). In order to delve into participants' thinking process, we also conducted interviews with participants by groups after they finished the questionnaire.

Tentative Findings

Consistent with Cartre's (1998) findings, the collaborative maps in group A demonstrated better quality, which is represented by more net and less chain typology, than those in group B. During collaborative mapping, the participants in group A tested out their methods of representing the concept, which they developed during ICM, and pressed for inclusion of their ideas in the final outcome. As a result, CCM often involves breaking the boundaries of ICM and accommodating divergent presentations of the concept. In a few cases, even when all of the individual maps featured nothing but chain typology, the ensuing collaborative maps somehow showed a great deal of spoke or net typology. On the other hand, during CCM in group B, the process of individuals' constructing personal presentation for the concept was intertwined with the process of others'. The participants needed to figure out how to present their ideas, how others presented their ideas, and how to integrate different ideas at the same time. The chat room communication primarily focused on mapping-irrelevant matters, so it provided little help. As a result, it was difficult for both the individuals and the group to form a coherent conceptualization of the concept. Most collaborative maps in group B showed greater problems of incompleteness than its counterpart in group A and individual maps in group B.

On the other hand, comparing individual maps in group A with group B showed that having a chance to collaborate on concept mapping in advance did not improve the quality of subsequent individual maps. In fact, there is a clear consistency of typological presentation between the collaborative maps and the individual maps that followed in group B. This consistency indicates that, from the process of collaboration, there emerged a collective supposition regarding how to represent the concept, which in turn served as a schema, or a structural reference, that shaped the way individuals created their own concept maps later on. Unfortunately, as mentioned earlier, unprejudiced collaboration tended to be poorly constructed. Therefore, collaborative mapping provided little, if not misguided, impact on individual mapping. No significant difference in the quality of individual maps between group A and B was found.

The factor analyses followed by the cluster analyses on the data collected from the MSLQ show that different mapping sequences were associated with different learning behaviors. For example, the participants in group A considered themselves having significantly greater contribution to the group outcomes than those in group B. This result suggests that preparation before CCM help to promote mapmakers' self-efficacy during CCM.

The differences found between group A and B, and between the first and the second mapping activities within group A and group B, reveal the change of mental representation caused by different mapping scenarios. Investigation on the change of mental representation resulted from repeating the same mapping activity would provide further insights into the effect of practice on the quality of concept maps. We have collected the data from group C and group D, and we are currently working on coding the data for further analyses. The findings of this study not only can contribute to the discussion of the effect of practice and collaborative learning, but also can provide helpful insight into the discussion of "preparation for future learning" and "learning to learn."

The logo for the International Association for Frontiers in Education Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular arc that starts from the bottom left and curves towards the right. A smaller, light red circular arc is positioned above the "iafor" text, partially overlapping the blue arc.

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*Supporting Transition into Higher Education. The Example of Lost in Transition
Europe Project – Polish Case*

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Abstract

In the paper some of the preliminary findings from the European funded project, within the Programme *ERASMUS Multilateral Project priority: Social dimension of higher education*, called *Lost in Transition Europe Project*, LiTE project, are presented. The findings are obtained from the Polish part of LiTE project.

The paper begins with a particular reference to the European Higher Education and its challenges in the context of European Union higher education policy. Secondly, the attention is paid to the system of higher education in Poland. Thirdly, the LiTE project and its rationale, its aims and objectives are presented. Then, some findings from project research are presented. Special attention is paid to the main existing strategies which support the transition phase, and the first year of study in Poland. Lastly, some conclusions are outlined.

Introduction

In the paper some of the preliminary findings from the European funded project, within the Programme *ERASMUS Multilateral Project priority: Social dimension of higher education*, called *Lost in Transition Europe Project*, LiTE project, are presented. The findings are obtained from the Polish part of LiTE project. The aims of this joint European two-year project (2011-2013) have been to analyse and compare existing strategies and resources which support the transition phase and the first year of study, and to develop models for implementation and an interactive student resource, along with advice and guidance materials for staff in four countries: Bulgaria, Poland, Portugal and United Kingdom (particularly England).

In order to present the LiTE project, in particular the project rationale, some background to the project, and its aims and objectives, the paper begins with a particular reference to the European Higher Education and its challenges in the context of European Union higher education policy. Secondly, the attention is paid to the system of higher education in Poland. A brief description of this system gives a base for setting the context of two project following studies: (i) a comparative study that examined the similarities and differences between each project country's strategies and resources on supporting access to higher education, and (ii) a study on the supportive strategies and models for implementation that take into account the themes identified in the comparative study. Thirdly, on the basis of the preliminary findings from the study on the supportive strategies and models for implementation, the main existing strategies on a national level which support the transition phase, and the first year of study in Poland are described. Lastly, some conclusions are outlined.

European Higher Education and its Challenges in the context of EU higher education policy

The roots of the current European higher education policy lie in a broader, intergovernmental European political context: the Bologna Process. In June 1999, 29 European ministers of education from signatory states signed the Bologna Declaration (1999) to create the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), to promote mobility and employability in Europe, and to increase the compatibility and comparability of European higher education systems. Since the Bologna conference, the process of changes within European HE has accelerated. Follow-up conferences were held in Prague (2001), Berlin (2003), Bergen (2005), London (2007), Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve (2009), Vienna and Budapest (2010), and Bucharest (2012). The "Bologna ministers" (an expanding group of 47 European countries in 2013) added new actions on: lifelong learning, common framework of qualifications, coherent quality assurance and accreditation mechanism, and on an additional focus on the doctorate level (third cycle) of the Bologna Process. In 2009, during the meeting of the Ministers responsible for HE in different state members in Leuven, a discussion on the next ten years of the Bologna Process was held. The "Bologna ministers" established the priorities for European HE until 2020. The importance of lifelong

learning, widening access to HE and mobility were underlined (Leuven Communiqué, 2009).

The Ministerial Anniversary conference, held in Vienna in March 2010, and a report *Progress towards the common European objectives in education and training. indicators and benchmarks 2010/2011* (European Union, 2011) examining performance and progress under the European Union's Education and Training 2010 Work Programme found that despite a general improvement in education and training the majority of benchmarks set for 2010 had not been fully implemented. In the Vienna/Budapest Communiqué of March 2010, Ministers committed to the full and proper implementation, in close cooperation with HEIs, staff, students and other stakeholders, of the agreed objectives of the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué of April 2009. It also highlighted that universities, and tertiary level education more widely, should become more open and relevant to the needs of the labour market and society at large.

The new *Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training* (known as ET 2020), builds on its predecessor, the *Education and Training 2010* (ET 2010) work programme, adopted by the Council in May 2009, provides common strategic objectives for the Member States, including a set of principles for achieving these objectives, as well as common working methods with priority areas for each periodic work cycle. The main aim of the ET 2020 framework is to support Member States in further developing their educational and training systems. These systems should better provide the means for all citizens to realise their potentials, as well as ensure sustainable economic prosperity and employability. The framework takes into consideration the whole spectrum of education and training systems from a lifelong learning perspective, covering all levels and contexts (including non-formal and informal learning). The Council conclusions of 12 May 2009 on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training set out four strategic objectives for the framework: (i) making lifelong learning and mobility a reality; (ii) improving the quality and efficiency of education and training; (iii) promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship; (iv) enhancing creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship, at all levels of education and training. In order to measure progress achieved on the four strategic objectives for the framework ET 2020, the objectives are accompanied by indicators and European benchmarks.

The benchmarks agreed under ET 2020 highlight a number of priorities that the LiTE project investigates and addresses. These include the need to reduce drop out, raise participation at tertiary level and increase adult participation in lifelong learning. In this context, it is worth stressing that, *participation rates at tertiary level education* amongst EU member states vary widely. In 2009 just under one third (32.3%) of the population aged 30-34 had a tertiary education. In 2010 the proportion of European mature students (25-34 years old) has just been 33.6% compared with USA 41% and Japan with 56%. In this respect, best performing countries in the EU are: Ireland 49.6%, Denmark 47.0% and Luxembourg 46.1%. The Europe 2020 Strategy has established the headline target that 40% of 30-34 year olds should have tertiary education qualifications by 2020. The proportion of European adults (25-64 years old)

with a tertiary level education is just 24% compared with both the US and Japan with 40%. Another issue is connected with *lifelong learning trend*. As envisaged in EU 2020, the role of education and training in a lifelong learning context is crucial. Lifelong learning is perceived as a critical factor for competitiveness, employability, economic prosperity, social inclusion, active citizenship and the personal fulfillment of people living and working in the knowledge-based economy. Originally established in 2003, it now sets the objective that by 2020 15% of adults (aged 25-64) should participate in lifelong learning.

There are numerous projects and national strategies attempting to address the above-mentioned imbalances by focusing on making studying and working in these areas more to attractive to underrepresented groups. However, there is less work focusing on the more general, and fundamental, issues surrounding transition. In the HE terms the role of transition into and through the first year is crucial for increasing access reducing withdrawal and improving student success. Lost in Transition Europe project (LiTE project), was prepared by identifying key issues from the EU 2020 and ET 2020 strategic frameworks that were of particular relevance to the consortium members. The issues of the reduction of drop out and increasing participation in tertiary level education, and the role of transition from compulsory to tertiary and HE, especially for non-traditional and under-represented groups, and the role of transition through the first year of study at HEIs were selected over others due to their increased importance highlighted at national level and now, with the new 2020 strategic frameworks, as critical to Europe's successful promotion of lifelong learning.

Setting the context – Polish case

Poland is undergoing social, economic, and political change because of and in response to global economic competition, its membership in the EU, migration and changing family structure, an ageing population and growing social programme costs, among other reasons. Following the downfall of the socialist regimes in 1989, system transformations have taken place primarily in the political, social economic and cultural areas. The socio-economic and political changes in Poland allowed HEIs to return to the tradition of academic autonomy.

Higher education is among the most rapidly developing areas of social life in Poland. New political legislation became the basis for changes in HE in Poland. According to the new Law on Higher Education of 27 July 2005 and the Act of 14 March 2003 on Academic Degrees and Academic Title and Academic Degrees in Art and Academic Title in Art, the Higher Education Institutions in Poland are divided into state (*public*) and private (*non-public*) institutions. There are two main categories of HEIs: *university-type* and *non-university institutions*. In the university-type HEIs, at least one unit is authorised to confer the academic degree of Doctor (*PhD*), i.e. offers at least one doctoral programme. The HEIs run full-time, extramural, evening and external courses. The full-time courses are defined as the basic type of studies. Poland conforms to the guidelines from the Bologna Process in European higher education. The degree system based on the three-cycle structure has been successfully

implemented together with the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS). The European standard in HE makes it easier for students to obtain recognition of their qualifications in other countries.

Poland holds fourth place in Europe (after the United Kingdom, Germany and France) in terms of the number of people enrolled in HE. The total student population at over 450 HEIs numbers almost 2 million. Each year almost half a million young people begin their education at universities and colleges. Polish universities offer more than 200 high quality study programmes as an integral part of the EHEA. Most schools offer their courses also in foreign languages. In view of the unquestionable success, i.e. a nearly fivefold increase in the number of students during the last twenty years, improving the quality of programmes and the efficiency of the HE system has become a priority.

Currently Polish HE is facing up different challenges. Poland is implementing the recommendations of the Conference of Ministers of the countries-signatories to the Bologna Declaration. Moreover, the work has been undertaken to bring degree programme requirements closer to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Regarding European Central Policy on HE, The Ministry of Science and Higher Education in Poland in its educational policy underlines the importance of developing human capital as Poland's and Europe's main asset and as a crucial element of the Lisbon strategy. The Ministry called for the implementation of lifelong learning as a sine qua non to achieve the Lisbon objectives. Polish Universities need to improve their performance, to modernise themselves, to become more accessible and competitive and to play their part in the creation of the knowledge-based society, envisaged under the Lisbon strategy. This crucial sector of the economy and of society needs in-depth restructuring and modernisation if Poland is not to lose out in competition, through shortcomings in education, research and innovation.

Lost in Transition Europe Project: aims and objectives

LiTE project aims to understand current national strategies which support the transition from non-compulsory or mature learners to HE and build on, or develop new, strategies and resources. The project focuses predominantly on increasing access to and improving social inclusion in HE by contributing towards the major objectives of widening participation and raising of completion rates for students from underrepresented groups and non-traditional learners. The main activities of the project are: (i) analysis and comparison of existing strategies and resources which support the transition phase and first year of study; (ii) development of models for implementation and an interactive student resource, along with advice and guidance materials for staff.

The project results are following:

- A research report from each partner providing a detailed analysis of their country's existing transition to HE strategies and resources for non-

compulsory or mature learners and other underrepresented groups. This includes the provision of information, advice and guidance and academic/study skills support from pre-entry through to the first year. There will be a particular focus on the transition of those undertaking vocational education and training and under-represented groups into Science and Technology subjects. The report will also include details of the impact and success of each of these strategies and resources, and the identification of potential gaps or inadequate and/or unsuccessful provision.

- A comparative study that examines the similarities and differences between each country's strategies and resources and the identification of common themes and successes. This, along with the first set of reports, will be used to inform the development of new supportive strategies and/or resources specific to each partner country's circumstances.
- Supportive strategies and models for implementation that take into account the themes identified above, adaptation for each consortium partner and then guidance on implementation for other EU member states.
- Interactive resource for students, supporting the transition journey from pre-entry through to first year of HE. This will be supported by advice and guidance materials for staff using the resource.

Increasing participation in tertiary level education is seen as a key strategic goal for Europe in 2020. The strategic approach to dissemination, exploitation and active involvement of key stakeholders throughout the life of the project, will ensure a greater impact of the result at both national and European level. By undertaking LiTE project, the project consortium believes that a significant contribution can be made to the EU2020 benchmarks. There is ample research that points to the fact that learners across educational phases (from compulsory education to post-16, for example, or from post-16 into HE) drop out rather than progress. These students are, in fact, being lost in transition. It is based on this evidence, and the findings of research informing the Europe 2020 strategy, that this project focuses on skills that counteract a propensity to non-progress. This project builds on previous findings and identified targets which will form a theoretical framework for positioning the issues under investigation and will target those aspects (such as the development of skills for transition) which have not been explored in detail and are becoming increasingly important, considering the social, economic and demographic changes and challenges facing the EU.

Lost in Transition Europe Project: some findings from a comparative report

A report "Supporting access to higher education, with particular reference to mature students", which has been yet developed under the framework of the project, focuses on the issue of mature entry to HE, and examines the strategies and approaches which exist to support this particular group of learners into and through their university experience in four countries, participated in the LiTE project.

On the basis of the research report from each partner, providing a detailed analysis of their country's existing transition to HE strategies and resources for non-compulsory or mature learners and other underrepresented groups, it is worth mentioning that as far as definition of mature students is concerned, the study within the project revealed no unified definition of the term mature student, and as such, there is a degree of definitional fluidity between the settings. The UK regulations define mature students as those who become undergraduate students after the age of 21. In Portugal these are those who are 23 years old, still did not finish their secondary education, but wish to enrol at university. Poland recognise HEI students who are over 25 as mature students. Bulgaria defines a group of students-young parents who in the majority of cases correspond with the British and Portuguese mature students. In Bulgaria mature students belong to a category of HE students which is defined as students of active working age (25-64 years of age).

The report showed mature students as an under-represented category of HE learners have received variable amounts of policy attention between different countries. The insufficient attention paid to the mature learners, especially in Bulgaria and Poland, can be explained in terms of desires to improve the participation of other groups identified as more pressing social priorities. For instance, Bulgaria concentrated on increasing Romani people participation in education, and Poland focussed on education of rural areas, which are underrepresented at HEIs. The UK and Portugal determined the areas of lifelong learning and higher participation patterns as most significant for mature learners.

For analysing factors which inhibit and facilitate the participation of mature students in HE a tri-partite model, which includes external influences, specific factors relating to the courses and measures in place aimed at supporting mature student transitions and individual variables relating to the students' circumstances, attitudes and disposition has been used. Collecting data on individual student variables has been beyond the scope of the presented study. The comparative study focuses on an analysis of the first two sets of influences. Regarding external and course-specific factors influencing mature learners' participation in HE, the findings, particularly, show that one can identify:

- A lack of a national strategic focus on supporting and promoting mature student entry to HE (Poland, Bulgaria).
- An inflexible institutional entry requirements based on selection through special examinations and/or secondary school diplomas (Portugal, Poland, Bulgaria).
- A lack of formally recognised national schemes for recognising and accrediting prior experiential learning, i.e. learning gained through professional experience and on-the-job training (Poland, Bulgaria).
- A potential financial deterrents related to tuition fees and loan arrangements (England, in particular).

- A lack of specific strategies to support mature students with the transition challenges – personal, social, academic and institutional challenges at the institutional level (Bulgaria, Poland, Portugal and the UK).

The report revealed a number of strategies employed to encourage adults into HE in Bulgaria, England, Poland and Portugal. On the basis of report one can state that there is the growing importance attached generally to student retention in HE in the four countries, which participate in the LiTE project. The retention of mature students constitutes an additional challenge, given the factors identified in the literature that may lead to adults deciding to end their studies prematurely.

Supporting transition to higher education in Poland: strategies on the national level

In order to minimize the barriers in access to HE and make Polish HEIs more attractive as places of learning within the European Union, the following strategic government policy goals were formulated: (i) increasing the accessibility of HE, particularly for less affluent people, (ii) ensuring better development conditions in Poland for the most gifted students, (iii) making education process more international, and (iv) empowering undergraduate, graduate and doctoral students and the bodies that represent them.

To achieve these goals, the reform of HE introduces many changes that will make studies both more effective and more student-friendly. Regarding the first above-mentioned goal – increasing the accessibility of HE, particularly for less affluent people, a set of strategies has been developed and some changes to educational reality of HE have been implemented. The strategies have been formulated as follows:

1. *Effective assistance for students*
 - More places at free-of-charge studies
 - New student loans
 - More need-based grants
 - No charges for exams
 - Transport discount and other privileges
2. *More rights for students*
 - Legal security for students
 - Professors for students
 - Obligatory evaluation of academic teachers by students
3. *New possibilities*
 - Work after studies. Graduate Rights Ombudsman
 - Flexible studies

These strategies with the guidelines of their implementation are presented in the first section of this report. Here, these strategies are described in more details.

Polish authorities ensure effective assistance for students by implementing a series of solutions in all the five above-mentioned areas. Firstly, some changes in regulations

are being introduced to assure *more places at free-of-charge studies*. At present, in Poland many students choose to study more than one faculty simultaneously, taking advantage of the fact that full-time courses remain free of charge. However, few of them fully use the possibilities offered by studying a few specialisations. To avoid blocking places for others, the reform is introducing new rules of access to studies at HEIs. According to these rules, each student has the right to begin studies at another specialisation. The right to free-of-charge studies at more than one specialisation is granted to students with the best grades at the other specialisation (criteria for obtaining the Rector's grant), which guarantees that not only will students complete the additional studies commenced at the cost of the state but they will take the full advantage of the knowledge gained. This regulation introduces a model applied at the stage of recruitment of candidates for studies – only those with the best results of the Matura exam study free of charge (presently it is about 40% of the total of 2 million students). Thankfully to this, students from environments where so far it has been necessary to choose paid studies or to resign from studying can gain broader access to free-of-charge full-time studies. As we can see, the accessibility of free-of-charge programmes is improved, particularly to those students from communities with lower cultural capital.

Secondly, student loans are one of the solutions that makes studying at HEIs also possible for those who have a difficult financial situation. To make studying possible for everyone, regardless of their financial situation, a new system of guarantees, ensuring *new student loans*, has been introduced in Poland. Student loans has become available also to those who before were unable to provide the bank with the required security for the loan. In the case of students in a particularly difficult family or financial situation the state guarantees even 100% of the loaned amount.

Thirdly, *more need-based grants* give students greater opportunities to acquire HE, regardless of their financial or family situation or their place of residence. In Poland, so far half of the money given to HEIs from state budget for material support for students was used for need-based grants and half for scholarships. Such a division did not prove effective and it has been criticised by international organisations, such as the World Bank and the OECD. In the past, scholarships were given to students even with average grades. Such a scholarship did not function as an motivation for achieving a really good academic results. The changes introduced by the reform increases the significance of need-based grants – they are available to much more people and the monthly amount is higher. According to the new rules, 60% of the money from the donations is devoted to need-based grants and 40% – to Rector's scholarship for the best students. Additionally, the income thresholds per family member that are considered for need-based grants has been raised by 30% to provide broader access to these grants. All these changes lead to situation in which a difficult financial situation should not be an obstacle to access to studies. The new solutions make it possible for a higher number of undergraduate, graduate and doctoral students with low incomes to obtain maintenance grants without increasing the amount of funding from the state budget.

Fourthly, in the last 20 years charges for exams, retakes or evaluation of dissertations often took students by surprise during studies. The higher education reform eliminates these charges in public (state) and non-public (private) HEIs, clearly establishing a catalogue of free-of-charge educational services the HEIs must provide, and at the same time implementing *no-charge-for-exams* policy. Therefore, all the exams (retakes, exams before a board, graduation exams), entries for another semester and year of studies, supplements to diplomas, submission and evaluation of dissertation, issuing of a job training log – they are free of charge.

Lastly, in 2011 a 51% discount for train and bus travel was introduced for students and in 2012 it included doctoral students. A student is entitled to public transport discounts and other privileges, such as access to libraries or membership in student organisations to 31 October of the year of graduation.

The second set of actions endeavours to grant more rights for students in three areas, the first of which is providing *legal security for students*. The reform of HE introduces obligatory civil-law contracts entered into, by and between a student and their school – the contract determines the rights and responsibilities of the parties. The contracts protect students in all the cases where the school fails to perform its obligations or violates the rules set forth in the contract, especially as regards additional charges. The new regulations make it easier for a student to seek demand their rights in court.

One of the most important objectives of the new HE reform is to improve the staff situation at HEIs, thus making lecturers more available and approachable for students. The lecturers' work should be organised in such a way as to make sure they can devote enough time for each student. The reform limits the phenomenon of multi-employment. According to the new rules an academic teacher is able to have only two permanent jobs. Scientific employees applying for their second job must obtain the consent of the Rector, who has to make sure that students and the quality of the research in progress will not suffer because of that.

Finally, new regulations strongly emphasise *obligatory evaluation of the academic staff by students*. Employees are evaluated at least once every two years and opinions of students and doctoral students (done after a series of classes) are one of the most important criteria. The reform specifies that a negative periodic (taking place every two years) evaluation may be a basis for dismissal of a lecturer and two consecutive negative evaluations force the school authorities to terminate the employment relationship with a given person. The evaluation system will help ensure the highest level of classes and research. This solution, together with two above-mentioned solutions, can lead to improve the quality of HEIs, which is essential especially when the raise participation at tertiary level and increase adult participation in lifelong learning is concerned.

The third area of the government strategies concerns creating new possibilities of finding *work after studies*. In Poland many of them were unable to find a suitable job even for years. To alleviate this situation, HEIs are obligated to monitor the careers of their graduates, e.g. via Career Services. To give their students the best chances at a satisfactory job, HEIs are obligated to modernise the curricula and to adapt them to the challenges of the labour market. The reform also appoints a *Graduate Rights Ombudsman*, whose task is to identify the barriers hindering professional start. The greater guarantee of finding the job after studies can encourage individuals from vulnerable groups to become a student.

Moreover, due to rapid economic changes, loss of significance of some professions and simultaneous emergence of others, as well as necessity to act combining various fields of knowledge, HEIs are obliged to offer more *flexible studies*, i.e. to adapt their study offer to market needs and civilisation challenges. By introducing the National Qualifications Framework, the reform gives HEIs freedom in creating new faculties and curricula that integrate knowledge from various fields and give students more flexible choices of their future career paths. It gives them possibility of creating more open systems towards the recognition of learning outcomes acquired outside formal learning contexts as an adjustment likely to enhance the participation in HE.

Conclusions

In this paper some of the preliminary findings from from the Polish part of *Lost in Transition Europe Project* have been presented. The strategies proposed by Polish government for making HEIs more attractive as places of learning and particularly increasing the accessibility of HE, contribute to lowering inequalities in access to HE. Regarding the presented findings, one can conclude that changes in the higher education policy in Poland over the past few years have placed an increasing emphasis on minimizing the barriers in access to HE. These changes, on the one hand, has been underpinned by the need to provide equal opportunity for education, which goes with the EU higher education policy, and on the other hand, has been driven by the need to widen the participation in HE.

On the basis of presented findings, it is worth mentioning that in order to encourage adults into HE in Poland it seems not enough to minimize the barriers in access to HE by using the specific strategies at a national level (presented in the paper), but major attention should be paid to maximizing student success. Therefore, the focus should be not only on ensuring fair access to Polish universities and on achieving greater participation from disadvantaged groups, but it should be also on transition into HE and through the first year of study. In terms of HE, the role of transition is crucial for increasing access and for improving retention and success. One of the most important point in indexing student success is that a focus on student success implies more clearly the need to give attention to the way in which an institution can help to facilitate it. Success is more important for students than some may recognize at the time when they are going through a process of applying to enter HE (see: Yorke & Longden, 2004, p. 7) and during their first year of study (Salter, 2002). The first year of study is a critical stage for both student retention and student learning (Gorard *et al.*

2006; Harvey *et al.* 2006). Points of transition from compulsory to HE sometimes become exit points; this is particularly true for non-traditional and under-represented groups. A substantive first-year experience program not only helps students survive the transition to college but it also provides a foundational framework and meaningful context that undergirds students' transition through college and maximizes the impact of the whole college experience (Aynsley & Jacklin 2009; Tinto, 1993; Yorke, 2000).

The logo for the International Association for Frontiers in Education (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs. The upper arc is light red and the lower arc is light blue, creating a stylized, abstract frame around the text.

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Influence of a Tempus Project DOIT on University Research and Development

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Introduction

There are challenges involved in implementing any international program for curriculum reform in higher educational institutions (HEI) since there are different stages connected to this process. The stages of curriculum reform include defining the areas of reform, designing the curriculum, leveraging it within the participating institutions, and receiving the top-down acceptance of the reform. There are also several processes involved in the stage of implementing the curriculum, which includes recruiting and training of the faculty, the actual teaching, and accessing the impact or learning outcomes of the curriculum on the students.

This research relates to the design, development and institutional acceptance of a program for curriculum reform aimed to promote multicultural education and cultural diversity in Georgian HEIs. It will review the literature on the processes that support and hinder curriculum reform. Following the literature review, a case study is then analyzed that examines the processes and direction of curriculum reform for multicultural education that is being implemented for these stages in one Georgian HEI.

Theoretical Background

Researchers have analyzed processes that contribute and hinder the success of international projects relating to curriculum reform. Most researchers have emphasized the importance of a shared vision among key stakeholders of the partnership (Aaltonen et al. 2008; Eskerod & Jepsen 2013; and Lavagnon et al. 2010). Fullan (2001) further states that it is vital to the long-term success of change that this shared vision has a common moral purpose and leadership that is fully committed. Research has also shown that when the key stakeholders and team are not committed to the program's vision that these programs have not succeeded (Lim & Zain 1999). Pinto & Slevin (1988), and more recently Diallo & Thuillier (2004) and Lavagnon et al. (2012), also assert that the

involvement of key stakeholders should be through all stages: conceptualization, development, implementation, assessment of impact, and sustainability.

The inclusion of faculty in the process of implementing curriculum change in universities has also been highlighted to be important in numerous studies (e.g., Sng 2008; Rowley et al. 1997, and Eckel 1999). Penuel (2007) adds that for successful curriculum reform to occur, there needs to be a structure of ongoing support and training of the faculty.

In their research on Australian curriculum reform programs, DeHarpe and Radloff (2003) list a series of stages that are central for success: sharing of the vision of the program with the faculty and enabling their feedback, and active involvement by key stakeholders. They also emphasize the importance of training and continued support of the staff. They propose that ongoing communication to assess goals, progress, and outcomes are vital for the success of the program.

Briere and Proulx (2013) maintain that a collaborative and inclusive work structure for the planning stages combined with the commitment of the key stakeholders in the institutions have a positive impact on the success of the program beyond the conceptualization stage. Moreover they assert that a key factor for success of curriculum reform programs includes competent management and communication skills of the project leader.

Sofer (2011) discusses in detail the importance of the leadership and communication among the partners in implementing international initiatives based on curriculum reform and stresses the importance of:

Leaders who are committed to the concept...and make decisions based on what is best for the program as a whole; leaders who provide clear instructions for work and establish reasonable but exact deadlines; leaders who are visible and available to answer questions efficiently, quickly and through a variety of channels...and the establishment of a communication system that is open and transparent which enables the sharing of knowledge and ideas were shown to be crucial for successful international collaboration (2011, pp. 185-186).

In summary from the brief theoretical discussion above, successful curriculum reform is determined by multifaceted processes related to different stages of the program. In all stages, involved support of key stakeholders, good leadership, and communication are crucial. In the conception stage, it is important to ensure that the vision and goals of curriculum reform are shared and communicated to all important members of the HEI, including the faculty. In the process of development of the program, open communication, inclusive participation, and flexibility are keys to success in the development of a culture of trust and collaboration among the partners and faculty. Good leadership, management, planning, training and support are the key factors that enable the curriculum to be implemented.

Background

In August 2012 the European Commission's selection of TEMPUS (Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies) IV grant applications was published. The aim of these TEMPUS programs is to support joint projects and the exchange and sharing of knowledge among professionals that contribute to the development of higher education between HEI of European member countries and their partner countries in Central Asia, North Africa and the Middle East (McCabe, Ruffio & Heinamaki 2011; EACEA 35/2012, pp.14-15).

One of the programs selected in August 2012 was an Israeli TEMPUS initiative of Gordon Academic College of Education (GCE) titled Development of an International Model for Curricular Reform in Multicultural Education and Cultural Diversity Training (DOIT). DOIT unites faculty of 21 different HEI and non-government organizations (NGO) in 7 different countries. Israeli and Georgian HEIs are the central focus and beneficiaries of DOIT's program of curricular reform. DOIT's consortium also includes HEIs from the European Union countries of England, Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, and one Estonian NGO. Six student unions from the Israeli and Georgian HEIs are also members of DOIT's consortium.

Sokhumi State University (SSU), one of the Georgian HEI's members of DOIT, is the focus of this case study. SSU was founded in 1932 in the Western region of Abkhazia, in Sokhumi. It first functioned as the State Pedagogical Institute training students to be teachers. In 1978 Sokhumi Pedagogical Institute was renamed as Sokhumi State University (SSU) and the number of faculties and academic departments increased. In 1993, due to the military invasion of Soviet Russia, SSU was relocated to Tbilisi and became the Sokhumi branch of Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University. In 2007 the Georgian government decided to give SSU back its former name: Sokhumi State University.

In 2013, SSU offers bachelor's degrees in twenty-seven disciplines and master's degrees in twenty-one disciplines. SSU also has eleven doctoral degree programs. It continues to be a university that trains teachers on the BA and MA levels. In 2012-2013, the Faculty of Education includes 290 students and thirty faculty ranging from the rank of full professors to lecturers. The faculty and student body of SSU include members from a variety of ethnic groups, including Georgian, Abkhazian, Armenian, and Azerbaijani. This case study focuses on this faculty and their relation to DOIT's curriculum reform program.

Methodology

A case study approach is the methodology used in this research in which the processes involved in the conception, development, planning, and accepted program for curriculum reform for Sokhumi State University is examined.

Case studies have historically have been used by anthropological ethnographic work for almost a century (e.g., Boas 1920; and Malinowski 1922; 1961) as well as in other disciplines (e.g., medicine, law, and political science). Creswell (2007, p.73) views case

study research as applying a qualitative approach to the study of a specific topic through one or more examples (cases) within a specific setting. There are different types of case studies. The one used in this study is the single instrumental case study in which the researchers are selecting a theoretical issue (in our case, the conception, development, and implementation plan for curriculum reform) and selects one bounded case to illustrate this issue (Ibid.,74). Following Yin's (2003) analytic strategy for analysis, the approach taken in our research will identify theoretical issues that are interwoven in the case study described.

