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Factors Affecting Human Capital Efforts in Developing Economies:
A Case Study on Cuba

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Abstract
Cuba faces considerable domestic and global challenges as they strive to compete in the global marketplace and increase their population's quality of life. Cuba has invested in human capital development activities (i.e. universal access to education and guaranteed healthcare, food rations and housing) which are unique to the region. While these efforts have made an impact, research reveals a more holistic human capital development strategy is needed to maximize internal and external resources. Therefore, the researcher will use the outcome-based *Model for Effective Human Capital Development in Developing Economies* (Muger, 2017) as a means to examine the domestic factors impacting Cuba's human capital development efforts. The domestic factor from Muger's (2017) model will be used to discuss how workforce planning, talent and resource management, governance, and marketplace opportunities have impacted Cuba's development strategy. The researcher argues the Cuban population would greatly benefit if the Cuban state instituted a truer participative governance model, gradually increased marketplace opportunities for small and medium private enterprises, incentivized the educated and talented workforce to stay or return to Cuba, and encouraged private enterprises in domestic production through tax reductions and other forms of incentives. The paper concludes with a discussion of future research areas.

Keywords: human capital, developing countries, majority countries, developing economies, development, Cuba, relief and development, economic development

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Introduction

Cuba has a unique and sophisticated structure for human capital development yet continually fails in delivering sustainable economic growth (Corrales, 2012). Cuba has instituted a specialized and universally accessible education system that promotes equality and a highly skilled workforce that is unparalleled in the Carribean (Corrales, 2012). Therefore, other barriers must be present that restrict effective human capital development outcome achievement. The *domestic* factor within Th*e Model for Effective Human Capital Development in Developing Economies* (Figure 1) emphasizes intrastate elements that significantly impact the country's population to thrive. The *domestic* factor in the model includes workforce planning and talent management, capable, participatory and transparent governance, marketplace opportunities, effective resource management, and a milieu of trust. Select domestic factors are discussed below with proposed policies to improve human capital development efforts in Cuba.

Background on the *Model for Effective Human Capital Development in Developing Economies*

The *Model for Effective Human Capital Development in Developing Economies* (Figure 1) provides key stakeholders that have an interest in nation building with a framework for understanding how effective human capital efforts can impact individual and social well-being. The model takes into account individual, domestic and global factors.

Individual Factors
-Character formation
-Intrinsic motivation
-Leadership capacity building
-Skill development

Domestic Factors
-Capable, participatory & transparent governance
-Marketplace opportunity
-Resource management
-Workforce planning & talent management
-Milieu of mutual trust

Global Factors
-Social entrepreneurship opportunities
-Healthy NGO engagement
-Global marketplace opportunities
-Collaboration amongst key stakeholders

Social Economic Outcomes
-Human flourishing
-Economic growth
-Social well-being

Figure 1: *Model for Effective Human Capital Development in Developing Economies (Muger, 2017)*

Workforce planning & talent and resource management

Even though Cuba has developed a large workforce through education and skill development programs, there is a lack of job opportunities (Monreal, 2006). If there is an unbalance of a highly educated workforce with a lack of work and business opportunity, there is a negative impact on society (Čadil, Petkovová, & Blatná, 2014). The imbalance leads to talented individuals leaving the country in search for better opportunities. Cuba has experienced significant migration of talent over the last 30 years, which has resulted in a brain-drain phenomenon (Cobas Valdés & Fernández Sainz, 2014). The majority of migrants are between the ages of 41 and 49 and have higher education levels than the rest of the population (Cobas Valdés & Fernández Sainz, 2014). To combat brain drain requires multiple steps including governments increasing resource allocation to science and technology development, reducing bureaucracy, and fostering entrepreneurialism through policies and structures to support business creation (Solimano, 2002).

The quality of conditions in the home country should be improved to attract talent back to their home country or not leave at all (Solimano, 2002). Therefore, the Cuban government should create incentives and develop policies to increase opportunities for their workforce and encourage talent to stay in Cuba or to return to Cuba. Cuba should open up the market and allow foreign investment and encourage small and middle-sized businesses to expand through deregulation of the size of businesses, removing salary caps (Monreal, 2006), and reducing corporate taxation rates. In addition, Cuba should spend more money on research and development, which will increase future productivity and competitiveness (Solimano, 2002). Cuba should ask for aid and other forms of assistance in the major areas where they lack competencies like technology to help increase market competitiveness, help retain home grown talent, and attract workers and students that studied abroad (Solimano, 2002). Research indicates tight policies on emigration or heavily taxing migration is counter-productive (Solimano, 2002). Therefore, Cuba should gradually deregulate business travel and other forms of travel over time to encourage a more open-market system that doesn't encourage individuals to operate in black markets.

International students are challenged to utilize their learning as they come back to their home countries for work (Perna, Orosz, & Jumakulov, 2015). Research shows that helping this group contextualize, adapt and integrate learning within their home culture is critical and requires supportive governance, economic and social structures (Perna, Orosz, & Jumakulov, 2015). It is recommended to offer expatriate talent special incentives and opportunities to encourage them to return to their country; like providing a reintegration program that allows them to network in-country and be introduced to local and international business contacts, and offering more deregulated business opportunities.

Capable, transparent & shared governance

Due to the reign of authoritarian regimes in Latin America in the 1960s and 1970s, there was a significant emigration of scientists and intellectuals (Solimano, 2002). Once those regimes were replaced with democratic systems, research shows a healthy number of these talented individuals returned to their home country (Solimano, 2002). In Cuba, the Fidel regime imposed tight restrictions on commerce, political freedom

and property rights when it first came to power. In part, these restrictions led to a significant migration of talented Cubans and also to an economic downturn especially after the subsidies from Russia ended in the early 1990s. In 2011, Cuba ranked as one of the weakest economies globally (Corrales, 2012). The state eventually recognized reforms were necessary. The power transition from Fidel to Raul Castro ushered some reforms introduced in 1996 and passed by Cuba's Congress in 2011 called *The Guidelines of the Economic and Social Policy of The Party and The Revolution*. The guidelines, also known as *Lineamientos*, made policy changes in domestic and international economic practices which included limited property rights for Cubans, allowed Cuban Americans to act as creditors for Cuban citizens, and various changes in industry management and social programs. *Lineamientos* guidelines moved Cuba away from a true socialist state closer to a market socialism system (Vidal Alejandro, Pérez Villanueva, & González-Corzo, 2011). It also proved the Cuban state to realize that a talented workforce and social programs were not enough for nation building efforts and more open-market solutions were required for economic growth (Vidal Alejandro, Pérez Villanueva, & González-Corzo, 2011). The Cuban government should allow the general population and international investors and governments to introduce solutions to the Party and the Cuban government to better balance the socialist ideals with the reality that a more open-market in Cuba is more advantageous for most stakeholders in the 21st century.

A population's perception of government leadership is an important aspect of successful governance. Cuba has communicated state agendas and norms effectively through its tight control over the media since the Castro regime took office. The regime has created a strong sense of collective identity through communicating national pride, a plan for national prosperity and focusing on social and human capital development programs over the past 40 years (Benjamin-Alvarado & Petrow, 2012). These actions have led to higher than average confidence and trust in the Cuban government (Benjamin-Alvarado & Petrow, 2012). From a policy perspective, government control over media is short-sighted as the general Cuban population is gaining access to the internet and social media which introduces new ideas and challenges the status quo. Therefore, the Cuban government should gradually allow more media outlets to operate independently and without fear of government intervention to provide the Cuban people with a non-governmental but Cuban perspective on global events.

Even though popular confidence in the government exists, there is criticism. When the Castro regime took control, there was strong state control over economics and social life. There was a shift in Cuban policy in the late 1960s with the development of an assembly called *Popular Power* to develop policy and distribute economic surpluses. *Popular Power* was introduced by the media as an example of participatory democracy, but top management positions in the organization were taken by government placed leaders, which stifled a healthy participative governance model (Chaguaceda, 2011). *Popular Power* is an example of how Cuba's authoritarian governmental model views participation as a means to mobilize for the Party (Chaguaceda, 2011). High single party government control over political participatory activities substantially limits individual freedom and does not incentivize authentic participation in co-developing and implementing policy. Therefore, the Party should allow lower governments to manage their respective areas (Ben-Meir, 2015). Non-

government participation should be allowed to affect policy development for an appropriate governance model to cultivate greater trust and productivity.

Marketplace opportunity

Education and social reforms by the Castro regime along with significant subsidies from Russia from the 1960s through the 1980s provided the means for the population not to be as dependent on an open marketplace. With the collapse of communist Russia and Cuba's subsidies from Russia in the early 1990s, Cuba's economic strength declined, and Cuba was forced to develop new policies and economic models to encourage growth. Entrepreneurship was deemed legal by the Cuban government in 1993, and it proved to create new job opportunities and benefits for Cuba (Ritter, 1998). This growth was short-lived due to a change in policy in 1996 which included tighter regulations, a regressive tax system, and competition from the state which led to growth in the black market (Ritter, 1998). As an example of state competition, in the late 1990s, Cuba hired a large fleet of food vendors to bring competition to the food service micro-enterprise system. The private micro-enterprises were not able to compete with the state-funded vendors because state-funded vendors did not have to buy taxed goods to sell to the general population (Ritter, 1998). Since that time, government restrictions have been lifted and reestablished.

One possibility to spur marketplace opportunities is to allow the state to control production and to limit any growth in micro-enterprise. These actions allow the government to gain more revenue in the short-term but would substantially limit the long-term stability of their economic engine. As regulations increase, the general population will move towards the black market for jobs and goods which weaken the political establishment (Ritter, 1998).

Another option would be to open the private economic system rapidly. This option would include allowing private firms to take over government-operated endeavors, eliminate the vast amount of regulations on private business, and to allow more foreign investment. There is precedence for this approach in particular sectors (Ritter, 1998) though is not recommended because of the unknown implications to the social fabric and long-term stability of the country.

A third approach supported by research (Ritter, 1998) would be to gradually and strategically open up the micro-enterprise system. This option would include policy changes in regulations and a less-burdensome tax system to encourage business growth. Policy changes would include giving business access to credit at competitive rates, opening up markets by reducing state competition with the private sector and reducing regulations, and allowing business owners greater flexibility in managing the size of their workforce and employee pay. This option requires the government to trust its population more which is shown to be more economically beneficial (Gur, 2015).

Cuba relies on its service export industry especially in the health services sector which makes it an export dependent economy (Monreal, 2006). Export-heavy countries should balance export income with domestic production and distribution for greater stability

(Monreal, 2006). There has been an increase in domestic production to replace dependence on imports, but Cuban technology and production abilities are limited (Monreal, 2006). This reliance on service exports without other forms of revenue is putting significant pressure on Cuba's economic future and is creating an overdeveloped workforce without ample work opportunities (Monreal, 2006). A policy change is needed to encourage domestic production which should include food production and construction (Monreal, 2006). Also, individual incomes need to increase to stimulate the local economy (Monreal, 2006). Cuba must encourage innovation in various sectors to be competitive through economic decentralization (Monreal, 2006; Vidal Alejandro, Pérez Villanueva, & González-Corzo, 2011), attract foreign investment, and allow a free flow of small and medium business development (Vidal Alejandro, Pérez Villanueva, & González-Corzo, 2011).

In summary, research shows that advancements in several areas simultaneously are needed for effective nation building. Feng et al. (2008) state that domestic factors such as political freedom, a stable environment, technological advancements and capable governance are needed for human flourishing (p.436). Any country in today's global economy cannot survive in isolation but does not necessarily need to conform to specific economic and social norms (Shreve, 2012). Though some experts believe the Cuban state can be successful economically within current political ideology (Shreve, 2012), more sweeping reforms are necessary to allow effective human capital development efforts to thrive.

Conclusion

As stated earlier, Cuba has heavily invested in select human capital development activities. Cuba is highly regarded for its social programs that emphasize equity, social welfare, and fostering individual talent. Cuba's universal access to education and guarantees of healthcare, food rations and housing along with other social programs is unique in the region. These programs require large investments on the government which comes from taxes. As income increases, taxes generally increase. Part of what makes these programs succeed is a collective belief that one's labor is for the benefit of all. A future area of study is to understand the impact of the government wage in Cuba that lacks financial incentives for working harder. A hypothesis is with appropriate economic incentives, productivity would increase, which would increase tax revenue that the government could spend on infrastructure improvements.

The impact of social entrepreneurialism in Cuba is another area for research. With the gradual reduction of Cuban government control on small and medium-sized businesses and a greater openness towards foreign investment, are there greater opportunities for social entrepreneurialism which could decrease the demand for the government to use tax dollars and other forms of revenue to provide resources to the population? This research could be a catalyst to develop a social entrepreneurship model suitable for a socialist state.

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Evidence-based Development of an Undergraduate Disaster Volunteerism Course for English Learners

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Abstract

Disaster management is a field of increasing importance as global climate change increasingly impacts our world. Students can, and often do, play important roles in disaster response. Following the 2011 Eastern Japan Great Earthquake and Fukushima nuclear plant disasters many students became involved in a variety of disaster response activities. These activities benefited the disaster response while also having a lasting impact on those students. By developing a course in disaster volunteerism, the students can be better prepared to contribute to disaster response and recovery. This paper addresses the use of research in developing the curriculum and content of the course. It is important to begin with the evidence. Understanding the roles that are necessary during disaster response and recovery is essential. Finding specific research on these roles, their impact on the response or recovery, and the impact on the volunteer is fundamental. The experience of a fundraiser is different from that of a medical first-responder, interpreter, or researcher. All of these roles are necessary, and it is important to do one's best to incorporate a variety of stories for students to have a choice. It then follows through and explains decisions made during the syllabus development process. This must begin with the goals of the class, and then how those goals are incorporated into the syllabus. Finally, the presentation will explain implementation of this syllabus starting with needs assessment.

Keywords: evidence-based pedagogy, content and language integrated learning (CLIL), English as a foreign language (EFL), disaster management, disaster volunteerism

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Introduction

Teaching in the modern classroom requires that teachers maintain their knowledge and expertise in both pedagogy and their subject matter. In addition, each class has a unique context. In fact, due to a lack of applicable research, teachers often have to serve a dual role as researchers to meet their students' needs (Rosen, Turtletaug, DeLouise, & Drake, 2015). This is nothing new, teaching has always involved innovation. However, it is an important basis from which to begin an understanding of formalizing the process towards evidence-based curriculum design.

In particular, the self-reliance developed by some teachers can interfere with the utilization of a broader evidence base. There is a large body of work in the field of pedagogy in general, as well as within specific fields. The failure or success of language acquisition programs can be traced to the degree to which evidence-based pedagogy is used (Cummins, 2014). In other words, teachers need to rely on the evidence to be successful. Some of the more specific evidence needs to be gathered by the teacher as a teacher/researcher, however some of the evidence is already published. It is the ability of the teacher to utilize a combination of both that can lead to successful curriculum development.

In order to design an evidence-based approach to curriculum design, the researcher utilized models from research-based policy development in the health sciences. The reason for this choice involved familiarity with those models and their history of implementation at different levels within the field. In particular, a five step approach: developing answerable questions, seeking available research, critically examining the research, applying the research, and evaluating the results (Brownson, Baker, Deshpande, & Gillespie, 2003, pp. 5-6); seemed to be the best basis for developing evidence-based curriculum design. This system, however, was not sufficient for the needs of developing a full curriculum. In particular, the second through fourth steps had to be repeated multiple times for three stages of the curriculum-development process. The first cycle of seeking, examining, and applying research begins with developing the structure of the course. This involves the development of course goals and selection of pedagogy. The second cycle involves the development of materials for the course. It is important to select materials that fit the course goals and pedagogical framework, but it is also important to scale those materials so that they match the level of the class. The third cycle addresses assessment. Assessment must fit within the structure of the course while also reflecting best practices understood through research. This led to a model of evidence-based curriculum design which followed the broad structure of research-based policy design found in the health sciences, but which was fine-tuned for curriculum design (figure 1).
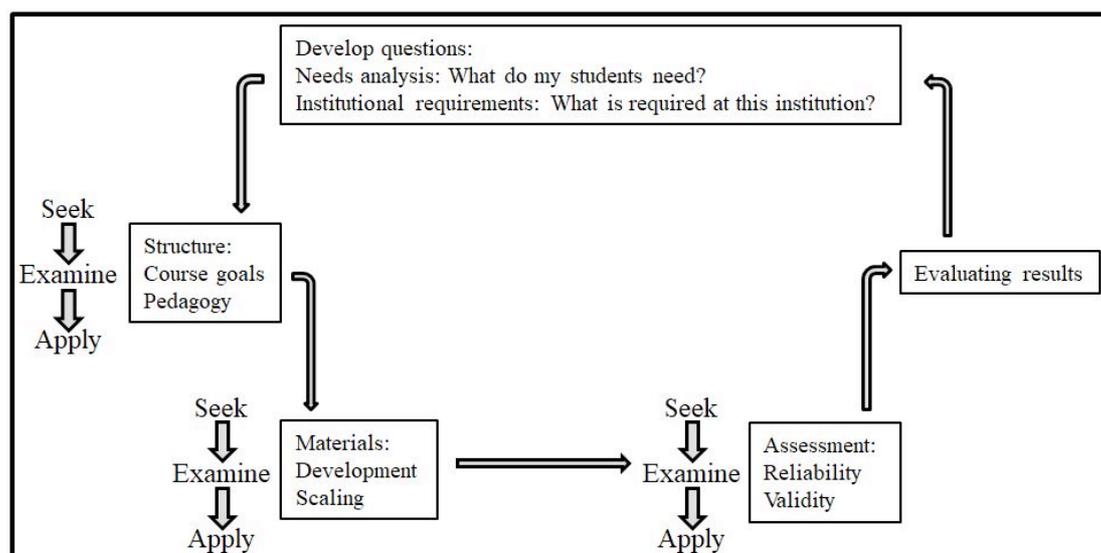
Figure 1: Evidence-based curriculum development cycle

Develop questions

The first stage of evidence-based curriculum design is to examine the problems that exist and use them to derive answerable questions. The primary question which drives curriculum development is: what do my students need? Answering this question involves understanding the students that will be in the class and how the class falls into a broader context of the students' education. It is the primary goal of educators to answer this question effectively. There are, however, constraints that are outside the scope that an individual teacher can control. There are specific limitations on time and resources as well as political, institutional, and cultural limitations (Artiles et al., 2011). Thus there is a second question that always follows the first: what is required at this institution? This is partially linked to the first question, understanding the class in the broader context of the whole, but often involves unrelated minutiae and bureaucratic necessities.

Answering these questions is often closely tied to the cultural context within which the course exists. It is important to adapt practices to the specific cultural context (Pham & Renshaw, 2015). This requires an understanding of the cultural background from which students have developed. Understanding culture and accepting culture, however, are not the same. It is important that students develop the ability to critically assess their place in history and culture (Freire, 1972). However, it is also incumbent on teachers to understand how to maneuver within the culture and develop an environment conducive to students that are part of the broader culture, while being inclusive of those from other cultural backgrounds.

Developing these questions within the context of a culture lays the foundation for evidence-based curriculum development. In fact, the success of language instruction can be linked to both evidence and culture being considered in the development and implantation of the course (Orosco & Abdulrahim, 2017). This paper primarily focuses on the evidence-related aspects of course development, however, it is essential to make mention of the central role cultural understanding played in the specific decisions made within the curriculum development.

In my specific teaching context, I based my understanding of student level on average TOEFL scores provided by the university. In addition, there was information about similar courses to the course I was developing. This, however, left questions about the structure of the course, development of materials, and assessments. In particular, there were important questions about balancing of content and language within a content-focused language course.

Structure

In approaching the question of how to organize the class, it was important to examine the research. For the type of class that was being designed, the tendency is towards content-focused language teaching, which has a variety of choices. There is also the possibility of task-based learning or other forms that were less content-centered. However, content and language integrated learning, CLIL, and immersion programs tend to work better than general language coursework (Cummins, 2014). Because I was not in an institutional setting that was conducive to developing an immersion program, CLIL was the optimal alternative. In addition, CLIL is an exceptional tool at creating an interconnection between linguistic and extralinguistic goals (Fodor & Lugossy, 2016). This meant that it was the best approach to addressing a content-focused language class because it could deal with the needs of students in developing comprehension in both language and content.

In order to develop the course it was important to select a topic that was engaging. This is because, cognitive content engagement theory suggests that the key to motivation and language acquisition is engagement with the content (McLaughlin et al., 2005). It was also important that the topic was separate from other topics covered. The topic I selected was disaster volunteerism because it is a recurring topic in modern Japanese society, and likely to increase in prominence as the effects of global climate change become more pronounced. Furthermore, the class was to be taught in the School of Policy Studies, thus the topic was well aligned with the students' other coursework.

Once the broad approach and the topic were selected, but before the materials were developed, it was important to select a framework for the course. Project-based learning (PBL) leads to improved learner motivation in students (Baş & Beyhab, 2017). As such, a PBL approach that fit the subject matter and the broad alignment with CLIL seemed to be the most appropriate path towards developing the materials.

It is important to note that there was some influence in the decision-making process by the teacher's preference as well as research that is not cited in this article. However, in the literature of evidence-based health policy that clinical experience is considered a viable and important form of data to be incorporated into the decision making process. As such, it is appropriate for teachers to utilize some degree of personal experience in the decision making process so long as that experience is subject to critical assessment and is not in opposition to the existing literature.

Materials

While PBL broadly fit the course, it was essential to organize the course in a manner that allowed students with less of an understanding of disaster volunteerism to engage with the materials. Therefore I divided the course into three sections. The first section supplied background information. This provided a foundation upon which students could develop their projects. The next section was the research section. In this section students selected a topic and did internet research for articles related to their topic. Finally, students would present their data to the class in the form of presentations and a final paper.

In the first section, several readings were included. The texts were simplified readings based on the researcher's dissertation (Gay, 2015). Four texts were developed to meet the needs of the students. The texts were divided into two groups, theoretical and practical. Because the theoretical requires more processing time, theoretical texts were assigned as homework with a comprehension-based activity to help students prepare for in-class critical thinking exercises. The two theories that were focused on were systems theory, which is fundamental in understanding disaster management and disaster volunteerism, and utilitarianism, which helps students understand ethics in a well-developed and practical framework. The practical texts were handled in class. The first of these was about the disaster cycle. The disaster cycle is the practical framework around which disaster management activities are defined. The other practical text was a set of simplified testimonies based on data from the researcher's dissertation. These testimonials were designed to address a variety of volunteer activities engaged in by students during the Fukushima nuclear disaster response. These types of testimonials were decided on in order to give a broad range of examples for students to develop on for their own research while also being relatable to mainly Japanese students, many of whom had been in Japan during the Fukushima nuclear disaster.

In preparing the readings, there was another issue of concern. There is a constant friction between the use of extensive and intensive reading. There is also much scholarship on both sides of the issue placing the two in equipoise for many situations. However, while extensive reading is often preferred, in certain contexts intensive reading is the better approach (Park, 2017). Specifically, intensive reading is better for lower level students developing reading comprehension. In this case, while the students can be seen as intermediate to upper-intermediate level learners, their comprehension related to this specific topic area can be considered lower level. As such, the researcher decided to utilize intensive reading for the background portion of the class. Furthermore, while extensive reading is often cited as a strong activity for the development of vocabulary, the amount of time required would not be viable in this specific learning context.

With that in mind, there was a need to tailor the texts to be as effective as possible for the specific context of the class. Comprehensibility is important for the accessibility of the text (Nation, 2015). As such, 95% coverage of the first 2,000 word levels and the academic word list was appropriate. An online tool, lextutor.ca, was used to assess the coverage. The texts were adjusted to decrease the number of non-essential words outside of the coverage level. For words that were essential for explaining disaster

volunteerism that were outside the preferred coverage range, definitions were provided in the text to improve comprehension.

The second step was to develop a system to support students finding and assessing articles for their final presentation and paper. There is little research on supporting student research in EFL, however the researcher was able to utilize personal experience from programs that had incorporated some degree of student research as well as classes the researcher had developed in the past that utilized similar activities. The researcher chose to use a secondary sources method wherein students used Wikipedia to locate viable sources before locating the original sources. In addition, the researcher required students to find sources that had a named author, a date of publication, and a title. There was some discussion of critical assessment of the validity of articles, but much of that aspect was supported in writing classes which students were taking concurrently with the class the researcher had developed.

The final section involved student presentations and student papers. There is a growing body of research on timed PowerPoint presentations, in particular the Pechakucha format. This format is especially useful in large classes (Shiobara, 2015). With the largest of the classes containing 30 students, short timed PowerPoint presentations were the best option available. The research has also found through experience that students doing presentations wherein each slide is timed and up for less than 20 seconds tend to practice more than for a non-timed or longer slide duration PowerPoint presentation. The format of the presentations was designed to reflect in-class activities related to the internet research. Students would provide a title slide, an overview slide, three sets of article summary and synthesis slides, a summary slide, and a sources slide. This resulted in a ten slide format. In order to allow sufficient time between presenters, 30 seconds, the time of each slide was set at 15 seconds. All slides were due a week prior to the presentation to give the researcher sufficient time to combine all the presentations into a single timed presentation. The presentation was designed to begin when the class began and give students 30 seconds to make it to the front of the class in order to present.

The final paper followed much the same format and reflected the style used in the writing classes that students were required to take. This was one area where the researcher had to follow institutional guidelines rather than evaluating research and developing a system that was tailored for the specific class. There are always areas where there need to be a balance between consistency between classes and optimization for specific classes. Fortunately, the researcher's institution has a well-designed and implemented writing problem that was sufficient for the purposes of this course. The specifics of the paper required students to utilize skills such as summarization and synthesis of research in order to create a coherent argument for a specific type of volunteer work during one stage of the disaster cycle.

Assessments

Most institutions require some form of assessment. The primary purpose of assessment in the EFL setting is to provide feedback to students (Cheng, Rogers, & Hu, 2004). This, however, leaves a plethora of viable solutions. The context of the course would therefore have to guide the appropriate form of assessments. Task-based assessment allows teachers to capture both the comprehension of content and

the use of language (Byrnes, 2002). This is a good fit for a CLIL course. Furthermore, task-based assessment allows a better assessment of how students actually use the language (Norris, 2016). Thus task-based assessments provided a solution that was viable for dual-purpose assessment and allowed for the assessment of students actual ability.

There were, however, institutional norms to consider when developing the complete assessment framework. The first institutional norm was the use of a participation grade. Every class in the program is required assess participation and assign five to ten percent of the final grade based on that participation score. The other institutional norm is that the remainder of the grade be balanced between major assignments or tests and homework. Thus there was a need to have types of homework that fit the task-based assessment paradigm but also fit into these two separate categories.

The primary form of homework assessment involved writing responses to readings. Task-based assessment needs to be communicative and allow a degree of ambiguity in assessment (Byrnes, 2002). As such, the responses were not required to fit a specified form; however they needed to communicate that the students had comprehended the readings. For the first section, the students responded to the theoretical texts that were assigned as homework. This served a dual purpose. First, it forced students to process the texts, furthermore it provided a format for the researcher to give feedback to help students understand the degree to which they had comprehended the texts. In the second section, the students did a similar activity with internet articles that they had found. As the researcher could not provide personalized questions for each article, the students instead had to summarize the articles and provide a synthesis between their article and their broader topic. This also supported the PBL goal of developing towards the final project.

For the major assessments the researcher developed three assessments. The first set of assessments was graded discussions. These discussions followed the format of other graded discussions in the speaking-focused classes the students were required to take. The assessment was modified, however, to allow for a portion of the assessment to be based on content rather than language. These assessments also served as transitions between sections of the syllabus and allowed students to consolidate their knowledge before moving to the next section. The final two assessments were the final projects, the presentation and paper. These assessments were similarly linked to institutional standards with adjustments made to allow the incorporation of content-focused grading.

Evaluating results

The researcher utilized a variety of methods for gathering data on the results. The first set of data was based on teacher notes following each class. In addition, students were encouraged to express their opinions on the course contents and assessments. Many students provided valuable positive and negative feedback that was included in the assessment. Next, performance on assessments was evaluated. Finally, students provided feedback in an end of semester anonymous evaluation form. All of this data was collected and assessed for the further development of the course.