This case study process is described by the DOIT faculty of SSU who participated from the very first stages of the program. They documented the different stages of curriculum reform, from the conceptualization stages, development stages, planning for implementation stages, and approval process of the Ministry of Education of Georgia. In addition, interviews of SSU's key stakeholders were done by DOIT's SSU team over the period from December 2011 through July 2013. The interviews were done in the Georgian language and were translated into English using the translation method that focused on meaning over word for word translation.

CASE STUDY Part 1: SSU Joining the DOIT Consortium--The Shared Vision

In December 2011, the coordinator of DOIT from Israel's GCE made a trip to Tbilisi, Georgia to participate in a conference and recruit Georgian universities into DOIT's consortium. The coordinator worked in close collaboration with the National Tempus Representative of Georgia who recommended Georgian universities that she felt would both benefit from, and be able to contribute to DOIT's program. One of the recommended universities was SSU. SSU's Dean of the Faculty of Education and several members of her faculty met with DOIT's coordinator to discuss DOIT's main aims and objectives for promoting multicultural education and cultural diversity in academic teacher-training programs. As SSU is one of the only HEIs in Georgia that specializes in Georgian-Abkhazian cultural relations and has as an educational mission to prepare future teachers for working in multiethnic regions such as Abkhazia, DOIT's aims of creating curricular reform in multicultural education for teacher training was a vision that the faculty and administration of SSU could share. Moreover, since Georgia's Ministry of Education has signed the Bologna Agreement, joining an international consortium on this topic fit nicely with the vision and goals of SSU. The Rector of SSU explained:

One of the missions of SSU is to implement the Bologna Agreement and join international collaboration with other universities...participating in the European Commission TEMPUS Program of DOIT...that aims to promote multicultural education and the teaching of cultural diversity... advancing our ongoing process of higher educational reforms in SSU.

Thus, as Aaltonen et al. (2008), Lavangnon et al. (2010) and most recently Fullan (2001) have asserted, the sharing of a common moral purpose and shared vision between DOIT's

objectives and SSU's educational mission as expressed by the Rector, lays the foundation for successful collaboration and development. The sharing of vision of training future teachers in multicultural education and competencies was expressed more fully by SSU's Dean who expressed the importance of promoting the values of mutual respect, understanding, and responsibility; and the principles of equality and democracy in their teacher-training programs. SSU faculty believe that all of their students should be not only knowledgeable of Georgian cultural diversity, but also gain the pedagogical tools to promote important democratic values for Georgian's pluralistic society (Samniashvili 2008). Moreover, the Dean of the Faculty of Education believes that SSU students need to acquire positive attitudes and pedagogical tools towards multicultural education, explaining that:

Sokhumi State University aims at preparing their graduates with modern pedagogical methodology as well as promoting high moral responsibility that is important for our participation in the global society...we view that our future teachers need to be trained in multicultural education...and receive the pedagogical tools to teach in culturally diverse classrooms.

Similar to DOIT's program's vision, SSU's vision for teacher-training is based on the importance of their students of education gaining intercultural competencies that can provide children with an open attitude towards diversity. Their view is that one of the roles of teachers is in nurturing their pupils to appreciate their own cultural background as well as the cultural background of others. As such, SSU sees that one of their mission goals in teacher training is that their students, as future teachers, need to acquire knowledge about cultures and the appreciation of diversity, to develop critical thinking, and to promote the rights for equality and respect for all children in their classrooms.

The Head of Quality Assurance Services at SSU explained:

After the acquisition of intercultural competencies, future teachers will be familiar with cultural diversity in [our] society...[Through our courses]...they will develop their critical thinking, be advocates of the protection of children's and adults' rights in multiethnic surroundings.

Fitting very closely with DOIT's view of the competencies of teachers in the 21st century, the SSU teacher-training program, as summarized by their Dean of Education and by Samniashvili (2008), believe that *teachers and future teachers must be trained to develop:*

- Interpersonal competence, that includes attitudes and personal beliefs in the appreciation of the cultural diversity of all pupils in their classrooms;
- Awareness of their own professional and personal behavior towards different cultures and children with different cultural backgrounds;
- Pedagogical competencies that include teaching skills and tools that enable pupils in their classrooms to respect one another and appreciate each other's cultures;
- Knowledge of the different cultural groups of Georgia and different didactic models of how to teach about the different groups;

- Collaboration competence within the schools that promotes cooperation between teachers in order to share challenges and solutions to problems that may occur in multicultural classroom situations;
- Intercultural communication competencies which enable teachers to communicate with the parents of all of their pupils as well as with organizations that represent Georgian minority groups.

The shared vision of DOIT's program to promote multicultural education in teacher training and SSU's mission for teacher training as expressed above, complement one another, not only in content and specific aims, but most importantly in regards to the "moral purpose" of the program which Fullan (2001) sees as critical in leading change in society.

Another objective of DOIT which is shared by SSU faculty is the aim to "foster the sharing of knowledge relating to the processes of multicultural education through international cooperation that enhances mutual understanding between professionals involved in education" (Sofer 2012, p.92). The Rector as well as the Dean of the Faculty of Education of SSU explained that SSU has an important policy of increasing institutional cooperation with other universities. This policy coheres with the general process of reform and modernization of HEI of partner countries of the European Union which the Ministry of Education in Georgia supports. Thus, joining DOIT's consortium and program for curriculum reform and modernization of their bachelor's and master's degree programs complements the framework of the modernization of HEI in Georgia and is connected very closely with the policy principles guiding academic development for SSU.

After several discussions and exchanges of ideas, the coordinator of DOIT was willing to accept SSU into the consortium of DOIT. The Dean of the Faculty of Education met with other key stakeholders of SSU that included the rector of the college and the heads of different departments in order to present DOIT's program, gain their support, and develop ideas of how their departments may be able to integrate some aspects of DOIT's programs within their curriculum studies.

The importance of communicating with the key administrators of HEI has already been documented in other research such as Eskerod and Jepsen (2013); and deHarpe and Radloff (2003). Moreover it was shown that when this communication did not occur, the programs did not succeed (Lim & Zain 1999). Briere and Proulx (2013) maintain that the importance of good leadership and communication with the administration from the very start of the project is vital to the success of curriculum reform. Thus SSU's internal communication between the Dean of the Faculty of Education with the heads of other departments and the Rector, establishes the foundation for successful collaboration and work within SSU as well as within the DOIT consortium.

Consensus and support was received by the Rector of SSU and other department heads. It was decided that DOIT's program would contribute to the multicultural educational

training of students of education, in several departments on the BA and MA levels. Moreover, the program was seen by the SSU as an opportunity to participate in an international collaborative project with other universities that aim to promote important values (e.g., multicultural education and promoting children and human rights).

The Dean of the Faculty of Education, SSU explained:

The Faculty of Education of SSU has a serious mission within the DOIT Program in training BA and MA level students in multicultural education. The Faculty of Education has a chance to take part together with other universities in international collaborative projects and enhance the process of preparing skillful future teachers in multicultural education.

On January 26, 2012 a TEMPUS mandate was signed between the Rector SSU and the President of GCE making SSU an official member of DOIT's consortium. A Moodle workstation for the process of writing the TEMPUS application was created in December 2011. . Key stakeholders of each institution in DOIT's team were registered for this workstation so they could observe and/or participate in the application process. Eighty-six members of DOIT's consortium were registered, and could access the workstation. Although not all registered members participated actively in the application process, all could view the discussions that were occurring regarding the development of the application. Transparency and collaboration became a part of the culture of interaction of DOIT's members even before the project was accepted.

CASE STUDY Part 2: Becoming Part of the DOIT Team--Collaborative Work on Designing the Program

During the application stage of DOIT, certain questions or differences in opinions were discussed not only through the forum discussion in DOIT's workstation, but also through Skype meetings. These Skype meetings between the coordinator who was responsible for writing the application and the different members of DOIT, contributed to developing trust, mutual understandings, and reaching the consensus required to complete the application. The SSU team shared in this process by participating in the Moodle workstation to review and comment on the work being done. They also had multiple Skype meetings and discussions with the DOIT coordinator in order to discuss certain aspects of the application and SSU's participation in the project in greater detail.

An associate professor at the Faculty of Humanities, SSU explained:

Our Skype meetings between the DOIT program coordinator and our SSU team were very useful and productive... they took place regularly. Moreover, we were able to inform the coordinator about the ongoing processes on SSU's part in DOIT's program...Our team members regularly discussed with her such questions regarding implementing the curriculum reform on the BA and MA levels, possibilities for program and syllabi designing...and other topics.

The importance of involving partners and key stakeholders in development of a collaborative project from the first stages onward have been shown by DeHarpe and Radloff (2003) to have positive results in regards to program implementation. Their research emphasizes the importance of open communication and flexibility in successful curriculum reform programs in Australia. Briere and Proulx (2013) also show in their research that international projects that manage to succeed beyond the conceptualization stages were based on inclusive, collaborative work structures. DOIT's coordinator, through structuring the whole application process in an open, transparent, and communicative manner, established a culture of collaboration that SSU's team and other members of DOIT's consortium could support and identify with.

The announcements for selected TEMPUS programs for the fifth call were made in August 2012. DOIT was one of the programs selected with the TEMPUS start date of new projects set from October 15, 2012. The coordinator in communication with the leaders of DOIT in Georgia made plans for the first five-day consortium meeting in Tbilisi that would be held from October 23-27, 2012. Sixty members from DOIT's consortium, including SSU, participated in this first consortium meeting.

At this meeting, eight collaborative working teams (most were international) were established. SSU team joined two of these teams. The Dean of the Faculty of Education, SSU commented:

SSU is in two working teams of DOIT : 1) Culturally Specific Materials for Georgia and 2) Pedagogical Approaches that Promote Intercultural-Ethnic Understanding in the Classroom. In both teams there are top professionals from the universities of Israel, Georgia and other countries of Europe...

Together the SSU team members in collaboration with other DOIT team members are creating new syllabi...The collaborative process of exchanging views, sharing experience and knowledge within the working teams is systematic and fruitful and has also contributed to our own teaching and knowledge.

Parallel to SSU's participation in DOIT's working teams, an internal committee was established at SSU consisting of key faculty members from several departments and programs. This committee began the process of reorganization and curriculum development of BA and MA level programs at the Faculty of Education. Thus, educational reform actively began to be planned for SSU based on DOIT's collaborative work which aims to strengthen knowledge and pedagogical tools for promoting multicultural education and children's human rights through teacher training.

The importance of including faculty of the institution in the planned curriculum reform has been documented as being an important criterion that can explain the success of the reform (Sng 2008; Rowley et al. 1997). Thus, while SSU's DOIT team worked in international collaboration, they also worked within their own university to promote DOIT's programs and to decide which ones could best benefit their university.

CASE STUDY Part 3: Developing a Curriculum Reform Plan for SSU

SSU's faculty began designing a program for curriculum reform that would be officially accepted by the Rector's Academic Committee at SSU and the Ministry of Education of Georgia. One of SSU's DOIT team members explains:

Our aim in the university curricula is to introduce techniques and resources of the principles of multicultural education, teaching approaches and methods that we gain from participating in this program and sharing our ideas and knowledge with those in DOIT's partnership.

SSU participated with faculty from four other HEI in Georgia. The Georgian team was working on Culturally Specific Materials for Georgia, and developed several syllabi based on the different expertise of all members of the group. These separate syllabi were then integrated into one common syllabus that was translated into English called *Multiethnic and Multicultural Georgia*. SSU's team prepared several topics on areas of their expertise (e.g., Abkhazia, Shida Kartli, and the overall ethnic composition of modern Georgia).

In the second working team, Pedagogical Approaches that Promote Intercultural-Ethnic Understanding in the Classroom, the SSU team developed two syllabi: *Pedagogical Approaches in the Teaching Process of Culture and Identity*, and *Active Citizenship*. Both syllabi are based on James Banks five dimensions of multicultural education and include content integration, the knowledge construction process, an equity pedagogy, prejudice reduction, an empowering school culture and social structure (Banks 1993; Banks 2008).

During this period of development work (October 2012-June 2013) SSU began piloting several courses in three different education programs relating to DOIT's objectives of promoting multicultural education and cultural diversity in their teaching programs. The SSU DOIT team, through working closely with heads of different departments, created programs for curriculum reform for promoting multicultural education on the BA and MA level. Some of these programs have already been approved by SSU's Rector's Academic Committee and submitted to the Ministry of Education for their official academic accreditation. On December 28, 2012, the BA programs: Primary Level Teacher Education Program; Inclusive Education Program; Basic and Secondary Level Teacher Education Program were officially approved and accredited.

The chair of the Accreditation Council congratulated SSU's DOIT team on their successful program accreditation. The MA level program in History received program accreditation on the 30th of July, 2013, while the MA level program in Education

Sciences passed the institutional accreditation (authorization) and now undergoing the process for academic accreditation with the Ministry of Education.

Diallo and Thuillier (2004) affirms the importance of the collaborative process and open communication with the faculty. They also assert how important inclusive and cooperative joint work in contributing to the program's success. In the above description, the SSU team succeeded in both the collaborative process of working in international teams and most importantly in bridging between the works of these teams with the needs of their particular university, by maintaining open communication with other key faculty at SSU. What follows below is the actual curriculum reform program that was designed to fit SSU's needs. While all of these programs have been internally approved by SSU's academic committee, some have been accredited by the state and others are still waiting for final accreditation.

CASE STUDY Part 4: Plan for Curriculum Reform for Multicultural Education at SSU

SSU's DOIT program for curriculum reform in multicultural education was for both the BA and MA levels. Below is a brief description of these programs.

BA Degree Program for Curriculum Reform:

In the Faculty of Education a new course, Multicultural Education, will be integrated into the curriculum and made mandatory for teacher education for elementary school grades I-VI. This course aims at introducing students to multicultural education theory and practice and in the modern education system. The course will present the goals, objectives and milestones of multicultural education and also the strategies for the development of intercultural competencies and assessment methods.

BA Minor Program for Curriculum Reform:

A BA minor program in Intercultural Relations is planned for implementation in 2013-14. The curriculum for this minor BA program that is based on DOIT's academic approach to course development in multicultural education and created jointly with other faculty of SSU includes: Intercultural Education, Multiethnic and Multicultural Georgia, Culturally Specific Materials for Georgia Culture and Identity, Active Citizenship.

MA Degree Program for Curriculum Reform:

A new course, Intercultural Relations in Abkhazia: History and Modernity, has been specially developed by the SSU's DOIT team and will be a part of the MA program in History and the MA program in Teaching Methodology. This course is especially relevant as many students come from this conflict region. Another course, Pedagogical

Approaches for Intercultural Education, will also become part of this MA program of Teaching Methodology.

The course, Intercultural Relations in Abkhazia: History and Modernity, is designed to introduce students of both MA programs to the historical basics and modern situation of intercultural relations in the region of Abkhazia. The course topics include of ethnic, cultural, and intercultural relations from a historical perspective in the Abkhazia region, discussing the transformation of intercultural relations of the region to the present period.

For SSU's MA program on Teaching Methodology, an additional course was developed, Pedagogical Approaches for Intercultural Education. This course aims to teach graduate students important pedagogical tools that promote intercultural education, attitudes, and behaviors for the pupils whom they will be teaching.

CASE STUDY Part 5: Activities in SSU that Promote Multicultural Education

DOIT's objectives aim to promote not only curriculum reform, but also to promote the culture of multiculturalism within the spirit of universities as a whole. SSU's DOIT team accomplishes this through their wider activities that promote multicultural educational values throughout the campus. For example, several conference papers were presented by SSU's DOIT team at a Georgian national conference in 2013. The topics of these papers were: *The Challenges and Prospects of the EU Grant Project DOIT*; *An Holistic Approach to Multicultural Education*; and *The Influence of a Tempus Project DOIT on University Research and Development*.

SSU's Head of Scientific Work Coordination Service explained:

The goal of SSU is to promote multicultural development with different activities, among them are international and local conferences. At the conferences their presentations relate to issues such as the realization of curriculum reform for multicultural education within DOIT programs, holistic approach in multicultural education and more. All these themes were highlighted at the Interdisciplinary Scientific Conference organized by SSU in June, 2013. We view DOIT's programs as significant for us from cultural and historical points of view.

A member of SSU's DOIT team further elaborated:

As we see, DOIT's influence on our university research and development is actual and relevant. We are sure that effective collaboration with our European and Israeli counterparts of DOIT will contribute to curriculum development strategies in Sokhumi State University. At this stage of implementation of our project, (ten months have passed), we can say for sure--yes, DOIT has had a positive and successful influence on research and development of our university curriculum.

Conclusion: This Is Really the Beginning

The above case study demonstrates how the processes of involvement of key stakeholders, sharing common visions, collaborative work based on transparency and cooperation, leadership, involvement of faculty, and communication contributed to the first stages of an international project aiming at curriculum reform for a specific university that is a part of the team. The curriculum is developed and accepted from the top down and also by the faculty. It will be implemented in the academic year of 2013-14 in several departments at SSU. The real test and challenges lie ahead for DOIT's program of curriculum reform. Faculty who were not involved in the development process need to be trained to teach the newly designed courses, teaching of the new curriculum needs to be assessed and analyzed; and most importantly the impact or learning outcome of the curriculum on the students in particular and the whole university in general needs to be evaluated. These stages will be examined in another research.

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Disparities in Social Practices: A Secondary School Analysis

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Abstract

The developmental diversity that exists among student populations in secondary schools lends itself to the creation of unique and potentially dynamic learning environments. These transformative spaces for learning and teaching within secondary schools are particularly dichotomized by the lived experience of freshman and seniors. While these student groups simultaneously occupy a single building, their creation, negotiation and navigation of transformative spaces vary greatly. The comparative use of students' sense of space, utilization of space, and sense of building purpose can be analyzed using Lefebvre's (1991) *The Production of Space*, particularly as it relates to students' production of space. Lefebvre's concepts of spatial practice, representations of space and representational spaces provide a theoretical framework for understanding the transformative space for learning and teaching within a secondary school building, which is further complicated by the connection between space and rhythm. Through these complex interactions, transformative spaces may act as either a catalyst for or an inhibitor of learning.

Keywords: theoretical analysis, Lefebvre, production of space, social practices, secondary school

1 Introduction

Often times, the identity of primary and secondary schools are predefined at a superficial level: as institutions of learning; thusly, their form meets function in a perfunctory manner. According to Boys (2011), it has been “articulated in contemporary educational theory as a transitional and liminal space, where participants negotiate their way via particular boundary conditions and specific social and spatial practices and repertoires” (p. 121). Education and learning, however, can be understood from a myriad of angles. The nuances of educational praxis can be examined from a variety of lenses, including, but certainly not limited to, the psychological, neurological, developmental, architectural and academic. More recently, the frameworks for understanding education have grown to include more dynamic paradigms, with different lenses fusing to produce identities that are active and multifaceted. Today, the identities of many high schools are being reconstructed by a modern student body within dated infrastructures. When examined more closely, unique paradigms emerge within a single building. The purpose of this paper is to explore the lived – or rather, living—experience of freshman and of seniors in an inner-ring suburban high school, BHS¹. Moreover, the comparative use of students’ sense of space, utilization of space, and sense of building purpose will be analyzed.

2 Paradigmatic Structures

A paradigm can be understood as a mechanism of how social orders work, and thus, can be used as an analytic tool for interrogating assumptions of institutions. In his analysis of paradigms, Agamben (2009) demonstrates the different forms and functions of paradigms, and how they are appropriated contextually. In presenting his argument, he compares the paradigmatic frameworks of Kuhn and Foucault. Kuhn offers two different meanings of paradigms, both rooted in the scientific community: the first is referred to as the *disciplinary matrix*; the second paradigm is more singular in nature. The former is one that “designates the common possessions of the members of a certain [scientific] community...to which the group members more or less consciously adhere” (p. 11), while the latter is a more functional rule, replaced when it is no longer compatible with a preexisting paradigm. In both senses, the development of the paradigm is nonlinear; it occurs in shifts that are in response to discontinuity. This development is mirrored well in a secondary (high) school, a space that is occupied by agents of uncertainty.

The functioning of a secondary school as the collective operates in both of Kuhn’s paradigmatic senses. As an institution, the secondary school adheres to the aptly designated disciplinary matrix. Through explicit contracts and codes of conduct, and through implicit social and cultural norms, both faculty and student members consciously and subconsciously adhere to the disciplinary matrix. Through this system of understanding and acceptance, these agents create an identity. Under this construct, the institution designates the common possessions of its members, or the staff and students. Here, the commonality delegated by the institution performs an equitable function, providing an equal learning opportunity for the members. The possessions, or learning tools, may vary based on department, grade level(s) taught, or number of students taught, however, the essential and necessary tools are prescribed and provided. Although students also subscribe to permissible possessions as prescribed by institutional conduct codes, they do so in varying degrees.

¹ The high school will be referred to as BHS for confidentiality purposes.

Freshmen, in their exploratory phase, are constantly in flux. While they are conscientious of these common possessions, they have not fully adopted this paradigm. Therefore, the identity of these students is still being constructed, as are their paradigms. The seniors, on the other hand, have negotiated the institution and have adopted the structural requisites to successfully navigate its paradigm. The backpack is an example of this difference. According to BHS rules, students are not permitted to carry backpacks; however, this task can prove daunting in a large high school. Rather than carry all needed items in a backpack and move from space to space, students must rely on the usage of assigned lockers and their ability to efficiently navigate the building, as well as effectively negotiate their utilization of space and time. Despite warnings and consequences, many freshmen, well aware of the rule, continue to carry backpacks as they have yet to master the rhythms of the school. Seniors, on the other hand, are rarely seen with backpacks, moving effortlessly throughout the building.

This dynamic regulatory system can also be understood through the paradigm elicited by Foucault's panopticon. Here, the function of the paradigm is clear, and understood through a strict lens. That is, "it is a singular object, that standing equally for all others of the same class, defines the intelligibility of the group of which it is a part and which, at the same time, it constitutes" (Agamben 2009, p. 17). Similarly, the function of the secondary school's paradigm can be understood as singular in nature. Furthermore, the "same class" may be quite literal in nature; that is, the freshman class is defined through this singular phenomenon, just as the senior class. Their paradigms are quite different constructs, with singularity taking on different meanings for each: for the freshman, singularity is that of compartmentalizing; whereas the seniors make up a more collective, cohesive group. This is evidenced by their production of space.

3 Spatial Analyses

In his 1991 *The Production of Space*, Lefebvre suggests a dynamic theoretical framework for conceptualizing space. He posits that space does not simply exist; rather, it is produced and perpetually redefined through its placement, purpose and utilization, all of which are influenced by its occupants. According to Lefebvre, "All productive activity is defined less by invariable or constant factors than by the incessant to-and-fro between temporality...and spatiality..." (p. 71). This framework provides three dimensions of space beyond those of the archetypally planar and linear spatial understandings: representations of space, spatial practices and representational space. Representation of space refers to the conceptualized or planned space, which may be spontaneous or planned. Spatial practices refer to the use of a given space. Through the observation of spatial practices, societal norms and cultural preferences are often revealed. Representational space is the meaning of the space; it is defined by the people that occupy the space and their utilization of the space. Through its use, the space becomes infused with meaning.

The modern high school can be understood through Lefebvre's theoretical framework. The representation of space, or planned spaces of high schools, are purposeful in form and function, which exemplify the conceptualization of efficiency in learning space and the transition to various learning spaces. Spatial practices within a typical high school can be seen in the use of office space, auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries, classrooms, and hallways. Finally, through their use, or the representational space,

high schools develop identities, which may be recognized through clubs and teams, mascots, and school climate. When examined closer, however, one finds that this triad exists within the separate paradigms of the student body, with the greatest disparity existing between the freshman and seniors.

The representation of space of BHS was both planned and spontaneous. Initially, the representation of space was planned at BHS. As with many burgeoning high schools in the common school era, BHS was built in the mid-1920s, providing students in neighboring cities with a centralized high school. By the 1960s, further space was needed, requiring a planned addition including a larger gymnasium, a new library, and another wing of classrooms. As the nation saw a move toward a more equitable education system and a push towards vocational training (Reese 2011), BHS was met with the need for art and business departments, which demanded two more wings, along with a new cafeteria.

From these planned representations of space, spontaneous representations of space were produced through social practices and representational spaces. While the planned design was one of function in concurrence with budgetary and spatial efficiency, spontaneous social practices were developed by students. One example of this is the inner-court parking lot. Initially designed for and still utilized for staff parking, the inner-court is now used as an additional hallway by students to connect from one wing to another. It is not, however, used by all students. The upperclassmen, well versed in the buildings inner workings, utilize the parking lot at an unhurried pace in lieu of the traditional hallways. Outside of the confinement of conventional school walls, voices carry, language becomes coarse, and horseplay ensues. Conversely, the freshmen crowd the main hallways, traversing tight corridors, people and pillars. Ignorant of the spatial practices of the upperclassman, the freshman spend their transitions negotiating what is often an impractical feat. The upperclassmen, on the other hand, have changed the representational space of the parking lot. No longer a space designated for the sole occupancy of staff, the inner-court parking lot has been re-appropriated as their hallway.

In doing so, the traditional paradigmatic rules have been changed. Through this practice, the upperclassmen have infused their paradigm into that of the institution, their identity shaping that of the institution. The singularity of their paradigm is one of wholeness, of a class. Their paradigm overlaps in the production of space with that of the institution, creating a cohesive space, whereas the freshmen's spatial practices, as dictated by the institution, are compartmentalized. Their spaces predefined, their production limited, the freshmen identity is one of conformity and participation.

The ontological difference between freshmen and seniors continues into the production of classroom space. Here, differences in spatial practices and representation of space produce distortions of representational space. According to Lefebvre's *Right to the City* (1996), the time and space for encounters has been reduced by a consumer oriented society, resulting in a patterned life that leaves little time for creativity and productivity. He argues that people have the right to participate, to produce something meaningful through their encounters. Time, however, acts as a barrier to encounters. This regulating factor interferes with the production of space; thus, control over time provides a mechanism of control of production of space. Similarly, Boys (2011) investigates the space production and

meaning making through the interaction (or perhaps, in some instances, lack thereof) within a particular space. As Boys notes, “we don’t just encounter space, we also interact directly with it. We can adapt and shape it...and in different situations we will have more or less control” (p. 129). Reinforcing Lefebvre’s argument, Boys explains that “it depends on the conventions and assumptions—the ordinary social and spatial practices—that participants bring to a space, the activity and the context” (p. 130).

This can be seen in the through the production of space within the classrooms at BHS. Within the classrooms, however, the concept of space subsumes both the physical and temporal. At the onset, the representation of space is planned; both senior and freshmen classrooms are arranged for practicality and functionality to accommodate as many students as needed within a limited physical space. The teacher, however, must work within the confines of time, which acts as limiting factor in the production of space. In order to capitalize on the production of meaning, desks, and therefore students, are situated to facilitate encounters. In both the freshman and senior classes, students’ desks face each other, allowing for encounters. Boys’ (2011) notes that learning spaces can move one from the unknown to the known, which parallels Lefebvre’s (1996) argument that holds that provoking an encounter allows for change. Clearly, the teacher’s representation of space within the construct of the institution’s representation of space is one of planned learning and encounters. This paradigm, however, is further defined by the spatial practices and representational space of the students.

The representation of space is defined by the people that occupy the space and what they do with the space (Lefebvre 1991). In a senior classroom, the representation of space is one of engagement and learning; it is one of encounters. Initiated by the teacher, but reinforced by students, there is a cohesive, collective understanding of the space. This is seen through the spatial practices within the senior classroom which are a series of encounters, among students and the teacher. Here, students wear letterman’s jackets and BHS spirit wear, a student practice indicative of student participation within the institution; however, clothing is not the primary focus. Working with and within the confines of the time, the class is already seated when bell rings, ready to begin. When the teacher stands in the front of the room, the senior class becomes silent immediately. As the period progresses, a shared learning space is evident: the questions asked are topical and related to the current assignments; students wait for the teacher to complete her explanation, and ask for clarification, not only from the teacher but from each other; and students build off of each other’s questions and are attentive to one another. During a student presentation, all eyes are on the student presenters or focused on the referenced text. The students add to each other’s comments and participate with the teacher in providing constructive feedback. Through the fluidity of spatial practices, both the representation of space and representational space are reinforced. Because of their interconnectivity, the contextual meaning, the people and activities cannot be parsed out from the space (Boys 2011; Lefebvre 1991).

In a freshmen classroom, however, space is disjointed. As with the senior classroom, the teacher’s representation of space is one of learning, and is designed to encourage encounter, yet this is in opposition to the construct of the freshmen paradigm. The representation of space of the classroom for the freshmen is one of socialization and affirmation. This is produced through social practices, which in turn further develops

the representational space. To begin with, prior to the bell ringing, many of the students are walking around the room, talking about each other's shoes and outfits. There is a competitive nature to this practice, encapsulating the individualistic singularity of their paradigm. Once the bell rings, the students are typically wandering, still out of their seats conversing. Several of the students lack supplies, and must ask the teacher for a pen or pencil, while others have forgotten their homework. Once the teacher attempts to start class, there are still students out of their seats, who have to be told repeatedly to be seated. The representational space of the teacher is seemingly lost amidst that of the students'. Whereas the meaning produced in the senior classroom was co-constructed, there are two very distinct spaces being produced in the freshman classroom, simultaneously inharmoniously occupying a single location.

4 Rhythm Analysis

Another dimension, closely linked to the spatial practice, is the fluidity or rhythm of the school. According to Lefebvre and Régulier's (1996) *Rhythmanalysis*, one of the more salient attributes responsible for identity maintenance of a city is its rhythm, which can be understood through the general theory of *Rhythmanalysis*. This framework suggests the analysis of rhythms cannot occur when they are lived; rather, one must be out of the rhythm to analyze it. Yet, to do so requires that one has participated in the rhythm, has succumbed to its cadenced embrace. As a *rhythmanalyst*, "one discerns flows in the apparent disorder and an order which is signaled by rhythms: chance or predetermined encounters, hurried carrying or nonchalant meandering of people..." (Lefebvre & Régulier 1996, p. 230). Functioning in a manner that parallels a small city, the high school's rhythm is one of regulated disorder, an ensemble of spontaneous and planned productions accompanied by a series of encounters.

At its most perfunctory level, the rhythm of the high school is dictated by the master schedule, which is orchestrated by the ringing of the school bells. As a collective, the students' schedule is highly synchronized. With a definitive beginning and end, their day is premeasured, their movements and interactions preplanned. The bell schedule serves as a mechanism for connecting time and space; that is, it systematically situates students in an appropriated space at a specified time. In doing so, intentional encounters are coordinated by means of students' arrival to their classes, while other encounters are created by chance in the hallways during transitional periods. Rhythm, then, is "...an aspect of a movement and a becoming" (Lefebvre & Régulier 1996, p. 230), which allows for encounters and meaning making that facilitates the production of space and identity. Although the bell schedule may regulate the rhythm at the building level, a polyrhythm exists within it, comprised of the rhythms of encounters, wanderings, and trajectories. The tempos of these rhythms are determined only in relation to other rhythms, which may vary in unification to one another (Lefebvre & Régulier 1996).

In the five-minute transitional period between classes at BHS, a seemingly arrhythmic current appears before one is able to detect the subrhythms, an onslaught of encounters that manifest themselves into an ordained pulse. Indeed, these rhythms vary in pace, with some hurried and halted, while others leisurely, almost seamless. The freshmen, characterized by the former, are highly regulated by the master rhythm. Within the classroom, their spatial practices are influenced by this rhythm: in

anticipation of the bell, students gather their belongings early and stare at the clock, then rush out of room to begin their journey to the next location. Once in the hallway, some students move at a rapid pace to their next destination. Others, equally hurried, seek out their peers and gather momentarily, only to rush again to their next destination; their rhythm marked by a halted discontinuity. The seniors, exemplified by the latter, have a rhythm that operates within a greater unity to that of the master rhythm. Theirs is marked by an alliance with the rhythm of the building, which produces a collective rhythm (Lefebvre & Régulier 1996). Moreover, they embody a social rhythm, the collective rhythm of the group. For seniors, the ringing of the bell designates a shift in space. While these students may still be gathering their belongings when the bell rings, they enter the hallways, and merge seamlessly into the current, socializing and separating as needed. Their spatial practices take on a more casual, leisurely pace, indicating a mastery of the space, spatial practice, and building rhythm. These differences in rhythms are the result of the different organizations and their social contracts, which in turn produce different identities. Consequently, these identities inform their unique paradigms.

5 Making Do

Lefebvre's (1991) spatial practices can also be understood through the lens of de Certeau's practices of "making do." Similar to Lefebvre's representation of space, de Certeau's (1984) modalities of action, or the formalities of action, "traverse the frontiers dividing time, place, and type of action into one part assigned for work and another for leisure..." however, he goes on to note that such practices "do not obey the law of the place, for they are not defined or identified by it" (p. 29). de Certeau's operational schemas speak to the use of space, or spatial practices, as ways of operating. He suggests that by integrating into an imposed system, the marginalized can then introduce their practices, thereby creating an accessible representational space. This use of space or "making do," may provide another dimension to the analysis of freshmen spatial practices. That is, perhaps freshmen are operating within an underdeveloped paradigm, one in which they are simply making do of the surroundings. Lacking in autonomy, and thus the power to actively participate in the production of space, these students are passively participating a space that is already produced. Through the use of the space, these students will eventually be able to not only access the representational space, but fully realize their right to participation.

6 Conclusion

In much the same way that Lefebvre (1996) critiques the long-forgotten encounters by "all those who endure a well-organized daily life" and the "untragic misery of the inhabitant, of the suburban dweller and of the people who stay in residential ghettos" (p. 159), the students' space to engage with others is marginalized; however, this marginalization is not necessarily impressed upon the students. Rather, the students have accepted this contemporary space and created their own paradigms. So, while these students may occupy the same space, they clearly have different lived experiences, or paradigms. What they may or may not be aware of is their power within these paradigms and their potential as agents of change.

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The Creation of a Transformational Learning Environment- The Essential Ingredients of Teacher Quality and the Nurturing of a Positive School Culture In Order To Optimise Student Learning Outcomes in a New Australian School

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0475

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Abstract

The effective establishment of a new school culture relies on understanding the systemic framework underpinning the mission of the School, as well as being cognisant of relevant demographic, economic, political, social and educational parameters within which it will operate. Research conducted at St Andrew's Anglican College, Queensland, Australia, by the Foundation Principal after four years of operation, sought to determine whether selecting the right staff team, utilising both individualist and collectivist approaches, had succeeded in impacting positively the emergence of a positive College culture which optimised student learning outcomes. A hypothetical model depicting the correlation of Staff Selection Criteria with emergent culture is cross referenced with Aspects of Culture as determined by House et al. Research findings from stakeholder focus groups, are aligned with these Aspects of Culture. Links between a positive emergent College culture and the model of teacher quality utilised at St Andrew's were demonstrated in this research study. Consequently, this model may be of interest to other new schools, especially emergent Anglican or other faith-based schools within Australia and internationally. The model can continue to benefit the College in its subsequent stages of development and could also be utilised by other established schools or other learning centres wishing to develop similar characteristics in their organisational cultures. Additionally, global trends towards mandated teacher standards and exhibited teacher qualities are cross-referenced with the model developed at St Andrew's.

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The Transformational Nature of Good Teaching

*It was my luck to have a few good teachers in my youth,
men and women who came into my dark head and lit a match.*

Life of Pi, Yann Martel (2002, p25)

The world over, teaching excellence remains in the spotlight in order to ensure that it impacts on student learning outcomes in the most beneficial ways. State and Federal Governments in Australia produce standards of teaching excellence and strategies in which they will invest, in order to ensure that the level of teacher excellence continues. The careful selection of teaching staff is a prime consideration for all educational institutions and can determine their success or otherwise. Faith-based schools have additional considerations and generally demand that their staff are supportive of their religious values and that they follow a prescribed ethos. A brand new learning environment also will have specific requirements in its recruitment agenda for both individuals and the teaching team as a whole. The success or otherwise of staff recruitment in this context impacts directly on the emerging culture, and consequently on the success of its students' learning achievements. These underpinning parameters and assertions were contributing factors to the approach taken to teacher recruitment in the learning environment featured in this study, as was consideration of what the academic literature had revealed about the qualities of teachers most likely impact on learning culture and outcomes.

Research into the specific common qualities of excellent teachers conducted by Vallance (2000) identifies holistic awareness of professional self and enduring focus on student well-being as features at the centre of these teachers' practice, with a 'clear sense of getting done what needs to be done and meeting deadlines', 'a commitment to the whole person' whilst recognising the need for their own 'personal growth and awareness of their own journey'. Furthermore, Vallance's study affirms that an 'excellent teacher loves his or her students' and they are 'motivated and energised by their students, they love them as individuals and this affective commitment moves them to act for their benefit'. In addition, Hansen (1995 :137-161) maintains that 'good teaching comes from the heart', and that a good teacher will be engaged in the best possible teaching practice, no matter which school they are teaching at. The need to be passionate about working with young people and to be thoroughly student-focussed was therefore believed to be of paramount importance when finalising selection criteria for recruiting a new staff team – in fact it was clear that it could determine the success or otherwise of the learning culture to emerge in this new Australian independent faith-based school.

Context of the Research – a new Anglican School on the Sunshine Coast of Queensland, Australia

St Andrew's Anglican College, Peregian Springs, was first a dream in the minds of a small group of people associated with the Anglican Parish of Noosa, on the Sunshine Coast of Queensland (150 kilometres north of Brisbane) during the 1990s. This highly-motivated group of parishioners and other members of the local community envisaged the establishment of a new Anglican College in this area to serve the needs of families wanting an independent school for their children and one which would be

a transformational learning experience for them. They had determined through demographic surveys and consultative public meetings that there was a need for a College in that part of the Sunshine Coast that would provide a nurturing and faith-based education in the tradition of other Anglican Schools but with a culture that would be distinctive and unique to the clientele and relevant to the environment in which it would develop – a culture which would be most appropriate to transform the learning journeys of its students.

I was appointed by the College's Steering Committee as St Andrew's Foundation Principal from July 2002, and set to work from an office above a surf shop in Peregrine Beach, three kilometres from the future site, whilst the first buildings of the new campus were being designed and built. The College's start date had been delayed by a year due to the need to protect an endangered species of frog – the Wallum Tree Frog (*Litoria Olongburensis*) – and the subsequent need to alter the College's Master Plan to accommodate an environmentally protected area of the campus, so that the species would not be endangered by the development of the College. However, once approvals for the College to proceed had been received, one of the first tasks was to secure sufficient enrolment numbers for the opening of the College (see the editorial for the local newspaper, 2002, in Figure 1 below). To do this, there were several considerations to be fully explored - ones which would have a direct impact on the culture envisaged for the new college, and ones which would also directly impact on the selection of teaching staff in order to affect this cultural development and the learning environment that would evolve:

1. *There was the question of what sort of a college St Andrew's would become.*
2. *The way in which that culture would be developed needed to be planned.*
3. *The Principal would need to be able to convince prospective families that the vision for this developing culture would actually manifest itself in a thriving college in which they and others would be proud to have their children enrolled.*
4. *The last consideration was aimed quite specifically at the children which the Principal and the College Council, on behalf of the Diocese, hoped would come to St Andrew's – there was a need to gain an insight about the approach would be needed in order to convince them that St Andrew's would be the sort of college they would want as their own.*

(St Andrew's, 2002).

Drawings done by the children who came in for interview during the months leading up to the opening of the College, depicted what they would like to see in their new college, and they decorated the walls of the interim College office during the six months leading up to the opening of the College. What the future students of St Andrew's wanted in terms of the culture of their new college was crucial to this process and was equally important to any of the other considerations taken into account.

St Andrew's Anglican College – Ready for Take Off!!

Opening its doors to students from Prep to Year 7 in January 2003, the newest Anglican College in the State, at Peregrin Springs, will boast three brand new state-of-the-art buildings. 150 students are expected as the first foundation enrolment, and from there, the students will progress through Middle School into the Senior School to Year 12. The eventual enrolment numbers of the St Andrew's Anglican College will be around 1000.

On the last Saturday of each month the College has held community events on the College site and these are designed to assist families get to know each other, to view the St Andrew's uniform and to have a look at how the building program is progressing. Our last one will be on Saturday 30th November 9 - 11 am – all are welcome to come along!

Places for 2003 are filling fast (especially in Prep, Years 1 and 4), so enquire today for full information about enrolment. Enquiries for Secondary and Primary for 2004 and beyond are also being taken. Our temporary office until mid-January is in Grebe Street, Peregrin Beach. Telephone 5448333 for full details or email us on standrews@hypermax.net.au

Figure 1: Editorial for Schools' Page, Sunshine Coast Daily – October 2002

Principal, Author and Researcher Profile

My roles as the Foundation Principal of the new College, the researcher of this study and the author of this article have drawn on my experience of working in several different careers and environments, from airline management and marketing in the UK, to the Arts, to teaching and leadership in several Queensland schools and now, to teacher and researcher in Education at the University of the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia. Having had more than 20 years' experience in Education (including state and independent schools, day schools and boarding schools and co-ed and single sex schools) I have been able to develop my experience in the area of teacher selection. Originally secondary trained, I have worked predominantly in P—12 schools, the last 12 years of which was as a Principal in three different schools. I am passionate about teacher quality, positive school culture-building and optimising learning outcomes for students. The transformational capacity of a talented and committed teaching team cannot be under-estimated in terms of the impact it will have on students, their attitude to school and their learning outcomes. These experiences and interests have flowed naturally into the research work I now undertake at the University of the Sunshine Coast in the areas of School Leadership, School Culture Building, Teacher Education and Quality Teaching.

College Growth

The first four years of the life of the College (2003 – 2006) saw rapid growth and demand for places with the student numbers increasing from 161 in 2003 to nearly 700 in 2006. Likewise the increase in staff across the whole College grew from 20 in the first year to nearly 100 four years later. This rate of growth was at twice the rate initially projected – a phenomenon which can be illustrated by the following photographic records of the staff of each of the years specified. The School photograph in Figure 2 was taken at the beginning of Term 1 2003, with all Foundation students and staff, and Figure 3 is of the Staff for 2006 – now five times the size of the staff team in 2003.

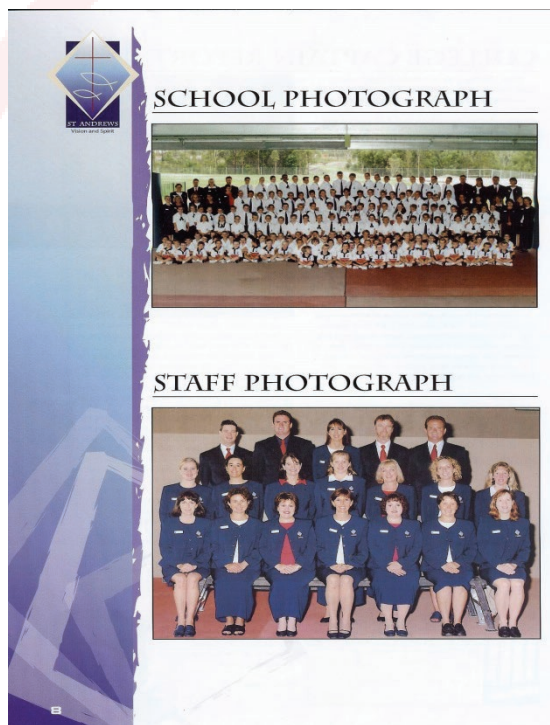


Figure 2: St Andrew's Anglican College, Peregian, Queensland, Foundation staff and students, 2003



Figure 3: St Andrew's Anglican College, Peregian Springs, Queensland, Staff 2006

Selection Criteria for Teachers at St Andrew's 2002 – 2006

Fundamental to the early stage of formulating selection criteria for staff, was the process of hypothesising what students might want in their teachers and other staff members of the College in order to enhance and transform their learning experience and outcomes. The establishment of a set of selection criteria for the eventual staff joining the College was anticipated to impact on the type of culture which would emerge in the College. Experience in working with young people and knowing which attitudes in staff generally deliver good learning outcomes and a positive culture, underpinned the establishment of guidelines to select the right staff.

House et al (2004), refer to the personal qualities of both leader and the staff in specific cultures and the effect that they can have on the emergence of values evident in the culture. In their research, the leader's charisma plus the ethical and moral foundation on which the organization is founded are quantifiable elements which have direct impact on the whole culture as it emerges. Starratt (1994) clearly defines the relationship between an individual's contribution to the learning culture development and its consequences:

So, what happens when creativity and passion are released? That is when schools can move to a new place in their development, that of transformation. People create culture; thereafter it shapes them. But we have also shown that school leaders can nudge the process along through their actions, conversations, decisions, and public pronouncements.

(Starratt, 1994:274)

Thus, the vision for what would be desirable in terms of individual and collectivist qualities of the teachers of St Andrew’s began to emerge and the selection criteria for the appointment of its first staff was drawn up under the following headings:

- A passion for working with young people
- An excellent reputation
- A high level of knowledge and skills
- A genuine pioneering spirit
- A sense of one’s own professionalism
- Outstanding personal qualities (based on House et al, 2004, as in Figure 4 below)
- An understanding of spiritual values
- Marketing potential

Personal Qualities of Great Teachers		
Trustworthy	Dynamic	Effective bargainer
Just	Able to be a confidence-builder	Win-win problem solver
Honest	Motivational	Administratively skilled
In possession of foresight	Intelligent	Communicative
Able to plan ahead	Dependable	Informed
Encouraging	Intelligent	Team-builder
Positive	Decisive	Excellence oriented

Figure 4: Personal Qualities of Great Teachers (House et al, 2004:677)

The Model

In order to develop a theoretical model designed for the research into teacher selection and its impact on the learning culture at St Andrew’s a simple formula (Figure 5 below) was used:



Figure 5: Formula underpinning the St Andrew’s Staff Selection and College Culture Emergence Model

The eventual theoretical model (see Figure 6 below) was devised using prior knowledge and organisational culture theory (Du Four and Eaker (1998), Redfield (1948), Trevena (2003), House et al (2004), Deal (2003), Nankervis et al (2002) and Starratt (1994)). The relationship between the core business of staff recruitment and the selection criteria utilised (centre of the oval), the likely behaviours of teachers appointed, and the anticipated resultant features of the emerging organisational are depicted in the radiating circles of the model. The magnification of the effect of the qualities, attitudes and experience of the individuals is seen to literally be the core of the eventual blossoming of the College culture. Based on the work of Senge (1990), the interaction of the emergent College culture with the wider College community, the local community, the Educational community as well as State, National and Global

Methodology

The description of the methodology adopted by the research undertaken at St Andrew's could highlight the fact that it is:

1. **Ethnographic research**
According to Genzuk (1999) the task of documenting people's perceptions utilising interpretive methods in a fieldwork scenario' an approach which is based on the 'premise that it is insufficient to research individual components of the subject researched – a more complete picture of the whole is obtained in context'.
2. **Qualitative research**
Sherman and Webb (1988) referred to qualitative researchers as being 'interested in the meaning people have constructed – that is how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in their world', implying a direct concern with experience as it is 'lived', 'felt' or 'undergone', and thus supporting Patton's assertion (1985) that qualitative research is 'an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there'.
3. **An historical case study**
In addition to the focus group research undertaken being described as interpretive, qualitative and ethnographical, it may also be described as an historical case study. It provides, through its richly descriptive responses and its adoption of the use of metaphor of a journey in telling the emergence of culture at St Andrew's, an opportunity to build theory from observation and intuitive understandings gained in the environment. The interviewing process through the Focus Groups, has the main aim of obtaining what we cannot observe – that is, people's perceptions. Patton (1996:196) emphasised that 'we interview people to find out from them things we cannot directly observe. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions. The purpose of interviewing them is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective'.
4. ***Bricoleur* methodology**
The augmentation of the qualitative data obtained through the focus groups with other relevant documents, photographs, student's drawings and staff artefacts, seemed to provide a highly relevant embellishment of the depiction of the emerging culture and learning environment (see Figure 7 below). Denzin M. and Lincoln Y (2000:6) define this approach of interpreting key findings from myriad sources in their description of the *bricolage* method – literally the pulling together of different elements, as in a patchwork quilt. They describe this creative process as being the 'product of the interpretive 'bricoleur's' labours, is a complex 'bricolage', a reflexive collage or montage – a set of fluid interconnected images and representations'.

<i>Bricolage</i> of Artefacts for Analysing Emergent Culture at St Andrew's Anglican College, 2006, based on Denzin and Lincoln (2000)

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Excerpts from written responses to selection criteria by successful candidates for positions at the College.• Excerpts from interview notes from interviews with successful candidates. |
|--|

- The collation of taped verbal comments from representatives of all stakeholder groups participating in a series of Focus Group sessions with structured questions pertaining to their perceptions of the emergence of culture at the College.
- *The St Andrew's Chronicles*, including staff photos from 2003 – 2006
- Drawings, photos and written reflections by students about the culture of St Andrew's during the first year and after four years of the College's operation.
- A collation of historic data about the College during its formative years

Figure 7: Bricolage Artefacts utilised at St Andrew's, 2006 © Simon

This valid methodology for using data accessed from a number of sources underpins the approach adopted in presenting the emergence of culture at St Andrew's.

Examples of Focus Group Reflections:

1. Parents' responses to the calibre and performance of the teaching staff revolved around the following consensus statements:

- Passionate
- Enthusiasm is contagious
- A real team
- Committed

The staff have an obvious passion and it could be said that they really 'live their job'. There is a real motivation from them to get the new school going. You feel that the staff really have something to prove. We're getting a whole gamut of people to choose from as staff members because of the School, its Principal, its location.

Foundation parent

2. Students' responses to the calibre and performance of the teaching staff revolved around the following consensus statements:

- Teachers are good friends
- Very co-operative
- Friendship bonds teachers and students
- High standards

The teachers always seem to be working, even on weekends. It shows they care. You can also see that even though the staff had differences and styles, they co-operated well together.

Foundation student

3. Staff members' responses to the calibre and performance of the teaching staff revolved around the following consensus statements:

- Ownership
- Collaborative vision
- A real team
- Open mindedness

There was such an emotional contribution from all the staff initially that we got to the point where we didn't want to surrender ownership of what we'd contributed. It was about taking the best parts from the other schools we'd worked at, and combining that with being open-minded enough to recognize other people's skills and experiences.

Foundation teacher

8 College Council members' responses to the calibre and performance of the teaching staff revolved around the following consensus statements:

- Teamwork established early
- Huge reliance on first staff

After the appointment of the Principal, it was critical that she selected great staff, as there would be such a reliance on them. They were handed a responsibility, and teamwork was established early. The can-do mentality of the staff pushes down to the students.

member

Ex-College Council

Findings

The research entailed a pulling together of the entire body of knowledge collected from each of these sources. The findings were synthesised and categorised, forming general indicators of the influence of staff members' attributes and behaviours on culture. Examples of drawings, extracts of written responses and recorded verbal comments are used to illustrate, as a piece of *bricolage* research, the general reflections from each data source. Rank ordering is used to indicate trends of the relative importance of teacher selection criteria and aspects of the emerging College culture in data collected, and these are illustrated in Figures 8 and 9 as follows:

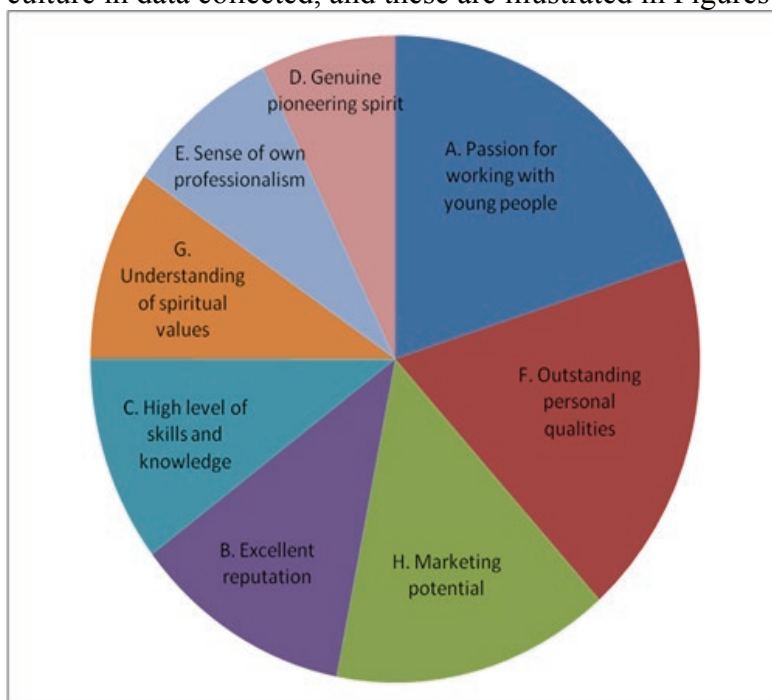


Figure 8: Relative Importance of Selection Criteria ©Simon, 2008

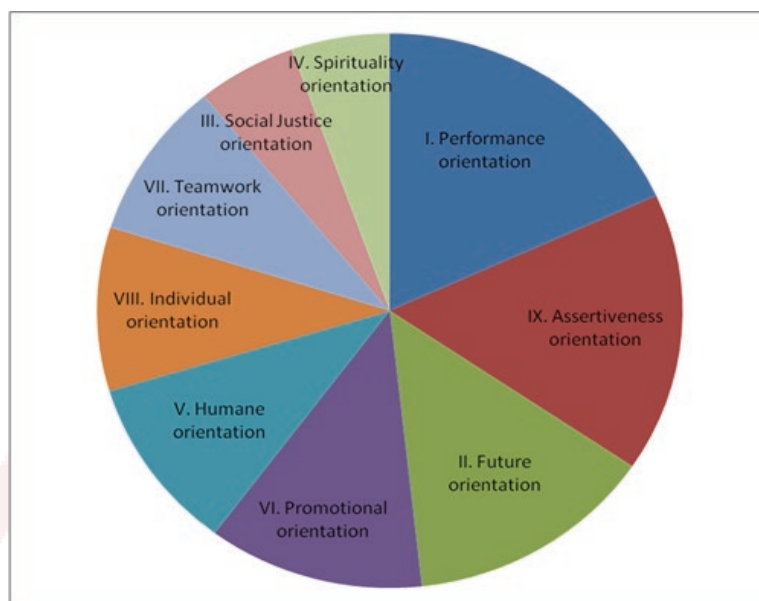


Figure 9: Relative Importance of Aspect of Culture ©Simon (2008) – based on House et al (2004)

There are many indications in this *bricolage* ethnographic study (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003:7) that the high quality of staff generally had a significant effect on the emergence of a highly positive and effective College culture. The College culture is one that had been planned from the outset, based on the ethos of the Anglican Schools Commission (Anglican Diocese of Brisbane, 2003) and in line with the expectations of the prospective clientele and with the demonstrated cultures at other independent faith-based schools. However, the emergence of the College culture also reflected the attributes of the staff members who had been selected to join the College, and it appeared from the research that both aspects of the development of the College culture (the planned characteristics of culture and the qualities which staff brought in addition to the specific qualities for which they were selected) were instrumental to the whole in each of their manifestations. The example of St Andrew's culture development presents itself as being a profound demonstration of the whole being greater than the sum of the parts, and emphasises Starrat's assertions that 'people create culture; thereafter it shapes them' (1994:274).

Relevance of findings

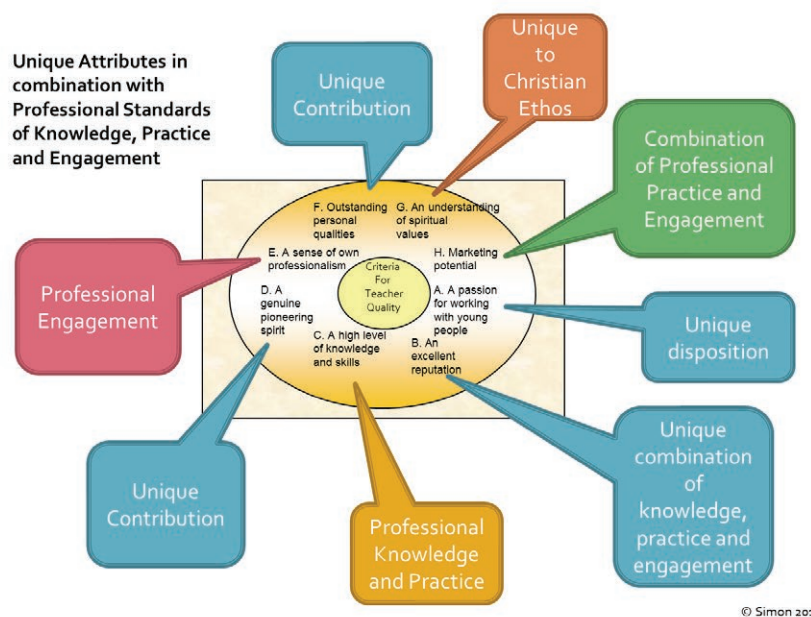
The publishing of this research will be of relevance to other new independent, faith-based schools when recruiting staff, in their endeavour to establish, develop, perpetuate or manipulate the cultures of their schools in the way that was demonstrated at St Andrew's Anglican College, Peregian Springs between 2003 and 2006. The model (Figure 6) can also be applied to other established schools, both in Australia and internationally if they are wishing to consciously develop their culture along similar lines to that at St Andrew's. The research has not correlated student learning outcomes and subsequent academic achievement directly with teacher recruitment to date, and this is a consideration for the future. However, outstanding student learning outcomes have started to emerge at St Andrew's, for example, the 2011 OP (Overall Position – the Queensland Tertiary Entrance Score) results for St Andrew's (its third year of exiting Year 12 students) featured 100% of OP eligible students gaining OPs between 1 and 15. This is an impressive result for the young

College and is one tangible indicator of the successful learning outcomes achieved by students within what has become a transformational learning culture, which may potentially be attributed, in part, to the input of staff who were selected on the basis of the criteria expounded in this research study.

Additionally, to contemporise the findings of this research for consideration in 2013, it is appropriate to consider the specific requirements for teachers as mandated in the Australian Teacher Professional Standards (AITSL, 2011), as shown in Figure 10 below:

Domains of Teaching	
Professional Standards	Focus Areas and Descriptors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional Knowledge 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Know students and how they learn 2. Know the content and how to teach it
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional Practice 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning 4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments 5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional Engagement 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Engage in professional learning 7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community

When the above professional standards for teachers are used as means by which to evaluate the selection criteria for teacher recruitment at St Andrew’s, it is apparent that there are several unique aspects which may be evaluated as being crucial in this context (see Figure 11 below). Further examination through subsequent research at St Andrew’s on this topic may be able to demonstrate the need to retain these unique criteria utilised in the first four years of the College’s development.



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Figure 11: Unique Attributes of St Andrew’s Teacher Selection Criteria in combination with AITSL’s Professional Standards of Knowledge, Practice and Engagement © Simon 2013

Where will the path of quality teaching lead?

There continues to be world-wide interest in teaching excellence in order to optimise its impact on student learning outcomes in the most beneficial ways. Governments, philosophical approaches and societal expectations change frequently and these elements have significant impact on what is dictated to tertiary providers of teacher education, local education authorities, governing bodies and schools themselves by way of mandated teacher professional standards, desirable attributes and demonstrated performance. It is important to anticipate what shape and form these changing requirements may take in the future. Universities, schools and teachers themselves will be need to optimise energy sourced from those very characteristics of excellent teachers expounded in this research study – those of ‘being informed, motivational and a win-win problem-solver, possessing foresight, positivity and the ability to plan ahead’ (House et al, 2004:677) - in facing these multifarious challenges and new opportunities in order to ensure that students continue to benefit from transformational learning journeys.

*The Road goes ever on and on
 Down from the door where it began.
 Now far ahead the Road has gone,
 And I must follow, if I can,
 Pursuing it with eager feet,
 Until it joins some larger way
 Where many paths and errands meet.
 And whither then? I cannot say.*

J. R. R. Tolkien, from *Lord of the Rings*

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The interest, involvement and knowledge of my academic colleagues at the University of the Sunshine Coast have subsequently embellished my research and I thank them also – in particular Professor Noel Meyers and Associate Professor Deborah Heck.

Is TPRS an Effective Method for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language among Young Learners of Beginning Levels?

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1. Introduction

1.1 General statement about TPRS approach

Language teachers are always searching for effective teaching methods. Since last decade, TPRS, once stood for Total Physical Response Storytelling, is now known as and is more accurately described as Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (Gaab, 2006a, p.36), turns to be a very popular teaching method of foreign language teaching all over the world.

TPRS as a language teaching method is not particularly new, it can be traced back to the Total Physical Response (TPR), which was popularized in 1970s and 1980s. In another word, TPRS is an extension of TPR, which fits within the Comprehension Approach. TPRS strategies utilize vocabulary first taught using TPR by incorporating it into stories that students hear, watch, act out, retell, revise, read, write, and rewrite. Subsequent stories introduce additional vocabulary in meaningful contexts (Cantoni, 1999b, p.53). The advocates believe that TPRS is an effective language teaching method which allows both adult and children to be active learners, produces quick results of fluency and accuracy in listening, speaking, reading and also writing skills.

Since 2000s, TPRS has also been brought into Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language field and won its popularity in Teaching Chinese as A Foreign Language classrooms, especially among schools in the United States and international schools in Asia-Pacific area. As a teacher of Chinese as a foreign language, I have been teaching in an international school for 4 years, and using TPRS as main teaching method among young learners of beginning levels for 3 years.

1.2 Essay statement and structure

Even though some TPRS advocators claim that TPRS is a valid language teaching method among all age and all level learners. This paper will focus on young learners of beginning levels only. In this essay, I will be addressing these research questions below:

1. Is TPRS an effective method for teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language among young learners of beginning levels?
2. What are the challenges of adopting TPRS in teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in an international school context?

Essay structure:

This paper consists five sections. After the first introduction section, in Section 2 I will review relevant literature and research of the TPR and TPRS. After that, in Section 3 I will provide general information of the context in which TPRS is used as major teaching method. Outcomes and challenges of adopting TPRS as main teaching method will be discussed in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 will be the conclusion of this essay.

2. What are TPR and TPRS?

Relevant literature and research about TPR and TPRS will be imported in this section, the discussion is structured under the headings of: *Definition, Knowledge, and Research*.

2.1 Definition

Total Physical Response, or TPR, is a language teaching method developed by James Asher in 1960s. The method of TPR is to have the students listen to a command in a foreign language and immediately obey with a physical action (Asher, 1969, p.3). The teacher, for example, says “Sit down” and the class sit down. The training starts from one-word utterance to more complex utterances as the course progresses. For example, after thirty minutes course, the command turns to be “stand up and go to the door, turn off the light and come back to your seat.” In the first ten hours, students are not asked to speak anything in target language, instead, TPR focus on comprehensive input (Krashen, 2009a, p.140). TPR gives emphasis to listening comprehension that comes first with speaking following later. It allows students a silent-period to get their readiness before they start to speak.