After the first implementation of the course, it became clear that addressing key vocabulary explicitly would improve comprehensibility of the text. This assertion was triangulated between teacher notes and student feedback. In addition, student feedback showed that many students felt the texts could have been easier (figure 2).
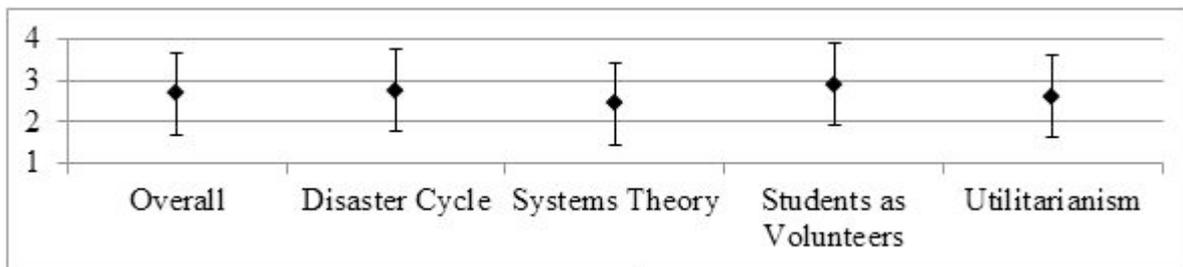
Figure 2: Text difficulty (4 is easy, 1 is difficult)

However, the students tended to find the texts useful (figure 3). There is a clear difference between the theoretical and practical texts, with the practical texts being considered easier and more useful. Unfortunately, because there is no assessment of practical text comprehension, it is not currently possible to assess whether the student perceptions match the learning outcomes.
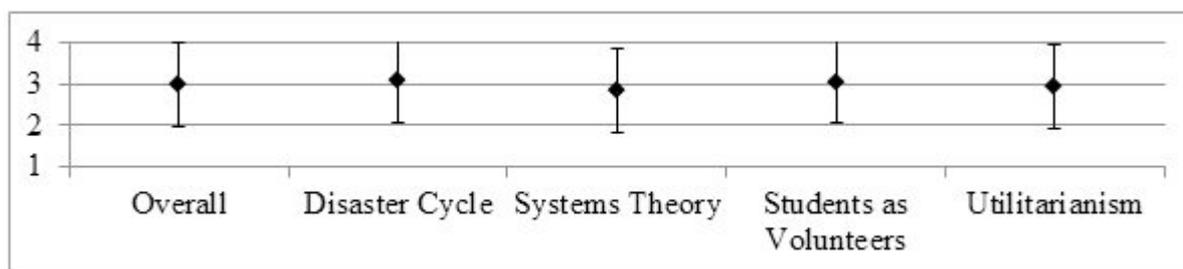
Figure 3: Text usefulness

The overall analysis of the assessments found that there were few issues with the assessments, and students found the assessments useful based on their feedback and end of semester evaluations. There were some issues with the final essay, in particular the task-based assessment approach allowed too much variability and not enough scaffolding for some students.

Conclusions

Findings

In education research, there is a need to move from the theoretical to the applied (Zapp & Powell, 2017). For this to happen, however, there need to be institutional mechanisms to apply that research to the classroom. The development of this course often required the researcher to assess the best manner to apply evidence-based practices within institutional constraints. While there was reasonable access to research, time constraints often limited the practicality of basing the curriculum development on research.

On the other hand, the researcher found that the first implementation of the curriculum went smoothly with relatively few issues. The further development of the

course was also made easier by documentation that was ongoing throughout the course. The proposed evidence-based curriculum development cycle was relatively easy to incorporate into curriculum development practices, and the student response was largely positive. This suggests that the broader implementation of this cycle as a form of best practices may be viewed as one way to improve pedagogy in the field of ELT.

Implications

The specific implications for this course are that there will be greater scaffolding of vocabulary and essay structure. The researcher is also continuing to research into applicable data on manners in which to improve the implementation of the presentation and the essay assignments. However, the broad structure of the course was sound, and that is largely the result of the research that went into developing the course.

For the field of ELT, this may have broader implications. While this paper outlines the structure and successful implantation of research-based curriculum development (figure 1), it is still one example. It is important that this methodology be critically assessed and implemented by others to ascertain the full implications of this system. If others are able to demonstrate similar results, this will demonstrate the necessary step from theoretical research results to real-life applications. That was the broad goal at the implementation of this research, and it continues to be an important goal for the better alignment between pedagogical research and practical pedagogy.

In terms of institutions, this also has implications. Institutions may need to recognize the amount of time necessary for developing curriculums. Beyond this, institutions may need to assess specific policies and determine if the policies in place limit the ability of teachers to utilize best practices. This is an impact that will require case-by-case assessments of a broad range of policies. However, those assessments and realignments may lead to better learning outcomes, which should be the primary goal of educational institutes.

Limitations

This research was done for the development of a specific course in a specific institution. While the methods may be transferable, many of the findings will remain limited. Furthermore, some of the student feedback could not be triangulated with assessments. In particular, the low scores of the systems theory text may be the result of difficulty of some students to understand theories and their implications, rather than difficulty with the language or lack of applicability.

Final comments

This development of this course through this approach provided the researcher with an opportunity to examine the difficulties and efficacy of this approach. This approach did require a greater amount of time for its initial development than courses that the researcher has developed without the same degree of research focus. On the other hand, there are fewer adjustments that are needed for improving the course for its second run. In addition, some of the research that went into the courses development

may be applicable for the development of future courses. As such, the utilization of this model, if its success can be replicated, may be the essential next step for the future of ELT.

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Sustainable Education: Institutional and Academic Plans for Student Success

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Abstract

In view of recent efforts to redefine the meaningful role of education on a global scale, this paper outlined some of the latest attempts to overcome struggles related to a decrease in student enrollment and restore a renewed interest in learning by operating on multiple ranges. At an institutional level, a description of the case of Hawaii Tokai International College, a two-year liberal arts private college, included a number of strategies adopted to counterbalance a vulnerable educational scenario, such as plans for cross-registration with other institutions of higher education and a newly-launched Tourism/Hospitality Certificate addressing demographic needs on the island of Oahu and the Japanese community. At an academic level, the reevaluation of the role of humanities as a core discipline is expressed in designing courses that increase awareness of diversity to bridge gaps between Western and Eastern cultures and boost motivation and experiential learning. Last, interdisciplinarity applied to the classroom involving exercises with mythological stories and food-culture, as a manner of sustaining the challenges of an ever-changing educational arena.

Keywords: Higher Education, Interdisciplinarity, Humanities, Cross-registration

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In the past ten years the relevance of quality education and sound teaching practices has been increasingly evaluated by policy makers and higher education representatives. Nonetheless, the analysis of best practices in teaching and learning for higher education discussed tangential aspects as the available body of research in the field could not thoroughly focus on the entire range of disciplines (Neumann, 2010). Therefore, despite a vast literature acknowledging the importance of teaching, the need for shaping teaching practices and program updates in relation to the changing demographics and social needs is relatively recent. This article collected some of the most current research findings in the field of education, specifically teaching and learning in the field of liberal arts, along with institutional planning aimed at increasing student enrollment and adding educational value to program offerings with a Tourism and Hospitality certificate program after a careful environmental scanning.

The research question guiding the entire discussion inquires on the number of techniques, strategies, and plans adopted by administrators and instructors to align with this ever-changing political and economic scenario that, in turn, affects teaching and delivery modes. In addition, how can creativity in the classroom lead to relevant and long-lasting learning? How can the administrators and leadership teams sustain an interest in learning, while aiding teaching?

The overall purpose of this article is to encourage administrators and educators, throughout the support of reliable scholarship, in the continuous process of motivating students with a variety of teaching techniques and innovative courses reflecting a particular geographic reality.

Past studies (Ballantyne et al, 1999; Hativa, 1997; Smeby, 1996) have analyzed differences in teaching methodologies based on disciplines and course level. To begin, it is fundamental an appreciation and acknowledgement of the value of teaching techniques used across varied disciplines; for instance, the use of tutorials in humanities classes and laboratory experiments in science and technology courses, although in view of the recent globalization, a multicultural approach to education is fundamental and must be applied regardless of the discipline. Lectures, field trips, and internships are additional teaching methodologies in place, and are pervasive in every discipline. Smeby (1996) performed a national survey, whose results highlighted differences in regards to the time spent teaching according to the disciplines, concluding that it is essential the understanding of how different disciplines affect the academic use of time used for teaching. As a matter of fact, it could be useful a future research on comparative studies of differences in teaching practices and outcomes according to disciplines, examining differences and similarities in educational settings.

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Neumann's (2001) studies focused on the relevance of effective teaching and institutional practices aimed at reinforcing the value of education. Upon examining the role of academic disciplines in shaping teaching and learning processes, the author proceeds toward an analysis of cultural and societal differences affecting the success of educational

practices, demonstrating that institutions and educators share equal responsibility in guaranteeing a future for education. Following this lead, the present paper described several case studies suggesting potential strategies involving applicability of learning based on stakeholder needs and cultural differences.

The necessity for sustainable education in colleges emerged in Calder and Dautremont-Smith's (2009) research, whether it encompasses environmental, societal or economic practices. Institution of higher education continually plan for increasing values of global citizenship, critical thinking, and ethical behavior for a sustainable world. Therefore, colleges rely upon excellence in teaching and research achievements, along with institutional operations to reach this objective. Academically, sustainability is reflected in a revision of the educational offering by redesigning curricula towards interdisciplinary education and sustainable business. Institutionally, the concept of sustainability applies to the renovation of buildings that are LEED certified (Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design), a certification released by the U.S. Green Building Council. More than 40 institutions have embraced this sustainable project for their facilities, including Hawaii Tokai International College as the object of the case study for the present research. Similarly, analysis from Walker (2003) emphasized the introduction of a critical thinking component to courses for promotion of active learning behaviors. The author differentiated between the act of critical thinking and skills of critical thinking, concluding that they are both interconnected and necessary to the learning process. Nonetheless, the American Philosophical Association Delphi reported the results of a cross-disciplinary study, whose results led to the belief that certain individuals encompassing specific characters such as willingness to find the truth, ability to form and make judgements, are more likely to possess critical thinking abilities (Facione, 1994). Lectures, active discussions, independent research, and cross-cultural comparison exercises are presented in this research as examples of meaningful approach to critical thinking as a large part of teaching strategies enabling students to adopt positive behavior towards learning.

Institutional Plans for Sustainable Learning

Institutions of higher education may take an active lead in the examination of a teaching style that takes into account cultural perspectives and discipline variety. Hutchings and Shulman (1999) already advocated for a shift from a very detailed analysis on quantitative data tracking institutional effectiveness concerning student retention, graduation rates, to the intellectual progress of students and their degree of subject comprehension, ultimately, the validity of teaching practices. This student-focused, rather than institutional-focused approach, shall also consider the availability of funding necessary to support such endeavors. For instance, funding destined to field work may significantly differ from a budget supporting seminars and lecture-based teaching, as well as the funds addressed to professional development. Lattuca and Stark (1994) argued the current role of the American Association of Colleges as the provider of a meaningful undergraduate curriculum, considering the strong disparity of endowment between soft and hard disciplines. As an alternative, they suggest that institutions focus on the manner according to which each discipline can foster student mastery of a subject. Following

this recommendation, staff development and teaching certifications may consider a pedagogy specifically designed for different disciplines.

The case study of Hawaii Tokai International College (HTIC), a two-year private institution of higher education located in Kapolei, Hawaii, is emblematic of continuous administrative efforts to sustain the value of education through plans of cross-registration with nearby colleges.

Articulation Agreement between UHWO and HTIC

The agreement between UHWO and HTIC in 2014 allowed students who successfully completed courses at HTIC to have those credits apply towards meeting the degree requirements at UHWO. This was a guideline for students and advisers on the transfer of academic credit between the respective institutions. Upon assessment of this pilot program, there was still a need to revise the program to balance the number of students who are attending either institution.

In 2017 cross-registration meetings between UHWO and HTIC's administrators continued as both institutions collaborate on the best ways to offer classes to students of both campuses.

As a result of the collaboration between UHWO and HTIC, there was an increased interaction between the two campuses in the use of libraries, cafeterias, intermural sport clubs, ESL and Japanese conversation. Collaboration between the two campuses culminated in the International Education Week taking place every year, on the first week of November. In Fall 2017, HTIC launched a Hospitality and Tourism Certificate Program, including culture-geared hospitality classes. Through comparative culture studies and cross-cultural communication, this class provides cultural competency to students who are interested in working with Asian tourists.

Hospitality and Tourism Concentration

Hawaii Tokai International College (HTIC), a two-year private institution of higher education, recently developed and designed a Hospitality and Tourism Concentration which began in fall 2017 term in response to faculty and student feedback, along with the demographic outline of the college.

Table 1: HTIC Student Demographic Data

	AY 2012-2013	AY 2013-2014	AY 2014-2015	AY 2015-2016	AY 2016-2017
Japan	74.4%	76.5%	82.3%	87.1%	85.4%
Korea	1.6%	0.6%	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%
China		1.8%	1.7%		
United States	24.0%	21.1%	14.0%	9.8%	13.6%
Philippines			1.0%	0.7%	
Other				1.4%	

Student demographics indicate a high percentage of international students. Upon completion of the College Preparatory program, providing instruction in ESL, most of these students enter HTIC's Liberal Arts program with sufficient English proficiency level to complete an Associate in Arts degree. As a result, many of these students, upon completion of our College Prep and Liberal Arts program are bilingual which gives them an advantage in the competitive job market in the hospitality industry.

Hospitality and Tourism would prepare students who are interested in entering the job market, or in pursuing further education in the Hospitality and Tourism industry.

Courses were designed to provide an opportunity for learning about customer and career services, business etiquette, international relations, and race and ethnic relations in Hawaii, leading to applicable learning and institutional plans of sustainable education.

For instance, courses are designed to develop practical skills necessary for successful interaction with Japanese, Chinese, or Korean visitors or business associates in the hospitality and tourism industry. Through interactive learning methods, the course focuses on developing cross-cultural understanding and cultural intelligence to deal with associates, clients, and customers from various cultural backgrounds.

The three-credit course in Business and Hospitality was team-taught, and was unique in its delivery. In fact, the ten weeks of classes were divided among five faculty members, each with his or her own contribution. A specialist in culture studies provided six classes in dimensions of culture and how these dimensions inform behavioral and communication differences; an award-winning Hawaiian member of the visitor industry enlightened the class with elements of the host culture; a longtime Japanese language instructor conducted six classes on the subtleties of language which are essential in the hospitality industry. The last two faculty members provided six classes on practical issues which arose during their business experience in the Japanese tourism industry and guided students as they created their own business plans for their future careers. This team-teaching approach provided a variety of perspectives and provided students with foundational knowledge of cultural differences which drive behaviors.

The Value of Education within Society: Increasing Motivation and Experiential Learning

Acknowledging the challenges to redefine a meaningful role of education on a global scale, institutions have devised academic plans, along with the institutional arrangements previously mentioned. Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) highlighted the concept of experiential learning as a stream of research focused on what Dewy (1938) used to call a theory of experience. Kolbe and Kolbe (2005) synthesized the principles of experiential learning in six propositions:

1. Learning must be considered as a process, not in terms of outcomes. In order to improve learning in higher education it is necessary to engage students in a process of feedback on their attempts to learning.

2. The learning process is intended as a revision of previously-learned concepts. It can be facilitated by testing and examining student beliefs and ideas on a topic.
3. Learning is a process of resolution of conflicts taking place with disagreements, opposing views, and differences.
4. Learning is a progressive adaption to the world, not only in terms of cognition, but also concerning perception, behavior, and thoughts.
5. Learning is conceived as an interaction between the learner and the surrounding environment, intended as assimilation of new experiences to the base-knowledge.
6. Learning involves the creation of new knowledge, specifically, the combination of social knowledge with the personal knowledge of the learner.

For the purpose of demonstrating the relevance of experiential learning and sustained motivation, a case study was developed to examine student incorporation of learning, course retention, and conflict resolution by increasing the awareness of multiculturalism and diversity of perspectives, with emphasis on bridging gaps between Eastern and Western cultures. A course in World Literature delivered in a two-year private institution of higher education yielded relevant results in terms of retention data and course/student learning outcomes. The course included selected literary classics from the different cultures of the world from 1600 and introduced students to classics of world literature from 1600 to the present, with focus on the ideas that have shaped world literature, on how literature reflects different cultures and historical periods, and on how the human experience finds expression in the literatures of the world. The identified course learning outcomes were the following:

 (1) Gain knowledge of some of the great literature of the world;
(2) Learn about the human experience in other times and cultures;
(3) Advance English skills by reading the rich language of prose and poetry and expressing concepts orally and in writing;
(4) Develop critical and analytical abilities by close examination of a literary text and the intellectually stimulating exchange of ideas with others;
 (5) Gain a deeper appreciation for literature as an art.

The course learning outcomes are aligned with specific Institutional Learning Outcomes (ILOs), consisting of Effective Communication Skills, Intellectual and Practical Skills, and Global Citizenship. Assessments to measure student achievement of the ILOs include demonstrating critical thinking and analytical skills by writing research essays in a writing intensive course, exhibiting comprehension of assigned reading by taking occasional quizzes, and providing a thorough understanding of works of world literature covered in the course with a midterm and final exam. Students selected a topic such as performing arts in literature and compared the Eastern Japanese Bunraku Theater with the Western Italian Commedia dell' Arte. After careful research, observation of live performances on videos, students identified similarities and differences between the two artistic representations. Such analysis was outlined with the observation of stage acting on live videos and through the reading of "The Love Suicides at Amijima" by Chikamatsu Monzaemon, compared with "The Servant of Two Masters" by Carlo Goldoni.

Firstly, in both performances only men were allowed to act, because of the seductive influence perceived in women. This topic sparked intense discussions on women's role and place in society during the XVII century in Edo, Japan. Secondly, both artistic performances made use of puppets singing, dancing, and interacting with the public. Additionally, the shows were addressed to an audience of merchants, and townsfolk because of their realistic, trivial, comical genre, opposed to their Eastern/Western counterparts, respectively the aristocratic Noh Drama and austere Greek Drama. Thirdly, both Commedia dell' Arte and Bunraku were performed by highly trained professionals accompanied by joruri chanting and shamisen music, as theatre was a highly regarded art form (Emigh et al. 1999). These styles had no limits in characters as the actors could choose to be anybody they wanted to impersonate. Lastly, differences were found in the timeline as the Commedia dell' Arte started one century before the Bunraku performance (XVI century) and the style of improvisation operated by the actors of the Commedia dell' Arte, vs. the carefully measured movements and plots devised by the master puppeteer and his assistants in Bunraku. Masks in Commedia dell' Arte also depicted exaggerated facial figures, a trait that is not evident in Bunraku plays (Jenkins, 1994).

This inquiry-based assessment allowed students to take charge of their own learning, as many of them are negatively affected by the concept of passive learning as the only option available. Peer review discussions, inquisitive methods of teaching and learning, and possibility to increase student responsibility for their learning through autonomous research can greatly enhance their opportunities to learn from experience, improving meta-cognitive skills, leading to reflective learning. Dewey (1934) had already defined reflective learning as a balanced process of doing and receiving. Therefore, education needs to perform certain actions in order to create a connection with different world realities and to link impressions of the world to events whose relevance has been tested and compared to the individual's body of knowledge. Still, many higher education courses are still focused on memorizing information, rather than providing learning opportunities to test the information that has been acquired.

Interdisciplinarity for Sustainable Education

Linkon's (2000) report on a case study described student experiences with interdisciplinary courses in an urban state university, using a mixed methods approach and shifting the focus of the research on student interests, rather than teaching methodologies. The author submitted to the Carnegie foundation a sample composition paper from one of her students with her commentary and realized the challenges of this student in linking history and literature as part of the interdisciplinary course. Linkon (2000) inquired on the nature of these obstacles, whether they stemmed from lack of knowledge about the disciplines, or from discipline that have already been learned. Upon data-gathering and focus groups, the author inquired on student perceptions about ethnographical studies and students commented on the categorization of items in ethnographies to explain issues.

All students agreed that a course in interdisciplinary studies was much different from others they were used to take, although they never used the word "interdisciplinary" to define it. Eventually, when the instructor asked about the meaning of this concept during midterm and end-of-term surveys the responses greatly differ between students who had a clear idea of the topic versus students who could not specifically identify a meaning. Most importantly, the campus delivered a large-scale survey on 2000 students asking about their overall experience with specific courses, including interdisciplinary studies. Although the author did not provide the overall results of the findings, as this was part of a longitudinal study (i.e. four, five-year project) the experience is valuable in this student-geared approach to learning, looking at different patterns of connections and definitions, while doing research on a subject of complex definition. Interdisciplinarity, intended as the dissolution of boundaries across disciplines, can be applied to liberal arts course as in the case of a world mythology course developed at Hawaii Tokai International College.

The course instructor placed emphasis on the interdisciplinary approach by prompting students to analyze each mythological tale according to anthropological, historical, metaphysical, cosmological, psychological, aetiological, sociological perspectives, as suggested in Thury and Devinney's (2013) interpretation of the topic. Below is a chart synthesizing the concept of interdisciplinarity in regards to the epic poem and mythological tale "The Trojan War":

Table 2: Mythological Insights from the "Trojan War"

Insight	Example
Historical	Archeologists have been able to locate the probable location of the Trojan walls.
Anthropological	Warriors were willing to die at a young age to follow the ideal of glory in death by battle.
Metaphysical	The conflict between love and death as limitations on human freedom.
Cosmological	Gods determine the fate of the heroes.
Aetiological	Delicate balance in nature, where each action corresponds to a direct result.
Sociological	Matriarchal family structure in the classic Greek world
Psychological	Heroes as role models for their high morals.

As acknowledged in Robinson et al. (2016) the integration of multiple perspectives from different disciplines, enhance the ability for critical thinking and for leveraging dissimilarities, increasing student appreciation for diversity and the merging of humanities and science. Teaching methods involving creativity and student involvement, discussed in the next paragraph, are also considered as additional strategies to purport the need for a sustainable education in this ever-changing educational arena.

Teaching Techniques to Sustain Challenges in Education

A further point discussed in this paper is the necessary link between teaching and research, necessary to student learning, throughout an inquiry-based method (Healey and

Roberts 2004). This new approach to teaching and learning challenges universities and faculty to remodel curricular offerings and programs. Healey (2005) emphasized the perception among staff of differences among disciplines and the activities created to deliver discipline-based content. For instance, Donald (2002) identified different ways of learning in relation to different academic disciplines: Interpretation is a major component in English and Literature courses, in which the meaning of a text is interpreted with inferential and semantic processes, whereas Engineering and Science courses highlight the development of problem solving and critical thinking skills. Nonetheless, the linking of research findings and learning may assist students with independent or team learning (Jenkins et al. 2003).

One occurrence of this hypothesis takes place in liberal arts courses involving exercises with food and culture, myths and legends, which ultimately lead to self-reflection and long-lasting learning. The assessments designed for these courses considered the innovative teaching approach of Anderson, Kratwhwohl, and colleagues' (2001), who revised Bloom's taxonomy, changing the concept of "knowledge" as mere acquisition of information to "remember" as memorization and retention of information. One example of this revised taxonomy takes place in an exercise for a humanities course, in which students are asked to select any mythological story explored in class and compare it to a fairy tale/folktale based on striking similarities. For example, students described the story from "Genesis" mentioning the episode of Adam and Eve eating the apple from the tree of knowledge and compared it to the tale of Snow White eating the poisoned apple. In both myth and folktale, eating the apple generates a loss, whether it was the guarantee of immortality or life. Similarly, presentations included the story about the theft of Idun's apples in Norse mythology: The apples that prevented the Norse gods from aging and dying are stolen by Loki, causing havoc among the deities. This last story is used to reflect upon metaphysical concepts (i.e. the mortal nature of gods and the concept of immanent/transcendent gods) associated with student personal knowledge on the topics.

The study and analysis of cultural differences is instead possible with an observation of worldwide culinary habits, meeting the Higher-Order Skills of Anderson et al.'s taxonomy (i.e. Analyze, Evaluate). A lesson on food and culture raises awareness about the unexpected influence of mythology on eating practices at a global scale, with a close comparison between Western/Eastern food customs. In this case, food culture is used as a chance to discuss the relation between rituals and myths. Douglas' (1972) chapter "Deciphering a Meal", which discussed a connection between food and cultural communication utilizing the paradigmatic and syntactic structure of Claude Levi-Strauss to explain how, from simple to complex meals, our societies follow rigid parameters of organization and myths/stories are the channel through which we are able to learn about these customs.

Following Douglas' framework on deciphering a meal, students proceed with decoding a specific aspect of a culture, following Ludwig Andreas Feuerbach's saying "A man is what he eats". The examples are multiple: Unleavened bread for Jewish culture to commemorate the Exodus is a chance to instruct students on religious beliefs affecting meals and rituals; the absence of flesh products on Fridays during Lent for Christians

allows a discussion for the sacrifice of Jesus on Good Friday, therefore Christians refrain from eating flesh meat in his honor on Fridays.

Aside from these specific examples of motivational-based teaching, universities may model their course and program offerings toward a research-based model approach. Griffiths (2004) operated a further distinction between teachings, as follows:

- Research-led Teaching: Students learn about research outcomes and the main teaching delivery mode is based on dissemination of information.
- Research-oriented Teaching: Students examine the research process and the curriculum is focused on the development of knowledge and the achievement of learning and the teaching delivery guides student toward this awareness.
- Research-based Teaching: Students embrace an inquiry-based method of learning; the separation of roles between teachers and students is minimal.

In the end, a research-teaching linkage may be highly supportive of uncertain futures in the higher educational scenario, as long as the appropriate amount of time is placed on teaching and learning activities.

The Future of Higher Education: Short and Long-Term Goals

Although faculty, administrators, and policymakers are facing challenging times for the swift changes affecting the educational, political, and economical arena, it is still feasible the possibility to reinvent teaching and learning practices through creative strategies including, but not limited to, cross-registration, certificate programs that take into account demographic needs and changes, the reevaluation of liberal arts courses as carriers of creativity and alternative critical thinking, and the use of digital humanities to satisfy the applicability of learning.

The first step entails reshaping the profile of universities considering that in the twenty-first century multiculturalism and diversity are paramount features in academia. As suggested by Healy (2005) a student-centered approach may foster long-lasting learning, while faculty will maintain a strong bond between teaching and research on effective instructional practices. At the same time, student engagement in the research process would improve their research skills while stimulating active learning.

One evident example of this process is an inquiry-based method, as mentioned in Badley (2002) who perceived teaching and research as diverse forms of inquiry. The activities on food and culture in a liberal arts course represent an empirical instance of this paradigm, although communities must organize their program offerings in accordance with the surrounding demographic needs. Inquiry-based learning, as already discussed in the past, stems from experiential learning theories (Kolb 1984) as it provides students with opportunities to experience in different modalities and styles. To this day, few institutions have organized their programs around this method. For example, Jenkins et al. (2003) listed a college in Massachusetts and a university in Denmark as the carrier of active inquiry programs, specifically geography and humanities courses. Conversely, Colbeck

(2004) stated that metanalysis and problem-based learning applied to scientific courses provides empirical evidence of student learning and are comparable with an inquiry-based approach.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Improvements

The sustainability of learning in higher education throughout institutional and academic measures is in constant need of implementation regarding curriculum, faculty, and student development, while monitoring the available resources (Kolbe & Kolbe, 2005). Each program is also subject to the educational mission of each college and, therefore, susceptible of major changes. A coordinated effort from the entire institution is then recommended to boost the vitality of ideas and propositions for a change in educational development to avoid fragmented plans that will not be carried out. For example, a state of the art curriculum may not be accepted if faculty does not share a similar educational vision. Similarly, if the leadership team focuses on profits and rankings, the resources allotted for teaching and learning development can be scarce. For the case study of Hawaii Tokai International College, the pilot programs need further assessments throughout longitudinal data analysis on student achievements and success.

Following the principle of sustainability, a report from the Higher Education Academy (2005) emphasized the need for long-term development supported by universities showcasing their initiatives among the communities they serve. Throughout longitudinal research on a college, Subject Centre, in UK, the report identified how different disciplines contributed to sustainable education of teaching and learning practices and suggested appropriate support to expand these initiatives. The key findings can be summarized as follows:

- Teaching orientations on experiential and inquiry-based learning are key to sustainable development as the educator acts as a role model to follow and presents himself/herself as an authoritative figure, expert in the field.
- Interdisciplinary proved to be successful in sustainable education when applied to similar subjects (i.e. Hospitality-Sport and Tourism) and different subjects (i.e. Engineering and Humanities).

For each academic and institutional barrier to teaching and learning the institution found viable solutions, such as: Creating a rigorous review of existing curricula, developing sound teaching materials, investing in staff development, reviewing the institutional mission, and establishing a stakeholder group among employers and other professionals tasked with creating a business model for sustainable universities.

Conclusions

The purpose of this paper has been to highlight disciplinary differences in teaching and learning and the combination of institutional and academic plans for sustainable education. Research analyzing the nature of teaching and program offerings, as well as student motivation and learning outcomes, have been discussed. The examples and case

studies provided have contributed to the overall image of pedagogical and academic scholarship, although a large uncharted area regarding university teaching is still in need of further discussions.