TPRS is an extension of TPR. In the beginning, TPRS stood for Total Physical Response Storytelling. And then, Blaine Ray, creator of TPRS, registered TPRS as Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling. A typical TPRS lesson consists of three parts. It is structured as Establish Meaning, Story, and Literacy (Gross, 2010). Firstly, the teacher establishes meaning of new vocabulary via actions, visuals, and verbal explanations (Gaab, 2008, p.iii). After a few class hours of TPR, students spontaneously show readiness for a gradual evolution from the receptive to the productive mode (Cantoni, 1999c, p.54). Then the teacher could move to Step 2, Story. This should be a cooperative story-building process between both teacher and students, which means developing a mini-story through questioning (Ray and Seely, 2009a, p.47). Teacher can use Personalized Question and Answer (PQA) to provide Contextualized Comprehensible Input (CCI) that is focused primarily on the day’s new vocabulary (Gaab, 2006b, p.37). TPRS utilizes the vocabulary taught in the earlier stage by incorporating it into stories that the learners hear, watch, act out, retell, revise, read, write, and rewrite. Subsequent stories introduce additional vocabulary in meaningful contexts (Cantoni, 1999b, p.53). Students are exposed to the story in target language as the teacher presents it with an abundance of gestures, pictures, and other props to facilitate comprehension (Cantoni, 1999c, p.54). The goal of TPRS is to help students acquire target language for comprehension and application. Therefore, all language (vocabulary) is taught in context via interesting and engaging stories (Gaab, 2006c, p.37). Finally, after listening comprehension and speaking fluency, reading and writing skills will be gained through step 3, literacy. Students will be asked to read and comprehend the written version of the story generated during class, and later as students produce their own story by adding varieties to the class story while they retell and rewrite the story just learned. A sample TPRS lesson plan and video record are attached in the Appendix.

2.2 Knowledge

TPRS believes that foreign language can be learned through children's first language learning model, which means language acquisition instead of language learning. Current language acquisition theory claims that we acquire language in only one way that is when we obtain 'comprehensible input.' Thus, we acquire when we understand what people tell us or what we read when we are absorbed in the message (Krashen, 1997, p.3). The key of TPRS is providing comprehensible input. Krashen states that optimal input for language acquisition is comprehensible, interesting and/or relevant, not grammatically sequenced and be in sufficient quantity (2009b, pp.62-72).

Firstly, Both TPR and TPRS fit within the Comprehension Approach and emphasis on comprehensible input. Asher (1972a, p.134), the originator of the TPR, believes that child's first language learning model can be used for second language learning. While children acquiring their first language, listening skill is far in advance of speaking (Asher, 1972b, p.133). As listening comprehension develops, there is a point of readiness to speak in which the child spontaneously begins to produce utterances (Asher, 1972c, p.134). From this analysis of children's first language acquisition, there are clues for second language learning (Asher, 1972d, p.134). TPRS is a model of how children learn their first language. In the beginning of a TPRS foreign language course, learners are informed that silent period is allowed, they will not be asked to speak target language before they are ready. Teachers offer abundant comprehensive input during the silent period. Physical gestures, other visual aids and some explanations are used through the whole teaching and learning process to guarantee learners' comprehension. Listening is the first language skill to be developed in TPRS classrooms. According to Krashen's (2009b, p.20) Input Hypothesis, "speaking fluency cannot be taught directly. The best way, and perhaps the only way, to teach speaking, is simply to provide comprehensible input. Accuracy develops over time as the acquirer hears and understands more input."

Secondly, TPRS advocators believe that by adopting Personalized Question and Answer (PQA) Strategy in story-building process could make TPRS stories interesting and engaging (Gaab, 2006d, P.37). For example, young learners get the chances to discuss the name and age of the characters in the story or teacher could make a story about a student in the classroom. Learners, especially young learners could be more engaged and cooperative in the story, sometimes they may even 'forget' it is a story in a foreign language. However, developing interesting or/and relevant materials is a challenge to teachers who is not very familiar with TPRS, even with experienced teachers, who is skillful with TPRS, as they create stories through TPRS techniques also may have difficulties in meeting all national standards for foreign language and school curriculum requirements. One of the practical solutions will be adapting the current textbooks to TPRS. Ray and Seely (2009b, p.203) suggest three options: use TPRS materials and use the textbook series as a supplement; use TPRS textbook ancillaries; create your own materials.

Finally, Grammar is taught as meaning in TPRS classrooms (Ray and Seely, 2009c, p.183). Grammar is treated as new vocabulary. For example, teacher will not explain past tense in Chinese language as verb plus 了 (le). Instead, 吃了 (chī le, ate) will be introduced as one word. More practice about 'ate' will be carried out during step 2 Story and step 3 Literacy. After a series of past tense, for example, 看了 (kàn le, saw), 坐了

(zuò le, sat), 写了 (xiě le, wrote), been imported, students will acquire past tense expression in Chinese grammar by TPRS different techniques, such as circling, PQA, repetition, etc. Ray and Seely claim that language acquisition is an unconscious process of construction grammar rules (2009d, p.185). This can be called natural input. Kashen is a supporter of teaching grammar by natural input. He states that if we provide enough comprehensible input, everything the student needs will be there (Kashen, 2009c, p.184). Kashen also claims that a very orientation of the grammatically-based syllabus reduces the quality of comprehensible input and distorts the communicative focus (Kashen, 2009d, p.70). Contextualization involves inventing a realistic context for the presentation of a grammatical rule or vocabulary item (Kashen, 2009e, p.69). TPRS advocates believe that grammar accuracy can be developed with fluency through comprehensible input, and learning grammar as meaning.

Another advantage could be observed in TPRS classrooms is that this language teaching method shows not only immediate effect but also maintaining effect. TPRS can be linked to the “trace theory” of memory in psychology, which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled (Katona 1940, cited by Richards and Rodgers 2008a, pp.73-74). TPRS provides a tremendous amount of contextualized comprehensible input, along side gestures, visual imagery, spatial imagery, spatial memory aids, body language and voice inflection (Gaab, 2006e, p.37). Retracing can be done verbally and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the possibility of successful recall (Richards and Rodgers, 2008b, p.73).

2.3 Relevant Research

The originator of TPR, Dr. James J. Asher has conducted a series of experimental research, which show that children learn a foreign language through TPRS have significantly better recall than the children learn by direct methods and other traditional methods. Outcomes from TPRS classrooms have been reported very positive in these researches. Students normally show high fluency and accuracy, which indicate TPRS can work as an effective language teaching method. The results of those researches suggest that acting-out in training seems to have intense motivational power which sustains students interest and effort (Asher, 1966, p.84).

Asher has compared TPR to other methods using foreign language classes and second language classes, using children and using adults. TPRS has been tried experimentally with languages as Russian (Asher, 1965, 1966, 1969a, 1969b; Asher and Price, 1967; Postovsky, 1970), Japanese (Asher, 1964; Kunihiro and Asher, 1964; and Kanoi, 1970), French (Mear, 1969), and Spanish (Kalivoda, T. B., Morain, G., Elkins, R. J., 1971) (Asher, 1972, p.134). The TPR results are clear and consistent, and the magnitude of superiority of TPR is quite striking (Kashen, 2009f, p.155-156).

However, I have yet to find relevant research done in TPRS. In spite of this, since TPRS evolved from TPR, and from my personal teaching experiences, I agree that TPRS is an effective method for teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language.

3. Context

General information about the context in which TPRS is adopted as a main teaching method will be provided in this section.

In 1998, the Lutheran Church - Missouri Synod (LCMS) in the United States started Concordia International School Shanghai as a non-profit and self-funding organization. Concordia is a private, coeducational day school, Preschool through to Grade 12, serving students in the Shanghai international community who seek an American-style, college preparatory education in a Christian context. In accordance with Chinese law, Concordia students must be in possession of a foreign passport or have permission from the Shanghai Education Commission to attend an international school. In the 2010-2011 school year, school year, Concordia's student body consisted of 1,161 students representing 33 passport nationalities. The top five nationalities represented are, in order, the United States (62.0%), Korea (11.4%), Canada (5.1%), Hong Kong (China) (3.7%), and Taiwan (3.6%). It is the second biggest international school in Shanghai.

Mandarin is an integral part of Concordia's daily program. A compulsory Mandarin program is offered to students, Preschool through Grade 7th. In Preschool, students receive 20 minutes of instruction per day. In Kindergarten and Grades 1-2, students receive 30 minutes of instruction per day. In Grade 3-6, students receive 40 minutes of instruction. In Grade 7, students receive 55 minutes of instruction per day. Grade 8-12 students may take Mandarin as their chosen language and receive 60 minutes of instruction on a daily basis. Otherwise, they can choose Spanish or French. According to 2010-2011 school year data, 135 of 1,161 students choose Spanish or French as their Foreign Language.

By strategic decision, Concordia does not offer English as a Second Language programs. Concordia students must meet proficiency requirements for the English language at grade standard level. Students whose first language is English make up 72.7%, only 3.7% of students' first language is Chinese (including both Mandarin and Cantonese). Therefore, the Concordia Mandarin Programme has two tracks, Mandarin as Foreign Language (MFL) and Heritage Mandarin (HM), to meet the different needs of both native and non-native Chinese speakers.

For Elementary School, Mandarin teachers use diverse language teaching methods to teach MFL track. TPRS is mainly used in Conversational Mandarin for Kindergarten (CMK), and Conversational Mandarin for Grade One (CM1). Even though some TPRS advocators claim that TPRS is a valid language teaching method among all age and all level learners. This essay will focus on young learners of beginning levels. I will use my Kindergarten class, CMK, and Grade One class, CM1 as subjects. Both CMK and CM1 are offered to students with no prior or limited Mandarin experience. In CMK, students are 5-6 years old. In CM1, students are 6-7 years old. Class size is 8-12 students. All of them are non-native Chinese speakers. Class length is 30 minutes per day. Teaching content is focus on words/phrases, and topics related to home and school life, as well as numbers, days of week/date, fruits, colors, animals, etc.

There is a common belief that children are better able than adults to learn a foreign language (Asher and Price, 1967, p.1219). Most parents in CISS with high expectation would like to take this great opportunity for their children to mastering Chinese as a foreign language when they work in Shanghai. However, there is a big gap between their expectation and reality. Students don't show the language fluency their parents hope to see and hear. One of the reasons is that within 8 hours school time per day, students are exposed to Mandarin speaking environment, which is Mandarin class, for 30 minutes only. Secondly, most of the students of CISS live in international communities, for many students their only opportunity to come in contact with, and use the language is restricted to talking with their drivers or domestic aides. These young learners at beginning levels do not have the competence to engage native speakers in conversation, and cannot understand radio and TV (Kashen, 2009g, p.183). More over they cannot read Chinese.

4.Application in my classrooms

As a teacher of Chinese as Foreign Language, I have been teaching in an international school for 4 years and using TPRS as a pilot teaching method among young learners of beginning levels for 3 years. I will present the outcomes and challenges of using TPRS as a pilot teaching method in my classes in this section.

4.1 Outcomes

As stated in Section 2.3, a number of experimental researches have been done to prove the effectiveness of TPR as a language teaching method. The outcomes of CM1 and CMK in which TPRS is used as a pilot teaching method are also impressive. These young beginners in the subject classes take the TPRS methodology in stride, both immediate effect and maintaining effect were found in my TPRS classrooms.

Firstly, since students in CMK and CM1 are young learners aging from 5-7 with no prior or limited Mandarin experience, sitting in a foreign language classroom is one of the most stressful period during a whole school day. However, a skillful TPRS teacher who is familiar with TPRS principles, procedure and techniques is able to create a relatively stress-free class atmosphere by informing students that they are allowed to have a long enough silent time. During the silent time, these young learners can act out instead of speak out what we are learning. For example, after 30 minutes class time, 95% students can act out to response to the command like sit down, stand up, walk to the door, and run to the door. I agree this kind of quick listening comprehension is a proof of immediate effect of TPRS method. Starting with abundant comprehensive input, 90% of these young learners normally show their confidence and readiness to speak simple utterance within 2 weeks. Followed by typical 3-step TPRS course, students in TPRS classrooms start to generate their comprehensible output in three forms: tactile, audio and video. Normally after 10 class hours of interaction, short completed Mandarin storytelling with some modification can be expected from these young learners. Video sees the Appendix. Before TPRS being brought into our classrooms, the situation with similar learners is that students can only speak 20-30 separate words, for example, colors and shapes, and simple greeting in Mandarin. Based on my past 4 years' class observations, the listening

comprehension and oral proficiency of young learners at beginning levels in TPRS classes are obviously higher than non-TPRS classes.

Secondly, in my subject classes, the maintaining effect of Mandarin has also been found. This demonstrated that TPRS results in better long-term retention among young learners of beginning levels than non-TPRS classes. Students of the first CMK class in which I adopted TPRS as main method are in grade 3 now. They are reported having good performance in both fluency and accuracy by their current Mandarin teachers. 80% of them still can tell the Mandarin TPRS stories they learned 3 years ago. One of the reasons is that the stories are connected with physical actions, which provide a number of traces to recall the memory. For example, the story 'little bear is hungry'. Little bear was hungry. He cried. Little bear ate a big Hamburger. Little bear is full. So little bear is happy. All the verbs, hungry, cry, eat, full (in Chinese grammar, hungry and full can also be verbs), smile, are taught with gestures touch tummy, rub eyes, chewing, pat tummy, smiley face respectively. These gestures are so-called traces of the story in Mandarin. When students see the actions of teacher and other classmates, it's helpful for them to remember the story.

Thirdly, general fluency and accuracy in Mandarin have been observed in TPRS classes. In the end of a TPRS course, there is no obvious difference among students' ability in storytelling. After normally 10 class hours, all the students show competence in understanding and retelling the TPRS story. However, difference has been observed in different grade level. Among these young learners, the older children, CM1 7- or 8-year-old students, tend to show better fluency and accuracy than the CMK 5- or 6-year-old students in both listening and speaking.

In the Mandarin Programme of CISS, we do not have a generous amount of time. Given 30 minutes a day for Chinese as a Foreign Language training, it may be unrealistic to expect fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Perhaps the usual school situation has had minimal effectiveness because the foreign language programme has been over-ambitious. It's good for CMK and CM1 these beginning levels only focus on listening and speaking, while reading and writing are required in upper grades and upper levels. For upper grade and upper levels, our Mandarin Programme is discussing using TPRS as main teaching method within the whole MFL track classes now. More pilot classes will be started from next school year.

4.2 Challenges

There are a number of challenges of adopting TPRS this new methodology into teaching Chinese as a foreign language classrooms.

4.2.1 Practicality

Practicality is a key issue. The extent to which new approaches and methods become widely accepted and have a lasting impact on teachers' practices also depends on the relative ease or difficulty of introducing the changes the approach or method requires

(Richards and Rogers, 2008c, p.246). To adopt TPRS as a main language teaching method, specific training and supportive teaching materials are needed.

TPRS (Ray and Seely 1997, cited by Cantoni 1999d, p.54) provides easy-to-follow guidelines for further progress towards more complex levels of language proficiency. To fully understand and master these language teaching skills and procedure, for example, comprehension, interest and repetitions, specific and systematic training is needed. Based on my experience, it will not take very long time for a foreign language teacher to understand the principles and theories of TPRS. However, a longer period will be needed for a new teacher to master the skills and process of TPRS. Attending relevant workshops and observing pilot lessons work effectively for new teachers who are learning how to adopt TPRS method. There is a number of experienced presenters work actively on promoting TPRS worldwide. Susan Gross is one of them. In 2007, I attended Susan Gross's TPRS workshop in Beijing. She taught 30 minutes French language lesson as an introduction to TPRS. Most of the teachers attended the workshop are Mandarin teachers, only few has little French language background. However, we all remembered 5-10 French vocabulary and was able to tell a short simple story in French. It was a very impressive and convincing presentation. And our school invited another skillful Reading and Storytelling presenter -Margaret MacDonald to provide a workshop about knowledge and skills of Storytelling, which also helped me better use the technique of storytelling.

Lack of supportive teaching materials is a problem of adopting TPRS as main teaching method in teaching Chinese As Foreign Language. As a newly developed teaching method, there are some gaps in materials. There are very few mandarin textbooks designed by TPRS method. Most of materials we are using in CM1 and CMK are created by our experienced Mandarin teachers who are familiar with TPRS method. After more than three years of teaching material building, our Mandarin department finally finished a complete set of TPRS teaching materials for CMK and CM1. This is a time consuming process, which will take even longer to build up supportive materials of higher levels and higher grades. Even if teachers contribute abundant time into teaching material building, it is still a challenge to meet all the standards of national foreign language and requirement of our curriculum.

4.2.2 Active Involvement

TPRS requires active involvement for both teacher and students.

For elementary school language teachers, make a second language learnable and enjoyable are equally important. Sustaining a positive learning environment is crucial for comprehensibility and for maintaining student engagement and focus regardless of the age of the learner (Gaab, 2009, p.20). TPRS is a relatively energy consuming method for a language teacher, especially when the class size is over 10 students. Since TPRS classes begin with silent period, during which the teacher need provide abundant comprehensible input via visuals and verbal explanations to students. Compared to vocabulary translation, TPRS requires teachers more time and effort to design and use gesture and visual explanations to show the meaning of new vocabulary. Afterwards, story building and literacy steps also require teachers to use essential skills- repetition and comprehensibility

to develop students' readiness and creativity of the target language. This is one of the main reasons that public schools and college foreign language teachers are reluctant to adopt TPRS method in their classrooms.

Meanwhile, TPRS also requires high participation and cooperation of students. TPRS course is systematically designed by lesson-to-lesson plan. Every student in the TPRS classroom must follow teacher's instruction closely. Otherwise, it's very easy for students who are not paying attention to get lost. For example, when students are absent for 1 or 2 classes, especially during the step one establishing meaning part, it is very common to see they have difficulty in catching up with the whole class. Also, it is not easy for young learners to keep long attention, especially ADHD students. There are two opposite opinions about whether TPRS is workable with ADHA students. Some teachers believe that since verbal action and visual explanation have been imported, it is a better way for students who have ADHD to learn foreign language through TPRS. However, some other teachers also find that it is extremely difficult for students to handle the repetition and high participation. I have seen both of the above situations happened in my classrooms. Basically, it is substantially up to the teacher to facilitate students as he/she working hard to get them involved with comprehensible and interesting content.

4.2.3 Curriculum Changes

After 3 years trial use of TPRS among young learners of beginning levels, Concordia's Mandarin Programme included TPRS method and relevant materials into CM1 and CMK curriculum change in 2010. Before that, several difficulties have come up, for example, lack of support from Mandarin teachers. If our school decides to use TPRS as main method of teaching Chinese as foreign language in upper grades and upper levels, it will be a big project and takes years to finish. To reach this target, systematically edited teaching materials, more specific training, coaching, and support from administration will be needed.

In our school, TPRS was used as pilot teaching method among elementary school beginning levels for three years. After 3 years' of piloting the method, Concordia administrators, Mandarin teachers, and parents all recognize that TPRS is an effective method of teaching young learners of beginning levels. Hence from 2011 on wards, all MFL teachers are required to use TPRS in MFL classes. The main focus is on listening and speaking, reading and writing are not required among these young learners in CMK and CM1 classes.

5. Conclusion

Real teachers, real classrooms and real situations have proven that TPRS works as a highly effectively language teaching method among young learners of beginning levels, especially with listening and speaking skills.

In TPR as well as in TPRS classrooms, the teacher provides comprehensible input without/rarely using First Language; instead, he/she relies on gestures, actions, pictures, and objects to demonstrate how one can talk about it in target language. Also TPRS

allows students a long enough silent period to get their readiness to talk in target language. Experimental research has also showed that compared to other language teaching method, TPRS produced both immediate effect and also longer-term retention. The outcomes of TPRS classrooms have suggested that the current school curriculum in second language learning could be made dramatically more effective if school would adopt TPRS as main teaching method among young learners of beginning levels.

Meanwhile, some teachers point out that TPRS works more effectively and efficiently with verb than noun, adjective and adverb vocabulary. In TPRS classrooms, While teaching some noun, adjective and adverb vocabulary, other language teaching methods and materials are normally also used during the meaning establishing step. Even though advocators claim that TPRS can also promote reading and writing skills. This conclusion is still in lack of empirical research. However, better listening and speaking skills among young learners of beginning level are more easily to be observed in TPRS classrooms.

As discussed in Section 4.2, there are also some challenges of adopting this new method in teaching Chinese as Foreign Language classroom. Supportive professional training and teaching materials can be two of the main solution to those challenges. Although TPRS has been proved as an effective language teaching method among young learners of beginning levels, it cannot afford the entire job of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. As Krashen (1998) claims that TPR is not a complete method. It cannot do the entire job of language teaching, nor was it designed to do this. It is an effective way to develop listening and speaking skills. However, TPRS cannot balance four skills by itself. For beginners, there are also several other powerful teaching methods. Instead of only storytelling, extension activities, for example, song and drawing can also be included into Mandarin classes.

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*Enhancing Learning and Teaching in Multicultural Contexts: Developing
Intercultural Awareness and a Shared 'intercultural metalanguage'*

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Introduction

‘[The] most visible and widely publicized indicator of educational globalisation’ (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p. 9) has been the rapid increase over the past two decades in the cultural and linguistic diversity of the student populations of our universities. This is generally recognised as a positive phenomenon. Many studies of international students, however, and in particular of Asian students, have tended to ‘[position them] within a discourse of deficient learning styles, such as rote learning or non-critical learning and also as deficient personally – passive and quiet, non-contributing’ (Koehne 2004, p. 4). Chalmers and Volet (1997) Mayuzumi et al (2007) and Wang (2010) have described similar deficit perceptions of Asian students.

Kember and Gow (1989) have argued that the Asian approach to repetitive learning should actually be regarded not as a deficit at all but rather as an approach to learning that could well be adopted by other students. A number of significant studies have revealed, for example, that Asian students used memorisation ‘in order to gain a deep and lasting understanding of the information and important concepts’ (reported in Lubbers & Dale, 2006). In contrast, studies of Australian students show that they use rote learning in a ‘surface approach to learning’. (Koehne *ibid*). In fact, recent cognitive research supports the view that repetition is needed to master difficult or new concepts and skills. Additionally, research undertaken by Watkins and Noble (2008) on Asian school students in Australia reveals their relative academic success to be due to largely to their development of a strong study ‘habitus’ and [that their study environment is characterised by] productive stillness and quiet ... crucial to sustained attention and application in intellectual endeavour and a readiness for engaged school work.’

While a substantial body of research points to these and other very positive aspects of students emerging out of Asian education systems, widespread anecdotal evidence as well as the author’s experience in a range of tertiary and secondary educational contexts point to a continuing deep-held and widespread view among Anglophone teachers and academics, as well as among the non-Asian student body, of the ‘passivity’ of Asian students in international classroom contexts. Yet recent international tests for secondary school students have demonstrated the superior performance of Asian students over Australian, British, American and continental European students across a number of subject areas, in particular in maths and

science. Moreover, the 2010 PISA results revealed the Shanghai Middle School students (ages twelve to fifteen) to have achieved the highest results in the world in maths, science and literacy, while Australia's results in these subjects have declined in recent years (OECD December 2012). In literacy ('Reading'), while Shanghai was placed first in the PISA table, Australian students achieved the ninth place, the United Kingdom the twenty-sixth ranking and the United States came in at number seventeen. It is therefore not reasonable to continue to assert that students out of Asian educational backgrounds are 'passive', 'deficient' and, by logical extension of this view, that they do not have anything to contribute to Australian or other international classrooms.

This paper is organised into five main sections. The first section refers to theoretical perspectives on the internationalisation and 'democratisation' of education. It then provides the background to the development of, and details of the content of, the initial intercultural awareness and skills development sessions developed by the author in the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research at Macquarie University. Next it outlines a successful model of embedding generic communication and professional skills into a postgraduate program in accounting at Macquarie University. In the next section I describe an approach to the integration of intercultural awareness and communication skills development trialled in two postgraduate programs in two different tertiary institutions in Australia, providing evidence from student interviews, focus groups and lecturer observational notes of perceived outcomes of the embedding approach. The final section outlines my conclusion.

Working towards a truly internationalised approach to education: theoretical foundations

The author's teaching practices and research on the embedding of intercultural awareness and 'intercultural meta-talk' in the learning and teaching of multicultural classrooms in the Australian tertiary context, reported in this paper, draw on a number of key academic, sociological and educational influences, including those of Rancière, and Singh and Meng, outlined below.

Singh and Meng (2011) critique research practice in Western universities as being dominated by traditional Western intellectual and theoretical sources, ideas and models. Drawing on Rancière's notion of the democratisation of education (Rancière 2006, quoted in Singh and Meng 2011, p. 3). Singh and Meng make a case for the 'democratisation' (Singh & Meng, 2011, p. 4) of approaches to academic research, by acknowledging and utilising Asian, among other non-Western, research sources, insights and approaches. They point out that '[for] Rancière (1991, p. 138), democratic education takes equality "not as an end to attain, but ... a supposition to maintain in every circumstance" (1991: 4). Extending this idea to the democratisation

of approaches to research in Western universities, Singh and Meng argue that the continued exclusion of non-Western approaches to research from the dominant research paradigms and approaches is non-democratic and no longer sustainable.

The author argues in this paper that western Anglophone approaches to the practice of education at all levels are similarly increasingly hegemonic, with the result that effective learning and teaching methods in Asian educational systems, for example, as previously noted, are not sufficiently understood, appreciated or valued by Anglophone educators. This leads not only to an exclusion of many Asian students enrolled in Western, Anglophone universities from any meaningful participation in academic discussion, but also to the depletion of the potentially rich 'ideas pool' that a deeper and real exchange of cultural and educational knowledges and viewpoints could offer to learning and teaching approaches in most educational settings.

Additional theoretical perspectives are drawn from the educational philosopher John Dewey (1916), whose belief in the child's experience as the starting point for learning and teaching strongly informs the author's own educational beliefs and approaches. The revolutionary educator Paulo Freire (1985, 2013) whose literacy programs with illiterate peasants in Latin America drew on their rich life experiences and expertise, is another significant influence.

Finally, the term 'intercultural communication' is preferred in this paper over the terms 'cross-cultural communication' and 'inter-discourse', terms that are at times used interchangeably and that also overlap, where cross-cultural communication studies generally rest on the notion of the existence of 'distinct cultural groups'. '[I]nter-discourse' studies set aside any a priori notions of group identity' and [focus] rather on the social context in which concepts such as culture are produced by participants for interpersonal ideological negotiation.' (Scollon & Wong-Scollon, 2008, p. 544). 'Intercultural communication' is used in this paper and in the teaching practices and research it draws on for similar reasons to those given by Piller (2011), because it is the term most often applied in contexts where 'culture, and particularly cultural difference, is made relevant by and to the participants.' (Piller, 2011, p. 9).

Method

The research reported in this paper derives mainly from four primary sources. Firstly, it draws on a case study of an individual Chinese TESOL student teacher, given the fictive name Ru, of a postgraduate teacher education program (in 2011) at a tertiary institution in Australia. This research includes detailed observational notes recorded by the lecturer (the author) during and immediately after each postgraduate TESOL seminar he attended. In addition, two interviews were carried out with Ru, with interviews being spaced between the beginning of the course and towards the end of the semester program that was the focus of this study. Finally, evidence was gathered

from interview and focus group responses of international students enrolled in an undergraduate course in a 2012 *Language and Culture* series of undergraduate programs at the University of Technology, Sydney, designed to support the transition of international students into tertiary study in Australia.

Intercultural awareness and communication skills development in academic programs: background and development of the approach

The process of embedding the intercultural awareness and communication skills development into academic programs, reported in this paper, was developed over time, and in a number of different tertiary educational institutions in Australia. The development and facilitation of intercultural orientation sessions was initiated as a result of the experience of the author as head of the English Language Program unit in the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR) at Macquarie University in Sydney, with the newly developed (from 2002) strategic goal of the English language centre, to diversify both the student body and the teaching and support staff in the centre. Where international students from a number of countries in Asia (mainly China, Japan, Korea, Indonesia and Thailand), had, prior to this point, formed the large majority of students in the language centre (around 90 per cent), substantial numbers of students from Middle Eastern, Latin American and European countries joined the Asian cultural mix after 2003.

Intercultural orientations were initiated as a direct response as well to feedback, some of it quite negative, about behavioural and attitudinal issues in the increasingly culturally diverse classes, from both students and teachers in the English centre, as well as from academics in the wider university faced with similar intercultural challenges.

The orientations took place over two hours, with students identifying their own cultural backgrounds to each other, and forming culturally diverse discussion groups. Groups were deliberately kept small, with no more than four students per group, to ensure that all students were given ample opportunities to speak. Students were provided with and given oral practise in a variety of models of the language of discussion.

The first segment of the session involved the sharing of responses on a variety of social, familial and personal behaviours, values and attitudes. Questions included, for example: 'What questions are polite and impolite to ask others? How do you behave to older people? What did your parents/grandparents/main carer teach you about "right" and "wrong" behaviours when you were a child?' (adapted from (O'Sullivan, 1994). General class discussion of similarities and differences followed the group discussion, with the facilitators (the author with support staff member) providing

input on typical Anglo-Celtic Australian (at this stage still the dominant culture in Australia) patterns of behaviours in the contexts focussed on in the discussion question, as well as in response to participant questions on Australian contexts.

The second segment focussed on educational backgrounds, behaviours and expectations. Value-laden terms were deliberately applied, for example: 'How does a *good/bad student* behave in your educational context? How does a *good/bad teacher* teach? Who talks and how much? Whose responsibility is it for students to succeed in their exams and assignments?' General class discussion followed, again with theoretical and research input provided on different views on learning and teaching.

These discussions in all sessions involving Asian and European and Middle Eastern students, for example, resulted in revelations by students to each other that classroom behaviours regarded as 'good' and 'normal' in one context was perceived as 'bad' and 'abnormal' in another context. A common response from students across the range of cultures represented in these discussions was the tagging of their response with the phrase 'Of course!' This discourse signal indicated the strength of the respondent's value judgement that specific classroom behaviours were unquestionably understood in their context as 'good' or 'bad'.

The remaining segments of the intercultural orientation session included theoretical and linguistic input, including information about collective and individualist cultural world views; high and low context cultures; a task and discussion on stereotyping; input from students about their own expectations of studying in Australia and in the English centre and university; information on explicit expectations of the English centre and teachers for all students concerning their English classes as well as university seminar and lecture behavioural expectations and information on absence, assignment, and plagiarism policies; and finally, information, including an extensive handout, on intercultural awareness, linguistic and communication differences among human groups, and intercultural awareness and communication skills 'tips' (adapted from O'Sullivan, 1994).

It was regarded as a key to successful intercultural orientations that they were held as soon as students arrived in the centre, in order to establish a clear awareness in all students from the outset of the significant differences (as well as similarities) that existed in the student body in their cultural and educational backgrounds, and in their classroom as well as extra-curricular, values, behaviours and expectations. Around the same time intercultural awareness and communication skills development professional development seminars and workshops were held for all staff in the centre, with administration staff mixing with teaching staff for these sessions, providing a further intercultural intersection of two (often quite different) professional cultures. Teaching staff were surveyed on an informal basis regularly throughout the years that these sessions were held in the centre and their feedback similarly further informed the program.

Although no formal research was carried out at this stage to determine the efficacy or otherwise of these sessions, the significant lessening of intercultural issues among students reported by teaching staff, that occurred shortly after the time when these intercultural orientation sessions began, provided an amount of observational and anecdotal evidence that they probably had a beneficial impact. Certainly the author and support staff member participating in the sessions observed many instances over the period of the several years they were held in the centre, of what might be termed 'intercultural epiphanies' among and between individual students, as students from cultural backgrounds who had previously been reported as 'clashing' in classes, discussed and shared their cultural and educational values, behaviours and expectations, and appeared to achieve respect for, and to come to a personal understanding of, the 'validity' of other students' cultural viewpoints, behaviours and attitudes that O'Sullivan (1994, p. 9) and Scollon & Scollon (2001) regard as an essential starting point for successful intercultural communication and interactions.