The paragraphs explored a close connection between teaching and research with emphasis on research content and research process as aids to teaching and learning practices applied to different disciplines. Boundaries between different disciplines were dissolved with the idea of interdisciplinarity regarding the nature of teaching and research practices and the support of digital tools for the classroom. Last, it was recommended an inquiry-based and experiential-based approach to learning as an efficient manner of fostering lifelong learning.

Given the recent concerns of academics in regards to the future of education and commitment of educators, it is necessary to consider not only the effectiveness of teaching methods, but also the variation of teaching according to academic fields as they form a connection with the intellectual community. Therefore, greater analysis should be addressed toward the effects of disciplines in the success of teaching and learning practices, also to inform policymakers and institutions about sound governance practices. Overall, as mentioned in Shulman (2000) the sustainability of education can be synthesized in one word: fidelity. The faithfulness of professionals committed to their roles, their scholarship, mentorship, and integrity to their field of study represent a solid basis for institutions and communities to invest in the founding role of education for the society.

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Learning and Teaching as Spiritual Endeavors

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Abstract
This paper presents the approach to teaching elaborated by the Jesuits, an approach known as Ignatian pedagogy. This method of conveying knowledge involves engaging both the student's intellectual and spiritual self. Since its foundation in the sixteenth century, the Jesuit religious order has applied spirituality to its teaching methodology. The approach engages both the cognitive and the affective domain of the self. Students are taught how to read their heart's interior motions and to discern which of these motions lead to fulfillment of their heart-felt inclinations. In doing so, students become both intellectually and emotionally engaged in the pursuit of learning. The paper provides an example of the practical application of this method in a second-language classroom.

Keywords: spirituality, education, teaching methods, Ignatian pedagogy, Jesuit, Ignatius of Loyola, Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm, foreign language acquisition

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What is spirituality?

The concept of spirituality has evolved throughout the centuries. In our modern times, spirituality can be broadly defined as a process, generally associated with a religious tradition, aimed at establishing a relationship with a self-transcending reality. Sandra Schneiders, a leading scholar in the study of Christian spirituality and its place in the academic setting, has defined spirituality as "the experience of conscious involvement in the project of life-integration through self-transcendence toward the ultimate value one perceives" (1998, pp. 3-21). In modernity and postmodernity, spirituality has become more detached from a particular religious tradition and could be defined as a process leading to personal development or transformation (Muldoon, 2008, p. 295). In this paper I will focus on spirituality and its application into teaching methodology as practiced by the Catholic religious order known commonly as the Jesuits. Nowadays, Jesuit spirituality is also referred to as Ignatian (derived from the name of Ignatius of Loyola, the founder of the Jesuit order) spirituality, which is appropriate since many non-Jesuits also practice it.

To understand better the relationship between spirituality and education in the Jesuit tradition, it will be helpful to sketch the evolution of this relationship from the inception of the Jesuit order's spiritual practice. Subsequently, we will look at some contemporary adaptations of the Jesuit pedagogical approaches. My overarching claim is that spirituality matters in teaching and learning endeavors: to have a lasting impact, teaching and learning must be imbued with the personal engagement that comes from the desire to seek fulfillment beyond the narrow scope of selfhood. The ambition to succeed as a teacher and as a student should be intertwined with the process of self-discovery and the discovery of the other.

Jesuit spirituality codified

The founder of the Jesuit order, Ignatius of Loyola, a Basque nobleman who lived in the sixteenth century, underwent a personal transformation through a religious experience and later codified it into a booklet known as *The Spiritual Exercises* (O'Malley, 2000, pp.47-51). His goal was to share the fruit of his personal experience with others; as a good Catholic, he sought to save souls. The book is intended to guide people through an introspective examination so that they can discover their desires, predispositions, and preferences and see in them signs from God, indicating the best path of life to undertake.

The process of self-discovery underlying the entire *Spiritual Exercises* is referred to as *discernment (*Londsale, pp. 171-191). For Ignatius of Loyola, a Christian mystic, discernment was meant to help choose from among the many good options that God has reserved for a given individual, such that there would be a happy alignment between God's will and the person's natural predispositions. This alignment would result in the person's flourishing individually and subsequently in emanating this inner happiness toward others, helping them to achieve a comparable degree of self-knowledge and personal fulfillment.

Spirituality and community

The communal impact of this self-knowledge is considerable. One can imagine that if the majority of members in a community achieved self-knowledge and lived in harmony, freely complementing each others' predispositions and likings, we would be well on our way to building an altogether better society. This process can be summarized as a quest for the inner self and the subsequent integration of one's realized talents into a path toward God and toward the other (O'Malley, 2000 p.62)

From the formation of clerics to the education of good citizens

After the composition of the *Spiritual Exercises* and the foundation of the religious order in the sixteenth century, Ignatius of Loyola undertook the second step of codifying the spiritual experience that would serve as a blueprint for the formation of members of the Jesuit order. This document is the *Constitutions of the Society of Jesus*. In Part IV of this document, Ignatius details the educational principles to be applied in the formation of newly received members of the religious order (O'Malley, 1993, pp. 200-242; Gray, 2000, p. 16). The core of this process was and remains the fostering of the ability to find within oneself the talents that would help the self to flourish individually and, subsequently, the ability to apply these talents to the service of others and ultimately for the betterment of the community that one would serve in one's religious life.

The Jesuit formation plan in the service of others, as laid out in the *Constitutions*, soon began to interest educators more broadly, no longer just those involved in the preparation of Jesuits. In 1548, citizens of Messina in Sicily asked Ignatius of Loyola, head of the newly founded order, to open a school to educate their sons in the humanist mode (O'Malley, 2000 p. 64). The request was granted and happened to be a great success, prompting others to invite the Jesuits to open schools in their communities. As stated by one of the founding fathers of the order, the broadened mission of the Jesuit education was the following: "Those who are now students will grow up to be pastors, civic officials, and administrators of justice and will fill other important posts to everybody's profit and advantage" (Polanco, in O'Malley, 2000, p. 66). We see in this statement the ultimate concern of Jesuit education: care for the common good.

What made the success of this pedagogy? I believe it was the underlying spiritual principle that directed the process from self-discovery through introspection into the personalized experience with the subject matter, and finally to the socialization of the whole experience with the intention to serve and help the world. Here we find the importance of humanistic subjects in bridging the development of practical skills and personhood. It's precisely for this reason that the Jesuits did not oppose the application of humanistic education to scholastic (professional) education. They saw these domains as complementary (O'Malley, 2000, 68-69). As a result, they undertook a synthesis of the highly specialized set of skills required in the domains of law, medicine, or theology with the skills developed in the humanistic disciplines, such as poetry, oratory, and drama. The humanistic subjects were believed to have inspirational potential to form good character, to persuade and to move others to action. In other words, human culture, practical skills, and religion, with its overarching spiritual component, worked together in the Jesuit pedagogical system to

prepare well-rounded individuals who were at peace with themselves, friendly toward worldly values, but who also kept in mind otherworldly reality.

The codification of educational experience

As the number of Jesuit schools grew steadily, it was necessary to have some guidelines so that the spirit of the Jesuit education would be maintained across the board. At the end of the sixteenth century, in 1599, the Jesuits attempted to codify the successful pedagogical approach of their schools in a work known in Latin as *Ratio Studiorum*, that is to say, a plan of studies (O'Malley, 2000 p. 57).

The *Ratio Studiorum* was composed of a set of rules outlining the responsibilities of those concerned with the functioning of schools (Padberg, 2000 p. 96-99).   It encompasses four principal areas: administration, curriculum, method, and discipline. First, it defines the duties of school officials such as the provincial, the rector, and the prefect of studies. Then, it describes the curriculum establishing the sequence of courses and their gradation. The main subject matters are theology, philosophy, and the humanities. Subsequently, it details a method of teaching. Finally, it presents the norms for student conduct, regularity, and good order.

This plan of studies was certainly helpful in ensuring a common curriculum for the Jesuit school system throughout the world. However, as with any codifying attempt, it had its limitations, particularly regarding the teaching methodology itself. What it fails to codify is the importance of the arts, particularly of theater and visual arts, which played a central spiritual and affective role in the pedagogical system (O'Malley, 2000, p. 70-71). The authors of the *Ratio* might have assumed that the teachers, exclusively Jesuits at the time, had already interiorized this aspect of training through their personal spiritual exercises, and thus the *Ratio* as a document takes it for granted that the Jesuit teachers would implement the spiritual elements into their pedagogical practices quite naturally.

What's in it for us?

The *Ratio Studiorum* remained a blueprint for Jesuit education until the Vatican II Council, after which the Catholic Church underwent considerable societal changes leading to the rethinking of pedagogy (Kolvenbach, 2001). In order to adapt to changing times, Jesuit schools began to hire lay teachers and professionalize the curriculum. The question then was how to maintain the Jesuit character of the schools. The answer came from the spiritual tradition underlying the pedagogy. Forced to loosen their grip on the formal features of the curriculum, the Jesuits returned to the spiritual charisma that informed all their activity in the world, as expressed in their slogan "finding God in all things." This principle was inherent in the *Spiritual Exercises,* which encourages people to seek God's presence in their lives. In the process, they are accompanied by a spiritual director, a trained listener who assists in discerning God's action and will in people's lives.

This same basic framework is adopted to the context of education. In the educational setting, the teacher is the guide and the students the directees. The subject matter is the reality that students desire to grasp and apply to their own abilities, needs, and interests. In that context, the students are the most important element in the process,

thus making this education student-centered. The role of teachers is to accompany the process of learning. Learning becomes a process of self-discovery for students confronted with a subject matter that is initially foreign to them. Teaching is meant to assist students in breaking down their resistance to an unfamiliar topic. This pedagogical approach in which the teacher helps foster the abilities of students in the learning process is referred to as *cura personalis*. Although the usage of this term was first noted relatively late in the history of the Jesuit education (early twentieth century), the term soon become an effective shorthand for evoking the fusion of spirituality and teaching proper, a feature implicit in the codified plan of studies.

The Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm

Nevertheless, with the professionalization of the curriculum in the mid-twentieth century, the spiritual element of learning and teaching has been endangered, particularly with the rising competition from institutions that cared less for *cura personalis* and emphasized achievement at the expense of attention to the needs of individual students. The hiring of less spiritually trained and committed faculty pushed the spiritual concerns to the background and brought into focus professionalism and competitiveness. In an attempt to preserve the core of the tradition contained in the *Ratio Studiorum* of 1599, Jesuit institutions have come up with new ways to adapt and codify the pedagogical experience (Duminuco 2000). Following its initiative, expressed in 1986 in the document *The Characteristics of Jesuit Education,* the International Commission on the Apostolate of Jesuit Education (ICAJE) came up with the Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm (IPP) in 1993.

This paradigm is the art of teaching and learning that adapts and incorporates the essential spiritual motions defined by Ignatius of Loyola in his *Spiritual Exercises*. As mentioned before, the teacher acts as a guide to help students understand what matters most to them personally, what reality stimulates in them a positive affective response. This discernment of the heart's motions should facilitate the choice of the best-fitting path toward intellectual and affective fulfillment in one's life.

The paradigm proposes five steps: Context, Experience, Reflection, Action and Evaluation (Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm: a Synopsis; Ignatian Pedagogy: a Practical Approach, 1993). The first of these steps, Context, presupposes the building of a relationship of trust between the educator and the student. As in the setting of a spiritual direction, the educator seeks to get acquainted with the context of the student's life: the cultural, social, political, economic, and family factors that have exercised influences on the student's personal development. These factors have produced the person that this student is now. It is important for the educator to help the student understand the role of these factors. Once this is achieved, the student becomes more self-aware in apprehending the new material of study and ready to react to it with greater freedom.

The next step of the IPP is Experience. In the context of spiritual direction, the directee is asked to articulate a response to the external stimuli represented by the time, place, events, and people, that is, everything that constitutes our daily experience. In the learning setting, the student is led to pay attention to experience and is solicited to respond cognitively and affectively to the phenomena and the object of

study. Both cognitive and affective responses intensify the learning experience, causing a lasting impact on the acquisition of the new material.

The next step, Reflection, is the key element in this pedagogical process. The educator should not be simply a channel of information. The way the teacher introduces the new subject should allow the freedom to choose between different points of view. Helped through questions, the student should reach a personal understanding of the subject matter and react to it with critical distance and without feeling indoctrinated by the school system. It is expected that the education process will result in intellectual growth through the personal appropriation of the meaning and value of the studied subject.

This cognitive outcome is only the first phase of Jesuit education. The fruit of Reflection should lead to the next step, Action. The informed student should now be ready to take action, both for further personal development and for the common good. The student may decide to further study the subject matter or to engage on behalf of the community.

The last step in the paradigm is Evaluation. It draws on the element of the spiritual exercises called *examen* consisting of a review of the ways in which one experiences the presence and influence of God in daily life. The evaluative aspect of the *examen* is adapted to the educational process so that the decisions and actions, undertaken as the fruit of the process, could be evaluated. There are various methods of doing the evaluation, and all of them should take into account assessment of the student's development, the educator's effectiveness, and ultimately the quality of the program. Evaluation is meant to ensure steady progress within the educational process.

An example from a foreign language curriculum

As an example of the application of the IPP to the curriculum of foreign language instruction, I provide the example of my own practice in beginning French and Italian courses. Teaching culture in an engaging fashion represents a challenge at the beginning stage of FL instruction. Nevertheless, culture can be made less abstract for students if they find its manifestations in their city. To provide an occasion for experiencing authentic French or Italian culture, students are assigned to produce a video documentary that would record their exploration of cultural phenomena related to the language they are studying.

Projects are essentially student-centered: the instructor gives generic instructions to form teams of four to five students and go into the city with a video camera and find places or people that relate to the target language. The assignment is given after the midterm, and the final products are due toward the end of the term. In the meantime, once a week, the students have five minutes to give updates in class (in English for the first and second semester, and in the target language for the third semester) on the progress of the project. After giving the assignment and instructions, the instructor's involvement is minimal: it consists of integrating meaningful cultural experiences after in-class presentations. Once the project is presented to class, students are asked to reflect orally or in writing (in a reflection paper) on what they have learned from this experience about the culture, and above all about themselves: how did they feel working as team? What did they discover about themselves seeing and hearing their

performances in the project? Finally, the students are expected to evaluate the whole project, first the teaching concept, then their own work, exploring whether they would do anything differently if they were to do a comparable project again.

Concluding remarks: The applicability of the IPP to various curricula

The question now is whether the model we have discussed is applicable to all curricula, including those at institutions with no religious affiliation. The short answer is yes. The paradigm offers potential for making connections across and within disciplines and it fosters the integration of scholarly learning with the student's personal history and experience (Ignatian Pedagogy: a Practical Approach, 1993). If implemented consistently throughout a school's program, the paradigm produces a unifying vision of the entire educational experience for the student. That vision as the fruit of reflecting on and evaluating learning and teaching should form a lifelong habit that the student takes away from the school setting into their professional life. In whatever profession the student ends up exercising, the desire and skill to influence the community should be the ultimate, lifelong legacy of this pedagogical approach.

The greatest challenge to implementing this spiritual pedagogical approach is to prepare the predominantly lay faculty so that they can competently undertake the task of integrating this paradigm into their pedagogical practices. However, with the changing makeup of Jesuit institutions and the growing diversity of the faculty and students, there is a danger that the paradigm could remain merely an ideal conceived of by a Renaissance courtier become monk, the idealist Ignatius of Loyola, whose main goal was to find God in all things and to save the souls.

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Supercourse: A Case Study in Collaboration, Cross-Disciplinarity, and Mixed Reality Prototyping in Higher Education

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Abstract
The Supercourse was a university-level class that brought together five different academic programs to build collaborative prototypes exploring mixed reality projects. The course also includes content around entrepreneurship in the mixed-reality context, and works within a larger student-driven entrepreneurship program at the university. Survey results from two years of running the course are presented, with key lessons suggesting the most important focus should be on collaborative and communications skills-development above and beyond the domain-specific mixed reality curriculum.

Keywords: education, prototyping, collaboration, mixed reality, entrepreneurship

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Introduction

The Supercourse brings together students from five different university degree-programs to develop mixed reality prototypes, in collaborative teams, using a elements of design thinking and lean startup methodologies. The class exists within the context of a larger university initiative around student-driven entrepreneurship called "Zone Learning", and in addition to it's stand-alone goals in mixed-reality technologies, serves as a primer for students to develop their skills in collaboration, practical project definition, production, pitching, documentation, prototyping, and user validation. That class has run for two years, and incorporates undergraduates from Computer Science, New Media, and Media Production degrees, as well as graduate students in Media Production and in Digital Media. Students self-select into teams, research a general topic of interest, develop a problem-statement/pain-point, identify their target users, develop iterative prototypes, create a video-demo, a poster-demo, branding materials, and present their project to industry in a demo-day.

Background

Mixed reality projects merge real and virtual worlds along a continuum (Milgram and Kishino 1994) that includes augmented reality, virtual reality, and even the Internet of Things (Fisher 2003). Developing these projects can require cross-disciplinary skillsets (Newman et al 2007) from software programming, hardware engineering, experience or industrial design, business experience, to rich media production; however, the university typically teaches these disciplines in separate departments, with few chances for students to collaborate across schools (Kreber 2008).

In the Canadian context, major reviews emphasize the importance of greater collaboration across skillsets to encourage innovation in the digital media sector (Ontario Media Development Corporation 2011; Ontario Ministry of Research and Innovation 2008; Kitagawa 2008). Within the university system, however, each of these skillsets are often taught in a separate department. While studies of higher education have long identified collaborative skills as a priority (Bleich 1995; Chickering 1987), the traditional university/department model has been slow to change. While discipline-focused specialist knowledge remains important (Jacobs 2014), collaborative project-based learning provides an opportunity to ground work in real-world issues (Schlecty 2001), integrate learning from many courses, and encourages student-driven learning (Ansell 1998; Light 2001; Donnelly & Fitzmaurice 2005).

Within the concept of project-based learning, the principles of iteration, prototyping, and a tolerance for experimentation (with the possibility of useful failures) (Brown 2008; Lim 2008; Maurya 2012) are all features discussed in the literature of innovation, but rarely supported through standard higher-education structures. In a typical classroom students hand in assignments and receive grades, with few opportunities to refactor, rework, or restructure their work. The ideas of iteration, of building in order to learn, and then re-build, or throw away, or refine, require a different grading environment as well as different mindset on the part of students and lecturers.

Context and Zone Learning

Ryerson University is a mid-sized university offering over 100 undergraduate and graduate programs from the heart of Canada's largest city Toronto. In recent years, the university's Master Plan has evolved to prioritize experiential learning, innovation, and entrepreneurship as key differentiators for the institution. The university has a successful digital media accelerator program (ranked #1 in Canada, #5 in the world according to the University Business Incubator index) (UBI Global). The administration has committed to extending this success into an ecosystem of earlier-stage and/or domain-specific incubators ("Zones") throughout the university. The intention is support intrinsically-motivated entrepreneurial projects within the university context – for example, the Transmedia Zone supports ideation and prototyping for content-and-technology projects; the Design Fabrication Zone works with advanced manufacturing techniques; the Fashion Zone incubates fashion-related startups. In all, there are eight Zones at the university, with several others in development. The goals of the Zone system are to support student innovation, an entrepreneurial mindset outside of traditional departments such as Business and Engineering, and the development of collaborative skills. There are a host of programs in the university aimed at supporting student before, during, and after their Zone experiences, from startup-skills workshops, business plan consulting, micro-funding opportunities, pitch development sessions, and student networking events. The Supercourse works as one of the precursor programs, with the hope that student teams will go on to apply to a Zone or to become further involved in research and development in mixed reality projects.

Intended Learning Outcomes

The goal of the class is to meet the following formal learning outcomes:
- Gain the ability to Analyze, Explain and Experiment with developing technologies and social practices in the field of mobile, mixed-reality and Big Data.
- Design, Create, and Revise an original mobile/mixed-reality prototype in a collaborative group context, following best practices in productive, professional, equitable, and inclusive group dynamics
- Critically Appraise and Constructively Criticize peer work using social, technical, artistic, and design criteria in small groups

In practice, the main outcome for the class is to give students experience in working in collaborative teams across disciplines. These skills are important for mixed reality products and services, as human-centered design, design thinking, solid business practices, and cutting-edge technology are all involved in the process; to truly innovate, teams will need highly developed collaborative skills. And, within the typical university degree program, there are few, if any, opportunities to work with students from other departments. A secondary goal is to give students the networking contacts as well as the confidence to make use of our Zone Learning initiatives. Again, to pitch a successful intrinsically-motivated entrepreneurial project in the technology space, teams need expertise in many areas. In our experience, students typically only know students from their own degree-programs (and often, only from their own year). University activities such as sports-teams give students the chance to socialize, but entirely outside of the professional domain; they don't get an

opportunity to see the academic skills or domain-knowledge of their team-mates. A credit-course provides a chance to work intensely with a small group of students from other disciplines, as well as the chance to see, interact with, and critique the work of a larger group across the class.

Course Design

The course is structured with a lecture component followed by team-meetings and peer-review sessions each week. The professors work closely with each team, rotating through so that teams get the benefit of multiple points of view. Peer presentations and feedback-sessions are incorporated into the class, to allow for students to learn from advice given to other projects (in a workshopping model) as well as to provide for a wider array of feedback opportunities and a greater chance for teams to practice giving pitches.

Course content includes not only subject-material for mixed reality technologies, but also for group dynamics and for a design-thinking and learn-startup method of research, ideation, prototyping, and validation.

Individual as well as group deliverables are used to scaffold modern approaches to opportunity-identification and iterative design, albeit in an abbreviated form suitable for a single-semester/single-credit course. Phase One focuses on Idea Generation, with graded work around a literature review, a pain-point/problem summary, group brainstorming, and agreed-upon project approach. Phase Two focuses on prototyping, with a paper prototype, a functional prototype, and user/peer feedback. Phase Three deliverables include a two-part final-project, with a fully-featured version due one week before the end of the class. This gives the team one week to get (and submit) testing and validation from their chosen users, and to make a second iteration of changes to their final project. Phase Four is for documentation and evaluation, and includes a high-production-value video-demo, a poster, and a live demo-day for their peers as well as invited industry and academic partners. Each student must also submit a formal peer/self evaluation describing their own contributions to the project, a narrative of the contribution of their peers, and reflect on challenges and successes for the course. Graduate students enrolled in the class have an additional deliverable in the form of a design-fiction visioning exercise.

Note that all readings are front-loaded in the syllabus, with the latter part of the course focusing strictly on the group project.

The course culminates in a showcase demo-day, a three-hour session in which representatives from industry (including Apple, IBM), student peers, and senior members of the academic community circulate and hear pitches from teams. The format is a science-fair style, with each team presenting from a table with screens, posters, physical models, etc.

Sample Projects

Over the two iterations of the course 34 mixed reality projects were developed. Teams built functional prototypes along with demo videos, posters, websites, and a

social media presence. The following are selected example projects produced during the class.

Echo is a digitally-enabled "magic mirror", which uses a Kinect and a projector to add user-specific features to the morning bathroom routine. Three sample applications included a gamified toothbrushing experience for kids, a controllable zoom effect for shaving or makeup-application, and information-update widgets for traffic and weather. *Kitchen Byte* used an overhead camera and projection system to provide augmented-reality cooking instructions, including automated pre-heating timers and step-by-step instructions projected onto the stove and work-surface.
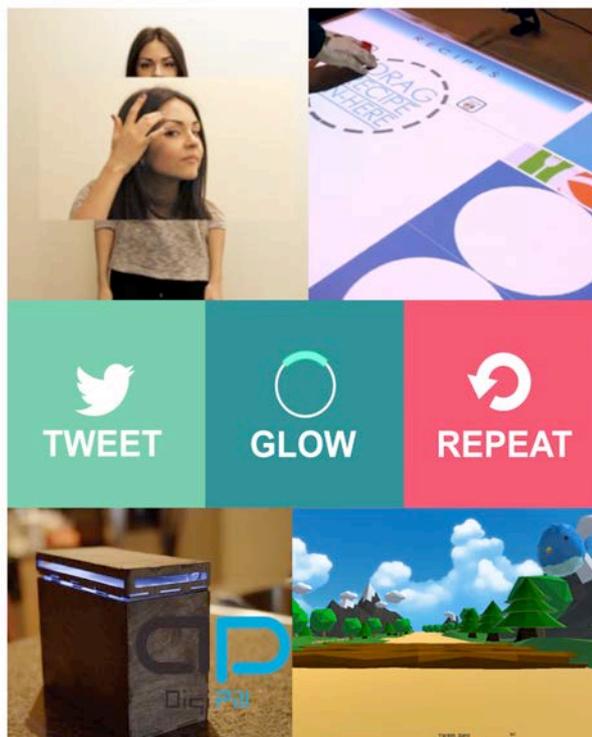
Figure 1: *Sample Projects (from top left) Echo, Kitchen Byte, Crowdlet, DigiPill, Jump In*

Crowdlet is a Bluetooth-enabled LED bracelet that can be remotely controlled by Twitter hashtags, location-sensing, and musician/event administrators. The wearable allows for realtime audience-interaction and feedback in large crowds, music concerts, or sporting events.

DigiPill is a digitally-enabled pill-case, synched with a smartphone app. The app provides visual confirmation of the medication one is supposed to take, provides information about side-effects, and transmits a signal to the pill-case that causes the correct pill-compartment to glow when user has to take their medication. *Jump In* combines an Arduino Uno-based heart-rate monitor with a Kinect game that uses a proven interval-training regimen in a user-tracking exercise game for kids.

9 Student Feedback and Course Outcomes

Students from both sessions of the course filled out self/peer evaluation forms via a non-anonymous Google Form. The form asked students to reflect on what their

project, how their specific responsibilities, and how each of their team-mates performed. There were also additional questions on what value they found in the class, improvements for future iterations, and thoughts on entrepreneurship before and after the course. Removal of repeated submissions gave a dataset of 167 survey responses combined across the two years of the course. We divided the entries into qualitative and quantitative responses and did analysis within Google Sheets and Excel. The quantitative data used a five-point Likert scale anchored by "strongly agree"/"strongly disagree" to assess if they felt their project a success, if their team functioned well, if they personally fulfilled their responsibilities, and before/after classifications of themselves as entrepreneurial. These results are summarized in figures 2-5
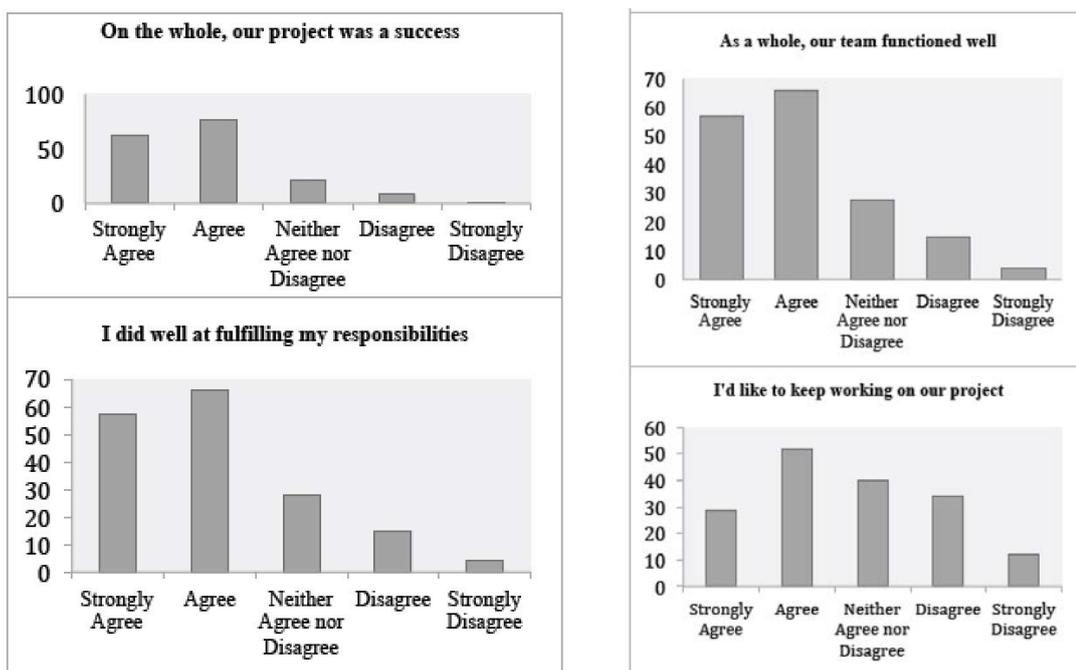
Figure 2-5: Graphs of Survey Results from two sessions of the Supercourse

The qualitative data was organized, grouped, and coded according to emergent patterns. For the question "What were the biggest challenges your team faced?" we found the following grouped responses across 179 entries:

30% of responses described challenges with scheduling. Students had different schedules and classes across departments, lived on opposite ends of the city, or had complex work schedules. Some teams used online tools, but typically these were general purpose social media tools (Facebook), or voice-chat (Skype). Individuals reported general dissatisfaction with these tools. One team used the online project/teamwork platform Slack, with positive results.

A further 30% of responses described the challenge of communication. These included describing team-mates not responding to messages in a timely fashion (and thus delaying dependent deliverables from other team-mates), and members staying out of communication and simply showing up at the end with their own piece of the project completed.

22% of responses dealt with a culture-clash between various departments or individuals. Some of the fine-arts students were categorized as "shy", some of the computer science students as poor communicators, and in general stereotypes of arts/design vs engineering or business students were described.

31% of responses mentioned challenges with specific individuals in a team. The free-rider problem (Brooks 2003), in which some team-members underperform yet benefit from the efforts of their team-mates, was cited as a specific issue in several teams. Others reported issues around anger management, "bossy" or domineering behaviour, and differences in approach between graduate students (who tended to take leadership roles, and/or took the course more seriously and with more attention) and undergrads (who may have been younger, less experienced, and been carrying a higher course-load). Some responses included a discussion of how teams resolved the problems, citing the occurrence as a valuable learning opportunity.

Only 7% of responses described difficulties with the details of their actual project as their biggest challenge. Issues cited included hardware failures, problems with specific APIs, or problems with an overall approach or design constraint. Several respondents suggested that their project-specific challenges were appropriate independent learning opportunities rather than challenges.

We asked a further two qualitative free-text questions: "What did you learn from doing this project? Be as specific or as broad as you like", and "What was your favourite part about this course"." We grouped and coded the answers to these questions into a single category measuring positive outcomes, resulting in 267 responses.

45% of responses described gaining experience with and a positive appreciation for "collaboration skills". Students cited a newfound understanding of the importance of timely communication, why formal scheduling/deadlines were important to a working team, and suggested they now understood how different points of view lead to a more interesting product. Others discussed how they came to value working in a group; one engineer noted that a media-student was great at pitching the project – a skill the engineer didn't have, didn't prioritize, yet truly valued during the end-of-class showcase event. Students discussed issues in bad group dynamics or in dealing with conflict, and how they came to resolve these issues over the course of working together. Many comments specifically noted how impressed they were with what a team could product from varied skillset/backgrounds, as something significantly more accomplished than what any could do on their own. Some students also expressed pride in their team's ability to overcome communication or personal issues to pull together, creating something the whole team appreciated.

19% listed "professional skills" as a key learning. These included personal time management; appreciation for (or growing their own abilities in) leadership; risk management when dealing with the codebase, feature-creep, or a deadline; learning how to pitch ideas or projects; how to work in asymmetrical situations (ie: experienced grad students vs undergrad, or expertise in non-overlapping domains); and iterative approaches to projects.

16.5% of responses mentioned the chance to work on a real-world project. One student suggested that their previous university courses were focused on the theoretical or hypothetical, and that this class allowed them to work on real-life issues. Several responses praised the chance to develop a functional app or projects for their resume/portfolio. A further 19% of submissions listed "hard skills" they learned during the course such as Android development, Augmented Reality toolsets, wearables hardware, C#, the Google Maps API or web-design skills.

Discussion

In general, the survey-results show a positive appreciation to the course. Several respondents specifically described it as the best course they've taken at university, and multiple fourth-year graduating students described it as a great way to end their university career. It's interesting to note that that despite most students describing this class as the first time they've had an open-ended, self-driven project, as well as the first time exploring mixed realities, the biggest challenges were around communication and scheduling. According to the responses, the details of working within a focused group environment was something that their previous educational training hadn't prepared them for, despite it being the most common modality digital technologists will face in their future careers. The Supercourse as currently designed includes some instruction in how to go about modern iterative project-design, but was focused on providing the opportunity for group/collaborative work as well as on the details of mixed reality innovation. Student feedback suggests more explicit education in good group dynamics and communication strategies, as well as integrating a requirement for positive communication and meeting-attendance into the course grading schema should be a priority.

Project-work in a business-incubator or in a work setting allows teams to focus their attention and possibly their schedules on common meeting or work times; the multiple competing demands for full-time students taking a single project-based course doesn't have the same focus. When looking more deeply into the free-text responses, students felt prepared to self-teach API structures, and were able to take in the new creative technology approaches covered in the mixed-reality lectures and demos. The main area they felt the need for more instruction was in the dynamics of the team. When rating their own and their group's performance most teams were positive, although this may be an artifact of the self/peer evaluation forming a component of their grade for the class.

One of the goals for the course was to introduce students to the entrepreneurial culture in digital technology at the university. Figure 6 shows a very strong move towards self-identifying with the entrepreneurial mindset as a result of taking the course. From the 34 projects across the two course-iterations, six teams went on to develop their ideas or their team within university research labs or Zone entrepreneurship incubators. A further four continued work on the project in their graduate theses or major research projects. One additional project won a $25,000 investment immediately following the class. We have not tracked individual class-members who may have connected with University entrepreneurial programs apart from their Supercourse team.

Next Steps

Survey data as well as feedback from university administration, and faculty colleagues have lead to specific recommendation for the next iteration of the Supercourse.

1. Collaboration Training: Provide more specific training in group dynamics and collaboration. Clearer goals, expectations, and training should lead to better project outcomes, fewer conflicts, and better student satisfaction.
2. Regular Meetings during Class Time: allow for in-person weekly meetings between teams during classes. Scheduling between students is difficult to coordinate, and the only time that can be guaranteed for all students to be available is during class time. We should save at least 40 minutes of each class for team meetings.
3. Meeting Reports. Requiring meeting reports and attendance records from team meetings would allow us to better document individual contributions. Submission and attendance should use an online tool that makes it easy for instructors/TA's to monitor. Reilly et al (1996) suggest that mere exposure to an evaluation tool can help with the free-rider issue; more regular and visible tracking of these issues may help even further.
4. Collaboration Tools: provide simple instruction in productivity and group-tracking tools such as Slack. Despite all being at the same physical university students operate as a more decentralized team (and thus can benefit from remote management and project tools).
5. Two-course cycle. Ideally, we could structure this program as two courses taken in consecutive terms. One course could focus on the technology, with the second on the collaborative process and the project itself. Realistically, this is likely to be difficult in a crowded curriculum across many departments. However, it may be possible to have, say, graduate students more properly prepped for the class with a pre-requisite seminar.

Future Plans

The course will run again in winter semesters, with specific modifications based on this analysis. We will implement the above changes, aware that it will be difficult to include these group-focused skill-development sessions in the midst of content-heavy lectures, demos, and discussions around mixed reality technologies. Ultimately, it may be during one-on-one sessions that the professors are able to give useful pointers about APIs, hardware, or relevant related projects to each individual team. This will remain a resource-heavy course in terms of demands on teaching staff; however, the overall student satisfaction and tangible outcomes seem to warrant continued development of the initiative. Future options for the Supercourse include inviting a wider cross-section of the university community into the course, and also exploring chances for inter-university collaboration internationally. The chance to give students specific experience in geographically-diverse and cross-cultural collaboration is interesting, with an attendant need for specific instruction, mentorship and support for the process. The potential of a "master-class" seminar for project team-leads will also be explored.

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Concurrent Instruction of Japanese Adult Learners via Independent CALL Methods and Classroom Instruction

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Abstract
The focus of this paper is on the efficacy of teaching EFL learners through an approach that combines independent computer-based receptive skills learning with weekly classroom-based lessons focusing on speaking, listening, and writing. The fifteen-week study aims to measure language learning through standardized testing, classroom observation, and online quiz results. Conscious learning was also monitored through periodic surveys. Learners were Japanese businessmen mostly aged 30s to early 40s with CEFR levels ranging from A2 to B1. Modern technology can provide a portable, adaptive, and multimodal experience. Over 90% of Japanese citizens under 60 now own smartphones (Communications and Information Network Association, 2017). To take advantage of the portability of the classroom, we must critically look at the effect on language learning that arises from integrating such programs into the curriculum. This study examines how such digital language learning materials can be exploited to create multifaceted language learning experiences. Learners showed a marked improvement in the volume of output, listening comprehension, willingness to engage in discussion, and rising standardized test scores. This paper will feature these results, along with samples of learner feedback from reflective portfolios and observational data from instructors to show how this combination of online and classroom study complemented each other to provide a positive academic environment. We will also examine how and when learners accessed the online applications. Finally, we will view Rosell-Aguilar's (2017) evaluation model of MALL applications and assert the need to add to it the criteria of how the app acquiesces with the learner's local context.

Keywords: Mobile Assisted Language Learning, Computer Assisted Language Learning, Communicative Language Teaching

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Introduction

The portability of the classroom has seen large growth as an area of research as access to smartphones, tablets, and other portable electronics has continued to rise over the past decade.   The research in this paper aims to explore how benefits from online language learning programs that can be accessed via computer, tablet, or mobile phone can be utilized in tandem with classroom learning to achieve balanced learning of the four skills that work to complement each other.

According to Kim and Kwon (2012), most language-learning mobile apps focus on cognitive processes such as recognition, recall and comprehension, as well as receptive language skills, rather than socio-cognitive learning styles (p. 41).   Such programs belie the affordances provided by modern mobile- and computer-based technology.   Burston (2014) addresses this situation, stating that "ironically, it is precisely in the areas where they potentially have the most to offer – mobility, peer connectivity, oral interactions, and learner collaboration – that the advanced communication features of mobile phone technology have been, and continue to be, the least exploited in MALL [mobile assisted language learning]" (Burston, 2014, p. 350).   While the dearth of language learning programs that proficiently use the interactive and collaborative nature of modern technology is unfortunate, that does not mean that the use of programs that do focus more on recognition, recall, comprehension, and receptive skills, as Kim and Kwon noted, should go unaddressed. It is important both to develop programs that take advantage of the affordances of modern technology, and to survey how to best use those programs which are commonly used by language learners.   This research focuses on how to complement the use of MALL products commonly used with in-class instruction that takes into account the students' learning outside of the classroom and their past language-learning experiences.

Method

The focus of this research is on viewing the success of learners who are simultaneously engaged in 1) a commercial online study program focusing on reading, listening, and grammar and 2) a 15-week classroom-based course focusing on communicative and presentation skills.

Participants

Learners were businessmen in Takara Belmont, an international Japanese company that makes dentist chairs, barbershop chairs, and hygiene products.   The company selected 15 members to join the program. The members were all male, age 27-44. The group had a wide range of English experience and ability with initial TOEIC scores ranging from 285 to 715 (CEFR A2-B1).

Procedure

Participants used the commercial online study program, ReallyEnglish. They had a 6-month subscription containing one hundred units accessible via computer, tablet, or smartphone.   However, students were only expected to complete 50 units within the 15-week time frame of the study.   The program begins with a diagnostic test to

analyze and display the students' strengths and weaknesses. The program uses the results of the diagnostic test to select the first five units that the student undertakes. Students are required to pass each unit test with a score of at least 80%. The selection of the following five lessons are dictated by the results of the first five units and the process continues until all lessons have been completed. Students may retake lessons as many times as they like within the given time frame.

The curriculum of the 15-week classroom-based course was designed with the intent to provide aspects of language learning absent from the online learning course. Specifically, the oral interactions and learner collaboration aspects that Burston mentioned (above) were emphasized, along with aspects of language learning that are traditionally under-emphasized in the context of English education in Japan. For example, Japanese English education places a strong emphasis on focusing on the grammar, vocabulary, and reading ability necessary to pass university entrance exams. Thus, according to my observations, students often see a main goal of language learning as error-avoidance. The aversion to making mistakes leads to language learners unwilling to take risks in speaking. This results in hesitant speakers who take a long time constructing sentences in their minds before turning them into utterances or limiting themselves to the simple English that they have confidence speaking. To combat this, the curriculum focused on emphasizing to students the value of language growth through making mistakes and an emphasis on using English as a tool for communicating ideas and mutually making meaning. To set the backdrop, students were introduced to Rubin's (1975) seven characteristics of good language learners, why they are valuable, and how students can work to encompass them:

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication. He is willing to do many things to get his message across.
3. The good language learner is often not inhibited. He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results. He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and communicate. He is willing to live with a certain amount of vagueness.
4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form. The good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.
5. The good language learner practices.
6. The good language learner monitors his own speech and that of others. That is, he is constantly attending to how well his speech is being received and whether his performance meets the standards he has learned.
7. The good language learner attends to meaning. He knows that in order to understand the message is not sufficient to pay attention to the language or to the surface form of speech. (46-47)

Rubin's characteristics of good language learners along with the instructor's mantra (*Mistakes are OK, mistakes are wonderful, let's make many mistakes together*) served as the backdrop for the class, in an attempt to create a paradigm shift for learners who came in with culturally defined expectations as to what language learning entails.

The 15 courses highlighted various grammar points (comparatives, superlatives, prepositions, suggestions) with opportunities for students to discuss aspects of their lives or create research questions that implement the target language.   The learners were also put into contact with authentic material such as American restaurant menus used for cultural learning and role play, excerpts from Michael Pollan's book, *Food Rules: An Eater's Manual* (2009), and a speech given by Michio Kaku on technology in the year 2030.   Students then worked in groups to create two presentations.   The first involved suggestions and support for ways the instructor could become healthier and pass his yearly physical exam.   The second involved pitching an idea for a future product for the company where they work to the board of directors.

Results

The averages include 14 of the 15 members (see Table 1). The other member finished the online program, but was transferred abroad before the final class and could not take the post-test.

Table 1 Average TOEIC Scores

	TOEIC Pre-Test	TOEIC Post-Test	Change
Listening Section	233.2	254.3	+21.1
Reading Section	207.1	239.3	+32.2
Total	440.4	493.6	+53.2

The learners increased their TOEIC scores in both the listening and reading section of the test.   Moreover, a paired sample t-test was conducted to compare total test scores of the pre- and post-test.   There was a significant difference between the scores of the pre-test (M=440.4, SD=113.25) and the post-test (M=493.6, SD=132.47); t(13)=2.49, p=.027.   This shows that the program combining productive language classes and online learning of grammar, reading, and listening led to significant growth in English language ability.

During the class, the students were also observably more confident in their speaking, communication, and presentation skills.   During their first presentation, nearly all members read from a pre-written script and were noticeably distressed. However, none of the members read from a script for the final presentation.   There were, of course, errors in their speech.   However, they were able to accurately communicate their ideas to the audience with confidence.

The increase in confidence was not only observable by the instructors, but was perceived by the research participants as well.   In their post-study surveys, many students wrote about their increased confidence in speaking and communication. Twelve students responded to the question "Compared to the beginning of the course, do you feel you have improved your English ability? In what areas?" by including that they felt that either their speaking ability or their confidence in communicating had improved.   For example, one student stated (all survey results translated from Japanese),

> The moment I realized 'I can express myself with simple English!', I lost my aversion to speaking English and it became enjoyable.   Also, I lost a lot of my aversion to speaking English through doing the presentations.   During the first presentation, I used a cheat sheet when I presented and I don't really feel like my speaking improved.   However, for my second presentation I prioritized simple English that I could easily speak and practiced so I could present without looking at my notes.   I was able to feel my speaking level improve.   I'm sure I made some mistakes and I forgot parts of my speech, but I was able to choose my words as I spoke.   I felt like I improved not only my skill, but also my mindset.

A tertiary goal of the study was to see which forms of technology are preferred by Japanese businessmen.   Learners had the freedom to access the online program via smartphone, tablet, or personal computer.   Smartphones were overwhelmingly the tool of choice for the participants (see Table 2).

According to exit surveys, a majority of learners used smartphones on their daily commute to work.   When asked when they studied, 12 out of 15 learners responded that they used their daily commute to use the program and 10 out of 15 responded that they studied in the evening before going to sleep.   We have previously asserted that *how* learners access online applications is a function of *when* and *where* they can most readily access the application on a regular basis.   Thus, adult learners in Japan are most likely to have time available to study as they ride the train to work.   This encourages their use of smartphones, due to their portability and prevalence (Pool, J. et al., 2018).

Table 2 Tools used to access ReallyEnglish application

Tools Used	Number of Learners
Smartphone	10
Tablet	1
PC	1
Smartphone & Tablet	0
Smartphone & PC	3
Tablet & PC	0
Smartphone, PC, & Tablet	0

Discussion

What are the criteria one should use for evaluating MALL technologies?   Numerous frameworks have been put forth (Sweeney and Moore, 2012; Rodriguez-Arancon, Arus, and Calle, 2013). Most recently, Rosell-Aguilar (2017) identifies various criteria for evaluating MALL technologies residing in four categories: language learning, pedagogy, user experience, and technology (p. 253).   While the questions, such as "Is engagement with the app content active or passive?" (Ibid) offer an excellent method of evaluating MALL technology in isolation, it is also important to ask how the technology fits with the curriculum.   Very seldom is MALL used in isolation.   Most often it is used in conjunction with coursework or other methods of self-study.   Thus, any evaluation of an online learning program should reflect this characteristic.   From a teacher's point of view, a crucial criterion is curricular fit. Burston (2014b) offered the criticism that most MALL projects lack curricular

integration and that the realization of MALL's full potential "is more a matter of pedagogy than technology" (p. 344). MALL projects must be seen as a tool to achieve curricular goals. They can be seen no more as curricular goals in and of themselves than can pens or paper.

While online English learning programs that fail to fulfill the potentiality of MALL technology are often seen as failing and evaluated poorly, this mindset can overlook the benefits of such programs used in conjunction with a complementary curriculum. This paper provides no empirical evidence of this assertion.   No control groups were used and no comparisons can be made between different combinations of types of online programs and methods of classroom teaching.   Rather, it is meant to further the discussion on the complexity of evaluating MALL technology.

Looking toward the future, we must further search for appropriate evaluation models for MALL technology not only in isolation, but how well such programs can be integrated into the learner's larger language-learning framework.   In a recent survey, the Communications and Information Network Association of Japan found that over 90% of 1,200 respondents were using a smartphone (2017) and that it was their main-use device.   With mobile devices such as smartphones reaching such common usage in both Japan and to varying extents across the world, it is imperative that we select programs that fit into a larger scheme of balanced language learning, whether these be rote memorization programs that fit into a communicative learning classroom, opportunities for collaboration and interaction to complement students taking explicit grammar courses, or online extension activities that allow learners to develop their knowledge in authentic ways.

Language learners in this study fit the profile of learners who primarily use their smartphones when studying away from the home.   The large percentage of participants who used their smartphones to study during their commutes to work shows the desire to efficiently use time.   This is time afforded to those living in countries where public transportation is popular and it is also time that will likely become afforded to those in countries where self-driving cars become popular in the near future.   The opportunities for mobile learning are increasing and must be taken into account by those with a stake in curriculum construction.

Conclusion

The evaluation of MALL language-learning programs must take into account its ability to be integrated with the learners' broader language-learning experience. Such an assertion is vague and difficult to test, but it is a reminder that a program is not necessarily more valuable in a specific situation if it tics off the most boxes in an evaluation model. Such a program may be more valuable in a situation where it is compared in isolation, but the language needs of the learner in mobile learning situations will be determined, at least in part, by the types of language instruction and experiences he or she encounters outside of the program.

The research shown in this paper does not attempt to claim which types of programs are better or worse, but rather shows an example of the positive outcomes achieved from a MALL program that does not fulfill the potentiality of modern technology. Such programs are common and can fit into a curriculum that emphasizes communicative learning and presentation skills. Adding the lens of curricular fit to MALL evaluation can give us a more accurate view of the value of a particular program.

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Top Global University Project: Promotion of Around-the-Clock Liberal Arts Education and its Educational Outcomes

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Abstract

This paper describes the educational outcomes resulted from the implementation of the project "Promotion of around-the-clock liberal arts education." This project was implemented at Akita International University as part of the Top Global University Project sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) to become 'Japan's world-class liberal arts university.' It aims to promote around-the-clock liberal arts education through the introduction of subject-based house group. This initiative attempts to expand the students' learning place from the university classrooms into the living space in the student dormitory and apartments that are cohabited by the international and Japanese students. In each house, students live together and also work on common subjects as a team so as to promote liberal arts education that will enable them to acquire essential skills and competency to become effective global persons. The research focuses on a Themed House named Romance Languages House, opened for students who were studying Spanish or French and also have their mind open to other Romance languages and cultures. The results of the research show that students value positively their experience living in the house. Moreover, students affirm that the activities held in the house helped them to practice the language and develop a deeper understanding of Romance Languages speaking cultures. However, some improvements are needed.

Keywords: Liberal Arts, Themed Houses, Romance Languages, Educational Outcomes

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Introduction

The project "Promotion of around-the-clock liberal arts education" was implemented at Akita International University as part of the Top Global University Project sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) to become 'Japan's world-class liberal arts university.' It aims to promote around-the-clock liberal arts education through the introduction of subject-based house group, and also engage students in their learning process as Tinto (1998) and Frazier & Eighmy (2012), among others, found in their research. For this initiative, which attempts to expand the students' learning place from the university classrooms into the living space in the student dormitory and apartments that are cohabited by the international students and Japanese students. In each house, the international and Japanese students live together and also work on common subjects as a team to promote liberal arts education. That will enable the students to acquire essential skills and competency to become effective global persons and to encourage international and intercultural understanding through shared experience of living together and engaging in everyday activities.

To define the subject for each house, AIU reviewed the result of the questionnaire survey of the students in which they were asked about their preferences. Moreover, AIU accepted proposals from faculty interested in supervising a themed house. Thus, in April 2016 the university opened six subject-based houses: Entrepreneurs House; World Cultures House; Nihongo (Japanese Language) House; Japanese Arts and Culture House; Fitness House; Romance Languages House. In each house lived an average of ten students, who worked with the faculty in charge to develop a program of activities for each house every academic year.

The projects implemented in these houses included events such as field trips for experiencing local culture and nature (Japanese Arts and Culture House and Nihongo House), workshops about Japanese, Korean and British cultures (World Cultures), lectures by CEOs of enterprises (Entrepreneur House), movie events (Romance Languages House), lunch or dinner events (Fitness, and Romance Languages Houses). Fitness House, Nihongo House, and Romance Languages House had a strong emphasis on daily exercise/ language practices in addition to the projects.

Our research focuses on the Romance Languages Themed House, opened for students who are studying Spanish or French at Akita International University but also have their mind open for other Romance languages and cultures, such as Portuguese, Catalan, Italian, or Romanian. In this house, it is encouraged to use one of Romance languages in daily life. For that purpose, there are two sub-units in function of the language for daily communication (Spanish or French). While it is up to the residents of the house to determine specific activities to undertake during the semester, the supervisor suggests daily events (such as cooking and dinner time conversation, watching movies or listening to music in French/Spanish, and/or language cooperative-learning study hour); weekly activities (such as meeting with international students speakers of Romance languages to talk about their language and culture); and monthly activities (such as "Romance cooking cultures" sessions with the supervisor or another faculty/international student). Thus, this paper presents the educational outcomes resulted from the implementation of the Romance Languages House by using a biographical-narrative methodology. Through the analysis of the

narratives written by residents of the house, we aim to describe how living there has helped the language learning process, the improvement of communicative competence, the development of cultural knowledge of Romance Language cultures and intercultural competence.

Methodology

To conduct the research, we used biographical-narrative methods as a method of data collection. This type of qualitative research is used with the aim of understanding different phenomena from individual experiences and the perceptions that individuals have of them (Roberts, 2002). The use of narratives may uncover instances where students question their relationship with the culture of the target language and the learning process. The present study has taken into account the observations of authors such as Riessman (1993), Bolivar et al. (2001), and Pavlenko (2007) regarding methodological errors that occur with frequency when performing this type of research. According to these investigators, it is necessary to interpret the themes that appear in the informant's narratives, and also the organization, structure, and the way in which they give meaning to their experiences.

To obtain data we asked eight inhabitants of the Romance Languages House to write a text describing their experiences living in the house. Six of them studied or were studying Spanish and two of them French at Akita International University. To facilitate their writing, we provided three guiding items:

a) Describe your experience living in the Romance Languages House.
b) Explain if living in the house allowed you to improve your communication skills in Spanish or French.
c) Explain if the activities conducted in the house allowed you to have more in-depth knowledge and understanding of Romance Languages speaking cultures and to improve your intercultural competence.

Results

Due to issues of space, it is not possible to include here the detailed analysis of each of the narrative texts. For this reason, we will present a summary of the results obtained.

Living in the Romance Language House:
The analysis allows us to assert that students value positively their experience living in the house. The majority of the students affirm that living and doing activities with other students that have the same interests and willing to learn and practice Spanish/ French was motivating. However, two students highlight the fact that some RL House members had a passive behavior, showing a lack of interest in organizing activities. Also, four students complain in their narratives about the time of the events, asserting that often had a conflicting schedule with their club activities. That made them find difficulties in reaching an agreement on what to do as a whole group.

Improvement of Communicative skills:
There are different points of view regarding the improvement of communicative skills. Most of them remark that the activity that allowed them to practice the

language actively was the one named "Spanish/French Café," in which they practice in an informal atmosphere some grammar topics, helping each other. However, six students affirm that the activities held in the house, helped them to practice what they had already learned, but not to improve communicative competence. On the other hand, two students highlight that the "Games Night" activity, in which they played board games such as Scrabble, was useful, to improve vocabulary. It is remarkable that five students suggest that they expected to have a tutor or a faculty member involved in their learning process, doing things such as teaching, assisting them while doing homework, or having conversation time with the students. Furthermore, four students affirm that they expected to have much more interaction with native speakers (i.e., international students' speakers of French/ Spanish or native speakers living in Akita).

Understanding of Romance Languages speaking cultures and intercultural competence development:
Mostly all students affirm that the activities held in the house allowed them to develop a better understanding of Romance Languages speaking cultures. Eight students highlight the sessions in which Spanish/ French Language professors talked in the house about different topics related to those cultures. For instance, they mention meetings such as the ones in which they learn about the origin about the Romance Languages, Catalonia and its culture, the Mate culture, the Latin Language, the history of France, or the cooking sessions. However, two students criticize those sessions asserting that they did not want to have "lectures" in the house.

Conclusion

The analysis of the narratives shows a high degree of student's satisfaction and that the Themed House accomplishes its educational objectives, particularly the development of the Romance Languages speaking cultures. However, it also allows us to observe that some improvements are needed. In different degrees, the house-resident students struggled to reconcile their class, study, club and circle activities with the subject-based house activities, which difficulties the development of the communicative competence.

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Student and Teacher Inter-Agency: Negotiated Learning Environments

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Abstract
Realising exciting new opportunities for students' learning and fulfilment calls for curiosity, creativity, empathy and the ability to negotiate, and re-negotiate, learning environments. This negotiation requires a degree of agency on the part of students and adults who take active roles in co-constructing learning trajectories in line with students' aspirations. Student agency does not involve students re-inventing wheels in laissez-faire fashion or self-serving demands for resource at the expense of others. The concept of student agency is described in this presentation as a finely balanced negotiation between the students and the social environments that support learning. The framing of learning environments is described as an inter-agentic activity, requiring the active contribution of all participants. Agency is invariably related to the social and cultural milieu in which it is exercised and supported; it is not a static quality that people have per se. Students can be encouraged and supported to take agency by agentic teachers who inspire them to innovate and collaborate. Discussed in this presentation are seven ways that teachers can encourage and nurture student agency and four dimensions on which students' agency can be explored and understood.

Keywords: Student agency, teacher agency, negotiated teaching and learning

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Introduction

What types of learning prepare young people to envision positive futures and make the most of opportunities that present? How can teachers and families support students to create fulfilling niches in a changed and changing world? Although to fully answer these questions there remains much to discover, it seems that students' options can be broadened by developing curiosity, creativity, empathy and skills to negotiate their learning journeys (see Cobo, 2012; Degenhardt & Duignan, 2010; OECD, 2013; Weng, 2015).

A burgeoning field of 'yet-to-be-packaged' technological opportunities suggest that schools might fruitfully foster agentic and creative graduates. Hannon (2017) has suggested that focusing on equipping students with the prescribed knowledge and skill that, in the past, prepared them well for industrial work is no longer justified or applicable. The means of social connection have transformed, the ripple effect being felt in all aspects of life. Social connections are increasingly global, complex, often immediate and less predictable (see Klemeničič, 2015). Hannon observes that "today, education has to be about learning to thrive in a transforming world" (p12).