A successful model of embedding of generic academic and professional skills: the Language for Professional Communication in Accounting at Macquarie University, Sydney

Around the same time, from 2002, the English language centre began an interdisciplinary collaboration with the Master of Accounting program at Macquarie University that was designed to support the development of professional communication of students enrolled in this program, the largest postgraduate academic program in the University. The goal of the collaboration between English language specialists and discipline academics, known as the Language for Professional Communication in Accounting (LPCA), was to embed generic academic and graduate attribute skills such as critical thinking, participation in discussions, oral presentations, and business and professional writing skills, into the workshops and seminars of the Master of Accounting. English language teaching staff from the English centre worked collaboratively with lecturers in the Master of Accounting.

A collaborative, interdisciplinary, 'built-in' approach was preferred from the outset over a 'bolt-on' approach. Disadvantages of the latter in a tertiary context are reported by Wingate (2006, cited in Evans et al, 2009, p. 602), including the higher attendance of students, greater relevance of content, and the stronger likelihood that students will be able to relate the communication and generic skills to their subject content than is the case with adjunct workshops. As Evans et al. (ibid.) suggest:

a model of support that involves only adjunct workshops ... promotes both the idea that these skills are in some way separate to discipline content and the view that any problems experienced by NESB students are a product of student

‘deficit’ rather than something that might be addressed in any way through teaching or curriculum.

From its relatively small beginnings in 2002, the LPCA developed into a substantial program that encompassed all but one unit in the postgraduate degree. Quantitative as well as qualitative research provided clear and strong evidence of the beneficial outcomes of the project (Evans et al, 2009).

The perceived benefits of the intercultural orientation sessions held in the University’s English language centre led to a request for similar sessions to be developed and held for all on-arrival students enrolled in the Master of Accounting program. The author, however, realised over time that further integration or ‘embedding’ of the intercultural awareness and communication skills development throughout the course of academic programs, along the lines of the LPCA approach, would probably have a deeper and more enduring impact than the initial ‘one-off’ session, held during the university’s orientation week. The successful embedding of generic skills of the LPCA project provided a strong model as well as further impetus for the embedding of intercultural awareness and communication skills development into discipline subjects in other tertiary education settings.

Embedding intercultural awareness and communication skills development

The opportunity to develop a more embedded model was offered in 2011 a different tertiary institution, where the author was engaged to lecture in the postgraduate TESOL education course referred to above.

The class consisted of fourteen local students, all born in Australia or naturalised citizens (two British students). Some cultural diversity was evident in two students of Vietnamese-American and Korean-Spanish-Australian backgrounds, however the majority of the group identified their cultural backgrounds as Anglo-Celtic-Australian. The sole international student, Ru, was from mainland China, and was studying in his second semester, with teaching major methods in TESOL and Chinese.

A comment made by the lecturer on the first semester of the TESOL program alerted the author to possible intercultural issues: ‘Poor [Ru], he seems a bit out of it. I don’t think he knows quite what’s going on’. The remark was clearly not made in an unkind manner, or with an unsympathetic intent. In fact, the lecturer evinced some concern about Ru’s progress. The remark and concern expressed about Ru’s perceived lack of participation in the previous semester’s seminars did trigger in the author, however, a realisation that the further integration of intercultural awareness and communication skills development into the program might have a beneficial impact on Ru’s class

participation, as had been observed in student participation patterns following the introduction of the intercultural sessions at Macquarie University.

An initial intercultural orientation was held at the beginning of the semester which followed a similar pattern to the sessions described above, except that the discussion of educational behaviours and attitudes was given an entire session of two hours duration. Because this program is designed to educate developing teachers, more time was spent, as well, on theoretical perspectives and research outcomes on approaches to learning and teaching in non-Western education systems, in particular in Asia. Students were also shown a videoed interview of the author with a postgraduate Japanese student (from another tertiary institution) named Hana, in which she describes her difficulties with offering a viewpoint that differs to any other opinions expressed in her class:

... I've never been taught by arguing against someone's idea, especially in the classroom or in front of everyone. If I ... argue with someone's idea I feel ... like I'm fighting with someone in the class [Hana balls her fists and hits knuckles against knuckles].

I feel as if I'm criticising them in front of everyone and I feel ... I am embarrassing them in front of everyone.

... That also applies to me:

If someone argues against my idea in front of everyone I feel as if I've made a mistake or done something wrong. ...

Hana's account echoes that of other Japanese students studying overseas. Watanabe, for example, alludes to the 'non-confrontational' (2005, p. 227) style of Japanese students involved in group discussions with American students.

Class discussion comparing and contrasting the variety of approaches to learning and teaching shared in group discussions, as well as their perceived advantages and disadvantages, were then discussed with the class as a whole. Ru, whose linguistic and critical competencies were ably demonstrated in his group discussion (closely monitored by the lecturer/author), was then asked to compare the approaches to learning and teaching described by the Anglo-Celtic-Australian students in the class discussion, with his own experience of school and undergraduate studies in China. Ru described a 'good student' in his educational experience as one who 'listens carefully to the teacher ... and writes many notes ... then [after class] he studies the topic in the textbook ... and also the class notes'. 'Good students' may ask one of two questions per class, but a 'bad student' was described as someone who 'asks too many questions in class ... and also talks too much [because] maybe the other students will think he is ... uh ... bragging or boasting ... wasting the other students' and teacher's time.' At this point the lecturer referred students to the theoretical perspectives of the intercultural orientation session, as well as to research outcomes that demonstrated the effectiveness of a variety of Asian approaches to learning. The class was also

reminded of the research finding of Watkins and Noble (2008) quoted in the introduction to this paper.

Throughout the semester the lecturer attempted to integrate intercultural awareness and communication skills development into the entire program. While a detailed description of all elements that were trialled in this program, and in the University of Technology class of international students, are beyond the scope of this paper, key strategies implemented and elements and illustrative examples, as well as student feedback from interviews and focus groups are given below.

Firstly, the initial intercultural orientation session proved invaluable as a reference point for many aspects of the program, and at several crucial points of subsequent seminars, as in the example given above. The lecturer was able to remind students of key theoretical and students' input of the sessions, for example in response to an Anglo-Celtic student's apologetic remark 'Sorry, Ru', following her description of a group of Chinese students she had observed in a pre-practicum visit to a secondary Intensive English Centre: 'The Chinese students all sat together and they were not participating in the discussions. They weren't even paying attention.' The lecturer's responded with the questions:

'How do you know they were not listening? What was your evidence for this? Could you see their work? What do the rest of you think? Ru, do you have any ideas about do you think might be happening? Of course, some students may not be listening or paying attention, but can you think of any input from our intercultural session, for example, the video interview with Hana that might offer an alternative explanation?'

In his interview response, Ru described this meta-cultural intervention as particularly helpful for him:

When [the student] said 'Sorry' to me, I felt very embarrassed and sad for all the Chinese students - I felt embarrassed also for me ... because ... I am also Chinese and I think the students in this class maybe think that I am the same ... I am not involved or listening to the discussion. But for me it is also like Hana says in the video ... I do not want to contradict the others ... or seem not polite ... even when I have my ideas and opinions. ... So you made the other students think that maybe ... the Chinese students are trying to be good students or maybe they don't understand and the teacher should help them, maybe write some main words on the board and also help the students to practise how to discuss the topics and ... [how to] to give their own ideas.

A similar meta-cultural intervention, applying intercultural meta-language, in one of the *Language and Culture* seminars at the University of Technology, produced a

similarly positive response. Firstly the intervention is described, and this is followed by a Japanese student's interview response:

During a class discussion, a Japanese student was asked for his view on the topic. After approximately five seconds of silence, one of the Spanish students in the class offered her ideas. The lecturer acknowledged her response, but mentioned that this student had already contributed to the discussion, and that Kazuaki (name changed) might have some interesting thoughts on the topic.

Kazuaki: Sorry ... I am sorry ... I cannot speak too quickly after you ask a ... after anyone asks a question. I need some more time to think about my ideas.

Lecturer: This is an important aspect of Japanese culture, isn't it, Kazuaki? You told us about this in our first intercultural session.

In this instance, the Spanish student then remained quiet until Kazuaki gave his response.

A Japanese student's interview response to this instance:

We [the Japanese students] want to give our opinions in class but it is very difficult for us to speak ... the Spanish students speak too fast for us and ... in Japan it is very rude to interrupt other people. And like you said in the first [intercultural] class ... Japanese people need time when the teacher asks a question. But the Spanish students understood when you said that ... after you helped Kazuaki in the class ... [the Spanish students] realised this fact. Now it is much more easy [sic] for me to speak in class, even to the whole class.

Observational notes revealed a marked increase in this student's contributions to class discussions over her first semester, not only in student-lecturer interactions, but also in student-student interactions in a whole class context.

Interview and focus group responses to the question about preferred organisation of group discussion in the University of Technology class were overwhelmingly (one hundred per cent of the class) in favour of culturally diverse groups. One student expressed the view that all students supported, that '[m]ulticultural groups are the best groups for discussion.'

A Spanish student described a complete shift in her perception of 'Asians' following her experience in this class:

Before I came to Australia I thought all Asians were the same. I mean, I did not know anything much about them or their cultures ... and I did not realise they are all as different in their personalities as Europeans. This is one of the most important things I have learned from discussing all the topics with them. They

all have their individual opinions and personalities, just like Spanish and all the Europeans.

The same student expressed interest in the amount of cultural and political information she had learned about Asia from the class. Surveys of international students studying in Australia continue to emphasise the importance of making international as well as local friendships, and in learning more about other cultures, not just Australia. Evidence that this has occurred with this class is that at the time of writing this paper, almost a year after the end of this class, many students from this class remain in email and Face book contact with each other.

Analysis of the TESOL final teaching portfolio assignment provided a clear demonstration of Ru's ability to apply active listening in class as well as a high level of critical thinking. His portfolio achieved the highest grade (High Distinction, a marked contrast with his Pass result of the first semester. Ru chose to base his portfolio development around an intercultural comparison of the Chinese and Australian classrooms. In his interview Ru commented on this topic choice:

I think the intercultural session was very important for me ... also for our whole class. Actually, I think it is very important for everyone and especially it is important for teachers to know these ideas about culture and the way education is different in different countries. ... In my opinion all of the ways have advantages and disadvantages. I think it is good for teachers to discuss these topics with their students. When we discuss these ideas a lot in our classes we can learn respect for other people'

Conclusion

The research reported in this paper suggests a number of beneficial outcomes of integrating or embedding the generic academic and professional skill of intercultural awareness and communication into discipline subjects in our increasingly internationalised education institutions. Observation and the focus group as well as interview responses reported in the paper reveal that, far from representing a 'deficit model ... a liability or a problem' (Evans et al. 2009, p. 609) students from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds are able to provide invaluable learning and teaching insights for each other and also for educators. This is particularly the case with teacher education, since teachers at all levels of education are faced with increasingly linguistically and culturally diverse students. The Chinese student teacher education student described in the paper contributed unique cultural and intercultural input, leading to a deeper understanding in the Anglophone students of alternative explanations for classroom behaviours of Asian students that they had previously regarded as passive and 'uninvolved'. This student was also able to demonstrate to the class his ability to think critically, thus undermining the stereotype of the Asian

student held by many Anglophone teachers, including, crucially, these developing teachers. Similarly, the Anglophone students were able to inform their Chinese peer about learning and teaching ‘norms’ and expectations in an Australian context, as well as point him towards further approaches to teaching.

As Singh and Meng suggest, diversity is a key to democracy because in essence ‘[democracy] is a system of variety and multiple accommodations.’ (Singh & Meng, 2011, p. 4). The author argues that the embedding of intercultural awareness and communication skills development can be most effective and enduring when educators develop, in negotiation with their students, and apply throughout their practice, a common *intercultural metalanguage*. The purpose of a developing and using *intercultural metalanguage* is to make cultural aspects of students’ and educators’ and educational institutional behaviours, attitudes, values and expectations explicit. It is also to provide a common language for negotiating educational cultural change by acknowledging and drawing on the experiences, knowledges and understandings of all participants in the educational process.

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The logo for the International Association for Educational Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular arc at the bottom and a smaller, light blue circular arc at the top. To the left of the logo, there is a large, light red curved shape that resembles a stylized 'i' or a decorative element.

Key Principles of Peer Reviews: A Feedback Strategy to Engage the Postgraduate International Learner

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Abstract: The paper reports the findings of a project that attempted to assess the benefits of peer reviews as a formative assessment intervention for postgraduate international learners. The aim was to improve participants' understanding of quality in academic writing, and hence improve the summative assessment scores, by improving the quantity of feedback received in a collaborative learning environment. The project utilised the action research methodology and qualitative methods to recommend effective practices for peer reviews. Research findings highlight that although there was no substantial increase in the average score for the groups that received peer feedback; improvements in summative scores for the higher ability students were observed. All the learners agreed that the peer feedback should be made a permanent feature of the programme but selected the main barriers in giving feedback as lack of experience and hesitation in critiquing peer's work. It is recommended that peer reviews are included as a permanent feature of the postgraduate programme but with adequate tutor planning and student preparation. Additional strategies to encourage engagement of international students with 'Peer Reviews' are required to demonstrate improved results across all ability levels.

Introduction:

In the recent past, Higher education institutions in the UK have witnessed an increase in the enrolment of students from other countries (Grimshaw, 2011). Previous academic experiences and expectations may lead to international students' dissatisfaction; a current challenge to educational institutes in the UK (Newsome and Cooper, 2013). The authors initiated a peer review project for an assessment on the Masters in Business Administration (MBA) course. The MBA curriculum being content full, finding space and time for individual feedback was challenging. Further, it was observed that tutors' feedback was not being accurately perceived and effectively utilised by the students to improve the summative assessments. Tutors need to provide more guidance to students regarding the use of feedback (Orsmond et al, 2002). To address these issues; a peer review project was piloted in June 2011. The aim of the project was to implement and evaluate a new learning strategy for timely formative feedback in an attempt to clarify 'quality' in writing (Sadler, 2010). The potential of formalising peer reviews as a feedback mechanism has been widely researched and a number of strategies have been tested to utilise this as a formative tool for learners (McConlogue, 2012; Wimshurst and Manning, 2013; Sadler, 2010). The researcher investigates the benefits and challenges involved in formalising peer assessment practices, specifically for postgraduate international students studying at a UK Institution.

Main observations and recommendations from the implementations are included in this paper. Although this process was initiated in 2011, the initiative for 'Peer Review' could be strengthened now to address the institute's strategic objective for excellence which states 'delivery of inspirational teaching and investment in the delivery of teaching' as a priority for strategic plans (EHWLC, 2013). In addition, the QAA (2005) has been encouraging the development of peer feedback schemes in higher education. This paper aims to evaluate the benefits of peer reviews for the international student and recommends effective practices to engage international learners in feedback through peer reviews.

The main research objectives are:

1. To investigate the strengths and challenges involved in peer reviews as a feedback strategy.
2. To evaluate the success of 'Peer Reviews' for international students, with respect to four implementations in a MBA programme.
3. To recommend effective practices in peer reviewing as a useful tool to engage the international student in reflecting on feedback.

Why introduce Peer Reviews for courses involving a large number of international students?

UK Business Schools have been at the forefront of the expansion of both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes for overseas students (Hall and Sung, 2011). Views of the international students' classroom behaviour often focuses on the perceived problems that overseas students bring with them, such as poor spoken and written language ability; a low level of participation in group work; a reluctance to display critical thinking in study; problems with reference skills and plagiarism (Hall and Sung, 2008; Grimshaw, 2011). Newsome and Cooper, 2013 are of the opinion that these issues are linked to the cultural, language and academic differences in addition

to the recent geopolitical events that may stereotype the international learner in the UK. It is noted that international students attending programmes overseas could be affected by multiple issues, ranging from profound social or psychological factors to seemingly superficial but potentially very problematic changes of climate, diet or daily routine. These are some barriers to learning that may be making it difficult for the international learner to achieve on the course or sometimes drop-out of the programme. Clearly, learning strategies to encourage participation and encourage international student engagement with the content of the course is required.

Planning time for giving students effective feedback is an important and challenging aspect of the teaching and learning process (Fluckiger et al, 2010). Further, low levels of engagement with feedback need to be addressed in time for students to modify their own thinking and behaviour to improve learning. This requires students to be involved as partners in the assessment of learning and to use assessment results to change their own learning tactics (Popham, 2008). The assessment approach that best accomplishes this is formative assessment. Formative assessment seeks to inform instruction and help students use the results to enhance their own learning. It is important because feedback given only at the end of a learning cycle is not effective in furthering student learning (Bollag, 2006). The main challenge is for tutors with large class sizes, making it difficult for them to engage in dialogue with all students. Nonetheless, there are ways that teachers might increase feedback dialogue even in these situations. One approach is to structure small group break-out discussions of feedback in class (peer reviews) after students have received written comments on their individual assignments (Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick, 2006).

The benefits and challenges of introducing peer reviews

A possible learning strategy that could be used to provide timely and developmental formative feedback is 'Peer Reviews', formative feedback on students' work by other students (CADQ, 2013). Peer Reviews prepare students for appraisal skills which their future workplaces may demand, especially practice for evaluation and feedback. These might be essential transferrable skills to offer learners (McConlogue, 2012; CADQ, 2013). Student understanding of assessment standards is complicated by the fact that assessment processes require students to draw upon both explicit and tacit knowledge (Wimhurst and Manning, 2013). Explicit knowledge can be clarified through guidance notes or discussions in lectures. Tacit knowledge, however, tends to be experiential and is derived from shared understandings developed among members of academic communities. Students who are still on the periphery of academic communities may not discover these implicit understandings which usually inform quality work (McConlogue, 2012; Sadler, 2010). Through discussion of the assessment criteria, peers reviewing others' work may begin to get clarity for the 'tacit assumptions'. Peer feedback increases the amount of feedback students receive, and they get it more quickly than if tutors would provide it individually (ASKe, 2010). The process of reviewing the work of their peers clarifies to students what is considered good work, improving their understanding of quality in writing (Sadler, 2010). Finally, peer reviews have the potential to improve students' understanding of the kind of integration which should characterise complex pieces of assessment (Wimhurst and Manning, 2013).

While earlier research on peer assessment identified considerable benefits for student learning, recent discussions have been more cautious, as marking reliability of this

kind of writing task is difficult to achieve. Wimshurst and Manning (2013) have in their literature cautioned against attempting to rigorously measure the outcomes of feedback. This is because assessment occurs within a 'complex web' of contextual and relational factors. In fact, Bloxham and West (2007) found that their participants did not enjoy the experience of marking the work of classmates. Cartney (2010) writes of the emotionality and anxiety associated with peer assessment, where students are concerned about whether some of their fellow markers, in whom they have little confidence, actually understand the criteria for marking. If the formative and summative assessments are separated by little time difference, this may inhibit the effective application for improvement of the summative piece (CADQ, 2013; Wimhurst and Manning, 2013). These benefits and challenges must be carefully evaluated in the design and customisation of a peer review programme.

Reliability of Peer Assessment as compared to Tutor Judgments

Previous research indicates that formative rather than summative peer feedback is valuable for student development (CADQ 2013, Sadler 2010, and McConlogue 2012). International students, in particular, seem to assume that tutor grades represent reliable marking and tend to accept them unquestioningly. For complex tasks, requiring critical analysis and evaluation, grading decisions may demonstrate a range of marks and differing opinions based on the perceptions of the markers. As highlighted by McConlogue (2012), the significance of the process of peer reviews then may not be in quantitative grading but in composing and receiving peer feedback. This may be applicable to a large extent for the international student who may have little exposure to learning strategies popular in western pedagogy. Awarding grades to their peers may be an unsettling experience and some cultural barriers may inhibit constructive feedback to peers. Effective application of peer reviews may require the allocation of marks to be avoided so the focus is on offering constructive feedback to peers (Sadler, 2010). Formative feedback adopts social constructivism principles where peers can become engaged in interesting activities that encourage and facilitate learning through social interactions (Reece and Walker, 1997; CADQ, 2013). In contrast, awarding grades or marks could reflect the individualistic view where students compete for grades. Hence, in this context it was decided that the peer review program should be used for formative and developmental purposes rather than for summative evaluation purposes.

Guiding Principles for Peer Reviews:

Assessment Standards Knowledge exchange(ASKe), a Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning (CETL) based in the Business School at Oxford Brookes University recommends that peer reviews utilise a process involving three major steps (Figure 1):

STEP 1	Prior to the peer review session, facilitate marking exercises that give students practice in assessment and feedback using sample assignments
STEP 2	Prepare for and structure the peer review session
STEP 3	Actively facilitate the peer review session, adhere to a strict timetable and tell students exactly what they must do and for how long.

Figure1: The ASKe Framework for Peer Reviews (Adapted from ASKe, Oxford Brookes University, 2010)

The Centre for Academic Development and Quality at Nottingham Trent University recommends that peer feedback supplements tutor feedback and this must be clarified to the learners before the peer review process is implemented (CADQ 2013; Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick 2006). To provide a bigger picture of coherence and integration, it is recommended that learners are provided with some exemplars of previously assessed work with tutor feedback comments (Wimshurst and Manning, 2013; Sadler 2010). This would assist the international student in particular, as language difficulties often make the tacit elements only partially comprehensible. Staff skills in marking gained through years of experience with academic procedures should be shared with the learners, in the form of demonstration of the marking and feedback techniques (McConlogue, 2012).

A Learning Intervention; Implementation of Peer Reviews

The project was implemented for a MBA programme consisting mainly of international students with mixed abilities. The learners were demonstrating limited use of the feedback provided by tutors. Due to the large number of learners in each group, providing formative feedback was becoming challenging for lecturers, especially formative feedback for individual presentations. A new learning strategy using the ASKe Framework (Table 1) was proposed and a ‘Peer Review’ initiative was designed as an intervention to engage the students with feedback received on their submissions. The author facilitated implementations of Peer Reviews in two phases for an assessment requiring responses to a complex task requiring critical analysis. The project utilised the action research methodology using qualitative data to make improvements in the second phase of the project. An explanation of why ‘Peer Reviews’ is appropriate as a feedback strategy for the international learner and some guiding principles in its potential to improve teaching and learning follow.

The two-phase project:

The project involved design and implementation of four distinct peer review sessions, involving 138 learners. This was implemented in two phases, between June 2011 to March 2013. The assignment was a piece of formative assessment in the ‘Managing people’ model that required an analysis of organisational behaviour problems, typically involving divergent responses from different learners. This was a mid-term

assessment; hence feedback from this would benefit the summative assessment for this course. The output required from the peer feedback for the first two groups was to award a numerical grade to a peer's work.

First Phase- June 2011 to June 2012: Two groups of learners-one consisting of 42 and the other of 36 learners were assisted to implement the pilot peer reviews as indicated by the ASKe framework (ASKe, 2011). This involved peers assigning grades (Appendix 1a) as well as providing comments for each other's work (Appendix 1b). Each learner received feedback from a minimum of two peers. Following this, the tutor spent time with each group and reviewed the peer comments and marking. Based on the feedback, the students reflected on the improvements required in their work. The implementations were evaluated through observation by the tutor and a questionnaire consisting of the following open comment sections;

Learner Reflection:
For my next assessment, I could work on improvements in the following areas:
Do I think that the peer review of assessment is a useful process?
Here's how it's helped me (list two to three points):

Figure 2: Student reflection on peer review – Open comment questions

The analysis of the findings from the first phase was used to improve the second phase of the implementations. Feedback from the first phase suggested that the learners required specific assistance with constructing feedback to peers, hence in the second phase, sample assignments with tutor feedback were discussed (McConlogue, 2012). The results of phase one indicated that when peers were asked to award marks to each other, the focus was on awarding marks and most learners ignored the crucial aspects of feedback and suggestions for improvements.

Second Phase- July 2012 to March 2013: Considering the limitations of the numerical grading of peer's work, the technique of the peer review was modified for the next two groups to include mainly qualitative feedback from peers (Part b of Appendix 1). The next two groups of students were instructed to focus on providing their peers with only qualitative feedback, highlighting good features and advice for improvement. In both phases, all feedback was returned, so students could incorporate the suggestions for the summative assessment. The implementations were evaluated through observations of the peer review sessions and through an online survey that was administered two weeks after the peer review sessions. A gap of two weeks was designed to allow sufficient time for the learners to reflect on the peer feedback and the benefits and challenges of the new learning strategy.

A comparison group consisting of learners studying the Marketing module on the same MBA course was selected to determine the reliability of the peer review technique. Findings from the open comment questions in the feedback form (Figure 2 above) and from summative class scores were analysed. Participants were invited at the end of semester to reflect through an online survey (Appendix 2) to evaluate if they found the peer reviews useful and their perceptions of its challenges and benefits. Eventually, guidelines for effective peer review practices for international students are proposed.

Findings from the 2-phase implementation:

The analysis of the open comment questions and tutor reflections on the experience in the post-implementation phase offered some useful guidelines on the success of the peer reviews, in terms of its benefits and challenges. The tutors agreed that although the initial set-up for the sessions were difficult to achieve, the actual process was useful in terms of benefits for the staff and learners. The learners found peer reviews to be useful and shared that they experienced improved clarity on assessment expectations. Some comments received from learners in the open comments section of the questionnaire follow:

Student A-‘Feedback from peers who are objective and have a good level of knowledge is useful. It should be a regular feature of the MBA in all the subjects and also for exams’

Student B-‘It helps build up our ability to give feedback in our work in the future.’

Student C-‘The most difficult part was for me to assign a mark for another student, who is also my friend; I found it difficult to say to him that his work was not of a pass level.’

Student D- ‘I think we need more training before we mark another student’s work, we could practice using some examples first.’

An analysis of the results of the survey highlighted the key benefits and challenges of the peer reviews as perceived by the learners:

Q. In your opinion, what are the benefits of peer feedback? Select as many as you think are applicable.

The analysis of this question highlighted the main benefits, as perceived by the learners were the opportunity to reflect on and discuss the feedback from the tutor. In addition, the ‘assistance with focussing on the important aspects of the assignment’ and ‘gaining insights and opinions about quality of the work expected’ were also listed.

Figure 3: Main Benefits of Peer Feedback
 (Total Respondents=17, Multiple selections possible)

Answer Choices	Responses (Numbers Agreeing)
Discuss and reflect on feedback from tutor	14
Focus on important aspects of the assignment	12
Insights and opinions of peers on completed work	8
Opportunity to learn about each other's organisation or work area	5
Understand marking grid for the module better	4

An analysis of the results of the question:

Q. In your opinion, what are the challenges of peer feedback? Select as many as you think are applicable.

Peer reviews seemed to be an unsettling experience for some international students, resulting in hesitation to participate in the process in future. An analysis of the main challenges revealed that students seemed to be concerned about their own and their peers' ability to make marking decisions. They were also concerned about differences in ability and willingness to critique one another's work. For many students, this was perhaps the first time they had seen a range of marks and were confronted with subjectivity in marking.

The logo for the International Association for Frontiers of Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a serif font. The logo is surrounded by a large, faint, circular graphic composed of several overlapping, curved lines in shades of blue and orange, creating a sense of motion or a globe.

Figure 4: Main Challenges of Peer Feedback (Total Respondents=17, Multiple selections were possible)

Answer Choices	Responses (numbers agreeing)
Found it difficult to criticise classmate's work	8
Confidentiality (of chosen organisation that the submission was based on)	2
Cultural differences	2
Not equipped to make decisions on assignments	7
Overall, peers were too generous	6

The marks awarded by peers were analysed to test the reliability of peer marking and these were found to be on an average 12-19% higher than tutor grades. This agrees with previous research that states; Peer assessment of long written tasks poses particular problems as these tasks typically involve complex learning and solving ill-structured problems which require divergent and variable responses (McConlogue, 2012; Wimshurst and Manning, 2013). For international students, there may be a tendency to over mark the assessments of peers. One reason for this could be the close-knit community developed of international students studying similar programmes (Langan et al, 2008); Another reason could be the hesitation to critique each other's work, linked to the culture prevalent in their country of origin (Newsome and Cooper, 2013).

A comparison of the summative grades achieved by the students who were provided with peer feedback with the summative grades of learners who did not get the opportunity follow (Table 1). Although the average scores did not increase as a result of the peer reviews, the proportion of learners achieving scores above 65 increased as demonstrated by figures in Table 2. To test the reliability of these results, benefits of the peer review were evaluated for the Marketing module which demonstrated similar results (Table 2).

Table 1: Evaluation of Findings for MPO Module

Course: MBA Module : Managing People in Organisations		
	Group A-No Peer Feedback	Group B- Peer Feedback Provided
Total number of students	35	32
Average scores on Summative Assessment	61	62
Percentage of learners achieving over 65%	31.42%	43.75%
Standard Deviation	9	13.5

Table 2: Evaluation of Findings for the Marketing Module

Course: MBA Module : Marketing		
	Group A-No Peer Feedback	Group B- Peer Feedback Provided
Total number of students	35	18
Average scores on Summative Assessment	49	49
Percentage of learners achieving over 65%	17.14%	27.77%
Standard Deviation	12	19

The benefits of peer reviews are clearer for the high-ability students since it helps them achieve even better. Learners in this group are motivated and engaged from the outset, as demonstrated by the quality of feedback they provided their peers. However, further investigation is necessary to confirm the extent to which this increase in scores can be attributed exclusively to the feedback strategy of peer reviews.

Discussion-Implications for practice:

Peer reviews that involve numerical grades tend to limit the amount of quantitative feedback that peers provide, the main focus of the review sessions are the grades and conversations that justify the marks awarded. Davies (2006) notes it is important that this process includes feedback and not just marks. In the above implementation, peer reviews were utilised to improve the quality and timeliness of the formative feedback. As a result of this timely feedback, the number of students achieving above 65% has been increasing by 10-12% over the previous cohorts that did not utilise peer reviews as a formative feedback strategy. Further strategies to engage all learners, especially the learners that find it difficult to score higher than 45 % are necessary.

In addition, as highlighted by Popham (2008), peer reviews when used consistently for formative feedback could transform a grade -dominated classroom, into a learning-dominated classroom, where the focus of assessment is to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

Conclusions and Recommendations:

This paper discusses experiences from four implementations of 'Peer Reviews' in a MBA programme. Results from these implementations demonstrate the benefits and challenges involved in peer reviews as a feedback strategy for international students. Feedback from the learners has highlighted that the main benefits of peer reviews are the opportunity to reflect on the feedback from the tutor and to understand the components and quality in an assessment. An analysis of the main challenges revealed that students seemed to be concerned about their ability to make marking decisions and hesitation to critique each another's work. The benefits of peer reviews are clearer for the high-ability students, further strategies to engage learners across all ability levels are required, in conjunction with 'Peer Reviews' as a feedback strategy for international students.

Based on the data gathered from the student surveys and staff interviews, the process for peer reviews should consider the following guiding principles:

1. Formative Evaluation- A peer review program should be used for formative and developmental purposes rather than for summative evaluation purposes.
2. Rehearse – A demonstration or a marking workshop before the peer review sessions can improve learners' clarity on the peer feedback techniques and give them the confidence to approach the peer review process with enthusiasm.
3. Specific descriptors –Levels of achievement relating to the assessment criteria should be specified so it is not open to diverse interpretation by international students.
4. Provide Exemplars-Provide learners with any available samples of marked assignments with tutor feedback, so they could get an idea of the content as well as the intent of the feedback.
5. Question tutor judgements- Using demonstrations and samples, prompt student questioning of staff judgements-International students could be encouraged to challenge tutor decisions on their submissions, thus developing their questioning skills through peer and tutor support.
6. Plan follow-up sessions- Organise sessions for any learners needing clarification/additional support. For example, demonstration by a previous student as to how the peer review improved his/her scores. This would be helpful for learners who do not seem to perceive the benefits of peer reviews in the initial sessions.
7. Support learners to develop their own networks for peer review using study groups, coursework groups, virtual forums/discussions and social forums. Most international students frequently form relationships with other international students, and these sometimes endure years after the study abroad experience. If this culture of peer feedback endures, the learners could benefit from a truly trans-cultural experience.(Grimshaw,2011)

These guidelines hope to create a productive classroom climate, for the international student, where the focus is on learning more than on grading

Should Peer Reviews be included as a regular feedback strategy in the design and delivery of the postgraduate provision of the institute?