Agency as a social interaction

Student agency is depicted in this presentation as dynamic, created within social contexts and mediated by the understandings and beliefs of those who support students' learning. It is not a static or inherent quality. As student agency is context-determined, it cannot be understood through analysis of either personal or social situations alone but by consideration of the particular circumstances in which it occurs. Klemenčič (2015) has suggested that student agency comprises processes that relate to students' past, present and notions of future, the choices they have made, or will make, and their perceived power in these situations. Cultural, social and political influences on students' interactive experiences all have a bearing on students' sense of agency. Hilppö, Lipponen, Kumpulainen, and Virlander (2015) have described agency as an interaction among students' "capabilities, aspirations and perceived opportunities and limitations" (p.2) to take action in particular situations. Both of these descriptions direct attention to the various aspects of student agency; the latter relating to the qualities students bring to situations and the former considering the experiences and interactions that have created or underpinned these qualities.

Teachers and parents who value agency as a quality that contributes positively to fulfilling lives are most likely to actively support students to engage agentically in learning activity. As Hannon (2017) noted, what is taught, how it is taught and the possibilities adults predict for students' futures are strongly influenced by their views of the most fundamental aspect of education, its purpose. Teachers, parents and students themselves all bring to teaching and learning situations their own personal and professional perspectives on learning and these have powerful effects on actions taken. Although each may hold a dominant view, the perceived locus of responsibility for learning may vary depending on their position or investment in the particular situation. That is, the theories of learning to which teachers and students subscribe are not entirely fixed but also respond to the environment around them.

The diagram below (Figure 1) shows the Matrix of Perspectives that comprises possible views that participants may take about who or what is most active in learning (Bowler, Annan & Mentis, 2007). The quadrants of the Matrix of Perspectives are illustrated by some popular theories that are represented at some point within each space. The dynamic notion of student agency is represented in the Interactive quadrant where both environment (including teaching practices, classroom routines and community influences) and student (learner) take active roles in negotiating learning and teaching. In the Learner Active quadrant, the student is viewed as being most active in the learning process, with the environment playing a lesser role. In the Environment Active quadrant, the student is seen to be more passive and the environment playing the major part in students' learning. The fourth quadrant, Passive, represents the less common view that neither learner nor environment have a strong influence on learning.
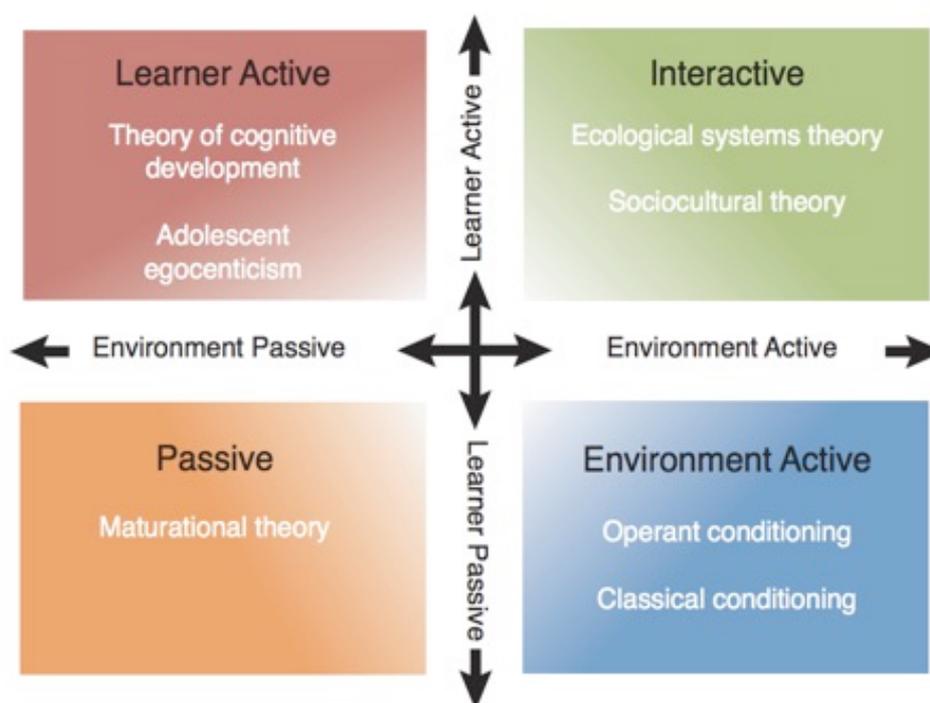
Figure 1. The Matrix of Perspectives (Bowler, Annan & Mentis, 2007)

Contemporary pedagogies tend to reflect the interactive view of learning and align with the notion of learning being negotiated between agentic students and teachers. However, the environment active view, dominant in teaching and learning for the greater part of the last century, may still hold in some quarters (Pinker, 2016). Traditional schooling beliefs involving active teaching and passive learning may continue to influence interpretations of agentic behaviour, impeding the application of new interactive pedagogies in practice, and consequently, student agency.

Understanding agency

As mentioned earlier, exploring the interactive phenomenon of student agency calls for the simultaneous analysis of each of its parts, such as students' perceptions of their agency, teachers' and parents' beliefs about the role of agency and the aspirations and expectations that each participant has for the future. Agency is understood through

analysis of personal or social structures together, including the relationships between students and their worlds (Klemenčič, 2015). Rainio and Hilppö (2016) have suggested that a broad analysis of the interactive context may result in deeper understanding of the location of agency in teaching and learning through the illumination of existing tensions. The authors noted the way that research had often endeavoured to simplify the components of interactive contexts in order to render them comprehendible. In effect, controlled research has worked to isolate and decontextualize variables, obscuring the very aspects that were most relevant to understanding interactions.

Constructive agency

When students take agency they exercise a measure of power, making choices about the topics they study, the people with whom they work, the rate at which they complete tasks and the nature of interactions within collaborative inquiry. This does not mean that teachers assume laissez faire approaches to teaching or that students act without regard for others. Student agency, understood in a social context, requires positive connections with others and activity negotiated in good faith. In a teaching and learning environment, every participant is constantly learning and consequently acting in new ways. The emergence of tensions between agency and control among participants is inherent in the social context, calling for genuine negotiation of roles, tasks and participation.

The agentic environment

The agentic environment comprises multiple components, two of which are outlined in this section. These are student agency and teaching practices that support agency.

Student agency: Dimensions

Through an analysis of contemporary publications related to student agency, four dimensions of students' sense of agency have been identified (Annan, 2016). There are voice, strategic agency, personal agency and connected agency.

1. Student voice
Students' sense that their voices are heard and that they perceive that changes result from what they say.

2. Strategic agency
The skills and strategies required to take agency, such as envisaging the future, creating new ideas and reflecting on learning.

3. Personal agency
Qualities that students have developed and can apply in a range of environments (including resilience, self-efficacy, responsibility and motivation).

4. Connected agency
Skills and understandings that support effective interaction with others.
Social connections and ability to collaborate, access, create and share information with others, help others learn and transfer social learning skills across environments.

These four dimensions provide information about students' experience of agency in specified circumstances at given a point in time. Learning about students' perceptions on each of these dimensions provides part of the information required to understand student agency in context. A brief student-teacher interview schedule, designed for students in Years 7-8, can be found at http://positivelypsychology.co.nz/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/STUDENT-SENSE-OF-AGENCY-DISCUSSION-GUIDE-1-July-2017-V1.pdf

Teaching practices that support agency

The review of contemporary publications indicated that a range of teaching practices support student agency and these have been organised into seven emerging categories (Annan, 2016). The seven categories are listed and outlined below (see Figure 2).
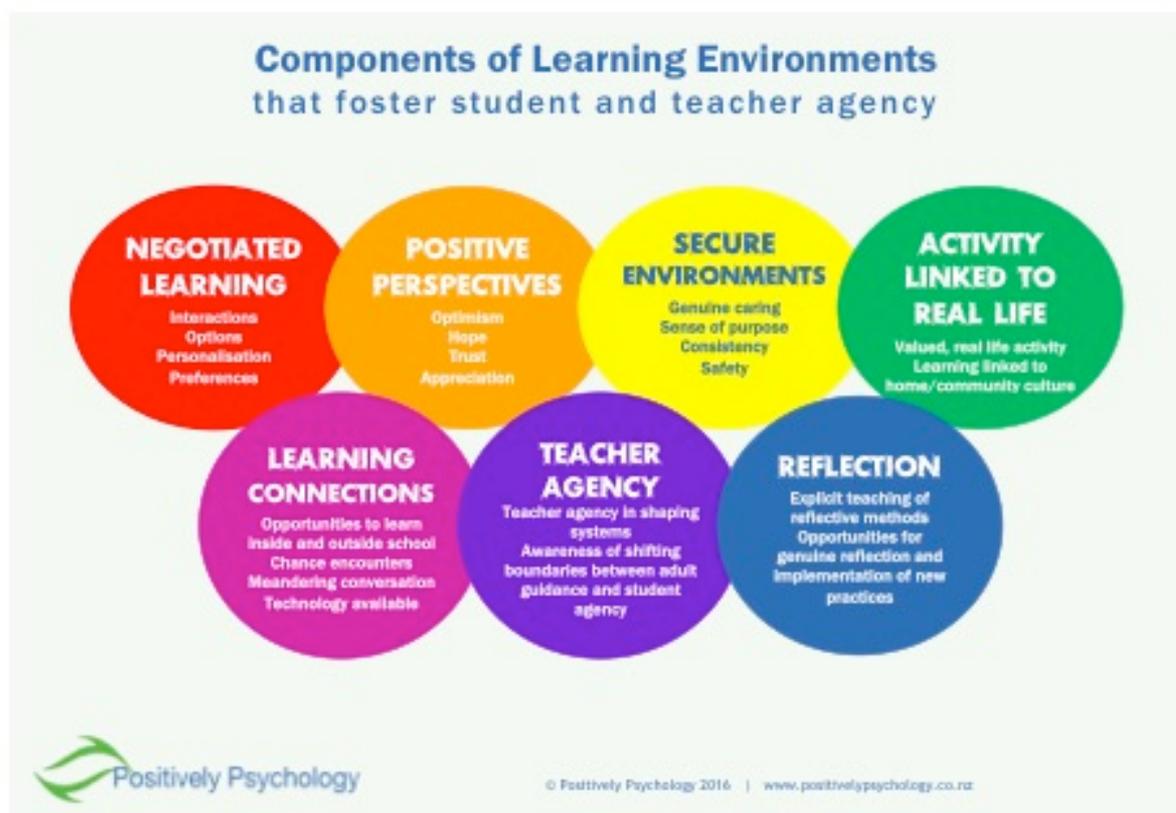
Figure 2. Teaching practices that support student agency (Annan, 2016).

1. Negotiated learning

Teacher negotiation of learning involves viewing young people as unique and individualising their learning (Yoon, 2015). It means generating options so that students have real choice with fine-tuned support from more experienced people as they travel their learning journeys (Keeffe, 2015, Klemenčič, 2015). Negotiated teaching and learning involves teachers and students together examining students' aspirations, expectations, beliefs and competencies (Hilppö, Lipponen, Kumpulainen & Virlander, 2015; Sadeghi, 2014). For much of schooling's history, students have not been expected or invited to take active roles to the extent they are today.

Accordingly, negotiating learning may involve teachers reframing students' questioning and sharing viewpoints as constructive rather than unhelpful or disrespectful (see Rajala, Kumpulainen, Rainio, Hilppö, & Lipponen, 2016). Negotiating learning may require as much challenge to theory and belief as it does to practice.

2. Linking learning to real life

Students are more likely to take active roles in tasks that have real meaning to them (see Evans, M. & Boucher, 2015; Fullan, 2013; Shernoff, Csikszentmihalyi, Schneider, Shernoff, 2014). Where teachers understand the broad contexts of individual students' development, they are better positioned to link learning activity to the interests, challenges, values and beliefs of their home, school and community environments (Jackson, 2003; Klemenčič, 2015; Rainio & Hilppö, 2016; Yoon, 2015).

3. Creating and supporting learning connections

Teachers can support the extension of learning connections by facilitating chance encounters with relevant knowledge. This may include extending learning activity beyond the classroom and creating opportunities for exchange of information with a range of people and environments (Klemenčič, 2015). Acquiring and creating relevant knowledge may be increased when teachers facilitate conversations between students and community members, allowing the conversations to meander into areas that interest both parties (Arnold & Clark, 2013).

4. Nurturing positive and optimistic attitudes

If students are to actively engage in learning, they need to envision exciting futures and understand the relationship between their learning and vision. They need to have optimism and hope for the future and trust in teaching and learning to support them to realise their goals (Marques, Lopez, Rose & Robinson, 2014). Appreciative approaches to teaching encourage students to focus on their next steps and build on their current knowledge. They free students to value learning activities and the contributions of those who support them (Anderman & Levitt, 2014; Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich & Linkings, 2009).

5. Supporting reflecting on learning

While the role of reflection in learning has been well established, it cannot be assumed that all students naturally acquire effective practices and develop schemata that support them to reflect in meaningful and productive ways. Students can reflect and build practice using processes that make sense to them when they are supported to develop reflective skills and create or acquire frames that help them organise and process information. Teachers can provide opportunities for students to reflect on and apply new knowledge (Arnold & Clark, 2015; Klemenčič, 2015).

6. Creating emotionally secure climates for change

Students feel safe and secure when the people who help them show genuine concern for their learning and life (Sadeghi, 2014). They learn in environments in which there are familiar cultural practices, values and sense-making. Teachers, parents and others who work to support students' learning can foster secure environments by exchanging their views about learning and actively engaging with students' learning activity. Emotionally secure classrooms have climates characterised by consistency and fair practices, safety to invite new challenges and provision of personalised scaffolds for learning.

7. Teacher Agency

Teachers who foster student agency are active in their own professional learning and active in the facilitation of students' learning. As suggested above, there are many simultaneous practices to consider and these require deliberate focus. Teachers actively negotiate and personalise students' learning, know their students well, understand and connect with the cultural perspective each brings to learning and create overlap between students' school and home cultures (Jackson, 2003). They carefully gauge the level of scaffolding required to help individual students learn new skills and create safe and caring learning environments in which students can exercise agency in constructive and considerate ways. These tasks can be experienced as either onerous or exhilarating, depending on the context in which they are carried out and the perceived purpose of the interactive, agentic approach to teaching and learning. Below are some key understandings that support teacher agency.

a. Teacher beliefs and perceptions
Possibly the greatest support for teacher agency is their ability to envision a positive future for young people in the transforming world (Hannon, 2017). Understanding how education can prepare students for this new world requires agentic teachers who find out what young people need to learn and how to support this learning. With a genuine concern for students' futures and faith in the efficacy of agency to support students' learning in the future, teachers may experience new activity as exciting and meaningful.

b. Teacher choice
The level of choice teachers experience in their professional work is a determinant of teacher agency (Sadeghi, 2014). Sadeghi observed that when teachers had choice in the shaping of educational systems they felt valued and were consequently more likely to actively support student agency. Teacher autonomy is facilitated, in part, by school structures and management. Leaders who recognise and value interactive new pedagogies are most likely to encourage teachers to actively negotiate teaching and learning with students and families. Teacher agency is also indirectly influenced by the wider layers of education systems. For example, a narrow or prescriptive curriculum may restrict teacher agency while a principle and value led curriculum with a clearly articulated vision for young people's learning such as the New Zealand Curriculum (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007) can provide clear direction and purpose, allowing teaching and learning activity to be actively personalised and contextualised.

c. Reconciliation of the contradiction between agency and guidance
Teacher support for student learning can be viewed as an ever-shifting scaffold that provides just-the-right-amount of support required to optimise students' learning and active engagement in learning activity. Adults have much experience in the world and one of their roles is to make their knowledge and skill available to those for whose learning they have responsibility. As noted, student agency is not without boundaries; it is actively negotiated, meaningful and relevant, taking into account the positions of others. As in any negotiation, there will be inherent tensions. However, these tensions offer opportunities for reflection and growth. Analysis of these tensions provides active teachers with information about the conditions and interactions that will support and actively engage students (see Rajala, Kumpulainen, Rainio, Hilppö, & Lipponen, 2016).

Conclusion

There are exciting new opportunities for young people who are active in learning, engage in relevant learning tasks and connect with others across the globe. Promoting student agency requires that teachers, students and others who support students' learning become active agents in the teaching and learning process. Agency involves using power thoughtfully, collaborating and helping one another learn rather than meeting immediate personal needs at the expense of others. Agentic teaching and learning comprises negotiations between students and students, students and teachers and among students, teachers and family. This presentation has reported several teacher practices and student perceptions associated with agentic interactions.

Taking agency means having a degree of choice in the topics selected, the partners with whom students collaborate and timeframes for their particular tasks. Agentic teachers know their students' learning sufficiently well to provide just-enough support. This sensitive portioning of support provides the less experienced students with information from more experienced teachers while ensuring that the students' drive to pursue learning remains intrinsic. Students vary in their readiness to take agency in different circumstances as it is influenced by personal, social, cultural and political factors. Pivotal influences on students' agency are teachers, schools', parents' and students' beliefs about how people learn, where they learn and why they learn. Various writers have suggested that agency emerges within specific social and cultural environments and encompasses aspirations, openness to new opportunities and perceived power within interactions. Understanding interactive agency in specific circumstances, therefore, must take into account the broad, dynamic contexts in which actions take place.

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A Study on Education in Japanese Legal Expression: Through a Survey of Japanese University Students

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Abstract
The text on Japanese law is known for being difficult for Japanese people. The law is a part of the liberal arts curriculum at high school and university. The courses are focused on understanding the content of the law; however, the difficulty also lies in law-specific Japanese expression. This research aims to clarify whether the degree of comprehension of legal expression is high even in those who do not receive special education in law if their understanding of different registers of Japanese is high. The methodology included a survey on the degree of comprehension of legal expression that was conducted for students of the Faculty of Letters who were interested in the usage of the words. Honorific expressions known as esoteric Japanese usages were adopted as a comparative subject of legal expression, and the degrees of comprehension of both were investigated simultaneously and then compared. The results demonstrate that very few students exhibited a proper understanding of legal expression. In addition, students with a high degree of understanding of honorific expressions also had a somewhat higher understanding of legal expression; and only very weak correlation was found. It is clear from the foregoing discussion that even people who are good at understanding general Japanese expressions find it difficult to understand legal expression. In the future, in situations where it is necessary to understand legal expression, it seems necessary to nurture a system of education in which people acquire better comprehension of Japanese legal expression.

Keywords: Japanese language, junior college students, legal expression, honorific expression, analogy

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Introduction

In Japan, the law is known to contain obscure terms. Japanese law is difficult to understand for foreigners trying to learn Japanese, as well as for Japanese people themselves. Ordinary university students who do not belong to the Faculty of Law learn about law as part of their general education. Moreover, if you graduate from high school and become an active member of society immediately, you will not have the opportunity to learn about law other than in "public" classes at high school.

Law in terms of general education or a "public" class is focused on understanding the content of the legal system. For example, based on the premise that it is unnecessary to read the original text of the law, the rights and responsibilities in daily life, the freedom of expression, etc. are outlined. There is absolutely no opposition to the education itself, which emphasizes the understanding of the content of the legal system as a part of general education.

However, Japanese law is difficult to understand because it is necessary to comprehend judicial precedents that are not directly stipulated in law and some special legal terms are used. There are very difficult Japanese expressions (hereinafter "legal expression") peculiar to law, which pose a more fundamental problem. For example, the expression "*suru monoto suru*" (in Japanese) meaning "shall do" is a literal form that exists as a Japanese language expression from the Middle Ages but is hardly used in current daily life.

Dictionaries of legal vocabulary contain terms that have legal meanings, such as "deemed," but a more fundamental expression such as "*suru monoto suru*" has no exact legal meaning; therefore, terms such as these are not found in such dictionaries, and it is practically impossible to find out their meanings from these specialist dictionaries. Further, because these terms do not have any legal meaning in themselves, even in public classes at high school, there is no explanation given for these terms. Legal terms can be learned on their own as and when necessary by studying with the help of a dictionary of legal vocabulary; however, in the case of legal expressions, even if you try to study them with the help of such a dictionary, which mostly does not contain any legal expressions, it is very difficult to learn them on their own.

However, it is very important for citizens to be able to understand legislation that stipulates their rights and obligations to fulfill their duties in everyday life and not do anything unlawful. Also, the law should be described in words that can be easily and accurately understood by citizens.

Background

Language exists on various levels, for example, speech, phonemes, vocabulary, and grammar (including form). There are two kinds of grammar and vocabulary: "understanding level" and "produced level." The understanding level means that it is only necessary to know the meaning, whereas the production level necessitates proper use of language after understanding the meaning.

Legal terms and expressions do not use vocabulary at the production level for ordinary people who are not working for legal professionals or civil servants. There are many Japanese native speakers who never use legal terms or expressions even once in their lifetime. However, if you see legal terms in sentences, these are part of the Japanese vocabulary; hence, you need to understand the meaning. In that sense, legal terms and expressions consist of vocabulary at the understanding level.

Naturally, there are more words at the understanding level than there are at the production level. A small Japanese dictionary comprising only modern language contains a vocabulary of approximately 50,000–70,000 words. The range of vocabulary required in an average Japanese native speaker's daily life is about 10,000 words. In other words, this means that 40,000–60,000 words are classed at the understanding level. First of all, it is thought that "priority should be given to output level" when it comes to the order of introduction of grammar items (Iori, 2017).

The difficulty in understanding legal expressions is also highlighted in the UK: "The ordinance of law is like a foreign language for ordinary people" (Renton, 1975). In Sweden, they address the problem of the complexity of sentences in legal terminology (Gunnarsson, 1984). In Japan, it is said that legal texts are too difficult for most Japanese people to understand, and it has been suggested that there should be a way of introducing legal language into everyday language (Okawara, 2004). However, even if a legal text is rewritten in plain language, it is true that many sentences would still be too difficult for ordinary Japanese people who have not received a legal education through university law school or the like (Okawara, 2004).

In Japanese language education for native speakers in Japan, active learning does not merely mean that the learning style is active but that an emphasis is put on the importance of learners' inner thinking. In other words, the purpose is not to teach a mode of active learning but to deepen and develop thinking and remembering through instruction in language learning (Tsuruta, 2015).

Truly active learning means using knowledge and creativity to reconstruct and generate new thinking by interpreting texts based on one's own existing knowledge and life experience. The most important aspect of this is the use of analogy (Tsuruta, 2017).

So, is it possible to understand texts using analogy in Japanese language education consequent to "active learning" in high school even if you have not learned legal terms and expressions at the understanding level?

Objective

The objective of this research is to clarify whether legal expressions can be understood correctly by analogy even by those who have not received specialized education in law at a Faculty of Law if the degree of understanding of the Japanese language is high enough.

Methods

Junior college students in the Faculty of Letters who were thought to be interested in the use of Japanese language were selected as people to be surveyed. To compare and contrast difficult legal expressions, the authors also studied the degree of comprehension of honorific expressions that are known to be difficult to understand in Japanese and decided to compare the degree of comprehension of both. In particular, the authors made their judgments by presenting individual example sentences to all who were surveyed and independently evaluating the degree of comprehension of each example sentence.

The details are as follows:
・**Surveyed people:** A total of 43 students (21 men, 22 females) aged between 19 and 20 years. All were Literature students interested in the use of language.
・**Survey period:** April 2017
・**Survey method:** Prepared several question and answer sheets describing the questions and distributed them to all the students. Collected these sheets once the allotted answer time was over and then figured out the number of correct answers.
・**Evaluation and analysis:** After summarizing the results of the survey (all legal terms, legal-specific terms, everyday legal terms, all honorific words, basic honorific words, somewhat difficult honorific words, respectful words, humble words, and polite words), we converted each correct answer into 100 points, compared the sizes of the scores, and tried to analyze each correlation using a correlation coefficient.
・**Survey content:** The questions consisted of items related to legal expressions and honorific expressions.

Questions regarding legal expressions were prepared to examine the degree of comprehension of respondents regarding the legal terms. Therefore, the questions were prepared with reference to the terms listed in books for civil servants who review the legal representation of the law [Study Group on Legal Affairs (2012), edited by Legal Study Group (2016)]. In other words, questions were prepared to include "legally distinguished terms" according to the authors' classification and "terms also used in everyday life," and the questions were also designed to include specific legal terms (12 words) and everyday legal terms (hereinafter referred to as everyday legal terms) (6 words).

As for the questions regarding honorific expressions, we referred to the "Guidelines of honorific expressions (2007)" published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2007, selected 14 honorific words (respectful words, humble words, and polite words), and used these to prepare the questions. At the time of preparation, while referring to the terms listed in this guideline, due consideration was given to include "basic items" and "advanced items" according to the classification of the guidelines.

Results

1. Scoring for "legal terms"

Table 1 shows the average scores of all the surveyed people who answered questions related to legal terms, as well as the minimum and maximum values of the scores for each item.

According to the results shown in Table 1, the average value of scores for "all legal terms" was as low as 41 points, and the scores for "legal-specific terms" were markedly lower than those for "everyday legal terms." In particular, the minimum value of the scores for the "legal-specific terms" was approximately 2, indicating that they were extremely difficult to understand.

Table 1. Average, maximum, and minimum values of scores for "legal terms."

Items	Total legal terms	Legal-specific terms	Daily legal terms
Average	41.0	19.8	83.3
Maximum	72.2	70.8	100.0
Minimum	12.5	2.1	33.3

(Scoring / 100 points)

2. Scoring for "honorific terms"

Table 2 shows the average scores of all the surveyed people who answered questions concerning honorific terms, as well as the minimum and maximum values of the scores for each item.

From the results shown in Table 2, the average point score showed that the score for "basic honorific words" was considerably higher than that for "somewhat difficult honorific words" and that the score for "respectful words" was higher than that for "humble words." Moreover, as indicated by the minimum value, there were some people surveyed who scored 0 points depending on the item.

Table 2. Average, maximum, and minimum values of scores for "honorific terms."

Items	Total honorific words	Basic honorific words	Somewhat difficult honorific words	Respected words	Humble words	Beautification words
Average	54.3	66.7	32.5	62.5	50.0	50.0
Maximum	78.6	100	90.0	95.0	84.4	100
Minimum	14.3	0	0	20.0	0	0

(Scoring / 100 points)

3. Correlativity among points for each item

Table 3 shows the correlation between the total points for all legal terms and the score for each related legal-specific term using the correlation coefficient. From the results shown in Table 3, it was clarified that the correlation between the score for "all legal terms" and that for "legal-specific terms" is very strong. Although somewhat weaker, a positive correlation between the score for "all legal terms" and that for "everyday legal terms" was also clearly observed.

Table 4 shows the correlation between the points for all honorific words and the score for each honorific-related item using the correlation coefficient.

From the results shown in Table 4, the correlation between the score for "all honorific words" and that for "humble words" is extremely high. It is practically 1.0; therefore, a perfect positive correlation is observed. Further, it is clear that the correlation between the score for "all honorific words" and that for "basic honorific words" is very high and a strong correlation between them is observed. Furthermore, the correlation between "all honorific words" and "respectful words" is also found to be quite strong. Although slightly weaker, a positive correlation between the score for "all honorific words" and that for "somewhat difficult honorific words" was also clearly observed. An even weaker positive correlation with the score for "polite words" was also observed.

Table 5 shows the correlation between the score for all legal terms and the score for honorific-related items using the correlation coefficient.

From the results shown in Table 5, a relatively weak positive correlation was found between the score for "all legal terms" and that for "all honorific words." Slightly weaker positive correlations were also observed between the scores for "all legal terms" and those for "humble words" and "basic honorific words." Also, to make it easier to understand these relationships, the correlation between the score for "all legal terms" and the score for "all honorific words" was taken as a representative example, and it is shown in FIG. 1 as a graph.

Table 3. Correlation coefficient between the points for all legal terms and the score for each related legal-specific term.

Items	Legal-specific terms	Daily legal terms
Total legal terms	0.84	0.49

Table 4. Correlation coefficient between the points for all honorific words and the scores for each honorific-related item.

Items	Basic honorific words	Somewhat difficult honorific words	Respected words	Humble words	Beautification words
Total honorific words	0.91	0.61	0.73	1.00	0.44

Table 5. Correlation coefficient between the score for all legal terms
and the score for honorific-related items.

Items	Total honorific words	Basic honorific words	Humble words
Total legal terms	0.44	0.38	0.42

$$y = 0.5698x + 29.776$$
$$R^2 = 0.1906$$

A relatively weak positive correlation ($r \doteqdot 0.44$) was observed between the score of "total legal terms" and that of "total honorific words".
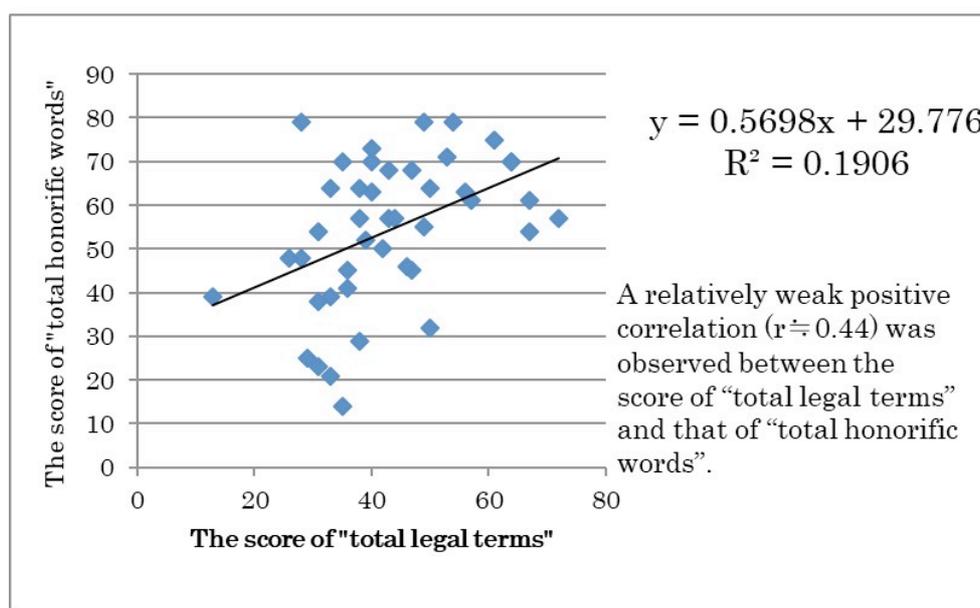
Figure 1. Correlation between the score for "all legal terms"
and that of "all honorific words."

Discussion

With regard to the understanding of legal terms often referred to as obscure in Japanese daily life, the average point score for "legal-specific terms" was approximately 20 points, but the average point score for "everyday legal terms" was as high as approximately 83 points. As for the correlation, a student who can understand "legal-specific terms" very well has a very good understanding of "all legal terms," and a strong positive correlation (0.84) was observed. A positive correlation (0.49) was observed between "everyday legal terms" and "total legal terms." In general, legal terms are said to be difficult for Japanese native speakers to understand; however, in reality "everyday legal terms" do exist, that is, there are legal terms that are used in everyday life, and according to this survey, it became clear that many students can understand them well.

From these results, it was suggested that the difficulty of legal terms is focused primarily on "legal-specific terms" and that by learning those terms intensively, one can improve the understanding of all legal terms.

Conversely, in the case of honorific words, the average score for "basic honorific words" was as high as approximately 67 points; the average score for respectful words was approximately 63 points; and the average score of humble words was 50 points.

Regarding this correlation in particular, students who can understand "basic honorific words" very well have a high understanding of all honorific words, and an almost perfect positive correlation (0.91) was observed. A strong positive correlation (0.73) was observed between respectful words and all honorific words, and an almost perfect positive correlation (1.0) was observed between humble words and all honorific words.

From these results, it can be said that the degree of comprehension of humble words determines the degree of comprehension of honorific words as a whole. This result is similar to the findings reported by the authors last year (Kurata, 2016), which supports the consideration that the understanding of humble words is essential for the understanding of honorifics as a whole.

There was a weak positive correlation (0.44) between the understanding of honorific words and legal terms, and students who were able to understand all honorific words also had a somewhat higher understanding of legal terms. The correlation between legal terms and basic honorific words was 0.38, and the correlation between legal terms and humble words was 0.42, with a weak positive correlation found in each case.

From these results, it was revealed that legal terms could not be "understood well" by analogy even if we can, to some extent, understand basic honorific words and humble words that are known to be difficult to understand.

Conclusion

Japanese native speakers often learn about honorific expressions through the use of teaching materials such as literary works mainly used in "Japanese language" classes in elementary school, junior high school, and high school. In particular, students interested in literature, languages, and culture achieve a good understanding of honorifics.

In this study, it was revealed that even students with a high "understanding level" of honorifics, which is regarded as being obscure in Japanese, had a not-so-high "understanding level" of legal expressions, mainly due to analogy.

According to the "School Basic Survey" conducted by the Japanese government in 2015, 17.7% of high school graduates got a job and 51.5% advanced to university (excluding junior college). In the future, active participation by citizens in regional administration is desired for "regional creation" in Japan. To respond to these social demands, the authors strongly expect that opportunities to learn not only legal terms and about legal institutions but also Japanese legal expressions will be provided in high school education.

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Disruptive & Cosmetic Technology Management in Education

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Abstract
Considering the user experience in the implementation of any new technology in an educational context requires careful planning and good judgment in order to make it a success. This paper proposes a technology implementation decision matrix which is applicable in all learning contexts and can be used for establishing whether any past, present or future technology should be implemented. Based on a series of pedagogical fundamentals that are core to the construction of the matrix and final decisions made are dependent on how implementers establish their own parameters and limitations. The matrix is meant to be a pedagogical guide reaching a final consensus based on purely educational purposes and interests. While consideration is made for financial elements and others the main design of the matrix is to facilitate a well formulated decision on whether or not educational gains will be made with the new technology under consideration.

Keywords: User Experience, Technology Management, Technology Implementation

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Introduction

The user experience is well developed in the business world but less so in the world of education. Hours of testing and development are spent on refining the best process by large companies like SAP and IBM to provide customers with the best experience that inspires confidence and develops the company brand. These processes are used as a standard when dealing with all clients and these lessons can be learned from these by the development of a quality decision matrix to establish real user needs, to avoid wasteful spending on procurement, and educating staff on strong educational course design criteria in order to facilitate the decision-making process before implementations are made in educational contexts. Considering the user experience and future technologies together will help avoid disruptive technologies impeding learning and implementations from being simply cosmetic in nature. By considering a technology implementation decision matrix we can minimize disruption for end users (learners) and maximize the potential for quality instructional support and engagement. Current and future technologies can be categorized and considered pedagogically before implementing technologies by determining possible gains for the learners and by creating an assistive environment.

Assistive technology (AT) is any device, piece of equipment or system that helps a person with a disability work around challenges so they can learn, communicate or function better. Disruptive technology (DT) disrupts learning or can be used to bring about change. Understanding what these are and how they work is the first step towards finding the right tools for our students and to implement them in our courses. This paper proposes use of a technology implementation decision rubric "Technology Implementation Matrix (TIM)" as a means of guiding facilitators in key components of deciding the tenability of any new technology to be implemented in any educational context in the future. Management of technology includes initial implementation and support to fully maximize the user experience and to make maximum gains from the technology implemented.

In the business world, according to Laugwitz, Held & Schrepp (2008) studies consider: the user experience; software evaluation; user satisfaction; questionnaires; usability assessment; and perceived usability in order to establish effective understanding of the technology in place. This includes the three levels of any design as visceral (look-feel-smell-sound) and evoking immediate and powerful responses, behavioural (perceptions and mood) and reflective (real meaningful association) and culminate in a holistic emotional design (Norman, 1988).

The educational experience has one main end user who is the student themselves. The learning experience is like any other user experience. Students, who are often already immersed in technology and software applications may have expectations upon them to keep up with technological advances, software updates, mobile devices, their online social environment as well as Personal Learning Environment (PLE). While we can consider online the Social Constructivist Learning Environment (SCLE) in courses and student perceptions of the etiquette involved, we must also concede the risk of social destructive behaviour in the same contexts (Sthapornnanon, Sakulbumrungsil, Theeraroungchaisri, & Watcharadamrongkun, 2009). In a 2008 study (Conole, deLaat, Dillon & Darby) reported that "students are immersed in a rich, technology-enhanced learning environment and that they select and appropriate technologies to their own

personal learning needs" as they rightly should. These "millennials" are now our student body, who are absorbing new technology at a faster rate as those of the 1980's when the personal computer was making its mark on the world, and for many, this can be overwhelming.

Positive Gains or Losses Made

Not all technologies or use of technologies is/are necessarily fruitful, and as professionals, we should consider carefully on behalf of students the meaningful gains or losses that can come about through such technologies. According to (Christensen, Horn & Johnson, 2008) "*A disruptive innovation succeeds by focusing on affordability, accessibility, capability and responsiveness. IT can help us move towards a modular, not monolithic batch mode education system and teach students in customized ways*" allowing breakthroughs and breakaways from traditional models that do not fit with new technologies and the progressively developing worlds of ICT and learning. It can be suggested that in many contexts that teachers use computers to make better lesson plans, and communicate more, but often continue to deliver instruction in traditional ways. Christensen, Horn & Johnson (2008) echo this message in saying that "*information technology is being used in limiting ways instead of being used to transform the prevailing instructional practices*". This means that teachers should be at the early adoption stage of technologies and up-to-date on current research in order to function well in this position, which is no easy task.

Personnel Disruption Management

Managing disruption is an important part of improving the learning experience and maximizing the impact on users (students). Disruption comes in multiple forms and below are many of the main characteristics of how they manifest themselves. Disruptive Learning Behaviours & Climate (DLBC) factors to consider are as follows: repetition or duplication, poor positioning (barriers/screens/classmates/boards/ blocking /etc.), poor sound quality (audibility, clarity, muffling/crackling, etc.), poor air quality and condition (dry eyes, humidity/moisture, heat/cold, etc.), materials (forgotten/lost/damaged/deformations/OS, etc.), Lighting (glare/reflections/contrast, etc.), and teacher disruption (confidence/updates/health issues, etc.).

Neutrally, "Learners can command an increasing range of mobile technologies that have the potential to support learning anytime anywhere, but also to disrupt the carefully managed environment of the classroom" (Sharples, 2002). With this in mind, educators must plan to provide the best environment possible for student success meaning the provision of: fast & simple technology, adaption/differentiation, barrier removal, clarity of instruction, student-centeredness when possible, progress measurement, creativity and quality content.

Our technology must be accessible and fast. We must define clear learning objectives for each pilot and get feedback at intervals. Interact as much as possible with teams and students. One could suggest that the most common and important technologies in educational technology management are the use of new technologies, which can have a disruptive effect if not well selected or well managed. Including, but not limited to: well formatted e-books with adjustable font sizes, areas for students to

write notes, well selected images (non-linguistic representations), adaptive software and hardware, interactive whiteboards, projectors and mixed, augmented and virtual reality hardware and software.

Understanding the users' own limitations and the limitations of each technology within reason gives us a much better understanding and grounded knowledge of what is possible now, and how we can expand on what we have available at any given moment before, during and after the implementation of any new technology. Pedagogically, each situational context can in theory be expanded on. However, there are questions to be asked of the tools and technology under such consideration. Questions like: Which tools do you think will be effective in addressing the student's specific needs? What strengths does the student have that can help them use this tool? Do you see a need for tools to be used in different settings? (Home, school, social settings, etc.) How easy is this tool to learn and to use? How reliable is it? What kind of technical support or replacement policy can you or the manufacturer provide?

Managing these responses must also fall under the remit of the personnel responsible for the implementation of the new technology in any educational context. Partnered with this are questions to be asked of the institution. Whomever is responsible for the financial responsibility and the support services needed must also consider: which tools do we think will be manageable? Which specific needs can we support? What training do the students need to help them use this tool? Do we see a need for tools to be used in our specific context? (classroom, library, on & off campus, social settings, etc.) How easy is this tool to learn and to implement? How reliable is it? What kind of technical support or replacement policy can our institution or the manufacturers provide?

These questions are all pedagogically based but they have a requirement of working technology knowledge as well as ability to manage financial requirements and logistics involved with maintaining the technologies which are set-up.

Technology Implementation Decision Matrix Development

If we begin with the premise that implementation of any new technology is primarily pedagogically guided and not financially or other, we can more purely make decisions based on the pedagogical context with which the implementation should occur and best serve the students who will benefit from the gains made by using any such technology. A need for really substantial and meaningful gains must be the primary driver in decision making any new technology to avoid obvious disruption and to improve the user (student) experience.

By using the Gallagher 8 x 5 Technology Implementation Matrix – show in table 1 – we can best decide, in any context, whether there are significant gains to be made by implementing any new technology. This decision matrix is based on the teachers' level of capability to implement as well as expertise which may be required during the process.

Table 1. Gallagher 8 x 5 Technology Implementation Matrix (Pilot)

Table 1

Teacher Level Matrix			Gallagher 8 x 5 Technology Decision Matrix			
Assistive elements	-2	-1	0	1	2	Score
Implementation will address a specific issue in carrying out the teaching	creates new problems	unnecessary level of complexity	nil effect	should help	solves issue	
This technology will speed the process of understanding	total interuption	will slow down	no gain	some increase	much faster	
This technology will facilitate the understanding	creates new problems	including technology explanation here may confuse	neutral	aids in understanding by exemplar	confirms the concept clearly	
Students will learn ICT skills during the process	not yet ready	some skills must be taught to complete	application of old skills exercised	new skills introduced	new skills learned	
Skills necessary will be transferable skills	non-transferable	task specific only	unknown at this time	usable in other areas	blends learning beautifully	
This technology will generate multiple opportunities in the future	non-transferable	task specific only	no increase	yes	required for next stage of learning	
Teacher preparedness/support level	likely teacher stress	I am novice at this technology and am not ready to teach with it	I have some experience and fair level of knowledge but with some gaps or wekanesses	Generally strong experience and knowledge but have some reservations	I am highly experience with very good knowledge/skills to teach with this technology	
There is enough technology for all students to engage equally	enough to introduce it only	shortage of technology	shared equipment	full coverage	excess available	
					Overall Score	

Discussion

Rogers' (1962) Diffusion of Innovations theory explains how, why and at what rate new ideas and technology spread (Rogers, 2003). Roger's four main elements which influence the spread of any new idea are: the innovation itself, communication channels, time and a social system. Now by studying the five stages in the decision innovation process – Knowledge/Persuasion/Decision (Reject/Accept), Implementation/Confirmation – we can strongly accept that implementation is the second to last step in the process and that knowledge, being the primary stage, must be obtained before progression can be made in any field. Based on this premise, the development of a reliable decision matrix to ascertain this knowledge must be key and prior to decision time in order to weigh the advantages/disadvantages of adopting any innovation. As decision time is the most difficult stage at which to acquire empirical evidence it would therefore be most prudent to ascertain as much evidence as possible in the earliest possible stages. Again, this shows a real need for a legitimate collection of evidence/knowledge in order to enable a quality assured best practice approach to implementing new technologies. Generally shown in findings by Smith (2014) of the Pew Research Center "The American public anticipates that the coming half-century will be a period of profound scientific change, as inventions that were once confined to the realm of science fiction come into common usage". As one might expect "some Americans are also inclined to let others take the first step when it comes to trying out some potential new technologies that might emerge relatively soon" Smith (2014). This shows a general consensus of late adoption in what could be considered a fear of technology due to the rate of development but his report also states that "Some 59% are optimistic that coming technological and scientific changes will make life in the future better, while 30% think these changes will lead to a future in which people are worse off than they are today", which seems to dispel this theory. Clearly, there is apprehension on any new technology and opinion polls only provide perceptions and circumstantial evidence that is professionally unreliable, other than it includes the social dynamic of which, in an educational setting, will be composed of educated

individuals with hopefully a better understanding of evidentiary decision-making than members of the general public of whom this survey was conducted with.

Eight Fundamentals

This matrix proposes that there are eight fundamental elements that must be considered in order to have an effective implementation of any new technology and believe that this list should not be shortened without having some adverse effect on the success of the implementation.

1. Implementation will address at least one specific issue in carrying out the teaching.
2. The technology will speed the process of understanding for students.
3. The technology will facilitate the understanding.
4. Students will learn ICT skills during the process.
5. Skills necessary will be transferable skills.
6. The technology will generate multiple opportunities in the future.
7. An appropriate level of teacher preparedness and student support.
8. Effective rollout and coverage – scaling up/down.

Conclusions

There is often not a need for a new technology, rather, there are marked gains to be had or ancillary advantages which can be beneficial to the learning experience, either directly or indirectly. As we move forward with technology there will be many future technologies for which we cannot know now on how they should be adopted, but we can be sure of the sound pedagogical reasoning in selecting any new technology based on the one factor which is least likely to change, which is the human condition. Based on the needs of learners and the learning experience we must prepare for providing quality assured learning experiences and environments with the end-user in mind.

While there is no specific developed scale at this time for any final judgment on whether a new technology should be implemented, extensive research must be done to establish further clarification of the specifics in exact numerical value of a recommendable level. However, the matrix as it stands now is meant to be a guide to be used in all situations and for the implementers to establish their own situation most closely and for them to establish their own parameters and judgments as whether or not to go ahead and implement the new technology. Most situations are different and contextual limitations and customized needs make establishing tight parameters a fruitless task. The matrix is intended as a meaningful guide to be used by anyone in any context without complex measurements and still be able to use their best judgment to come to their own individual decision. Follow on research is recommended to establish multiple implementation results and preliminary decisions in order to establish if indeed the eight fundamentals need to be reduced or expanded.

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Improving Online Readiness in Higher Education: A Case Study

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Abstract
eLearning is becoming the *sine qua non* of higher education due to its increasing popularity and numerous Learning Experience (Lx), sociological, and ecological benefits. eLearning can increase self-directed, active, social, and personalized learning opportunities. It reduces physical limitations, which can lead to higher student enrolment and more diverse, accessible, sustainable, and scalable educational opportunities. University students are increasingly into technology but digital literacy, online readiness, and completion rates do not follow this upward trend. To truly benefit from eLearning, we must increase students' desire and ability to learn and perform in this environment. This case study discusses the course eConcordia created for enhancing students' self-regulated learning, self-motivation, study skills, and technological self-efficacy. Students complete a self-assessment based on the Online Learning Readiness Scale and are given best practices, tools, and techniques grounded in educational psychology and educational technology. Optimizing eLearning design for online readiness while preparing students to be autonomous self-directed learners is central to successful eLearning. This case study will benefit faculty, instructional designers, and educational technologists in preparing students to succeed and in designing better online courses.

Keywords: Online Readiness, Online Learning, eLearning, Higher Education, Student Success Online

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Introduction

eLearning is broadly defined as technology-enabled teaching and learning. All forms of learning that occur through digital or electronic media or Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) (Gibbs & Gosper, 2006; Guri-Rosenblit, 2005; Wilson, 2012). Historically, eLearning referred to a full spectrum from technology-enhanced learning where students use software stored on computers, CD-ROMs or on the web during or between classes, to blended or hybrid courses with in-class and online elements, to distance learning and fully online web-based learning over the internet (Moore, Dickson-Deane & Galyen, 2010; Wilson, 2012). The web technology and the internet has changed the delivery of distance education from correspondence courses, and radio or video-based courses, to online courses (Okinda, 2014). For the purposes of this paper, we refer to eLearning in the context of online learning in higher education as courses or self-directed learning experiences designed and developed for delivery via the internet, where students are required to use an electronic device to access their courses in a web-based Learning Management System (LMS). This type of eLearning course may include any combination of synchronous or asynchronous student-student, student-content and student-professor interactions with different tools depending on the learning needs. Course components can include various combinations of interactive or video-based lectures, discussions, simulations, as well as branching scenarios, assessments, and the like.

The inherent affordance(s) of current technological tools used for online learning changes the learning experience (Lx). It increases connectivity, flexibility, content management, and structure thereby creating more diversity in interactions (Moore, Dickson-Deane & Galyen, 2010; Rasouli, Rahbania & Attaran, 2016). In doing so, it can also increase self-directed, active, social, and personalized learning opportunities for students (Gros & Garcia-Penalvo, 2016; Phillips, 2005; Zhang, 2003).

Given the human-computer interactions and technological interfacing involved in learning online, there is a potential for increased flexibility of the learning space and a reduction in physical limitations depending on the design and the technology used (Gros & Garcia-Penalvo, 2016). These factors can lead to higher enrolment and more diverse, accessible, sustainable and scalable educational opportunities for a wider spectrum of prospective students. It can increase inclusion and allow for an equality of opportunity on a sociological level for learners who may have psychological, physical, and/or other barriers that hinder their actual presence in face-to-face classes (Forman, Nyatanga & Rich, 2002; O'Neill, Singh & O'Donoghue, 2004; Zhang, 2003). The potential for servicing these students can dramatically increase the diversity of participants taking online courses and that variety can spill into what students learn from one another online (O'Neill, Singh & O'Donoghue, 2004; Zhang, 2003).

The Challenge

Despite university students being increasingly into technology, we cannot assume that they 1) are motivated to use it for learning purposes and 2) are comfortable using it to learn. In fact, digital literacy, online readiness and completion rates for online courses are not following an upward trend (Bowers & Kumar, 2017; Doe, Castillo & Musyoka, 2017; Kennedy, Judd, Churchward, Gray & Krause, 2008). This poses a

huge problem, until we increase students' desire and ability to learn and perform online, we cannot fully benefit from what online education has to offer.

To truly leverage the advantages of eLearning and what it offers to students and teachers in higher education, we must increase students' desire and ability to learn and perform in this environment. This means we must increase students' online readiness.

What Is Online Readiness?

A multitude of online readiness definitions and models exist in the current literature that address different aspects of online readiness from a national level, organizational or strategic level, to the technological, teacher or learner-centered models (Bakry, Khalid & Adbulmohsen, 2007; Chai & Poh, 2009; Chapnick, 2000; Engholm, 2002; Haney, 2002; Okinda, 2014).

In this paper, we focus on the student-focused definition of online readiness. Warner, Christie, and Choy (1998) define online learning readiness as students' preferences for taking online courses compared to classroom-based courses and students' perceived levels of confidence and competence in learning autonomously and in using the Internet and computer-mediated communication for learning purposes. Following the definition, the core dimensions to be gained in students are self-directed learning, motivation for learning, computer and internet self-efficacy, learner control, and online communication self-efficacy (Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010).

Self-directed learning. Self-directed learning occurs when learners are autonomous, responsible and able to self-monitor their learning process (Garrison, 1997). This means students would accurately identify their own learning goals, refer to resources they need in order to learn (i.e., materials, people, and the like), use effective learning strategies to reach their goals, and finally evaluate whether they have reached their learning goals (Garrison, 1997; Knowles, 1975; Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010). If students do not reach their goals, they are able to return to the appropriate resources available and try again.

Motivation for learning. It is known that extrinsic or external motivators can undermine students' intrinsic motivation and perceived autonomy or self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation for learning is required for online readiness because it goes hand-in-hand with self-directed learning. Students who are self-motivated have curiosity, interest, desire for competence or mastery and enjoyment of learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000). If they are not self-motivated, they will not self-regulate their learning process as effectively (Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010; Zimmerman, 2002). This type of motivation also relates to how they give meaning and importance to what they are learning and how it aligns with their projected future self-identity (Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010).

Computer and internet self-efficacy. Computer and internet self-efficacy is critical because it is a requirement for effectively using the technology and interface that students must use to access online courses. It is a dual construct made up of both student' self-perceived ability to use computers in general, and self-perceived ability to access and use the internet or web browsers for predetermined ends (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Eastin & LaRose, 2000; Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010).

Learner control. Learner control is the self-perceived ability students have of accessing, navigating, sequencing, and revisiting relevant online learning content to reach their own learning goals (Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010; Chou & Chien-Hung, 2005). This sense of learner control is made possible by and is required because of the built-in flexibility of the technology and the frequently asynchronous, non-linear nature of online courses.

Online communication self-efficacy. Online communication self-efficacy relates to how comfortable learners feel about human-computer interactions, and communicating and collaborating with other people over the internet (Hung, Chou, Chen & Own, 2010). This is critical for deeper learning online where social learning, group work, discussions and online participation are required, and for course design models that include peer-to-peer feedback, instruction, or evaluation components.

eConcordia's Pilot Course on Online Readiness

To increase online student success at eConcordia, we designed a non-credit optional online course specifically to address common issues university students face with learning online. These issues are generalizable and not unique to eConcordia; as the literature discusses the same challenges related to completion rates, communication skills, technology skills, digital literacy, engagement, and self-directed and autonomous learning online (Bowers & Kumar, 2017; Doe, Castillo & Musyoka, 2017; Kennedy, Judd, Churchward, Gray & Krause, 2008). Therefore, the primary aim of the course is to dispel misunderstandings concerning online learning and provide students with a comprehensive overview of the knowledge, skills, and strategies that they need to succeed. Students are given easy-to-implement best practices, tools, and techniques grounded in educational psychology and educational technology.

Due to our focus on increasing student online readiness, we chose to base our constructs on the Online Learning Readiness Scale (OLRS) developed by Hung, Chou, Chen and Own in 2010. The OLRS test measures five dimensions in learners: self-directed learning, motivation for learning, technological self-efficacy, learner control, and online communication self-efficacy. Students would use this as a self-assessment tool to personalize the learning experience and identify what they need to focus on.

The content selected for the course covers high-impact online readiness factors, based on the OLRS and current literature, which affect student success online. These include professors' and students' roles online; benefits and pitfalls of learning online; how to stay motivated and avoid falling behind. Creating physical and technological learning environments that are conducive to learning outside of the classroom also require appropriate planning and study skills; setting realistic goals and monitoring own progress. Last but not least, we also included procedural knowledge relating to our Learning Management System and course sites; academic integrity rules at the university; getting academic and technical support; avoiding isolation and increasing peer engagement online. Together, this action-oriented content is meant to target students' confidence and self-efficacy related to identifying, monitoring, controlling

and directing their own learning efforts, developing technical skills needed for online learning, communicating online and staying motivated.

eConcordia Steps and Approaches

The process we used for this project follows an iterative backward design and ADDIE approach (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation) from instructional design best practices (Allen, 2006; Davidovich, 2013). This project starts as a pilot project, which will be updated and refined based on feedback and results.

To create the first iteration of the course, the initial step we took is to conduct an in-depth analysis to identify learners' needs and potential solutions and content needed in the course. The analysis involved reviewing the current literature on online student success and current challenges, reviewing and analysing documentation from similar past initiatives, and gathering lessons learned from professors and students related to giving and taking online courses.

Afterwards, we organized the information and content we had and mapped it to the objectives of the course, identifying gaps and gathering missing content from credible evidence-based sources. The process of identifying gaps and organizing content was always in light of the OLRS constructs for online readiness. We also retained and emphasized content and strategies with the biggest returns for students' success: tips and strategies that are easy to remember, implement, and have the biggest impact on their performance.

Following the analysis is the design and development stage of creating this pilot course. We must openly state that we are fully aware of the apparent circularity of "creating an online course about succeeding in online courses." We were faced with three important factors that made this choice the only viable one to make: 1) the only way we can ensure that we reach our online students is online in the portal of the Learning Management System; 2) the solutions we're offering them is in close proximity to the problems they may face and they can access it on their own time whenever they need to; and 3) the analytics we can gather about its use will help us create more effective and relevant content in future iterations of the course.

In the design of the course, we also tried to remove all possible obstacles and objections for students to access and use the course. We decided to make it a free non-credit optional course that is available right in the portal of the Learning Management System. We conserve learner control over their navigation of the content by giving them a self-assessment based on the OLRS and recommending specific content for their needs, making the content modular and flexible. To keep motivation and engagement high, we opted for giving them short video-based segments and downloadable tools, using humorous everyday language that connects with students.

Implications and Future Considerations

While analysing students' needs and designing this pilot course, we concurred that best practices in instructional design must be maintained while simultaneously taking into consideration the online readiness of the professor and the students (Okinda, 2014). Since eConcordia already trains and supports professors in giving their online

courses, this pilot allows us to focus our attention on student readiness and support for taking online courses. We have examined that beyond great course design in general, there are two major factors required for increasing online learning and student success: 1) preparing students for self-directed autonomous learning prior to starting their online courses and; 2) optimizing course design for students who are not autonomous self-directed learners. This second point means that we should include self-assessments, prompts, reminders, tools and strategies inside online courses specifically aimed at scaffolding or increasing their online readiness while they take online courses. Therefore, optimizing eLearning design for online readiness while preparing students to be autonomous self-directed learners is central to successful eLearning.

Generally, we must stress the importance of questioning our assumptions about digital natives and the new generation of learners arriving at university. Let us not assume that just because they are into technology and gaming that it means that they want to use technology to learn. We should not assume that they are motivated and ready to learn online, nor have the technological, social, motivational and other skills required. Assuming that students have the prerequisite knowledge, skills, and abilities to succeed online puts at risk everything we are trying to build with online education. We must ask ourselves: Are our assumptions about our learners wrong? If so, it increases the risk that our course designs might not be tailored towards realistic learner personas with all their difficulties and challenges in mind. Furthermore, students do not only need the knowledge, skills, and abilities to succeed online; they also need the motivation, the peer, and faculty support any in-person student typically needs to succeed.