Formative peer reviews have the potential to involve learners as collaborators in assessment and use the strengths of the close knit community of international students to improve the learning process. The authors recommends 'Peer Reviews' to be

accommodated as a permanent feedback strategy in at least one or two modules in postgraduate qualifications in the institute, especially those involving a large number of international students.

Specific strategies could be utilised to engage a diverse range of abilities in a class involving international learners. For every group engaging in peer reviews, a workshop could be introduced to discuss effective practice, assisting participants in developing review skills and hence confidence with the process. If peer reviews can be made a part of a postgraduate course's learning strategy, the result would be that individuals are interacting with and learning from, a range of peers with diverse backgrounds and abilities. The inclusion of peer reviews as an integral component of a programme would engender a culture of critical review (CADQ, 2013). If this culture of peer feedback endures, the learners could benefit from a truly trans-cultural experience (Grimshaw, 2011), developing cross-cultural interaction skills that may be a valuable in a globalised career.

Future research could explore the specific development of cross-cultural skills for international students in UK through peer reviews. Another area could be to explore additional learning strategies to improve the benefits of peer reviews across all ability levels. Further studies could consider the potential of technology in facilitating the process of peer reviews for international students.

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Appendix 1a: MARKING GRID:

NAME OF STUDENT BEING ASSESSED: _____

Names of peers assessing

1. _____ 2. _____

Section	Marks Assigned	Marks Assigned	Tutor Mark and Comments
	Peer 1	Peer 2	
Executive Summary	/10	/10	
Introduction of the Organisation	/5	/5	
Description of the Organisational Behaviour related work problems Issue 1 Issue 2	/10	/10	
A critical analysis of the problems/issues, using theories/concepts	/20	/20	
Recommendations to improve the situation using key OB theories in the context of the situation	/30	/30	
Conclusion	/15	/15	
Document Structure and Referencing	/10	/10	
TOTAL	/100	/100	

Appendix 1b. PEER FEEDBACK COMMENTS

<p>PEER 1 FEEDBACK: Aspects that the learner has handled well: 1. 2. 3. Suggestions for improvement: 1. 2. 3.</p>	<p>PEER 2 FEEDBACK: Aspects that the learner has handled well: 1. 2. 3. Suggestions for improvement: 1. 2. 3.</p>
<p>Tutor Feedback:</p>	<p>Tutor Feedback:</p>

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Appendix 2: On-line Survey

Peer Reviews - Usefulness and Limitations for Post Graduate Programmes

1. Which course are you enrolled on

- Hospitality Management
- MBA - General Management
- Postgraduate Leadership and Management
- CIPD Professional Programmes

2. Have you participated in a peer feedback session during the course of the study?

- Yes
- No

3. In your opinion, what are the benefits of peer feedback? Select as many as you think are applicable.

- Discuss and reflect on feedback from tutor
- Insights and opinions of peers on completed work
- Opportunity to learn about each other's organisation or work area
- Focus on important aspects of the assignment
- Understand marking grid for the module better

4. Do you think peer feedback should involve feedback in the forms of comments only or should marks also be discussed for the completed piece of work?

- Feedback in the form of peer comments only
- Feedback in the form of suggested marks from peers
- Feedback in the form of marks and comments from peers

5. What are the challenges that you faced in giving and receiving Peer Feedback?

- No previous experience in giving feedback
- Found it difficult to criticise classmate's work
- Confidentiality (of chosen organisation that the submission was based on)
- Cultural differences
- Not equipped to make decisions on assignments
- Overall, peers were too generous

Promoting the value of education as a challenge to the contemporary school

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0386

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Abstract

Promoting learning is one of the most important challenges for the contemporary school. How to convince young people that science and learning are values? How to show that it is a pleasure and a necessity at the same time? How to develop positive attitudes towards learning individually and in cooperation with others? These are problems that are the subject of today's debate in the field of education. This publication is part of a debate on the development of positive attitudes among students towards learning. This paper presents the results of research on this issue, based on results obtained in external evaluations of schools.

Keywords: promoting education, lifelong learning

Promotion of education – why it is the challenge of modern times

Promoting education, learning, and knowledge is one of the key challenges that the modern school is facing (Townsend, 2012). How to convince young people that learning is a must, a pass to the world of the future, which is then likely to become more user-friendly, once we enjoy learning and accept its inevitability. As later, after graduation, one will need to continue learning. The twenty-first century, already christened as the age of science and education, cannot choose - the idea of "lifelong learning", proclaimed by the European Commission, is not just a pipe dream among officials. Transformations of the civilization: social, technological, and economic changes, with the transition from an industrial society to a knowledge-based society make it necessary for adults to learn new skills in their professional fields, but also quite often to learn new things, acquire new jobs and skills. Formal learning (and also, of course, informal and incidental learning) as necessary for one to maintain oneself on the labour market has already become part of the experience of life for thousands of people who finished their school careers a long time ago.

Developing a positive attitude towards school education will foster learning in adulthood. In the document "Key Competences for Lifelong Learning. European Reference Framework", the learning skill has been identified as one of the eight skills that can to ensure personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social inclusion and increase the level of employment (Key Competencies, 2007). In this situation, emphasis put on thinking about the school as an institution primarily focused on student learning, on their ability to learn, is understandable (The Nature of Learning, 2010).

The concept of "learning" dominated concepts and discourses not only related to school education or educational policy. It is worth noting that even the latest theories and methods concerning management today are focused around the concept of learning among individuals and organizations - "learning organizations", the management of knowledge and information, benchmarking, total participation management, empowerment, and others. The primacy of the concept of learning in organizations reorganized ways of thinking about the management of not only companies, but also of public and non-governmental organizations. The challenge today is the ability to cooperate within the organization, but also cross-organizational cooperation, networking, various organization networks, clusters, virtual teams often appointed to conduct inter-organizational projects and ending their activities at the implementation. The implementation of these projects is also a continuous process of learning – joint creation, replication, learning to use a variety of data and the potential of different subjects, solving problems by searching for the most effective strategies for this purpose. It is also worth noting that today's organizations of a new type, organized and managed differently than they were a dozen-odd years ago, often with a flat organizational structure, put other requirements to their employees. In addition to the ability, willingness and desire to learn, they are expected to include self-reliance, creativity, active participation, responsibility, ability to cooperate with others – even in an intercultural environment, coping with stress, solving problems. These are competencies to be promoted at schools by means of positive experiences, thus learning to use them.

What is worth mentioning in the consideration of the promotion of education is, of course, the technological revolution, which has made access to different types of data almost immediate and often very easy. The Internet is widely used by students to obtain various types of information, becoming an important form of learning, but also promoting knowledge. Faced with technological changes, the school has lost its position as the "treasure-chest of knowledge." Another role in education is thus played by teachers. The question is still valid: how to take advantage of this great civilization change at school. On the one hand, there are demands to make schools free of modern technologies, on the other, their use is promoted by

importing latest technologies to schools, the usefulness of which in practice turns out to be disappointing. Examples are observed, when teachers prohibit the use of students' phones, smartphones, tablets, etc., while expecting from the teacher to be Internet-literate and use modern information technologies in the educational process (Crawford, 2012).

I have compiled this introduction in order to emphasize the importance of how difficult and responsible a role in the creation (restoration?) of positive attitude towards learning and knowledge is to be played by the modern school. To a large extent, it depends on the school whether young people will be infected with the bacillus exploration, experimenting and analyzing data, and whether learning will not be associated by them only with a dull and heavy duty, which will still need to be perfumed after graduation. The huge challenge is the fact that the need for learning for life, formal and informal, allowing the maintenance or obtaining a job, does not apply, as so far, to some groups, but to entire societies. The school is, for now, the institution educating people en masse and, so far, it seems irreplaceable in this role, so it is mostly the school that is facing the challenge of promoting the value of education.

What is promoting the value of education?

Promoting the value of education is, simply speaking, shaping a positive attitude towards learning, taking action to convince young people that learning is worthwhile, inspire learning, advising how to learn successfully and explaining what to learn for (Kołodziejczyk and Starypan, 2012). Here, it is important to demonstrate to students that learning is interesting, engaging, and needed. Thus, the essence of education promotion is the process of education itself, planned, organized and carried out in a way enabling the creation and maintenance of approval for learning among students, creating an environment in which it is possible to develop a positive attitude towards education. Everyday, students experience how they feel about the learning process at school. Thus, from day to day, they shape their opinion on education and its value. A positive perception of education will result from the daily students' acceptance of what happens at school, which is conditional upon a number of factors. Probably, we can speak of a holistic, multi-dimensional experience of school existence. For young people, the school is almost synonymous with "learning" because this institution is mostly associated with the term. However, we spend too little time on conscious shaping of positive attitudes towards education, as one of the most important issues faced by the modern school, as Anthony Townsend writes (2012, p. 116).

Among many factors that are worth taking into account in the process of promoting the value of education, affecting its reception, include, inter alia, the following:

- affirmative attitudes among students towards learning – individually and in cooperation with others; experiencing the excitement of learning, self-motivation to learn; appreciation by others, positive self-esteem;
- the opportunity to develop interests, individual abilities, aptitudes, talents, individualized learning, coping with problem solving, experiencing and awareness of own development,
- a feeling of meaning and relevance of acquired knowledge and skills, awareness of the connection of school knowledge with knowledge used at the workplace, information about graduate careers, clearly formulated goals and requirements; useful and formative feedback,
- activities of students, interesting and engaging content, methods and forms of work in the classroom, appropriate and adequate use of information technology,
- subjective treatment of students, knowledge of students' influence on the educational process, democratization of educational process, student participation, responsibility for themselves and others in decisions taken by students,
- school atmosphere conducive to learning, good relationships between students and between students and teachers, a sense of physical and mental safety, good interpersonal communication,

- partnership between the school and parents of students, parental support, positive feedback from parents about the school,
- influence of teachers and headmaster on the organization and process of education, positively evaluated by students and parents.

Research carried out by David Instance and Hanna Dumont (2010) was helpful in determining these factors; they point out seven characteristics of an environment conducive to learning. According to the authors, these are:

- treatment of pupils as the main participants, encouraging them to actively engage and develop their understanding of their role in the learning process,
- building on the social nature of learning and active endorsement of structured and collaborative learning,
- adjustment, on the part of teachers, to students' motivation and teachers' awareness of the role played by emotions in achieving results,
- sensitivity to differences between individual pupils, taking into account their prior knowledge,
- development of syllabuses that require hard work is a challenge, but they are not to be "overloaded",
- putting clear requirements and use of assessment strategies that are consistent with these requirements; emphasis is laid on formative feedback,
- combination of knowledge from different disciplines, emphasizing links with the local and global community.

While preparing the list of factors influencing the formation of a positive attitude towards learning, I used research varied out by John Hattie, which concludes that determinants that have the greatest impact on student's achievement, are, inter alia: the quality and consistency of provided feedback, teacher-student relationship, teaching based on problem solving, teaching strategies, challenging targets, peer influence, and parental involvement (Hattie, 2008). In another study conducted by Margaret C. Wang, Geneva D. Haertel and Walberg J. Hebert (1993-1994), to which I am also referring, the following are mentioned as key factors relevant to learning: the ability of pupils to acquire knowledge (cognitive and meta-cognitive processes), methods of organization of the school day, classroom management, relationships between students and teachers, home environment and parental support.

Considering the promotion of education, I omitted the marketing context, in my opinion applying more to the school promotion and offer. The aim of marketing is primarily attracting new students and this is the market-oriented character in activities carried out by the school, calling it a promotion (or elements of the so-called promotion mix, mainly in advertising and public relations), according to marketing nomenclature. Marketing instruments can of course be used to achieve the goal of promoting the value of education, especially as a modern means of communication. But then, these actions are defined as social marketing.

The aim and object of the study, analyzed persons, methods and research tools

Promoting the education is a complex process, multidimensional, and requiring an individualized approach to each student. The analysis that I conducted, shows only a fraction of a plethora of factors that influence the perception of school education by students. In the study, I chose questions addressed to students, concerning the indicated above factors combined in the perception of school education. The aim of this study was to obtain information on what, from the perspective of students, the process of education is like in the context of promoting its values at Polish schools. I concentrated on the following issues:

- whether students like to learn, and are able to learn,
- if the school can develop their interests,
- whether they receive support from teachers, whether they are valued and have the opportunity to present the results of their work,
- whether they have a sense of meaning and relevance of the acquired knowledge and skills,
- whether the atmosphere at school is conducive to learning.

I was also interested how students evaluate their activity and how it manifests itself, and how they evaluate the work of teachers. The last issue that I examined was whether in schools there is a dialogue with students about graduate careers, i.e. what is being done by those who graduated from the school.

In the study, I used the results of external evaluations conducted in Poland in April and May 2013. I used a questionnaire as the method of study. I carried out an analysis of students' answers to multiple choice, closed questions in electronic surveys of two types:

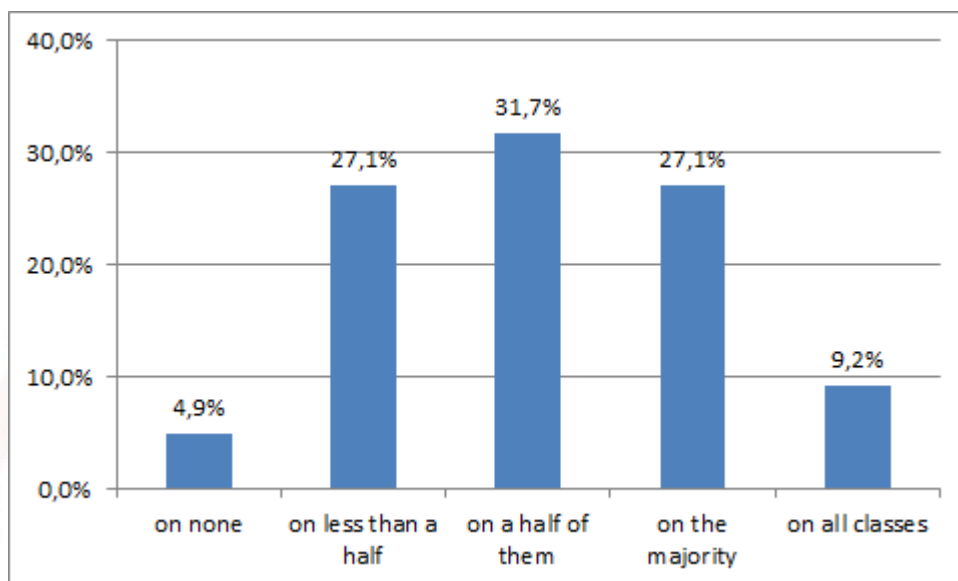
- survey, "My Day", addressed to the oldest pupils, students participating in the study were aged 13, 16 and 19 and 20 (depending on the school type)
- survey "My School", addressed to students in grades one year younger than the oldest, the study involved students aged 12, 15 and 18 or 19 (depending on the school type).

For this study, I chose some of the questions from both surveys. In the survey, students from different types of schools participated: primary, middle and secondary schools located throughout Poland.

The results of the study

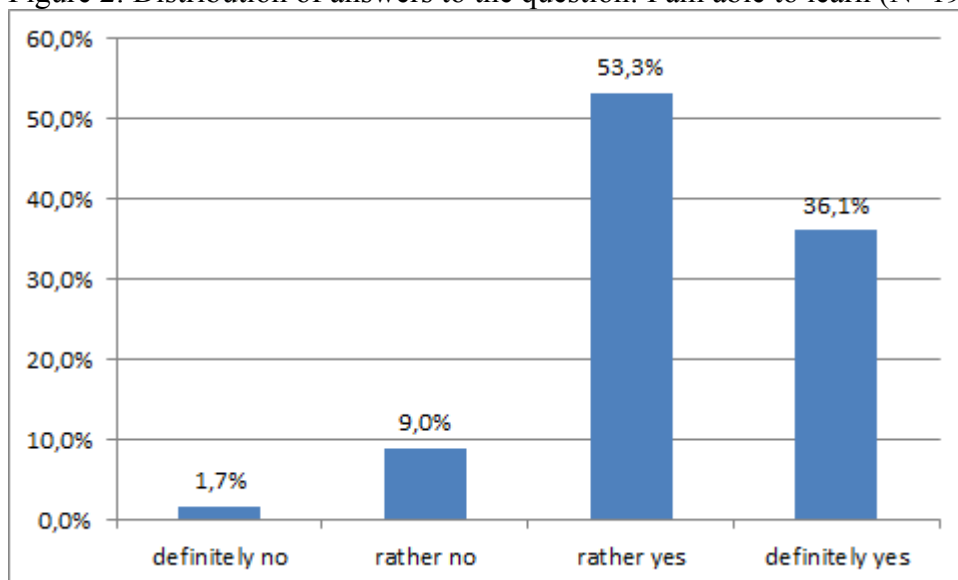
The analysis of the results will begin with the question of whether students like to learn and what part of the activities in which they participate they can define as such in which they enjoy learning (see Figure 1). The survey results show that only 36% of students stated that they enjoyed all or most of classes. A comparable percentage of respondents – 32% did not enjoy any classes or less than half of the classes. On average, almost every third student positively evaluates his/her attitude towards learning during half of the classes. It is worth noting that on the one hand, only 9% express wide acceptance for learning, and on the other hand, less than 5% declare they do not like at all to learn at school. Students also rated their skills as to whether they are able to learn (see Figure 2). Among them - 89% believe that they are.

Figure 1: Distribution of answers to the question: I enjoy studying (N=1969)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

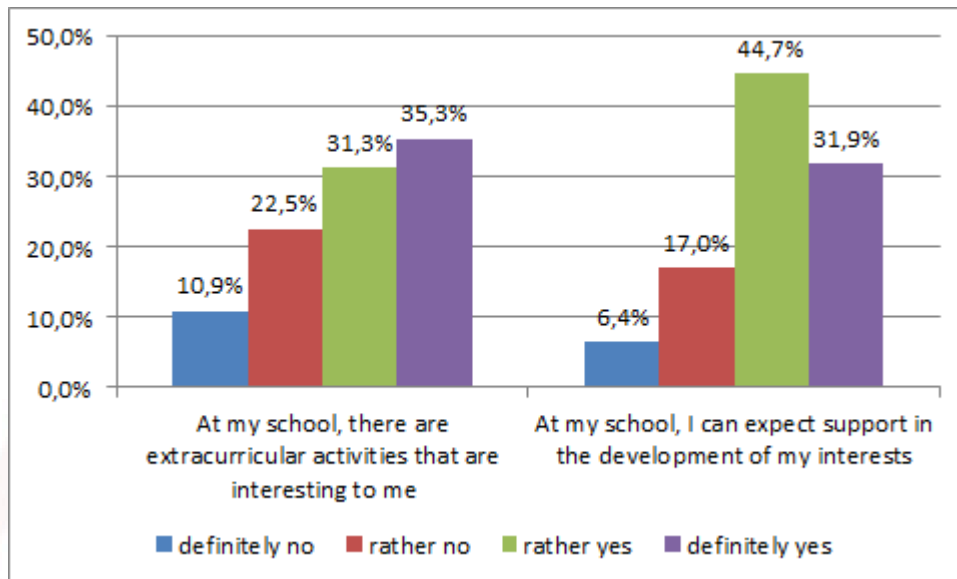
Figure 2: Distribution of answers to the question: I am able to learn (N=1963)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

In shaping a positive attitude to education, it is important to experience the fact that the school offers the opportunity to learn interesting things and that students receive support from teachers in their development (see Figure 3). Students were asked what they think about the optional activities offered by the school as those that are meant to develop students' interest. Every third student did not find interesting suggestions for extra-curricular activities; for others (66.6%), extra-curricular activities are interesting. More than 76% of students believe that teachers are prepared to provide them with support in the development of their interests; almost every fourth cannot expect such support from teachers.

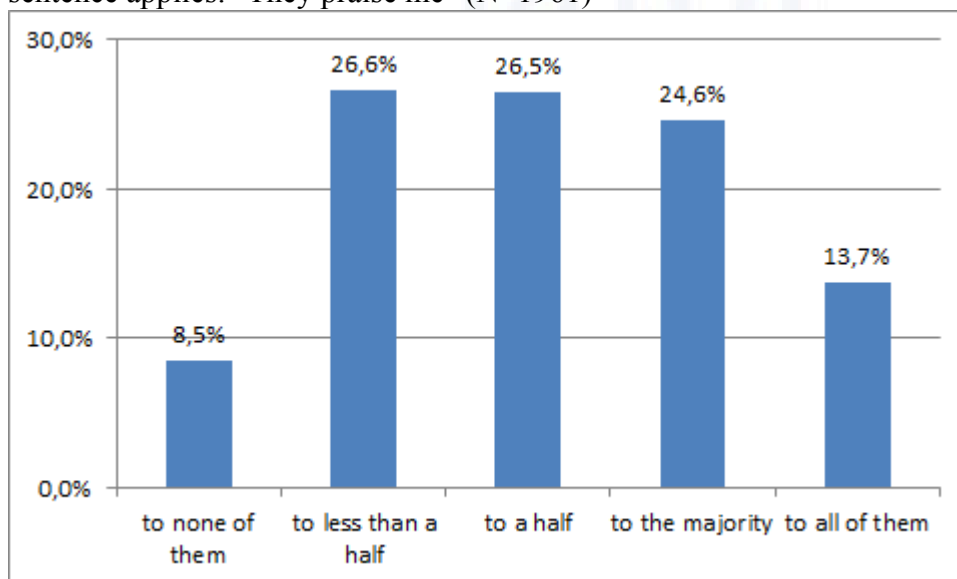
Figure 3: Distributions of answers to the question: At my school, there are extracurricular activities that are interesting to me (N=1976) and: At my school, I can expect support in the development of my interests (N=1977).



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

What is important in building a positive self-esteem, as an important factor influencing learning outcomes, is the element of students' being appreciated for their efforts by teachers and other students. Among the respondents, 8.5% did not experience any praises from teachers, and less than 14% of the students are praised by all teachers (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Distribution of answers to the question: To what part of the teachers the following sentence applies: "They praise me" (N=1961)

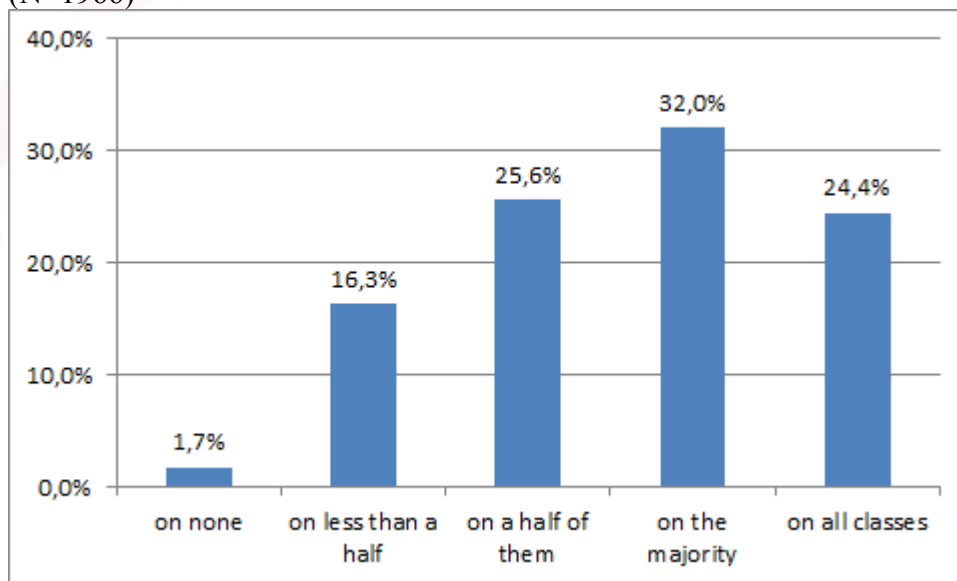


Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Students also expressed their views on whether they have a sense of purpose, meaning and relevance of the acquired knowledge and skills (see Figures 5 and 6). Formulating objectives and explaining the reasons, what the usability of the content covered in class is happens, in the opinion of more than half of the students (56.4%) in most or in all classes. Every fourth student is aware of the purpose and meaning of learning in about half of the classes, and 16% of them – in less than half of the classes. 1.7% of respondents commented that they do not know what and why something is taught – in any class (Figure 5).

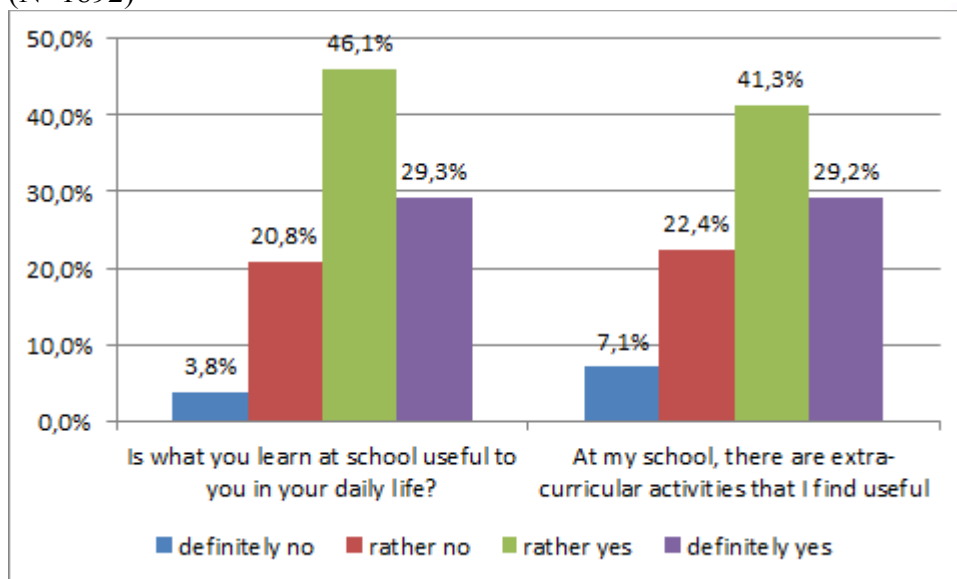
What does, from the perspective of students, the usefulness of the acquired knowledge look like? Every fourth student thinks that what is taught at school is not useful in everyday life; a similar percentage of pupils - 29.5% do not see the usefulness offered by the school's extracurricular activities. For about three-quarters of respondents, the connection of what they are learning in school and with the usefulness of this knowledge is more obvious (it is worth noting that for only slightly more than a quarter of the student's knowledge is "definitely" useful) - see Figure 6.

Figure 5: Distributions of answers to the question: I know why and for what I'm learning (N=1966)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Figure 6: Distributions of answers to the question: Is what you learn at school useful to you in your daily life? (N=1903), At my school, there are extra-curricular activities that I find useful (N=1892)

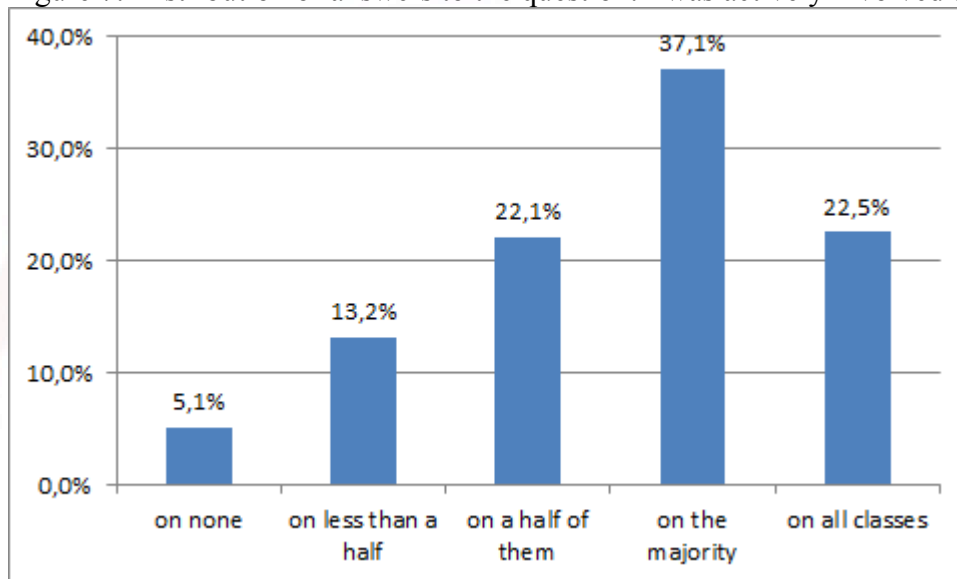


Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Students also referred to their involvement in classes and types of activities in the classroom. Almost 60% said that on the study day, they were involved in the majority of

activities during most or all classes. 5% of the students do not engage in any activities at all, and just over 35% spoke about their commitment to during half or less than half of the classes (Figure 7).

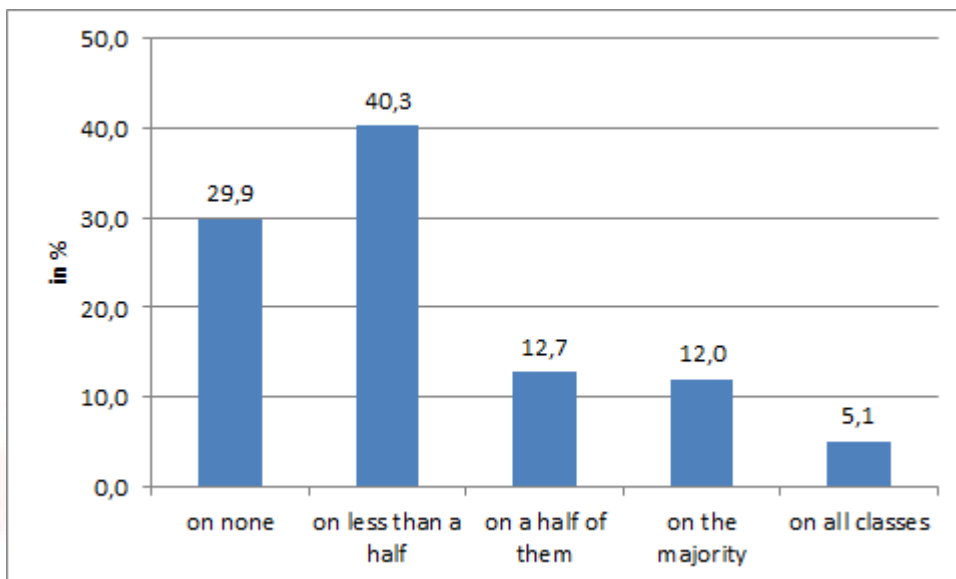
Figure 7: Distribution of answers to the question: I was actively involved today (N=1856)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Literature emphasizes the social nature of learning (Bandura, 2007). The positive results gives students working together in pairs and groups. In addition to becoming more involved in the work of the classroom, it is also an important element in the creation of cooperation among students, also useful later in their careers. Working in groups or in pairs may evoke emotions to a greater extent, needed in learning, help develop better memorizing skills, and cause more satisfaction from the tasks performed in the group, also because of better work results (synergy). Finally, it is an important tool enhancing the relationship between students and learning a variety of other skills (interpersonal communication, negotiation, respect for others, work organization, etc.). How does the school teach these competencies, in the opinion of students? According to nearly 30% of respondents, they did not work in pairs or in groups on any lessons on the study day, and 40% said it took place during less than half of the class. Only five percent of the students said that such work methods were used in all classes (see Figure 8).