In conclusion, we highly recommend equipping students with stronger self-directed learning skills, digital literacy, and intrinsic motivation for learning (Bowers & Kumar, 2017; Doe, Castillo & Musyoka, 2017; Kennedy, Judd, Churchward, Gray & Krause, 2008), while optimizing learning experience or course design to support and bridge the online readiness gap. We hope that this case study will benefit faculty, students, instructional designers, and educational technologists in preparing students to succeed and in designing effective online courses.

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Lending Traditional Māori Artistic Structures to Academic Research and Writing: Mahi-Toi

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Abstract

Māori (Indigenous New Zealand) researchers may have one or many mahi-toi (artistic) talents. All mahi-toi are ideas brought from the conceptual world to the physical realm by mahi-ā-ringa (work with hands), and the practitioner is the conduit. When the mahi-toi practitioner is also the researcher and vice-versa, the vernaculars in both circles enrich and give structure, depth and stability to each other. Despite divergences in materials and technologies across the disciplines, when traditional processes - such as carving, weaving, through to performing and composing kapahaka (Māori performing arts) - are placed side-by-side, the parallels between them are unmistakable. Every practice has distinctive pre-production, production and post-production phases that have survived long artistic histories. Setting the mahi-toi practices beside writing and researching lends an artistic, structural, theoretical and analytical framework that may be useful for both researchers (Māori and non-Māori) and mahi-toi practitioners, and particularly for practitioners who make the transition to academic research and writing. As an emerging academic and traditional arts practitioner, I had an epiphany as to why my writing and researching was not to the standard of my artistic practice: I was not translating the fastidiousness, self-editing, self-criticism, and caution taken in my arts into my writing and research. Focusing on poi, this paper explores Mahi-toi as a scaffolding for a theoretical framework and writing structure for Māori scholars – and it is hoped, beyond Māori - in arts disciplines.

Keywords: mahi-toi – poi – research - process

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Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa

Wāhine mā, wāhine mā o Ngāti Awa	*Women of Ngāti Awa*
Kia pumau ki tou āhua, ki tou rēreka	*Stay constant to your characteristics, your sweetness*
Pākahukahu te tinana	*Your lively body*
Whirikoka tou mōhiotanga	*Your strong thinking*
Waiatatia te rōreka	*Sing your melodiousness*
Whakatīeke!	*Expand your self*
E pātaritarihia e	*Be alluring*
Momo whakaheke o ngā tīpuna wāhine	*The inherited qualities of*
O te iwi e	*the women in our tribe*
Ko Wairaka, te tipuna	*Wairaka, the ancestress*
I hoea te waka tapu o Mataatua	*Who paddled the Mataatua canoe*
Ki runga e te kuia e	*Above us, the respected woman*
Kia Whakatāne au i ahau, wāhine mā	*Let's be like her, ladies*

These are the lyrics to the first verse and chorus of a poi I wrote for my sub-tribe (hapū) to perform at our recent bi-annual tribal kapahaka (Māori performing arts) festival, Ngāti Awa Te Toki (Te Toki). Te Toki is a moment where we aim to increase the profile of the tribe through a strengthening of the subtribes. The festival is both a celebration and opportunity for each sub-tribe to showcase their kapahaka prowess through our distinctive styles, and sub-tribal dialects of te reo Māori (Māori language, voice). Meanwhile, we all vie for top kapahaka status.

The poi entitled *Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa* which means 'Women of the Ngāti Awa tribe', is an important part of structuring the framework I refer to as Mahi-toi. I am developing Mahi-toi – literally working with the hands - into a range of mātauranga Māori (traditional knowledge) based tools centring traditional Māori arts to aid the transition from practice to research, and perhaps vice-versa. By unpacking any mahi-toi as a means of understanding the depths of one's 'taken-for-granted knowledge,' this paper presents where the Mahi-Toi research idea is at currently. However, it is not complete, and needs much more thought. This paper was written primarily to open the research space to Indigenous arts practitioners to think through their artistic practices as a research methodology framework.

A good majority of Māori (Indigenous New Zealand) researchers have one or many mahi-toi (artistic) talents. Mahi-toi are ideas brought forth from the conceptual world into the physical realm through the hands (mahi-ā-ringa). Thus, the practitioner is the conduit through which the idea travels into being. At times the mahi-toi practitioner is also a researcher. The artist (ringatoi) brings with them empirical and physical knowledges and must learn the vernaculars in the research paradigm to satiate the academy. Therefore, both the practice and research languages enrich each other, and gives reciprocal structure, depth and stability.

Despite divergences in materials and technologies across the disciplines, when traditional artistic processes - such as carving and weaving, through to performing and composing kapahaka - are placed side-by-side, the parallels between them are

unmistakable. Every artistic practice has a distinctive pre-production, production and post-production process that has survived long artistic histories, some for millenia. Setting the mahi-toi practices beside writing and researching lends an artistic, structural, theoretical and analytical framework that may be useful for both researchers and ringatoi, and particularly for those who make the transition to academic research.

As an emerging academic and also a traditional arts practitioner, I had an epiphany as to why my research was not to the standard of my artistic practice: it was because I was not translating the fastidiousness, self-editing, self-criticism, and caution taken in my arts into my research approach. Once I modified the approach of my research to how I conduct my artistic practices, I began to see discernible development in my academic writing and a more considered research. Focusing on poi, that is the instrument – a soft ball on the end of a woven cord - *and* the dance, this paper develops Mahi-toi as a research structure for Māori and Indigenous scholars, particularly those who work in the arts. It is hoped that in making parallels between the rigors of poi and the thoroughness of research that practitioners will be inclined to research, and to lend it the vernacular and attributes that research needs to attract and build a more diverse academia moving forward.

Mahi-toi Evolution

I designed Mahi-toi out of a lack of theoretical and methodological relevance with film studies for myself and my Māori and Pasifika cohort, most of whom departed from the discipline or from tertiary studies completely. Because my doctorate was equally in film as it was in te ao Māori (the Māori world), it was thought that my work would best connect with post-colonial and kaupapa Māori theories. Both trajectories had limitations in key areas for the distinctively sub-tribal thesis I had planned, and thus, I decided to search out and design a theoretical framework that worked for me. In the initial experimentations with mahi-toi, I concentrated on two types of traditional Māori weaving – tāniko (fine-finger weaving) and later kete muka (flax-fibre basketry) (Wilson, 2013, 2017). With tāniko, I focused on mahi-toi as an analytical framework, and later used kete muka as a structure for academic writing. For this paper, I evolve Mahi-toi further, into a research structure, and I focus on poi. I selected poi because, like research, there are multiple, complex layers to the preparation, composition, and the performance, which if omitted or done out of sequence will affect the execution of the overall item. The central components of research are compared to the various stages in the poi production process, namely the pre-production, production, and post-production phases. I will distinguish these fundamental stages in poi and briefly parallel them with an equally structured research process. It is hoped that in thinking through these processes that more traditional artists will make a transition from practice to structure research through the use of mahi-toi, as well as reaffirm identity. This holistic approach is one way Indigenous scholars can thrive in education and our long-term survival in the academy.

Film Studies

I want to briefly contextualize how Mahi-toi came to being from film theory. Film analysis – in the most basic of terms – is the examination of a film or its parts, and

considers every element that constructs the diegesis, the world specifically constructed in the film, and how it fits together (Hayward, 2000; Horrocks, 2004). Some analysts concentrate on the audience's psychological responses to films (Lacan, 1949; Lacan and Wilden, 1968; Metz, 1974, 1977); others compare the filmmaker's intentions against the viewer's perception of realism (Bazin, 1967, 1971; Kracauer, 1960, 1960a) amongst many other elements. As undergraduate students in film studies at the University of Auckland, in the largest Polynesian city in the world, my Polynesian cohort and I could not relate to the primarily European theories, and were unfamiliar with the culture and history presented in lectures. Furthermore, there were very few positive faces like ours on the screens, and none at the lectern. Māori educationalist Kathie Irwin (1992) said the "real power lies with those who design the tools" (p. 5) and that we (Māori) need to empower ourselves by constructing our own academic apparatuses. I gladly accepted Irwin's challenge because Māori are underrepresented in film studies. Consequently, I aimed my doctorate (2013) at rousing Polynesian film studies students to post-graduate level by developing tools designed to encourage a meaningful attentiveness to film studies by framing film theory, audience and history in culturally relevant ways. Doing so challenges the status quo at the same time as satiating the academic requirements of the University.

From Rangitūhāhā

The search for 'something else' and 'something us' took me to Te Kete Aronui. Te Kete Aronui is believed to be one of the three baskets of knowledge retrieved by Tāne Mahuta (god of the forests, birds and creatures) from the twelfth heaven (Te Rangi-tūhāhā). To Māori, Te Kete Aronui is the basket containing the arts, peace and the senses (Best, 1995; Morrison, 1999; Moorfield, 2005; Fraser, 2009). Timoti Kāretu's (2008) definition is particularly relevant here:

> [Te Kete Aronui] is the kete of the intellectual and the philosophers… and the philosophers of the Māori world were equally poets and philosophers anywhere […] The body of language is being added to constantly with new compositions of haka, waiata, waiata-ā-ringa and poi, as well as short stories, the odd novel and play, and articles on various topics (p. 88).

Kāretu explains the intellectual and the creative as the same person. Te Kete Aronui is a fundamental cord connecting mahi-toi to academia, and it is a suitable, mātauranga Māori-centred way of thinking through art and the artist as the conduit simultaneously. This, is the distinction between Mahi-Toi and practice-led research and research-led practice that is becoming increasingly popular in the creative arts (Candy, 2006; Smith and Dean, 2009; Haseman, 2006; Bolt, 2007). By thinking about film analysis through the pre-production, production, and post-production phases of a film, it meant the research literature about the film's background, about what appeared on the screen, and about the reception to each film was approached deliberately and with more depth. Importantly, the Mahi-toi approach, shown below as a film analysis tool in relation to Lee Tamahori's *Once Were Warriors* (1994), means there are parameters within the structure and processes of the practice itself to keep the film analysis contained within the production process.

Once Were Warriors

Pre-Production	Production	Post-Production
Lee Tamahori: Award-winning TV commercial maker with aspirations to make action films; influenced by Western films, American ghetto and Road Movies	Aimed to create a "purely NZ space;" sets were a selection of decayed, urban, and ghetto looking areas around Auckland	Line around the corner at distributor's office after first Cannes viewing
Alan Duff novel adapted to screen but rejected by NZFC, but after Riwia Brown rewrote it and back by Māori 'leaders,' *Warriors* went to production	Used special gauzes to take out pastel colours, and to add bronze tones to the casts skin	Film won over twenty awards
Predominantly Māori crew and first full-Māori-cast feature since 1930	Low-key costuming for the majority of cast, except for the 'designer gang' who were embellished	Curtis received a Hollywood 'Calling Card' for his performance
Cast well-known Temuera Morrison and Cliff Curtis, and London trained Rena Owen	Upward tilts used so Jake would appear more bulky	Māori scholars pounced on the opportunity to respond stirring the Māori audience for the first time since *The Te Kooti Trail*
	Fighting sounds heightened to increase impact of 'beatings'	
	'Warriors' shown working-out in peculiar places and times	

Image 1: From *Whiripapa* (Wilson, 2013, p. 200).

Mātauranga Māori is full of profound, often hidden, beautiful and ancient theories that are discernible in our arts. For example, our weaving (raranga) is symmetrical, geometrical, technical, environmentally conscious and sustainable, and beautiful. Rituals were performed over a woman's womb in the hopes she would conceive a weaver (Mead, 2003) because the practice shows patience, dexterity, and knowledge of the environment, and the ability to follow process. As I will show, poi follow particularly indepth patterns and processes that can be thought through as a research structure. Ultimately, it is fundamental to unpack the mahi-toi process to perceive the practice from a theoretical perspective and then to use it in that form to structure the research more comprehensively.

Poi

All mahi-toi come from Te Kete Aronui, and thus hinge on wairua, the spiritual paradigm. Tāne Mahuta procreated with Pakoti, a highly regarded type of flax, and they begat Harakeke, a flax best used for weaving (Shortland, 1998). He also had offspring with Hine-te-repo, including Raupō or bulrush (Huata, 2000). Harakeke and raupō are two of the main materials in the traditional construction of poi (Paringatai, 2004). For the harakeke construction, muka is extracted from the flax-fibres, and is woven together to form a type of cloth called tāniko. This durable material is used to cover the ball on the end of the cord. Interestingly, the use of these types of flaxes for fabrics is a distinguishing factor between Māori and other Pacific peoples (ibid, p.

17). Because poi were completely woven from plants, they belong to Te Wharepora, the weaving house. Expert weaver Erenora Puketapu-Hetet (1989) explained that bending and entwining the fruits of his body, raranga breathes Tāne Mahuta into a new form. Although reshaped, his mauri is present in the art and thus, weaving comes from wairua. In modern times, materials have altered for convenience, accessibility and sonics, but the cord remains woven. Raupō poi are, however being revitalized in some areas, particularly in the Tainui tribes.

Aside from being part of Te Wharepora, poi is also part of Te Whare Tapere, the performance or entertainment house, of which kapahaka is an intrinsic part. Poi – as single short and long, double short and long, and quadruple long - is an important element, as I will show. Poi were initially used as a battle training aid to keep the wrists supple for weapons used by both sexes (Paenga, 2008). The distinctiveness and beauty of poi lead to it becoming a performance item for women. In today's context, the drilling aspects remain as most of the movements rely on the wrists and syncopated timing. Historian James Cowan's (1910) observation of early 20th century poi was that:

> The "dancers" do not really dance, but stand in rows and twirl the light poi balls (made of dry raupo-leaves) over their heads, from side to side, beating them at intervals on their heads, breasts, shoulders, and even their feet, all in perfect time to the rhythm of the song or musical accompaniment (p. 149).

The focus was on timing and twirling. However, now that poi is predominantly practiced by women there is an added element of showing femininity to distinguish their performance from the ferocity of the men in their item, the haka.

Competitive poi, like the other kapahaka items, are attributed to Tāne-rore who is represented in the trembling, known as wiri, of the hands. Wiri personifies heat rays detectable at distance on a summers day, as Tāne-rore performed haka for his mother Hineraumati, the goddess of summer. The wiri therefore is used as a euphemism to "signal that summer has returned" (Paringatai, 2004, p. 18). Despite the swinging and twirling of poi, the quivering element is retained and noticeable across kapahaka to sustain the wairua of Tāne-rore and Hineraumati. The wiri too, is a major distinguishing factor between Māori performance arts and that of our Pacific cousins, as is the use of poi.

Mahi-toi: Making Art

Poi is more than swinging balls on the end of a cord around. There is a very complex and multifaceted process. Here, I sketch out a simple framework to show how Mahi-toi works between poi and research. I need to clearly stipulate that this section is neither exhaustive nor a 'how to write/choreograph a competitive poi' guide. It is simply the scaffolding of the workings of poi – some on the composition side and some on the performance side - to show the depths and layers of poi. This section encourages mahi-toi practitioners to use the fastidiousness required of their chosen art to the rigors of research.

Mahi-toi: Preparing the Art/Research

- Theme
- Conceptualisation
- Visualisation
- Plan (timing etc)
- Resources
- Material Preparation

Theme

Poi themes are predominantly based on birds, geographical locators such as the ocean, rivers, lakes, plants, and important women. The poi theme is the constant through-line that keeps the narrative moving forward, and are equally obvious in the actions. For example, when a poi is about a bird, the actions will include a lot of flitting in the feet, and/or movements to symbolise flying. There can be a lot of toe pointing, bending at the hips, and head movements. As the lyrics in *Ngā Wahine o Ngāti Awa* indicate, I based the song around the attributes of the strong women of our tribe, highlighting Wairaka, a very important ancestress. The performance reminds us of what her important characteristics were, and encourages our women to hold onto and enact those attributes.

Conceptualisation

With the theme in mind, the composer (kaitito) considers keywords and phrases appropriate to the theme and to where the performers connect. Fundamental at this initial stage is timbre and tempo. The keywords and phrases I was thinking through were breathing life back into some of the characteristics of Wairaka, and thus in *Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa*, I aimed for brightness and decided to make the tempo relatively bouncy. Wairaka essentially saved the tribe by paddling the Mataatua waka (canoe, vessel). Women were not permitted to paddle, because the responsibility was so heavy. When the men had left the women and children anchored in the bay to do some reconnaissance on the land, a storm brewed and became treacherous. Wairaka stood, took up the paddle and said to the gods "Kia whakatāne au i ahau!" which means 'let me be as a man!' Her legacy is that she defied the lore for the future of our people. Indeed, Wairaka is a very important ancestor.

Visualisation

At this stage, the composer and choreographer can start thinking of the poi in its completed form. There are a range of decisions to make at this stage, most importantly is considering how the words, actions and choreography could best display the theme. Will there be many hits in the poi? Or would less hits and syncopation better fit the theme? In *Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa*, it was decided to include the men in the song at the very beginning of the first verse as it was important for them to show their support for the women in retracing the important qualities of Wairaka. Some of these included defying lore, strength and precociousness, difficult to show at a slower tempo.

Planning

Planning is essential to competitive poi. Here, the choreographer needs to think from the polished performance into short, teachable, and learnable snippets. A fixed performance date means specific milestones need to be plotted out realistically to ensure it gets to the stage. Other aspects that need planning are the chords, the 'hook', verses, chorus, and pre-chorus. Together they must build the narrative to an apex.

Resources

The obvious resources are poi, but implicit resources are the historical materials that need to be correct to be representative of the sub-tribal history. Subtribes sometimes have different versions of stories and the history needs to be checked with elders to ensure accuracy. During the composition of *Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa* the central character was another ancestress, Toanātini. In a short conversation with my elders, it soon became clear she was not an appropriate ancestor to personify in this format, and Wairaka emerged as the hero. Notably, the neighbouring tribe, Te Whakatōhea, believe their ancestress Muriwai to be the woman who saved the women and children that day. Regardless, it is important to ensure the history is underwritten by elders for sub-tribal credibility and fundamental to the judging table who are commissioned to follow-up on the facts.

Material Preparation

Historical materials, chord progression, and the overall sketch of the song need to be organized into a narrative with a clear through-line. The contemporary materials for poi (wool, sponge, scissors, plastic-bags, thread, glue) are easy to source, but take time to prepare. Some kapahaka teams purchase their poi ready-made, while others use the time of making poi as an opportunity for building relationships/connections (whakawhanaungatanga)

Pre-research

What learning can be transferred from the pre-production of poi to research? Like this brief outline of the pre-production phase of poi, the theme, conceptualization, visualization, planning, resources and material preparation of research is extremely important. Decide on the theme of your research, by considering and its place and function in academia. If your research is going into a journal as an article for instance, reading previous publication publications by the publishing organization can help build the concept. Planning and in particular, timing should be considered realistically so the reading phase will be sustained, focused, yet wide and current enough to be innovative. As a narrow plan to keep the research simple, one primary resource is closely considered and one secondary for counterpoint. Any further resources should be considered in relation to reaching the apex at the appropriate point of the project which could mean recruiting trusted people for critical tasks and/or feedforward (material preparation).

Mahi-toi: Doing the Art/Research

- Do
- Review/revisit concept
- Edit/re-edit
- Complete

Do

Compose the song; get the 'hook' into the chorus to ensure it is the catchiest segment, and potentially the most pleasurable to perform. Add the verses, generally a tone or two below the chorus, so that the song builds. Integrate the pre-chorus, if necessary. Put together a sketch of the actions; matching the hits, swings, and body movements with the words, and consider how the men may best be integrated into the choreography. This is the trial and error phase, and one must make mental notes about plans A, B, and C in case certain actions do not work or cannot be performed with grace level across the performing group. Present the song and actions to a trusted source or two, ideally with skills in poi. I had planned a beats section at the end of *Ngā Wāhine o Ngāti Awa*. This was a strategy because no group had performed one at any of the previous festivals, and it stood out amongst the others.

Review/Re-visit

Review the song, actions and choreography according to the feedforward, and whether it is at a level the group will be able to master in the allotted timeframe. Constantly refer back to the initial theme and concept, and make decisions about the feedforward to drive it towards them.

Edit

Seasoned performers are able to identify when words, harmonies, actions and choreography do not line up. They are exponentially meticulous about their mahi-toi. The audience, consisting of seasoned performers are considered closely during the editing stage, and is fundamental to getting the poi to the most competitive standard possible. Edit and make changes with the audience in mind.

Complete

The poi is performed for the intending group, then their learning begins. The words and tune of the song are learned, easily done if the tune and hook are simple and catchy. The actions are learned hit-by-hit, swing-by-swing in the order of the performance. These are drilled until uniform. Choreography is introduced, and the men are integrated to compliment the women's performance. Discipline is crucial when moving a poi item to the competitive stage. This can be the toughest phase emotionally because the order of the final women's line-up can be organized based on who performs the poi the best. Theoretically, women who execute the best poi performance require the least polishing work. There needs to be openness to adjusting elements if after extensive drilling, too many women cannot execute the moves. Complete the draft.

Research

What can be learned from the poi production process that can be used as part of a research method? As in poi, the research needs to be *done*. According to the co-ordinates in the research plan, search for keywords and phrases in the primary and secondary resources. Follow the rabbit holes and make short notes, particularly about what and who you discover for the first time, and particularly for trajectories that support and negate your view at the start (match up). These may encourage other readings. Be open to discuss the main findings with trusted interested parties for thorough feedforward (edit). Make the necessary mental adjustments to the concept according to the feedforward (review/revisit). Having completed the reading, what is your main point? What are the five main findings that you want to underline in this research? Why these points? Edit accordingly. Mistakes and all, complete the first draft of your publication (complete), then edit. Does it fit and flow together properly? Are your points covered, supported and highlighted in the draft? If so or if not, edit again.

Mahi-toi: Releasing the Art/Research

- Last looks
- Release
- Debrief

Last looks

By this stage, the group has learned and practiced the song, actions and choreography, and practices take place as noho (to stay, sleepover, sit), where all performers sleep at the marae (traditional sub-tribal residence) to gel the team together. Noho are generally supported by family members who work tirelessly in the kitchen to ensure the group focuses on getting the bracket polished. Harmonies are woven into the vocals to best emphasize, highlight and beautify certain words and aspects of the song. Close attention is paid to the levels of the poi so they appear tidy, well-drilled, and attractive as possible from every angle. This also extends to the exactness of the body such as toe points, swinging of the hips, the exact timing of head movements to show a consistent level of discipline. Performers will eventually practice in piupiu (flax kilts) to familiarize themselves with how the item will feel, sound and look, and to practice the very important return of poi back into the waistband (a dropped poi means the loss of valuable points). Last looks are the important dress rehearsal, where the whole bracket is performed for supportive critics, usually the extended family, a last opportunity for improvements. Sometimes dress rehearsals are recorded and the team engage in the analysis of their performance.

Release

Performing the poi on the competitive stage can be both gratifying and terrifying. This moment is an opportunity to see the audience's response, to convey the life-force (mauri) and spirit (wairua) of the sub-tribe. Wairua is the last component the performer brings to poi because she conjures up the qualities and characteristics of the hero represented in the song. She makes way in her skin for the ancestress to use her body for the duration of the performance. Performing on the competitive stage is

more often a rush and a relief. Months of sacrificing nights and weekends with family and friends, culminates in a twenty-seven-minute performance on stage. Because of this, coming off the stage is intensely emotional.

Debrief

Performers are their own worst critics, and each performance is an opportunity to take learnings from this campaign into the next. This could be as practical as plotting out the practice schedule better or organizing a roster of helpers in the kitchen, or to discuss funding applications or to conceptualize the bracket for the next campaign together.

I have only lightly sketched the process of getting a competitive poi to stage. Despite its brevity, it is easy to identify how intricate competitive poi is and the level of commitment required.

Post-research

The first draft of the research, in whatever form, is edited until there is an obvious narrative flow and the loose ends are tidied. Once the edits are complete, allow objective others to read it, and according to their trusted recommendations, make last edits (last looks). Release the article to the potential publishers and await feedback. Once received, make the recommended amendments. Celebrate one's accomplishment whilst making mental note of how the journey through to the next potential article will be improved through the learnings of the submitted work (debrief). Embrace the next research project.

Conclusion

This twofold article has only explored the potential of Mahi-toi. Its advancement relies on critical feed-forward by Māori arts scholars or researchers who may argue, debate, consider or apply it. Critiquing, questioning and rigorous testing are important components of developing Mahi-toi as a potential trajectory for creative people entering research, and vice versa. Mahi-toi practitioners are privy to procedures, rituals, structures and a specific language that academia can be enriched by, if given space. Mahi-toi such as poi are exhaustive practices that are heavily reliant on research, patience, clarity of mind and physical endurance. The poi overview was a simple sketch that cartographed some readers through a mahi-toi practice for the first time, and showed poi as a complex and multifaceted tradition, practice, performance and framework. At the same time, it aimed to proffer insights into the Māori world. Besides the framework, I also outlined important learnings that can be transferred from mahi-toi to arts research. The first is the need to connect with Te Kete Aronui, to breathe a concept to life, and to produce and analyse the piece using the three-pronged, three-dimensional production-phase format. The second learning is to use one's chosen mahi-toi as the basis of a robust, systematic research structure. These learnings were delineated to show one way traditional Māori artistic practices can be utilised to frame how Indigenous cultural concepts can help shape academia in the future.

Acknowledgements

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Curriculum Development and K-12 Challenges in the Philippines:
A Reflexive Case Analysis towards Redesigning Language and Literature
Education in College

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Abstract
Higher education in the Philippines has been challenged to adopt changes in the curriculum given the institutionalization of K-12 basic education program in the country. In this context, faculty and administrators of higher education institutions in the country needed to take proactive measures to redesign its curriculum that would meet the need of a new generation of learners and advance the thrusts of the school. This reflective paper presents the case of Dela Salle-College of Saint Benilde's English department and a critical analysis of its efforts to reinforce and advance its curricular offerings on language and literature that would meet the K-12 challenges come academic year 2018-2019. This scholarship applied qualitative techniques to review existing empirical works and pertinent institutional documents to develop a framework that guided the department in identifying new course offerings that are K-12 compliant. Also, the paper explores on the structural implication of K-12 developments to the department's organization and the need for retooling the faculty. The discussion in this paper offers an opportunity for faculty and school administrators to reexamine and reflect on their curriculum development efforts towards meeting curricular challenges by grounding it on a sound review of literature as basis of action and informed decisions.

Keywords: college curriculum, K-12, Philippines

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Introduction

In July 2012, Republic Act 10533 or the "Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013" established a new curriculum that extends basic education in the Philippines, requiring Kindergarten, and secondary education with two additional years for senior high school. With this development, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) through its Memorandum Order No. 20, Series of 2013, reformulated the general education curriculum in the tertiary level. Under the old college general education curriculum, a total of 15 units of language and literature courses were required for students to take, which were taught in English. CMO No. 20, Series of 2013, mandated a minimum of three units of communication instruction which can be taught in the local language or in English, in the new general education curriculum. It is reasoned that the language and literature courses that are part of the old college general education curriculum have been moved to the Senior High School curriculum and that remediation and redundancies are to be avoided in the new curriculum.

These changes have impact in the organization, programs and course offerings in the Higher Education Institutions in the Philippines. Consequently, the changes pose a question on how the three units of the CHED required three units of "Purposive Communication" course that replaced the 15 units of language and literature instructions, would suffice to meet the learning needs and professional competency requirement in the 21st century. This paper reflects on the curricular efforts of Dela Salle-College of Saint Benilde's English Area, under its school of Multidisciplinary Studies, to address the needs of 21st century learners, in the development of its required communication course and general education elective courses. This reflexive paper emphasizes on the importance of developing communication competencies of students in the new college general education curriculum.

K-12 Curriculum and Curriculum Changes in College Education

"The curriculum plays a centrally important role in designing the learner-centered school, since it is the essence of what is to be learned and the substance on which teaching, learning and assessment is [sic] based" (Dimmock, 2000, p. 76). Curriculum is defined in several ways based on the need, interest and problem that curriculum planners attend to. For Wiles, the curriculum is an outline of subject matter, plan for learning and instruction, learning experiences, and the outcomes that schools desire after instruction that is anchored on fundamental educational philosophies (2005). The curriculum is a written document that outlines the program of studies, the planned learning experiences that lead to the attainment of measurable ends which have socio-cultural and economic value to the learner when they undergo instruction (Henson, 2001).

By law, it is now the policy of the state (RA 10533) that:

"…every graduate of basic education shall be an empowered individual who has learned, through a program that is rooted on sound educational principles and geared towards excellence, the foundations for learning throughout life, the competence to engage in work and be productive, the ability to coexist in fruitful harmony with local and global communities, the capability to engage in

autonomous, creative, and critical thinking, and the capacity and willingness to transform others and one's self."