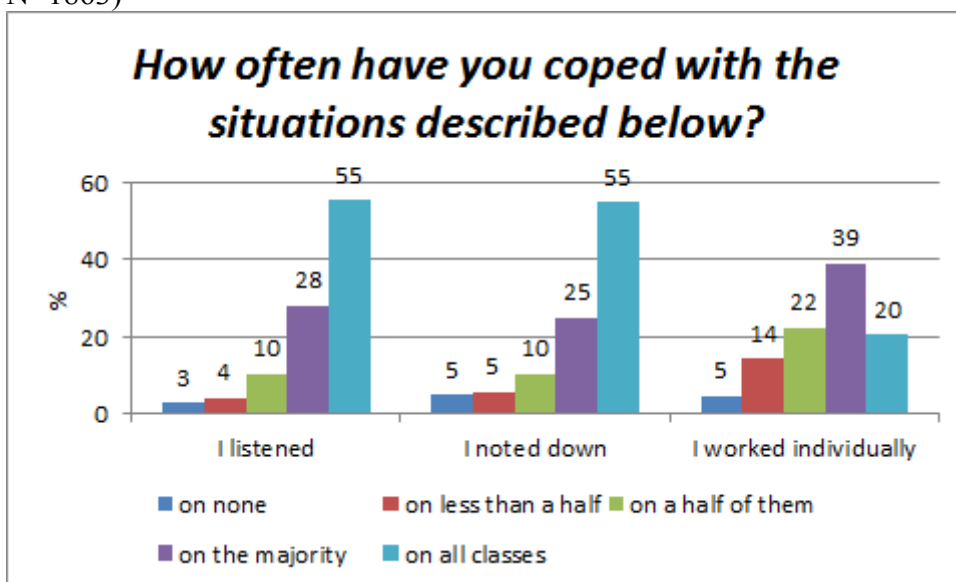
Figure 8: Distribution of answers to the question: Today, we had group tasks in class (N=1862)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

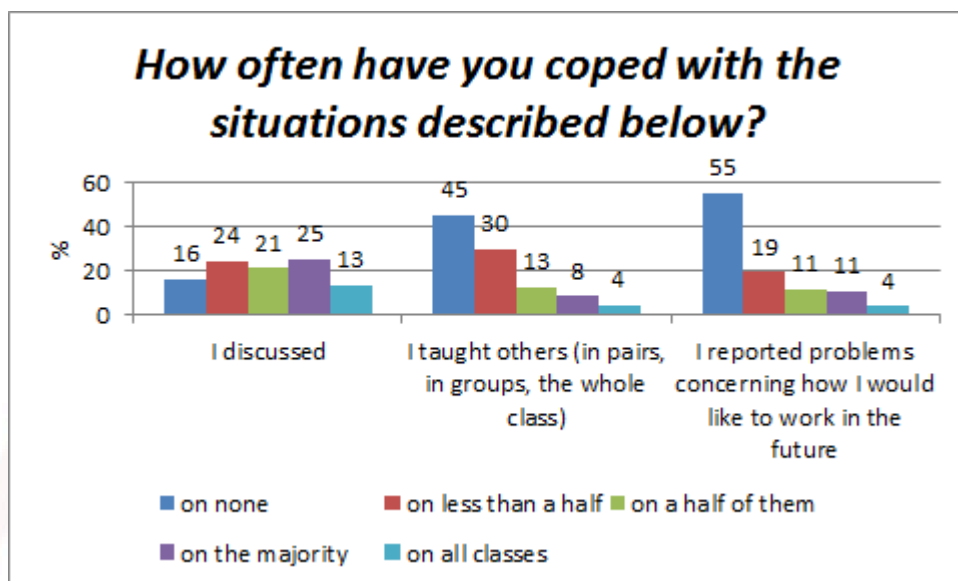
Answers to the question about working in pairs or groups are confirmed in the opinions of students concerning types of activities in the classroom. The survey shows an overwhelming predominance of passive forms of participation of students in classes, and of individual activities (see Figure 9). Students in oldest grades declared that on the day of survey, in all the classes or in most of them – they listened (83%), took notes (80%) and worked alone (59%). In contrast, they declare that they taught others much less (see Figure 10): in pairs, as a group, the whole class (12% - in all or most classes); they reported ideas about how they would like to work (15% - in all or most classes).

Figure 9: Distribution of answers to the question: How often did activities described below take place at school today (Listening - N=1858; Taking notes - N=1861, Working alone - N=1863)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

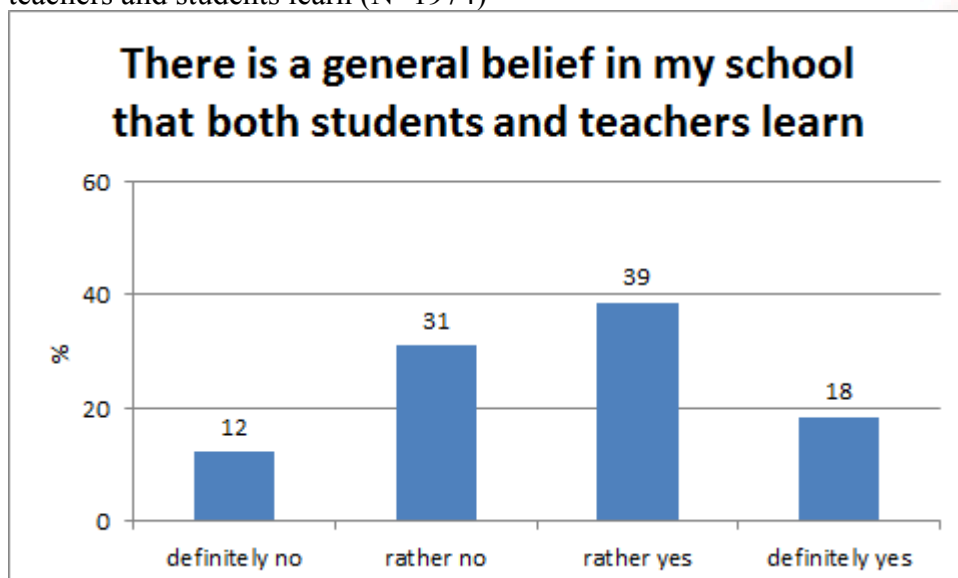
Figure 10: Distribution of answers to the question: How often did activities described below take place at school today (I discussed - N=1862 I taught others N=1860; Today I submitted ideas ...-N=1853)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

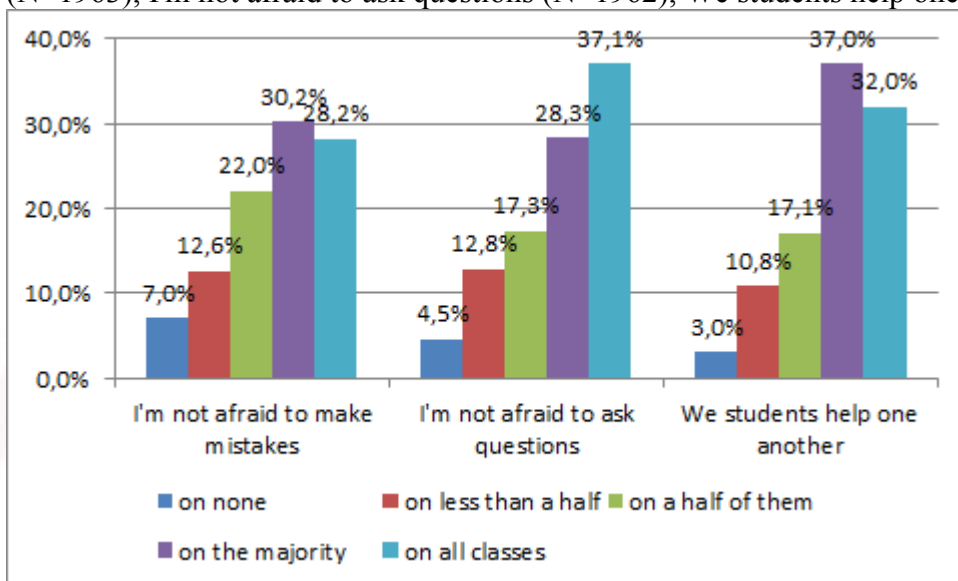
What is also important in the development of a positive attitude to learning is also the classroom and school atmosphere, conducive to learning among both students and teachers. It consists of a number of elements, including physical and psychological safety of students, standards existing at schools, knowledge of and compliance with the established rules, relationships between students and between students and teachers, the attitude of students and teachers to learning, etc.. The study shows that, according to more than half of the students (57%), at their schools, there is a belief that both students and teachers are involved in learning (Figure 11). 59% of students said they were not afraid to make mistakes in most or all of the classes, 65.4% - in most or all classes – are not afraid to ask questions. More than two thirds (69%) of respondents stated that in all or most classes, students help one another (Figure 12).

Figure 11 Distribution of answers to the question: In my school there is an opinion that both teachers and students learn (N=1974)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

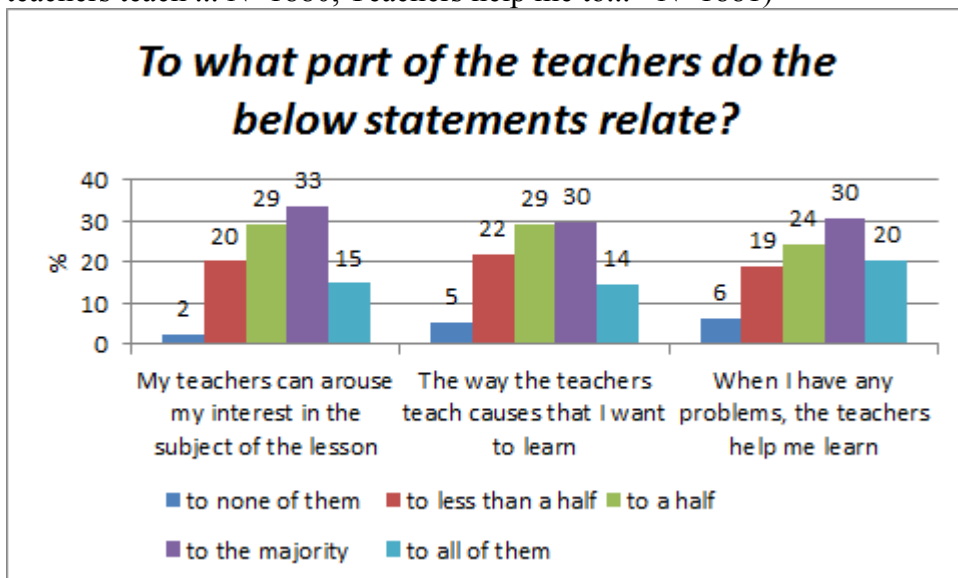
Figure 12: Distributions of answers to the questions: I'm not afraid to make mistakes (N=1963), I'm not afraid to ask questions (N=1962), We students help one another (N=1883)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Younger students responded in the survey to questions about how they perceive the influence of their teachers on learning. They referred to their experiences from the previous past year. The survey results show that every other student in Polish schools receives, in the event of difficulties, support from all or most of the teachers, for nearly one in two (48%), teachers can arouse interest in their lessons and make them want to learn (44%) – Fig. 15.

Figure 13: Distribution of answers to the question: What percentage of teachers can be associated with the following sentences? (My teachers are able to ... N=1883; Way in which teachers teach ... N=1880, Teachers help me to... - N=1881)

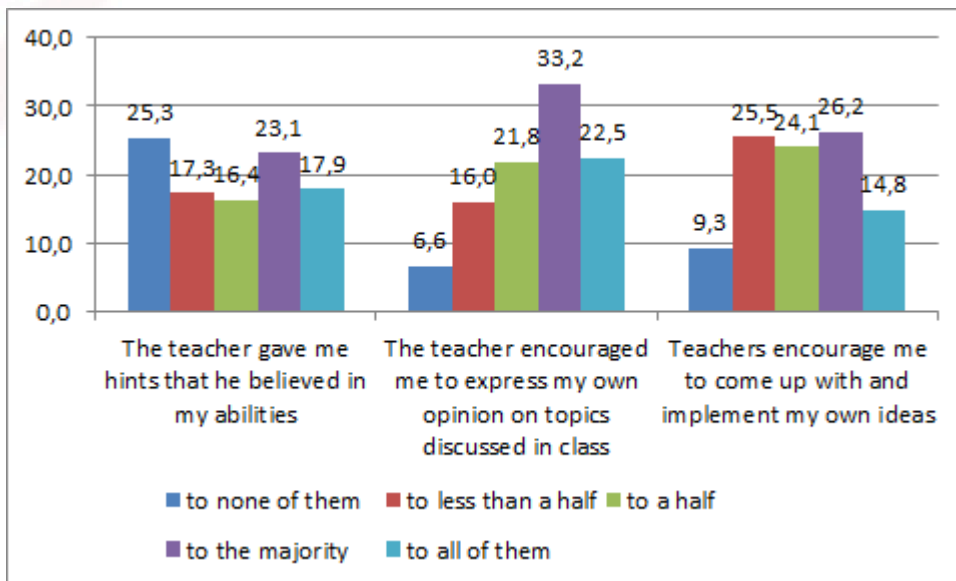


Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Students also evaluated how teachers support them in the learning process: whether they believe in their capabilities, and encourage independence. A similar percentage as with the question whether teachers praise students – 41% stated that they felt that most or all teachers imply that they believe in their abilities and an identical percentage (41%) say that

teachers encourage them to come up with and implement ideas. 55.7% of students rated that all or most of teachers encourage them to express their own opinions in classes. It is worth noting that every fourth student did not experience a situation in which any teacher showed confidence in his/her abilities (see Figure 16).

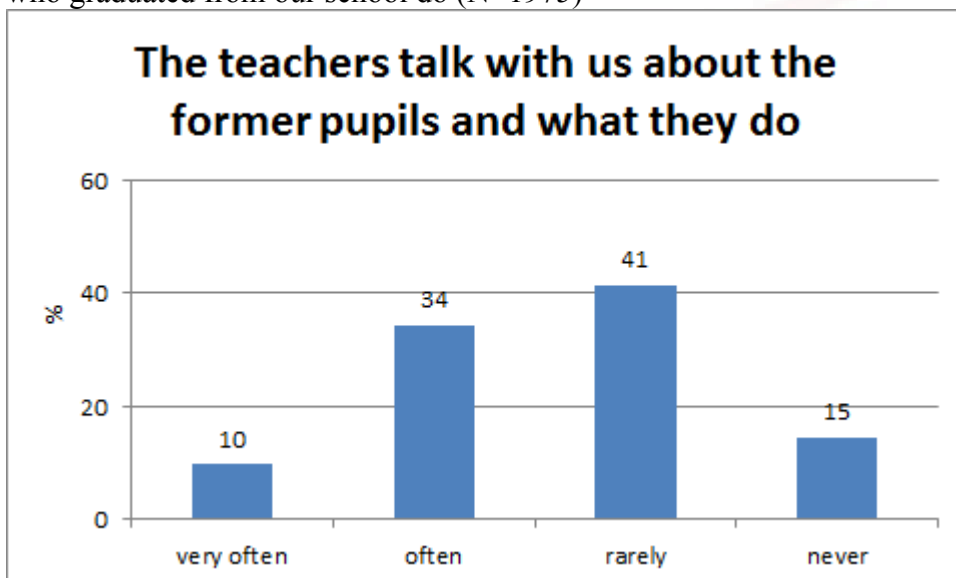
Figure 14: Distribution of answers to the question: What percentage of teachers can be associated with the following sentences? The teacher gave me hints that he believed in my abilities (N=1759), The teacher encouraged me to express my own opinion on topics discussed in class (N=1966) and Teachers encourage me to come up with and implement my own ideas (N=1962)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Students were also asked whether they are talked to about the careers of graduates. 56% of respondents said they teachers rarely or never talk to them about what graduates who have completed their high school do (Figure 15).

Figure 15: Distribution of answers to the question: Teachers talk to us about what students who graduated from our school do (N=1975)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Conclusions

The study involved an analysis of students' opinions about various factors that influence the perception of their school education.

The study shows that students are not active participants in the educational process and very rarely experience learning in direct interaction with other students. On the basis of collected data it can be concluded that, in school practice, teachers use theories associated with instruction-giving, conveying methods dominate in classes, not stimulating activities among the students themselves. The results show that this way of conducting classes by teachers can have a negative influence on the creation of affirmative attitudes towards learning.

Learning in pairs and groups is a method rarely used in the classroom. Despite this, almost 60% positively assess their involvement in classes (many of them believe that on the day of study they were involved in most and all classes). It is worth noting that the self-esteem of students declared in relation to the experience of how to work in classes they attend. As the survey results show – teachers use work methods that result in passive student involvement – students rarely work in pairs and groups, and mostly listen, record, and work individually; therefore, it is this types of activities that students refer to when thinking about their involvement in the classroom. This might cause that, despite a relatively high self-esteem concerning involvement in classes, a smaller percentage – less than half of respondents – is interested in lessons and eager to learn. On the one hand, students have the idea that they can learn and mostly are involved in classes, on the other hand, they do not feel as much interest in classes anymore – in order to change this image, more attention, as it seems, needs to be drawn to, inter alia, the creation of content interesting and engaging for pupils, methods and forms of work in the classroom.

Students evaluate extra-curricular activities better – for two-thirds of respondents, they are developing, so it can be concluded that, where students have the opportunity to develop their interests and learn important things for themselves – they have a more positive attitude towards learning. At the same time it is worth noting that one third of students do not, however, find at school additional offers, i.e. such activities that would be of interest to them.

Much less than half of the students (about 40%) experienced comprehensive support from teachers (most or all) – those surveyed feel that they are appreciated (praised, teachers believe in their abilities, encourage to come up with and implement ideas). What is worrying is that as many as one in four students does not receive signals from any of the teachers, confirming that they believe in his/her abilities. Every fourth student believes that he/she can not expect support from teachers in developing their interests. These results demonstrate the need for change in the consciousness of teachers, regarding their support to students in the educational process. Appreciation is one of the most important human needs, without positive reinforcement, it will be difficult to get good results in both learning and building good relationships between students and teachers, and as a consequence, also to build a conscious, positive perception of the school and learning by students (Crawford, 2012). This is even more important, as I wrote, given that the role of teachers at schools is changing; from the role of experts in the field, they assume a role of guides in the world of knowledge.

An important factor influencing the attitude towards learning is the belief in the relevance, need, and usefulness of acquired knowledge. For a large group of students – almost 44%, it is not clear why and how they learn certain content – this applies to opinions of students about half or less than half of the classes at school, and every fourth respondent does see practical application of knowledge acquired in the classroom. If students do not know why

they learn something and do not see the use of this knowledge, and its connection with life, they will not be interested in learning. It is, therefore, yet another area, without whose improvement it is difficult to expect that students at school will approach learning seriously.

In order to promote education, it is also important to raise awareness that learning is a process that does not end with the final school exams, but will continue after graduation. More than half of the schools formulate an effective message that also adults (teachers) learn; to a lesser extent, Polish school care for “exemplum” – showing examples of what their older peers, graduates are doing.

What is necessary in the learning process is a sense of safety and good relationships between students and between students and teachers. Then, students are not afraid to ask questions and make mistakes – natural in the educational process. Here, too, it is difficult to say that the school generally (in all classes) provides students with such conditions – let me remind the results of the study: only 59% of students said they were not afraid to make mistakes in most or all of the classes, and 65.4% – in most or all classes – were not afraid to ask questions.

The results enforce a reflection on how difficult it is to manage the process of school education in such a way that it would become a positive experience for students. The study draws a picture of a traditional school, which is not yet ready to cope with the task to promote the value of education with awareness, which encourages learning in adulthood.

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*Meaningful Learning in Healthcare Professionals:
Integrative Review and Concept Analysis*

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Abstract

In recent decades, the concept of learning has been enriched with new meanings, paradigms and characteristics that are not always clear and shared across the health professions. The term “learning” is considered in this manuscript according to the constructivist paradigm, referred to as a person's ability to self-regulate their cognitive behaviour, on the basis of personal motivations and interests. Knowledge cannot be transmitted but must be built in an active and personal way through meaningful learning.

Meaningful learning is an active process that promotes a broader and deeper understanding of concepts. It is generated from the interaction between new and old knowledge. It produces a long-lasting change that occurs because of the will to learn and experience, and it is exclusively built by the person themselves.

The focus on the constructivist paradigm and meaningful learning highlights a new way of analysing the learning process of health professionals, who play an increasingly important role and are responsible for their training with a view to a continuous process.

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Introduction

The debate on the education on behalf of the healthcare professionals is generating more and more interest both nationally and internationally. While discussing formation, which must be transformative for an impact – if any – on the patient, questions arise on the outcomes of this training, on the new methods and tools and the increasingly important role of learning. This is closely linked to the concept of responsibility and autonomy of the professional (Benner 2010; Aiken 2011; Fairman 2011).

Healthcare training in recent years has undergone a continuous evolution that has given rise to two different paradigms, in part contrasting an old paradigm founded on the authority of the teacher/trainer and on the total dependence of the professional who needs to acquire knowledge. A new paradigm has been formulated, which is based on the latest scientific evidence that constitutes the "core competence" of the professional, on problem-based learning which takes place throughout the learner's life (lifelong learning), and on the integration between knowledge and practice (Muir Gray 2001).

The term "learning" is often used in the health sector, and it is a process based on the experience that creates a long-term behavioural change, the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competences. Learning is a process where individuals gradually assimilate and process more and more complex and abstract entities (such as concepts, categories, behavioural patterns or models) and/or acquire abilities and behavioural skills (De Sanctis 2006).

If in the past learning was complete at the end of the basic training and limited amount of knowledge was considered enough, now continuous learning is necessary. The aim is to constantly generate new knowledge and skills in formal places such as universities, and also in organised non-formal and informal work places through the use of technological tools and media, or in the learner's free time (life-wide learning) (Muir Gray 2001).

The professional has now become a seeker of knowledge and a consumer of education, thus becoming a student for life (Stanley & Dougherty 2010).

The training of healthcare professionals should encourage the development of skills in order to work in a familiar environment but also the capability of working in urgent circumstances and in unknown and ever-changing environments. These are always more and more present in the complex management of health problems of the population, which develops significant and transformative learning and encourages interdependence between the professionals themselves (Watson 2008).

Therefore, the role of research is fundamental in education in order to develop strategies and active methodologies for the effectiveness of education and professional practice, and to guide the construction of meaningful and effective learning environments.

In recent decades, the concept of 'learning' has expanded to include new meanings, paradigms and characteristics that are not always clear and shared by healthcare professionals.

In constructivism, knowledge is seen as an active and personal construction (De Sanctis 2006; Giaconi 2008; Varisco 2011), a structured process that derives from the experience of a person (Hrynychak & Batty 2012).

Why have we chosen constructivism as a reference model for our research?

1. First of all, because it is a particular vision of a learner, who is considered in their totality, integrated with the environment, with an active, responsible and autonomous role (Varisco 2011).
2. Because knowledge is not transmitted from one person to another but it is built autonomously (“personal construction”) (Giaconi 2008).
3. The person has an active role because they do not passively memorise what comes from the environment but they elaborate on information, subsequently transforming it (Giaconi 2008).
4. Because knowledge begins with experience (Hrynchak & Batty 2012)
5. Because learning is seen as a creative, autonomous and set process.
Set is defined as a process of interaction with the cultural, social and physical environment in which the person lives and works (Hrynchak & Batty 2012).

The concept of meaningful learning stems from the constructivist idea of learning, a concept that in some ways is still rather vague.

Aim

Fundamental scientific literature (integrative reviews) was revised to identify the characteristics of meaningful learning - according to the constructivism model - through the definitions found in literature and the methods related herein. More specifically, this study refers to the analysis of the concept and characteristics of meaningful learning.

Method

A literature research was carried out in order to identify the characteristics of meaningful learning. Works by Whittemore & Knafl (2005) were used as a reference. This led to the integrative review method that allows to combine different research methods for theoretical developments and practice based on scientific evidence (Whittemore & Knafl 2005).

In order to present the characteristics of meaningful learning derived from the analysis of the literature in question, the theme method was applied (Fink 2005). For the analysis of the concept, criteria by Morse et al (1996) were used, which included the assessment of the definition, characteristics, boundaries, pre-conditions (antecedents) and outcomes (consequence) of the concept (Morse et al 1996).

Research Methods

Articles were looked up in MEDLINE, CINAHL, and SCOPUS, with the following keywords: meaningful learning, significative learning, significant learning, nurse, nursing, healthcare professional.

There were no restrictions in terms of language, time, and study design.

Results

Definition

Meaningful learning is based on Ausubel's assimilation theory (1978). He uses the term 'meaningful' to identify the process of interaction between the new information acquired by the individual and the relevant knowledge they already possess. Ausubel (1978) suggests that, in order to learn in a meaningful way, people must take on the responsibility for their own learning (Ausubel 1978, as cited in Cosentino 2002). Meaningful learning goes beyond the simple memorisation of content and it is different from mechanical learning as it promotes conceptual understanding that supports the development of reasoning (Dreifuesrt 2012).

To facilitate meaningful learning, students should be encouraged to combine prior knowledge with new knowledge, to apply theoretical ideas and organise and structure content coherently. Literature on meaningful learning coincides with literature on deep learning and it identifies interest as an important factor for meaningful learning (Dreifuesrt 2012).

Learning is the act, process, or experience of gaining knowledge or skills. This type of learning takes place if there is a change in the learner and it is significant if the change is permanent (Krueger 2011). In order to help teachers to facilitate this type of change in the students, Fink (2007) has developed a taxonomy that outlines 6 types of learning (basic knowledge, implementation, integration, human dimension, caring, learning to learn). Unlike other approaches, such as Bloom's taxonomy for cognitive learning, the components of Fink's taxonomy are relational and interactive and do not follow a hierarchical order. Rather than simply compiling a list of subjects to be studied in a course and then providing students with lots of information, it is necessary to design a course in which learning is focused on the needs of the student, and it is systematic and integrated (Fink 2007).

The theories of adult learning describe the trainer not as a supplier of content, but as a learning facilitator and an expert on the subsequent results. The constructivist perspective challenges the traditional learning theories because it takes into account what students have already learned and how they have learned it. It considers the learning process as an active construction by the person and not the passing of information from an expert to a student who learns in a passive way (Magnussen 2008).

Characteristics

From the analysis and summary of the definitions in literature three main categories of characteristics related to meaningful learning have emerged: (i) Meaningful learning as an active construction process, (ii) Meaningful learning as a change, (iii) Meaningful learning developed through experience:

- (I) Meaningful learning is an active process of interpretation and integration of new knowledge and prior knowledge, which leads to a broader and deeper understanding (Johannsen 2012; Irvine 1995). It goes beyond the mere storage of information, it promotes conceptual understanding and supports the development of reasoning as a guide for professional actions (Dreifuers 2011). It is acquired by the person and it is far from the traditional concept of learning, in which information is passed on in a passive way from the expert to the learner.
- (II) Meaningful learning is linked to the process of change in the learner. This is a lasting change over time characterised by real understanding, because new knowledge is anchored to pre-existing cognitive structures (Krueger and others, 2011; Fink 2007).
- (III) Meaningful learning takes place through experience, which enables and facilitates meaningful learning. The knowledge gained through experience is related to the type of deep learning, seen as the will to understand the meaning of what has been learned through reflection (Marks & McIntosh 2006; Lickteing 2004).

Boundaries

From reviewing literature, the concepts of 'Meaningful Learning' and 'Significant Learning' emerged, which seem similar even if used in different contexts.

Meaningful Learning is used as the cognitive and metacognitive process (Novak 2001), Significant Learning encompasses also the level of behavioral and emotional (Fink 2003).

A new term was found to describe meaningful learning, the term "Deep Learning". It indicates a type of learning which is deep, long-lasting and able to generate a broad and deep understanding (Johannsen et al 2012; Akinsanya & Williams 2004). The concept of "deep learning" as a learning style or as disposition - which differs from surface learning - has been studied and measured by different authors, unlike 'Meaningful Learning', for which no measuring instruments were found (Bigg 2001; Snelgrove 2004).

Preconditions

Meaningful learning is determined by many factors, such as the characteristics of the person and the different learning approaches, which are in continuous interaction. The characteristics of the person are, for example, both theoretical and practical previous knowledge about a certain topic, the abilities and learning styles, and also the teaching context and the need to develop a number of different strategies to provide opportunities for meaningful learning (Johannsen et al 2012; Tryssenaar & Gray, 2004; Jonassen 1999). After reviewing the literature, the use of tools such as concept maps or methods like debriefing were found to be effective in the development of meaningful learning, as well as experience-based reflections and the use of Fink's taxonomy in the planning of training.

According to Prado & De Almeida (2011), in order to learn in a meaningful way, three conditions must coexist: desire to learn (the person must consciously and intentionally choose to learn in a meaningful way), the presence of relevant concepts in the cognitive structure of the learner (pre-knowledge to relate to new knowledge),

and a logical and psychological meaning to be assigned to what is going to be learned (the knowledge to be learned must be relevant to other types of knowledge and it must contain meaningful concepts and prepositions) (Prado & De Almeida 2011).

Outcome

Meaningful learning can be considered both as a process and as an outcome. In the first case, the attention is focused on the commitment and the energy used during the learning process. In the second case, on the results achieved and their value for the future of the person (for their life or the workplace) (Fink 2003). Through meaningful learning knowledge is retained longer. The assimilation of information and interaction with prior knowledge facilitate the subsequent learning of similar subjects. On the contrary, mechanical learning consists in the simple memorisation of the acquired information, but that can only be used in similar contexts. Knowledge and skills learned in a meaningful way can be applied to a wide variety of new problems or contexts. This allows for high generalisation of knowledge, which contributes to achieving the set objectives (Novak & Gowin 2001, Novak 2001).

Discussion and Conclusions

The concepts are complex cognitive representations of reality perceived directly or indirectly by experience. A concept must first be labelled and have a meaningful definition. This allows it to be referred to, identified and recognised by others. It must have characteristics or attributes in different forms or associations, well-defined boundaries, preceded by conditions and followed by results. The concepts play an important role in research, they are the 'building blocks' of a theory and there are no universal criteria for assessing similar concepts (Morse et al 1996). Different methods of assessment of concepts can be found in literature, in the works by Walker and Avant (2005), Rodgers (2000), Morse et al (1996). From a careful analysis of the methods and considering the small number of items found (no. 11), the authors chose the method of Morse and others (Walker & Avant 2005; Rodgers 2000; Morse et al 1996).

Is the concept of meaningful learning well established?

The review of the literature highlighted the definition of meaningful learning according to the constructivist paradigm. From the definitions encountered the definition of meaningful learning is clear, but no definitions for significant learning and deep learning were found, which instead were considered a learning style. It is not possible to establish that these three terms have the same meaning, even if the importance of ensuring that students develop this type of learning is evident from the articles analysed.

Have the attributes and characteristics of meaningful learning been identified?

The description of the characteristics and attributes is very important because they determine the implementation of the concept in a given context (Morse et al 1996). Meaningful learning is a very important component of healthcare training, which is founded on science and the best scientific evidence and is based on innovative models and instruments. The training has the objective of creating professionals with high skill levels and abilities aimed at change. It should be planned considering all aspects of meaningful learning in order to become effective (Frenk et al 2010). Particular attention should be paid during the process of knowledge building, while monitoring

change and considering the personal and training experience of the student. The ongoing and future research will contribute to building meaningful and effective learning environments, which is an essential element of healthcare training.

Are the preconditions and outcomes of meaningful learning described and demonstrated?

From the review of the literature some significant preconditions clearly emerged, which are necessary for learning. However, the outcomes have not been studied in depth. In recent years, training in the health sector has acquired new methodologies in which the learner plays an active role in the learning process, but the experience on outcomes evaluation of meaningful learning is still limited. There were no instruments for measuring meaningful learning, as opposed to deep learning. The study of the preconditions, of Fink's taxonomy, the influence of meaningful learning on student academic success or the impact on practice can be new sectors of research to develop.

Does the concept of meaningful learning have well-defined boundaries?

The boundaries are traditionally identified by what is or is not a defined concept (Morse et al 1996). The analysis of the concept of meaningful learning has not shown defined boundaries different from deep learning. The latter is considered as a deep understanding, an integration of new facts or ideas with existing knowledge, a meaningful understanding and reference to the details of a text or article studied (Bigg 2001; Snelgrove 2004). Deep learning is opposed to superficial learning, which is characterised by simple memorisation of facts or events, like the rote learning described by Ausubel (1978) (Ausubel, 1978, as cited in Irvine 1995).

The complexity and the results of the strategies regarding teaching, learning and assessment still represent an unsolved topic in training healthcare professionals (Akinsanya & Williams 2004). Therefore, studying and understanding meaningful learning is a very interesting issue in order to make training effective and its impact over time long-lasting.

Practice points

- The review helped to build a wider and more complete vision of meaningful learning, contributing to the increase of knowledge in this field.
- The term “learning” refers to a person's ability to self-regulate their cognitive behaviour, on the basis of personal motivations and interests.
- Knowledge cannot be transmitted but must be built in an active and personal way through meaningful learning.
- Meaningful learning is an active process that promotes a broader and deeper understanding of concepts. It generates from the interaction between new and old knowledge.
- Reviewing the training/education of healthcare professionals is therefore necessary and a priority nowadays.
- Education based on science and the best scientific evidence should be developed on innovative models and active tools, on the principles of constructivism, according to clinical reasoning and ethical guidelines.

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*Te waiata hei manawapou o te reo Māori:
The transformative potential of song for Māori language enhancement*

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Abstract

While primary teachers contend with demands to provide evidence of student achievement in the areas of literacy and numeracy, the value of song as a language-learning tool may well be disregarded. Classroom singing is commonly viewed as a source of entertainment, and an effective means of creating a cohesive social bond. While these reasons alone provide strong justification for singing as a component of classroom programmes, it seems that there is limited understanding of the transformative potential of song to enhance language learning.

In New Zealand, acknowledgement of the founding document, *Te Tiriti o Waitangi*, (Treaty of Waitangi), is a requirement in the school curriculum. The national policy document, *Ka Hikitia*, promotes the importance of language, culture and identity to the raising of Māori educational achievement. One way that this policy is enacted is through the inclusion of *waiata Māori* (Māori song) in school programmes. Many *waiata* provide rich opportunities to explore significant historical and cultural contexts.

This paper explores the transformative potential of song, in general, and *waiata* specifically, and extrapolates principles that may be applied to other educational and cultural settings. The paper begins with an introduction relating to the value of music in general, and then leads on to an exploration of more specific benefits of song as a tool for language learning. This is followed by discussion about the value of *waiata* in fostering *te reo Māori* (Māori language) in New Zealand classrooms.

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Introduction

Music in education serves a number of purposes that are distinct, but complementary. First and foremost, music should be acknowledged for its own sake, as an important learning area in the school curriculum. In addition, music may be an integral part of the school day, contributing to socio-cultural and socio-lingual aspects of classroom environment. A third important function of music in education is its contribution to other learning. This may be evident in a number of different ways, such as beginning and ending the day with a song, or in the use of songs and chants to aid memory and recall, such as counting songs, or singing the alphabet.

A review of literature indicates that there is growing interest in connections between music and language from a wide range of educators and scientists. This would come as no surprise to music and speech language therapists, and teachers of second languages, who have celebrated music's contribution to language learning for over fifty years. The considerable success of work in these fields is well researched (Bolton 2008), and while it might seem surprising that not all classroom teachers have capitalised on the value of music as a language-learning tool for all children, this could be attributed to what Begg (2006) describes as a potential loss of freedom for teachers that may be "curtailed by the assessment industry that seems to operate in a paradigm of easily measurable objectives" (p. 2). The perceived 'fun factor' associated with music may be considered to contribute to a more relaxed environment, creating a degree of circumspection about its value for learning.

Connections between Music and Language

Despite some claims that the use of music as a context for language learning is "going down the instrumental rationality track" (Mansfield 2007: 4), others suggest that connections between music and language offer the generalist primary teacher opportunities to enhance language learning, without compromising the integrity of either area (Nierman 1996, Patel 2008). What does appear to be a common view, is that the direct impact of music on language learning is interesting, but complex and difficult to measure.

Research in the field of music and language connections is still in an embryonic stage, and while there have been a number of studies undertaken to measure music's impact on language learning, the data gathered is mainly anecdotal and the outcomes, remain inconclusive, albeit persuasive (Foley 2006; Wolff 2004). However, despite some degree of scepticism relating to the findings of individual studies, in combination, there are patterns and trends indicating potential benefits for language learning through the intervention of music (Nierman 1996).

Both music and language involve the processing of complex sound sequences, connecting sounds and symbols, and the collaboration of the two may be considered much more than a sum of its parts. Considering children's natural response to music it makes good educational sense to capitalise on this interest, while enhancing language learning, particularly in the context of song.

The value of song for language learning

Song is considered to be a fundamental form of human expression and it is where a pervasive and profound relationship between music and language is evident. A song could be defined simply as a poem or a story set to music, and yet it seems that the use of song lyrics as shared reading texts is not common practice in classroom language programmes, despite claims that a song could be viewed as “value added language” (Kenney 2004: 57). Song is often regarded as mere entertainment or interest building, but the teaching and learning processes involved in the use of song as a pedagogical tool are much more than superficial (Csikszentmihalyi 2002; Foley 2006).

Language learning takes place in social contexts, and singing fosters feelings of well-being by providing opportunities for children to be part of a cohesive group (Cohen Manion & Morrison 2000). Singing in a group contributes to what Spolsky (1989) refers to as a “sociolinguistic situation” (p. 25) where children thrive academically, socially and emotionally, an important consideration when drawing on every available tool to maximise language learning opportunities (Medina 2003; Paquette & Rieg 2008; Wylie & Foster-Cohen 2007).

The appeal of song attracts children, providing an ideal context for the development of both phonological awareness and understanding of text, two key aspects of reading identified in the New Zealand Curriculum. Phonological awareness is to do with rhythm, pitch, inflection, tone colour and tempo in spoken language, which are also features pertaining to musical sounds (Pitcairn 2006). Song offers children opportunities to decode and interpret rich texts, just as they do when reading stories and poems, in contexts that are repetitive and appealing. Songs have features that support language acquisition such as short high frequency words, use of personal pronouns, conversational language, appropriate pace and repetition. The intellectual stimulation that children’s books offer, alongside their sensory and affective appeal, also exist in songs (Jalongo 2003). Where picture books have their own visual language, children may create their own images from the words of songs.

As well as benefits for language in the use of lyrics of songs as reading texts, there is also growing interest in the therapeutic effects of singing on speech. Words may be articulated more fluently and expressively through song than through speech (Macias 2008). Research in this area pertains mainly to those with speech impediments, or loss of speech. For example, some stroke victims who are unable to speak can sing word-perfectly (Sacks 2007), a phenomenon that may be attributed to regulated breathing and vocal intensity and control involved in singing (O’Herron 2006). While the notion of song as therapeutic tool may not immediately appear relevant for mainstream classrooms, therapists and teachers alike are concerned about language development and acquisition, and there may be important things to learn from the experience and knowledge of other educators to improve outcomes for all learners.

The use of songs and chants as mnemonic devices, or aids for memory, is a phenomenon that has been well researched (Mora 2000, Murphey 1990). Music helps to store and release information when needed, developing procedural memory skills, which are a fundamental tool of language acquisition (Medina 2002). The deep trace that music leaves on memory could be attributed to its connection with the emotional

content of music enabling memories to persist, particularly when they have personal significance (Levitin 2008, Mora 2000, Tomaino 2010). Another possible explanation for the perceived strong connections between music and memory is that songs are stored in memory in both a speech code and a musical code (Samson & Zatorre 1991).

The inclusion of a range of songs in different languages enables teachers and children to celebrate the rich cultural diversity that abounds in primary classrooms, and to expose children to languages in meaningful and engaging contexts. In New Zealand, singing of Māori songs, or *waiata Māori*, enables teachers and learners to experience and to practise *te reo Māori* (Māori language) in context, while meeting the demands of the national curriculum. The key to storing information such as language is rehearsal, and the catchy and repetitive nature of many songs provides an ideal context for implanting verbal information in long-term memory (Lake 2002).

Fostering te reo Māori through song

Māori children in New Zealand choose to attend either mainstream schools, where English is the medium of delivery, or *Kura Kaupapa Māori* (total immersion primary schools), where *te reo Māori* (Māori language) is the medium of delivery. Those attending *kura kaupapa* are likely to have attended *ngā kōhanga reo*, or language nests, where they are immersed in an authentic context of *te reo Māori* and *tikanga Māori* (Māori protocol) up to the age of five. In these settings, music and movement are interwoven into the daily routines, and through the medium of *waiata*, *te reo Māori* is expressed meaningfully. As these children move to *Kura Kaupapa*, they develop not only a fluency in the Māori language, but also a deeper understanding of the spiritual values that are embedded in many *waiata*. Within these songs, “the recognition of the Māori language is beautiful, articulating the expertise of the composer’s formation of the words. These are the many *taonga* (treasures) handed down by our ancestors” (Trinick, Sauni, Allen 2010: 2).

Māori children who attend mainstream primary schools do not have the same exposure to *te reo Māori*, and the singing of *waiata* at school plays a pivotal role in developing a sense of Māori identity, while making a valuable contribution to a culturally-responsive learning environment. “The aim is to ensure that Māori cultural traditions, values and practices become more visible” (Whitinui 2008: 6). In upholding this aim, it is common practice for both Māori and non-Māori children in New Zealand schools to acknowledge certain protocols, such as performing a *waiata* to welcome guests into the classroom or the school.

Singing *waiata* for particular purposes provides context and meaning, enabling the participants to understand the underlying messages of songs, deepening their understanding of the words, and associated protocols. The late Dr Hirini Melbourne, who wrote many children’s *waiata*, saw children as “ideal carriers of the seeds of language” and he believed that the seeds could best be cultivated through song (Ministry of Education 2004: 13).

At an emergent level, *waiata* are used to teach basic language concepts such as colours, numbers, prepositions, pronouns, or actions. Many 'Māori' songs used in primary classrooms are re-inventions of existing songs, originally with English lyrics. For example, the following song, set to the tune of *Frere Jacques*, is used to teach different forms of greetings, in the form of a conversation:

<i>Tena koutou, tena koutou</i>	(Greetings to you all)
<i>Tena koe, tena koe,</i>	(Greetings to one person)
<i>Kei te pehea koutou? Kei te pehea koutou?</i>	(How are you all?)
<i>Kei te pai, kei te pai.</i>	(Fine)

At a more sophisticated level, some *waiata* incorporate deeper language features such as metaphor, as in the example of lyrics from John Tapiata's song, *Whakarongo ake au*:

<i>Whakaronga rā</i>	I listen
<i>Whakarongo ake au</i>	I listen
<i>Ki te tangi a te manu</i>	A bird's cry rings out
<i>E rere runga rawa e</i>	it flies up high
<i>Tui, tui, tui, tuia</i>	Sew, stitch, bind it together

The lyrics of this song develop the idea of birds singing together, as a metaphor for unity. Through this song, children are not only exposed to the underlying messages and deeper meaning of the text, but also to useful sentence structures and vocabulary that may be used in other contexts.

Traditional *waiata* such as *takutaku* (incantations to memory) and *moteatea* (ancient songs), are steeped in tribal histories and stories, and it is through songs and chants that family stories have been passed from generation to generation. In order to retain accuracy of the messages being conveyed, songs were practised, with attention to the narrative, rather than the music itself, which was largely improvised. "As a rule, attention was directed more to the words than the music, which seldom seemed to give trouble" (McLean 1961: 61).

As well as the obvious benefits for language learning through enacting the lyrics of *waiata*, there are affective benefits of singing that impact on all learning. For example, many New Zealand schools have *kapa haka* groups, or Māori cultural groups. Participation in *kapa haka* has benefits for overall learning and achievement including and self-esteem:

- reaffirmation of Māori identity
- collective sense of purpose
- enrichment of learning
- shared learning responsibilities
- contribution to positive emotions
- greater desire to attend school
- building of self-confidence
- building of a sense of commitment
- identification of special talents and strengths
- building a sense of pride and belonging

Whitinui (2008)

While, on the surface, these factors may not appear to be directly related to language development, they involve the development of confidence, connectedness, active involvement and lifelong learning, which are key principles of a long-term vision for learners, according to the New Zealand Curriculum (2007). Music's impact on affective learning is an area that remains relatively unexplored (Nuhfer 2005), but has important implications for motivation and positive attitudes to learning, a factor that should not be underestimated in terms of language acquisition and development (Boekarts 2007, Chory & McCroskey 1999).

Māori have a wholistic approach to and understanding of learning, and song is naturally and authentically integrated into daily life. This establishes conditions of learning where singing is a regular occurrence, a factor that supports Gagne's (1972) belief that the conditions of learning are more important than specific discipline-related content. For most non-Māori teachers, the "hesitation to perform or even participate in music 'outside one's culture'" (Hebert & Karlsen 2002: 6) is a reality. In order to meet curriculum requirements, schools often draw on members of school and the local community, who are able to provide expertise in the areas of *te reo Māori* and *tikanga Māori* (language and protocols). This, alongside a range of resources issued by the Ministry of Education, is reassuring for teachers who lack experience and confidence, or who feel culturally unsafe when working with unfamiliar material. While it is plausible that "some genres of song are less malleable or prone to borrowing" (Rzeszuek, Savage & Brown 2012: 5), teachers are reassured that material published in resources produced by the Ministry of Education are safe and appropriate for general classroom use.

Conclusion

Song is a vital component of children's literacy development in any culture, and has benefits for linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural domains of learning, to name a few. Research has not revealed any hard and fast proof that song has a direct impact on language learning, but neither has it been refuted. Research, teachers' tacit knowledge and life experiences all indicate that song has the potential to be regarded as "the most powerful, personal, pleasurable, and above all, permanent tool in our pedagogical arsenal to establish an educational concept" (Balkin 2009: 1).

Taking Balkin's claim into consideration, one has to wonder why the use of song as a pedagogical tool for language learning is not common practice in generalist classrooms. A number of explanations have been offered, including identification of issues relating to teacher expertise, scepticism, concern about noise levels and behaviour, and fear of detracting from the 'main' curriculum, for which teachers are seemingly more accountable (Macias 2008).

No matter how persuasive the literature supporting the value of song as a language-learning tool, it is up to individual teachers or schools to make choices about when and how song is used. Schippers (2012), in his discussion relating to the benefits of song to acknowledge cultural diversity claims that "teaching is more likely to be

successful when teachers are aware of the choices they have and make, and are able to adapt to the requirements of different learning situations” (p. 43). There is a need for educators to continually look for new and interesting ways to motivate and extend children’s language learning, enabling them to turn words into meaning, so that text is not merely regarded as “a boring series of words” (Lowe 2002: 22).

For Māori, *waiata Māori* are much more than ‘just songs’. The singing of *waiata* is a way of knowing, means for expressing emotions and a vehicle for telling stories that have been retained across generations. For non-Māori, the singing of *waiata* is a pleasurable and meaningful means of fostering the Māori language, introducing vocabularies and sentence structures that can be tirelessly rehearsed in meaningful and enjoyable contexts. However, the degree of language acquisition is dependent on the teacher’s conscious effort to make meaning from the lyrics and significance of particular songs by drawing attention to the underlying messages of the songs.

Waiata Māori provide rich opportunities for learners to encounter *tikanga Māori* (Māori values and practices) in meaningful learning contexts such that the bicultural partnership content and intent of the Treaty of Waitangi, New Zealand’s founding political document, is realised. As the constructors of New Zealand’s shared future our children, both Māori and non-Māori, need to have an understanding and appreciation that each brings. *Waiata* is a key element in the achievement of this aspiration.

Ko te waiata tētahi o ngā manawapou o te reo, ko te reo tētahi o ngā manawapou o te porihanga o Aotearoa o āpōpō.

Whilst song is a key element of language, a shared language is a key element of Aotearoa-New Zealand’s society in the future.

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The cooperation of teachers to improve educational processes

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Abstract

The implementation of the educational process in the classroom is both individual and collaborative team approach teachers. One of the requirements and standards faced by the teachers / schools in the Polish educational system is the cooperation of teachers in organizing and implementing educational processes. Cooperation teacher plays an important role in their professional development. The paper describes the models of cooperation of teachers who teach in one class and the organization of cooperation of teachers at the school level. Analyses were performed based on the results of the external evaluation of schools.

Keywords: Teachers cooperation, improve educational process.

Introduction

Two assumptions were the basis for the study. The first is related to the belief that teaching is a complex process that consists of many elements, not only the syllabus and teaching methods used by teachers of different subjects, but also learning styles among students, their motivation, their assessment, emotions, and the influence of parents and the local community. The second stems from the belief that the educational process in a particular class is not simply the sum of individual effects of individual teachers' work, but also their collective action. The combination of these two assumptions leads to a thesis that planning, organization and implementation of the educational process for a particular class (group of students) requires the commitment and cooperation of all teachers.

The thesis concerning the need for cooperation among teachers at schools is not new; its importance has been repeatedly indicated in many contexts, including: changes in school (Wlazło, 2010), the professional development of teachers, (...), working with students with special educational needs (Schwartz at al., *What are the common...*), co-teaching (Cook and Friend, 2004), as an opportunity to engage numerous teachers in solving complex educational problems (Montiel-Overall, 2005). Research also indicate that there is an actual relationship between the level of cooperation among teachers at school and the educational results achieved by students. In a research conducted by Goddard, Goddard, Tschannen-Moran (2007), the authors show that students achieve better educational results at schools where teachers indicate a higher level of cooperation between them.

For the purposes of this study the definition of a collaboration among teachers was "propose the most effective teaching possible for the greatest number of students" (Pugach and Johnson, 1995). Literature quotes a lot of features that are associated with cooperation, such as: reciprocity, partnership, trust, sharing information, shared vision, dialogue, negotiation, power sharing, joint planning, creativity, team work, and creating new values. They show how one can consider the nature of the collaboration in different ways, and how complex it is.

Models of collaboration among teachers can be found at schools that have also been described in a variety of contexts: cooperation among teachers at school (Ahlgrimm and Huber, 2009), co-teaching (Cook and Friend, 2004), special education teams (Schwartz at al., *What are the common ...*), teachers' collaboration with organizations in the local community (Dorczak, 2012), co-teachers with librarians (Montiel-Overall, 2005). The aim of the study is to describe the types of cooperation among teachers teaching in one class.

Methodology

The study used data collected during an external evaluation carried out in Poland in May 2013. 33 schools participated (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary), of all sizes, located in both rural communities, rural-urban and urban areas. In total, the study included 846 teachers.

Among the research questions, analyzed were those relating to teachers' collaboration during the design and implementation of educational processes. Quantitative analysis concerned one multiple-choice question addressed in the survey (on-line) to teachers, which was related to their participation in works of teams functioning at school. A statistical analysis of the data collected from the responses to this question used the following variables:

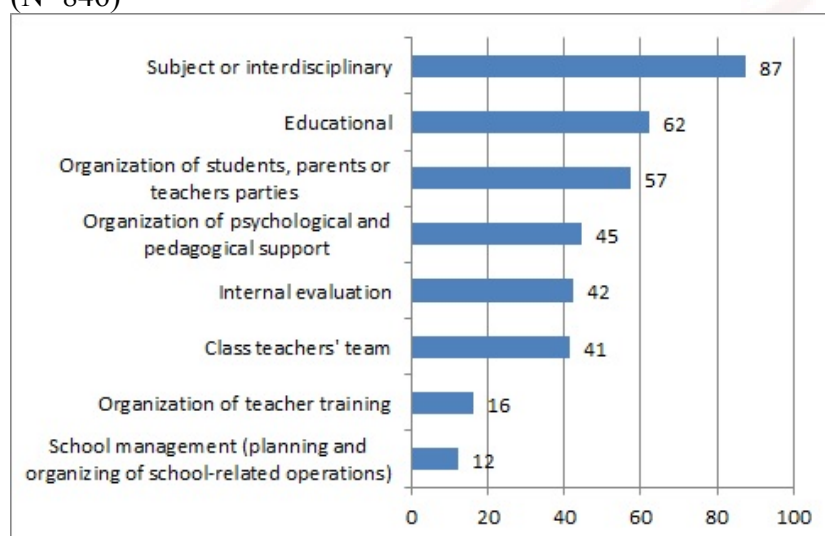
- type of school (elementary, lower secondary, upper secondary),
- type of community (urban, urban-rural, rural),
- school size (small - up to 200 students, average 201-400, large - more than 400 students).

Data were subject to a qualitative analysis, collected in response to questions asked to focus groups formed of teams of teachers who teach in a classroom, concerning planning and modification of educational processes carried out in these specific classes. A content analysis method was used to analyze the collected material (Babbie, 2008), as well as a hermeneutic analysis (Ablewicz, 1994). We analyzed interviews (FGI) conducted in 33 schools, each with one team of teachers, whose purpose was to model the cooperation among teachers in the planning and implementation of the educational process in the classroom. In three interviews it was not possible to separate a cooperation pattern among teachers of one class.

Survey results

Teachers declare that they work on average in nearly four (3.8) teams functioning at school. The most important thing in the planning of the educational process carried out with the class is the cooperation of all class teachers. Participation in teamwork was declared by 41.49% of the teachers. The second type of teams in which cooperation of one-class teachers is expected is the team dealing with psychological and pedagogical assistance, whose task is to prepare and implement support for students with special educational needs. Participation in the work of this team was declared by 44.56% of teachers. Objectives of the other team types are not directly related to the educational process in a particular class, but they concern more general issues with respect to teaching and educational process, analyzed from the perspective of the whole school. These teachers often (87.47%) indicate the participation in the team of teachers of the related subject/s. Percentage of teachers participating in teamwork is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Declaration of teachers' participation (%) in the work of teams at school (N=846)



Source: own study based on data from: http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Differences in the involvement of teachers in teamwork is statistically significantly different, depending on the school size ($\chi^2(14) = 45.15, p < 0.001$). The largest

difference concerns the participation of teachers in teamwork, concerning teaching in one class (in which participation is usually declared by teachers of large schools – 53% and small ones (44%), while teachers of medium size schools declare: 33%). Similarly, a statistically significant difference can be observed in the participation of teachers in teamwork depending on the school type ($\chi^2(14) = 50.16, p < 0.001$). The most important difference for this analysis concerns the participation of subject teachers in the work of these groups, the participation being declared by 94% of secondary schools teachers, 88% in lower secondary schools and 74% in upper secondary. Significant differences are also found in the declarations of participation in teamwork among teachers of one class. This is most frequently declared by primary school teachers 48%, then 42% at lower secondary schools, and 31% in upper secondary.

The difference in the declared participation of teachers in the work of teams functioning at school is not statistically significant, depending on whether the school is located in the countryside or in the city ($\chi^2(14) = 16.17, p > .05$).

Analysis of focus group interviews with teachers of specific classes allowed the isolation of six qualitatively different ways of cooperation among teachers in the preparation and implementation of the educational process in the classroom:

The subject team – teachers admit (FGI) that the principal place of educational planning are subject team meetings, during which a group of teachers teaching related subjects has the ability to make joint arrangements:

Vocational subject team - jointly determine curricula and schedules (content) of subjects.

Teachers of biological sciences meet and analyze questions from matriculation tests, create own tests in order to best prepare students for the exam.

In these teams are created general arrangements concerning teaching of different subjects (curriculum, textbook selection), teaching materials and diagnostic tools are developed, to be used by teachers of specific subjects.

While working in these teams, there is also cooperation between teachers teaching different but related subjects in the same class. Together, they develop cross-curricular correlation, which is the order in which issues are raised within specific subjects, so that they complement each other and are not repeated.

Teachers of physics, mathematics chemistry work together. Foreign language teachers need to work together. Teachers of Polish and history cooperate with each other. School educationalists collaborate with all teachers in this class.

A place to discuss problems of education is a team of class educators. It fulfills the role of a specific subject team, whose work involves the development of content covered in homeroom classes:

There is a team of class educators – to discuss teaching and educational issues, and issues to be raised in homeroom classes.

Direct contact between teachers – the basis of communication between teachers is informal, direct, daily contact between class teachers. Primarily, these discussions provide information about the class (students) and how to solve current problems. Respondents described it as follows:

... Working with the educators and convey information to him, but also obtain information from him.

We also talk about current issues during breaks and after school.

Contact between the educator and teachers is daily, we talk everyday, exchange remarks, solve problems on a regular basis.

Most teachers are in contact with the class educator, with whom they share and from whom they obtain the necessary information. Sometimes, direct contacts are used to determine the issues to be covered in class during lesson on related subjects (cross-curricular correlation).

The task team – a role in the planning of educational processes is also played by appointed task teams to prepare educational events (trips, competitions, school events). The work of these teams usually involves 2-3 teachers directly engaged in the event preparation:

... I cooperate (a math teacher, comment by JK) with the biology and history teacher when trips are organized.

Teachers also collaborate in the organization of class and school events and celebrations.

Team dealing with psychological and pedagogical assistance – Teams of teachers dealing with psycho-educational support for pupils with special educational needs are listed in the nine interviews, and are organized in two ways. The first is the participation of all class teachers in the development of educational and therapeutic programs for students who need them, the second is to create a team at the school level, which plans assistance for students requiring it at school. The work of these teams is supported by specialists (psychologists, educators, and other specialists, as necessary).

As a school team of experts, we created ITEP (Individual Therapeutic and Educational Program), CSIN (Charter of Students' Individual Needs), SAP (Supporting Action Plan) and evaluated the effectiveness of introduced measures, and carry out an ongoing analysis of the assistance used.

Teaching Council – In some cases, the place to talk about the educational process in a classroom is a school board meeting (meeting of all teachers who teach at school):

... We meet twice a year, at the end of semesters, all of us, and discuss both teaching and educational issues in the class - what are the teaching results. After the first, and the second semester, when all teachers teaching in the class are present.

At plenary conferences, the educator talks about the class.

We meet and discuss important matters at meetings of the school board.

Meeting teachers in the school board act as summarizing and reporting classes carrying out educational processes. In most schools, this forum is too numerous to be able to spend enough time to work on specific solutions for specific classes or subjects. For this reason, the work is handed over to school subject teams:

We work within the school board and smaller subject teams.

The team of class teachers – six interviewed teachers indicated the team of teachers who teach in the class as a platform for planning of educational processes. They have a schedule of meetings and specific goals. During these meetings, progress of students and emerging behavioral problems are discussed.

Meetings are held in accordance with an established timetable. These issues relate to both academic progress, as well as behavioral problems. The class educator is obliged to represent the team and contact parents (if necessary, additional meetings with parents are arranged).

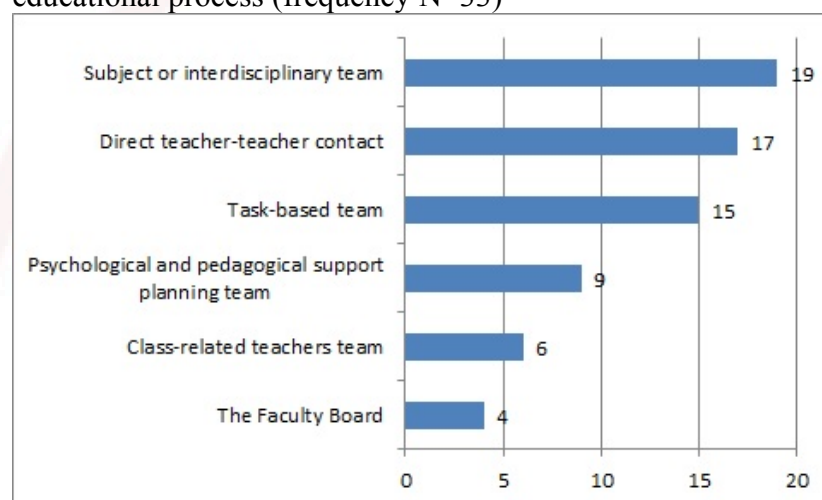
The coordinator of one-class teachers' team is the educator, who is also responsible for organizing and conducting meetings, and represent teachers at the school board forum and in meetings with parents.

It is interesting to observe data acquired from interviews in a quantitative perspective (Figure 2). These results partially overlap with the data from the questionnaires. The

most common form of cooperation between class teachers are subject teams (and cross-curricular teams), in 19 out of 33 interviews. The quantitative analysis also shows the importance of informal communication between teachers in sharing information about the class and the students (mentioned in 17 cases). In 15 interviews, task teams were also indicated as a class teacher collaboration forum.

School board as a forum for cooperation among class teachers has been indicated in four interviews. It should be noted that this form of teamwork among teachers was cited in cases where there were no forms of cooperation best associated with the class level (class teaching team and team in charge of psychological and pedagogical assistance).

Figure 2. Teacher cooperation forms related to planning and implementing of the educational process (frequency N=33)



Source: own study based on data from http://www.seo2.npseo.pl/seo_stats_quality

Conclusions and discussion

The dominant form of organized cooperation at school is the participation in the work of subject teams. Thanks to them, cooperation is possible among teachers teaching related subjects in one class. Just over 40% of teachers declare participation in works of the team of teachers who teach in one class, but interviews show that in a few cases, team activity is planned and organized (based on the interviews, it can be determined that this is the case at about 20% of schools). Direct informal contacts between teachers in one class can play an important role, but they primarily serve sharing current information.

In a survey conducted just over a decade ago, concerning the teachers' perception of the educational reform in Poland, one of the most commonly expressed objections was the need to create the so-called cross-curricular paths (Tytoń and Wlazło 2002). As it can be seen from the study, these concerns were confirmed. The cooperation of teachers needed for correlation between subject content is not a common phenomenon, which is also confirmed by other studies (Kołodziejczyk, 2013). Tytoń and Wlazło (2002) indicated as a source of concern the need for additional time and effort teachers will have to devote to the organization of teamwork, or at least to co-operation. Results obtained in the present study indicate the possible presence of other factors that act as barriers to cooperation between teachers of one class, that needs to be used in joint planning, organizing and implementing of the educational process.

It seems that teachers perceive run the educational process from the perspective prism of their own subjects, in particular the content taught. Expertise in teaching a particular subject is an obstacle in the cooperation among all teachers teaching in one class. Thus, if there is co-operation between teachers, it is especially related to few (2-3 teachers), who teach related items. The border between the disciplines marks the boundaries of possible co-operation, which is performed in subject teams/cross-curricular teams, or informal cooperation between class teachers (related subjects), coordinating their actions. One of the respondents put it as follows:

The teachers of vocational subjects are hard to cooperate with, because the subjects are not related to each other. The teachers of vocational subjects need to cooperate closely.

(upper secondary school, a teacher of the Polish language).

This may mean that teachers recognize as the primary (if not sole) component of the educational process the content taught by themselves, ignoring other aspects such as learning styles, motivation, group processes taking place in the classroom, special educational needs, which might be the common denominator for cooperation among class teachers.

One might therefore think that a barrier to cooperation of all class teachers concerning planning, organizing and implementing of the educational process is teachers' mental model, functioning in their minds (educational processes), limiting it to the narrow framework of the subject curriculum.

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April 17-20, 2014 - ACLL2014 - The Fourth Asian Conference on Language Learning
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October 28 - November 2, 2014 - ACSET2014 - The Second Asian Conference on Society, Education and Technology

November 13-16, 2014 - MediAsia2014 - The Fifth Asian Conference on Media & Mass Communication
November 13-16, 2014 - FilmAsia2014 - The Third Asian Conference on Film and Documentary

November 20-23, 2014 - ABMC2014 - The Fifth Asian Business & Management Conference
November 20-23, 2014 - ACPEL2014 - The Second Asian Conference on Politics, Economics & Law

July 3-6 - ECSS2014 - The Second European Conference on the Social Sciences
July 3-6 - ECSEE2014 - The Second European Conference on Sustainability, Energy & the Environment
July 3-6 - ECPLE2014 - The Inaugural European Business and Management Conference
July 3-6 - EBMC2014 - The Inaugural European Conference on Politics, Economics and Law

July 9-13 - ECE2014 - The Second European Conference on Education
July 9-13 - ECTC2014 - The Inaugural European Conference on Society, Education & Technology
July 9-13 - ECSET2014 - The Second European Conference on Technology in the Classroom
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