K-12 does not only enhance basic education in the country, by extending the years of education, but it also challenges the government, the educators, the society and its institutions to develop productive and responsible citizens who are ready to face the global challenges in our contemporary world. K-12 places Philippine Educational system at par with international standards (Bologna Accord, Washington Accord, ASEAN 2015) in both the number of years of education and quality as it emphasizes on building vital competencies of the individual learners which the society and the industry need in the 21st century.

With these changes, Philippine Tertiary Education is challenged to reinvent itself by re-engineering the curriculum of all its existing academic programs. Re-engineering the college curriculum demands reexamination of the inherent principles and current practices in college education. It brings every teacher and member of the academic community into the excruciating process of giving birth to an innovative and totally new K-12 compliant college curriculum for its program and course offerings. Curriculum development, in the context of K-12 zeroes to a *tabula rasa*, thus opening creative opportunities for academic stakeholders to collaborate in the process of redesigning and reengineering college education relevant for the 21st century learners.

In redesigning the K-12 compliant college curriculum, planners and designers need to reflect on one important question: *Will the three units of CHED mandated minimum requirement of purposive communication suffice to produce that globally competitive 21st century Lasallian graduate*? Literacy is fundamentally grounded on one's ability to understand and articulate concepts. The process of knowledge construction and understanding realities in the social world is grounded on one's capacity to use language (Wittgenstein, 2002) and language is a vehicle of communication. Hence, communication teachers will need to collaborate with other academic experts, industry professionals and the school administrators to emphasize and to assert the importance of developing the communication competencies of college students across disciplines. Administrators will have to decide on the value of teaching and learning communication for its students, and aligning communication-related courses in the new program curriculum.

Curriculum Development and Innovation in Education

Curriculum development is an integral process of making changes in instruction to bring about more significant changes in the lives and experiences of the learners (Henson, 1995). Planning is needed for curriculum development, and it should involve the teachers who are in direct contact with the learners and are informed through their relevant experiences with them. Planning is for the future, but it is impossible without the knowledge of the present conditions, the students, curriculum and the available resources (Fox, 2005). The faculty of DLS-CSB engaged in the task of developing the K-12 compliant curriculum for its various program offerings. This task required teachers, administrators and the technical committee on curriculum to take a reflexive stance in determining and designing the course offerings for the College's various academic programs.

Bruner articulated the need for transforming education through developing new constructs of instruction (1990), but changes in the curriculum can be impeded by several forces: discontinuity of leadership, poor vision about change, lack of preparation to change, lack of empirical knowledge, being conditioned in a comfort zone, conflicts in vision and ambiguity of goals and insufficient resources (Bosom & Crandall, 1991; cited in Henson, 1995). At the onset of curriculum development, curriculum designers may fail to address what is really needed by the learners, the society and the industry, particularly when they are misguided or unguided in their actions through poor leadership, when they do not see the big picture of the education they wish to provide the students, when they are not equipped with the knowledge and skills in curriculum development, when they consider only what is convenient and easy for them to develop, and when they are at a blind spot to overlook the role of other disciplines and subject matter experts, and when they decide uninformed or without empirical bases and theoretical groundings.

In theory there are four types of curriculum: the general curriculum which the government or its agencies prescribe, the program curriculum which the school stakeholders develop and submitted to the government for review and approval, the implemented curriculum which translates to instruction as defined in the course syllabus, and the hidden curriculum which consist of the other learning and the implication of instruction and all the other types of curriculum but which are not defined at all (Fajardo, 2011). The curriculum's rationale presents the fundamental reason for teaching; it justifies the need for any course or subject with a logical basis as set behind particular objectives and specific content (Gunter, Estes & Schwab, 1995).

The design and implementation of the curriculum are guided by the identified learning outcomes (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Hence, the rationale is implicit of the course's desired learning outcomes specific of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning. In their model, the rationale is drafted to consider the learning needs of students for a specific subject matter that contributes to the society and the student's integration to the society. The subject matter is taught to achieve meaningful goals and objectives that are relevant to both the students and the society. The rationale of instruction clarifies the content and the objectives of teaching a particular subject that should result to meaningful learning for the students to contribute to the society. Rationalizing education is presented in figure 1.
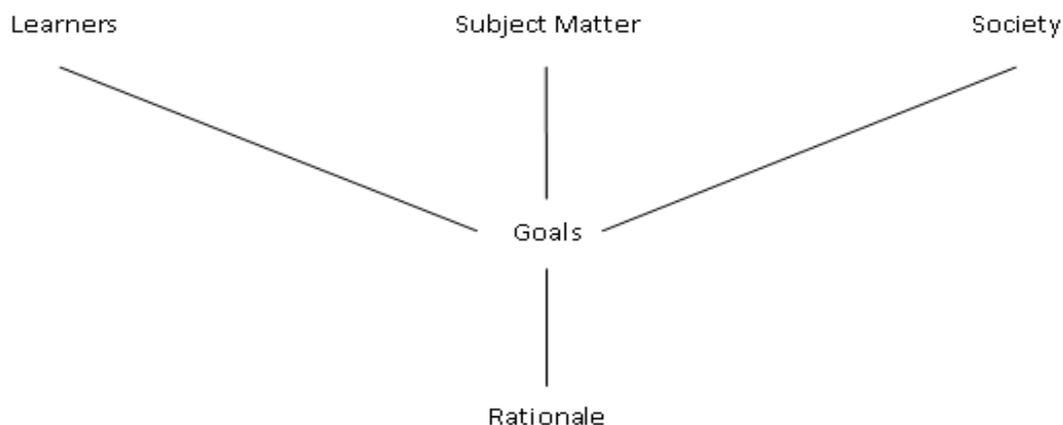
Figure 1: Contextualized Curriculum Rationale (Gunter, et.al., 1995)

Figure 1 suggests that curriculum designers should be able to justify their decision to create and offer what is necessary for the students to learn relative to the needs of the society and the industry, and the identified competencies that the General or National Curriculum prescribes and according to the philosophies and guiding principles of the school. The general education curriculum which is a menu of courses is not simply an idea lacking rationale, and it must consider interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary perspectives (CMO No. 20, series of 2013) if it seeks to produce empowered and globally competitive graduates. With the College's thrust to deliver innovative education for the 21st century learners, curriculum design today should look beyond what the school, its teachers and its learners are currently doing well with clear vision of great ideas of the future put into the practice now ("Innovation in Education", 2013).

K-12 challenges the community of college teachers to innovate and be creative. Fraser, on developing innovation in education posits that:

> "There is a challenge for teachers to see the situation with fresh eyes and to engage in looking at what is possible, what is probable and what is preferable for schooling in the future. Teachers will be crucial in shaping the desirable futures for teaching and learning. This will require conceptualizing teaching as the learning profession in which teachers engage in problem identification, problem solving, analysis and research within the context of the classroom" (p.1, 2007).

Innovation in education requires the teachers' collective creativity "to bring new thinking and solutions to the problems facing education and to engage in professional and system learning" to be involved in "seeking and discovering new perspectives, which requires a problem-solving capacity and capability" and in "engaging them in problem identification and problems solving through generating, testing and developing ideas" (p.3, 2007). This implies that teachers shall perform an active role in the process of innovating education right from the beginning of curriculum development and continuing in the curriculum's implementation. Innovation is vital to

address the learning needs of 21st century learners to develop in them the necessary competencies in a globalizing world that has shifted to service orientation.

Lasallian Graduates of the 21st Century: adult learners, diverse, multicultural, competent

CHED Prescribed/ Institutional New-Gen Ed Curriculum & New Program Curriculum

Socially responsible and globally-competitive professionals with 21st Century Skills

GOALS
Content & Competency Standards

LGP, ELGAs, CSB Vision, mission, thrusts & philosophy reflected in the course description, content, methodologies, outcomes and assessment and ideals of 21st century education anchored on inclusive & innovative LC principles

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework for Developing a K-12 Compliant College Curriculum

Figure 2, illustrates a curriculum with the emphasis on communication, which English Area will offer as courses that enable the students to become effective communicators who are critical thinkers, life-long learners, academically excellent and socially responsible (Rivera, 2010). These are the Expected Lasallian Graduate Attributes that the area desires for the Benildean students, and they are further extended to address 21st century job-skills demands.

While the enhanced basic education, as articulated in RA 10533 and in the implementing procedures of DepEd (Department of Education), aims to produce work and college-ready individuals, college education must seek to produce globally competitive graduates who are equipped for key professional positions in the industry, as well as strongly driven to succeed and continue higher learning. A group of academic experts and industry players identified three skills-sets expected of 21st century learners: 1) learning and innovation skills, 2) information, media and technology skills, and 3) life and career skills (www.21stcenturyskills.org, 2006).

To transform learners into effective communicators, there is collaborative commitment needed among faculty members to teach for results. The primary and the secondary graduate attributes are integrated to enable learners to acquire transferable knowledge and skills that will make them communicate competently. These attributes are understood to be fundamental in preparing students to meet the communication needs of students in their area of discipline, in their profession and in life. Thus, the graduate attributes should guide the faculty members in planning, designing and delivering instruction to be able to transform learners into effective communicators.

From Language Skills Development to Strengthening Communication Competencies

One may argue that developing communication competencies can be embedded in the specific courses of a program. However, answering to the challenge of innovating education must be evidence-based and not just data driven (Fraser, 2007) likewise, it cannot just be based on mere assumptions. Another argument could be that K-12 addresses the development of communication competencies in the enhanced basic education, but it should be understood that what is down there are the fundamental competencies appropriate for basic education and that need to advance discipline-specific communication competencies are not targeted even in the K-12 enhanced basic education curriculum (see matrix of K-12 Language Arts competencies).

The competencies expected of the 21st century graduates are evidently dependent and are influenced by the learner's ability to effectively communicate in various contexts or settings. Bradford posits that "College communication skills are the baseline methodologies that enable a learner to know how information is created, whether it is written or spoken, in any number of informational media" (2011, p.4). In K-12 context, communication courses for college students will have to be redefined in innovative ways putting into context the discipline specific competencies, with the interdisciplinary approach of developing language fluency and literary appreciation aligned to the aims of strengthening the students' core communication competencies of reading, speaking, listening, writing, viewing and using information communication technology and the contemporary media.

Bradford (2011) cites recent studies that established the importance of developing communication competencies of college students for them to function academically and to integrate and succeed in the workplace. Moneyworth (2011 cited in Bradford, 2011) found that reading, writing, emailing, speaking and listening skills of students are essential skills in any given profession (cited in Bradford 2011. Kay (2011) found that writing skills is the most highly rated skill employers wanted for their employees (cited in Bradford, 2011). Dykstra (2008) established that communication skills are important life-skills which employers seek in the ideal candidate (cited in Bradford, 2011). According to Murray (2010), communication skills are composed of four components including grammar competency, language proficiency, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatics (cited in Bradford, 2011). With these elements to be considered in the development of college students' communication competency, more communication courses should be integrated in the curriculum, and that the practice of communication skills should be embedded in the discipline-specific courses.

In a local study that correlated the grades of the CSB students in English and Math to their GPAs it was found out that the English grades of students has indirect effect to their GPA (Bacay, 2005). This implies that improvement in the students' performance in English subjects has implications in their overall performance. Thus, it can be taken from the results that communication courses which CSB offers are important in the students' academic growth. In another local study, it was found out that most teachers agree that the English area's lecture-laboratory set up should be pursued primarily because it provides more learning opportunities for students, given that they are engaged in extended learning hours, and that these extended subjects enable students to master content standards and demonstrate competency standards (Rivera & Delos

Santos, 2011). Rubin, Graham and Mignerey (1990) described that communication competency vary across the years of a college student's experience and identified that communication apprehension, communication courses, and extra-curricular communication experience are indicators of success in college.

Communication Competency across Disciplines in the 21st Century

"Communication competence refers to the knowledge of effective and appropriate communication patterns and the ability to use and adapt that knowledge in various contexts" (Cooley & Roach, 1984, p.25). Communication competency is a knowledge-skills set that enables the individual to effectively communicate in various situations.   The National Communication Association identified ten basic competencies that college students should be able to do in terms of speaking and listening to help them in academic, professional and civic contexts: 1) State ideas clearly 2) Communicate ethically, 3) Recognize when it is appropriate to communicate, 4) Identify their communication goals, 5) Select the most appropriate and effective medium for communicating, 6) Demonstrate credibility, 7) Identify and manage misunderstandings, 8) Manage conflict, 9) Be open-minded about another's point of view, 10) Listen attentively (Morreale, Rubin & Jones, 1998).

21st century skills refer to transferrable knowledge that can be applied in various situations: it contains both content and procedural knowledge "to answer and solve problems", and the core are cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies (National Research Council, 2012, p.23). *Forbes Magazine* identified 10 hirable skills, and three of these have direct associations to communication, namely critical thinking, active listening, sales and marketing (Casserly, 2012). The Harvard University Competency Dictionary (2011) defines communication as "clearly conveying information and ideas through a variety of media to individuals or groups in a manner that engages the audience and helps them understand and retain the message" which translates to be applicable into 24 specific job activities. Carnevale (2013) reviewed and analyzed recent O*NET findings on job demands for knowledge competencies at all occupations and found that customer and personal services and English language are pervasively in demand in 55% of all jobs in the United States. He also found out that "communications skills such as comprehension, critical thinking, speaking and active listening are skills that employers highly value" in 48% of all jobs (2013, p.8). Likewise, Carnevale describes that:

> "…five out of the top twelve skills that are most valued in the economy are essentially communicative in nature. The ability to listen, interpret, follow instructions, and communicate instructions to other people, both orally and written appear time and again in various jobs – even those that require relatively lower level of education" (2013, p.8).

Global competitiveness in the 21st century requires learners to demonstrate critical thinking, creativity and innovation, and collaborative skills and communication competence, which have overlapping functions to fulfill with each other (National Education Association, 2013). Communication competencies which includes reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and extended to media and ICT literacy and stresses language proficiency and comprehension of oral and written texts, are

inarguably important 21st century skills. Developing communication competency is integral to developing collaborative skills (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010). College students need ample training and time to strengthen their communication competencies to be globally competitive professionals.

Table 1: General Education Requirement across Top World Universities (Source: Recent university online prospectus)

#	Top Universities	Ranking QS Score	World Rank	Communication & English		Arts & Humanities	
				General Education Courses	Discipline-Specific Courses	General Education Courses	Discipline-Specific Courses
1	Massachussets Institute of Technology	100.0	1	2	2	2	6
2	University of Cambridge	99.0	3	0	0	0	0
3	Swiss Federal Institute of Technology	94.3	12	0	1	0	0
4	University of Toronto	91.3	17	2	4	0	3
5	National University of Singapore	89.4	24	2	3	2	2
6	University of Hong Kong	88.6	26	1	0	1	0
7	Australian National University	88.5	27	1	1	1	1
8	Ecole Normale Superieure, Paris	87.8	28	0	1	0	2
9	The University of Tokyo	85.7	32	2	1	2	0
10	Seoul National University	84.1	35	2	1	1	1
	Average/Total	90.9	20.5	1.2	1.4	0.9	1.5
	Philippine equivalent			3.6	4.2	2.7	4.5

Table 1 shows the general education requirement for communication, language, literature and arts in 10 countries around the world which top in the QS world ratings. It shows that an average these top-ranking universities in the world require their students to take general education subjects in communication, language and the arts, equivalent to 15 units of credit in the Philippines, except that of University of Cambridge in the UK. Data supports the need to emphasize communication in Philippine colleges to be globally competitive and at par with international standards.

Harvard University do not require their students to take up general education courses, but in their dictionary competencies (2012) the University identifies communication as one of its graduate competencies with identified 24 specific job applications and targeting key actions such as organizing communication, maintaining audience attention, adjusting to the audience, ensuring understanding, adherence to accepted conventions, and comprehension of communication from others.

In local setting, Ateneo de Manila extends its core curriculum from old 63 units up to 89 units, with 48 units under Humanities where 12 units are English subjects focusing on writing and literature and 3 units of modern language (Vilches, 2013). De La Salle

University is seeking to put up a School of Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies to handle general education courses. These developments in other schools suggest the value that top autonomous universities in the country are placing on communication courses as component of their general education curriculum.

The Current Challenge and Opportunities

Ocampo (2012) outlines the basic communication competencies defined in the K-12 enhanced basic education curriculum which were identified for a K-12 graduate entering the industry as skilled worker or to make them ready for college, as per the grades 1-10. Those competencies were similar to the competencies in the required communication skills course in the old Gen-Ed Curriculum. With emphasis on competency building in the integrated language arts in the K-12 curriculum, high school graduates are expected to be ready for college and the workplace. Yet, there are still many other communication competencies that are required in higher education and that of the professionals, which basic K-12 education do not address.

The integrated language arts curriculum of K-12 is basic for the skilled worker and what is expected for them in their first year of college, but they not align much to the communication competencies of professionals in the 21st century. Moreover, it shows that there are other communication competencies needed to be developed among college students, which cannot be all demonstrated upon completing the three-unit Purposive Communication course.

In table 2, only five (33%) out of the 15 domains of integrated arts learning content standards emphasizes higher order thinking skills to target metacognition. The rest targets lower order thinking skills (Bloom, Furst, Hill & Krathwoll, 1956) or those that are categorized as level 1 and level 2 objectives based in the Revised Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwoll, 2001; Krathwoll, 2002). The data in table 2 also inform that the integrative language arts curriculum in grades 1-10 are not job-specific, and that development of communication competencies are limited to conceptual knowledge acquisition and applications. The content standards exhibited in Table 2 for Oral Communication and Reading and Writing informs that the communication competencies that will be targeted in those domains are yet to be developed. Thus, college communication courses, in the context of K-12 must spiral the learning experience to advance the communication competencies of the learners to be professionally fit.

Table 2: Content & Competency Standards of Integrated Language Arts in Grades 1-10

Domains	Content Standards	Performance Standards	Levels of Knowing
Oral language	Understand the standards of English	Facility to understand spoken discourse and to talk with others	Conceptual and procedural application
Phonological Skills	Metacognitively understand the composition of words	Demonstrate phonological awareness in syllables and phonemes	Metacognition and conceptual application
Book and Print Knowledge	Understand knowledge of the alphabet, concepts about print, functions of print	Use literary and information texts for independent study and reading for pleasure	Conceptual application
Alphabet knowledge	Understand the features of each letter that makes it different	Recognize names, sounds of letters and write legibly	Remembering concepts
Phonics and Word Recognition	Recognize words and construct meaning about them	Use sight word recognition or phonic, analyze complex letter combinations	Conceptual application
Fluency	Understand the importance of acquiring a high level of fluency in English	Reads aloud grade level texts effortlessly without hesitation and with proper expression	Conceptual and procedural application
Spelling	Understand that words are formed with letters	Spell words with two or more syllables correctly	Conceptual and procedural application
Writing/ Composition	Understand the different formats to write for a variety of audiences and purposes	Express their ideas effectively in formal and informal compositions	Procedural understanding and metacognition
Handwriting	Understand the acceptable and comprehensible handwriting style	Write legibly in cursive writing	Conceptual and procedural application
Grammar Awareness	Understand that English language has a set of structural rules	Demonstrate grammatical awareness and communicate effectively	Procedural application
Vocabulary	Understand the importance of acquiring vocabulary	Acquire, study and use English vocabulary in various contexts	Conceptual and metacognitive application
Listening Comprehension	Understand the role of listening in comprehension	Activates prior knowledge conceptually related to texts	Conceptual application
Reading Comprehension	Understand the psycholinguistic nature of reading, and monitor one's comprehension	Nothing identified	Conceptual understanding

Attitude	Understand the significance of interpreting social meaning of linguistic varieties	Demonstrate a love for reading stories and confidence in performing literacy-related activities	Conceptual and metacognitive application
Study Skills	Understand that there are an array of study skills which may tackle the process of organizing and taking in new information and retaining information	Chooses and utilizes discrete technique and applies them to all or most field of study	Procedural application and metacognition

An innovative curriculum looks at the ideals of education, considers the future beyond what is existing for the learners, the society, and the world (Fraser, 2007). K-12 in basic education is illustrated as spiral progression of learning. The spiraling process extends to college education to meet the new industry demands. There are building blocks to learning. Literacy and numeracy, and the competency to solve problems in scientific ways are three of those essentials to demonstrate critical thinking, along with the knowledge domains of social science and humanities. 21st century skills include interpersonal skills and cultural competencies; it also stresses on media literacy and functional ICT skills. The K-12 curriculum should make a senior high school graduate ready for college and for the skilled work, but college education itself demands academic specific communication competencies for the learners to succeed, and that college education needs to develop job-specific and professional communication competencies in its graduates.

Conclusion

The institutionalization of K-12 in the Philippines came forth with both challenges and opportunities. This development put a four-year lag resulting to a decline in the College enrolment effective academic year 2016-2017. This led to the displacement of some faculty teaching general education. In a span of two years from AY 2016-2017 to AY 2017-2018, there has been a steady loss in the number of English teachers in the area. Upon implementation of the new college general education curriculum, English teachers will continuously be affected given the decline from 15 units to three units curricular offering. To this challenge, the English Area took a proactive stance to design six new courses that can be offered as electives.

Structurally, the English Area is seen to be transforming with breadth and depth. That the English Area will not be limited to emphasize language skills, speech skills, technical writing skills and knowledge of literature. It will cater to development of 21st century communication competencies along with making the experience of arts and literature more meaningful to the individual learner, the society and the world. Thus, the English Area can be seen evolving as the Communication Arts and Humanities Department which is aligned to the charge of the Commission on Higher Education for general education. It will be proactive and synergistic to integrate the development of communication competencies, literacy in the arts and literature, media and ICT literacy across the years of education of the Benildean learners.

Strengthening the communication competency of college students is more important for the 21st century profession more than ever. This is developed further in the integration of language instruction for communicative functions with emphasis on International English or Global English. The study of Literature remains important as well as this expands the knowledge of the learner on world realities and encourages creativity, imagination and critical thinking which are valuable for students think with depth, speak sensibly and expand their vocabulary while appreciating cultures and what literature contributes in human formation.

Hence, English Area developed its CHED required Purposive Communication and six general education electives. Four of these electives emphasize strengthening the students' communication competencies through and two other courses align literature instruction with the development of practical communication skills. The department will offer in its new curriculum, Intercultural Communication, Mindful Communication, Communication in the New Media, Literary Others, Literature and Popular Culture, and Art of Story Telling, as general education electives. These courses have been evaluated to meet the thrusts of the school and the required outcomes and competencies as specified by the Commission on Higher Education. Teachers have been engaged in several activities for retooling and preparation in teaching these new courses. To prepare the faculty in teaching these subjects, workshops had been scheduled for them to understand the new courses and identify effective strategies in teaching them.

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The Gap between Curriculum, Assessments, and National Standards of Vietnamese English Language Teacher Education

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Abstract

This study is to understand the extent to which the provincial Vietnamese English Language Teacher Education curriculum and assessments are aligned with national standards. The study used a mixed-method with the data sources from policy documents, a survey, and interviews conducted with the lecturers and administrators from two provincial ELTE institutions in the North of Vietnam. The initial data results revealed (i) a low alignment level of curriculum and MOET language proficiency standards, and (ii) a moderate alignment level of assessments and the knowledge and skills clarified in the curriculum. To address these gaps, it is necessary for the curriculum and assessments to be re-focused on national standards and on the social demands.

Keywords: standard, assessment, curriculum, English language teacher education, alignment

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1. Introduction and background of the study

To respond new requirements of the international and global context, Vietnam considers education as a top national policy and the foundation for the future development of the country (Mai & Jun, 2013). The Vietnamese government has made many changes to educational policy to prepare best for the educational development in the new era. Of the largest investments, the project for *"Teaching and Learning Foreign Language in the National Formal Educational system in the period of 2008-2020"* (Government, 2008; Vietnamese Prime Minister, 2008) is considered the most significant change for English language teaching and learning across all levels. Following this national project, ELTE institutions have more and more strategic plans to develop their programs, seeking to meet the requirements of the social demands and the global changes (Hoang, 2013; T. A. Nguyen, 2009; V. K. Nguyen & Tran, 2013).

As has just been introduced, Vietnamese ELTE is receiving an increasing amount of investment, not only in terms of finance and resources, but also in developing human resources; however, it is still perceived as a system that has more challenges than opportunities. The question raised whether the ELTE system meets national standards, and more broadly, the social demands of Vietnam. This study aimed to examine (i) the extent to which the institutional ELTE curriculum is aligned with national standards, and (ii) the extent to which the institutional assessments are aligned with national standards.

2. Literature review

The study reviews international and national scholars about the theorising and evaluating of standards, assessments, curricula, and alignment between and among these components. It also discusses the current issues related to these major educational components in ENL, ESL, and EFL countries. It specifically identifies the alignment of national standards with institutional implementation across a number of countries.

Curriculum, the roles, and the factors of a quality curriculum are the focus of a great deal of research. It is defined as "a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program" (Nunan, 1993) or "the total effort of the school to bring about desired outcomes in school and out-of-school situations" (Taba, 1962). It is considered the heart of schooling (Lunenburg, 2011).

Alignment is a key goal of education, and it attracts a variety of research. Within the education context, there are various definitions of this term. Alignment has been defined as follow: "Two or more system components are aligned if they are in agreement or match each other" (Webb, 1997, p. 2). Alignment has been defined as the extent to which curricular expectations and assessments are in agreement and work together to provide guidance for educators' efforts to facilitate students' progress toward desire academic outcomes (Roach, Niebling, & Kurz, 2008).

This study focuses on scholars relating to alignment of curricula, assessments, and standards. International studies suggested various degrees of alignment between

standards required by national organizations, and ELTE curriculum and assessment system. Within this literature, it can be seen that misalignment among educational elements is a key challenge for many EFL countries, including Vietnam.

A gap between curriculum and outcomes or standards within the Vietnamese pre-service teacher education programs have been reported. Vietnamese pre-service teacher education often fails to provide graduates with essential work skills, such as communication, planning, teamwork, and interpersonal skills. This gap is largely the result of traditional university teaching and learning methods (Tran, 2013). Some Vietnamese institutional certifications do not reflect the true capacity of their graduates. These institutions are considered to have more focus on their students' obtaining a certification, instead of reflecting their students' true level of attainment (Mai & Jun, 2013).

Alignment between educational aspects is the final goal of any educational system. However, most countries face challenges during the transition process from national standards to state or institutional implementation. Institutional outcomes have been set up and presented in the curricula, but they are not always achieved. Curricula perhaps do not align with the institutional outcomes or with national standards. Assessments may be not a good representative of curricula content. National policies may have misinterpretation when redefined at an institutional or faculty level. A low alignment of ELTE factors is a significant concern for the international perspectives, especially in EFL countries, included Vietnam.

3. Research design

To address the research questions, and based on the literature, the study is designed using the mixed-method, with three tools of data collection, namely policy documents, survey, and interviews. Data triangulation is offered to ensure the consistency of the research findings. National and institutional documents relevant to ELTE standards, assessments, and curricula have been collected and analyzed. The survey has been conducted with lecturers and administrators within two provincial Northern institutions who are housing ELTE program. Six semi-structured interviews with administrators and experienced lecturers have also been conducted to obtain information that could not be expected to attain from the survey.

4. Interview data analysis

4.1 The interview respondents

The study conducted six interviews with administrators and lecturers within two representative Northern provincial tertiary institutions, whose ELTE programs attracted a large number of students every cohort. The interview participants are either dean, vice-dean of faculty or experienced lecturers, who are directly working with ELTE program at the time of interviewing. The informants all get involved in curriculum management and/or curriculum development. They also take tasks relating to assessments. The interviewee profiles are shown in the table below:

Table 1: Interviewees demographics

No.	Roles		Qualifications	ELTE Experiences	Gender	Curriculum Managing	Curriculum designing and developing	Assessment development and management
	Administrators	Lecturers						
1.	√		Doctorate degree	25 years	M	√		√
2.	√	√	Doctorate degree	17 years	F	√	√	√
3.		√	Master's degree	8 years	F		√	√
4.	√	√	Master's degree	11 years	F		√	√
5.		√	Master's degree	6 years	M		√	√
6.		√	Master's degree	5 years	F		√	√

4.2 Curriculum and language proficiency standards

High aim standards

According to the national project, the C1 level, level 5 in six Common Reference Levels of CEFR[1], is a new requirement for graduation from Vietnamese ELTE bachelor program (Vietnamese Prime Minister, 2008). The C1 level standard of language proficiency has brought much concern to almost ELTE administrators and lecturers, especially at provincial institutions.

According to over half the interview participants, the C1 level is quite a high aim standard. This is concern of not only lecturers but also administrators. An instructional leader emphasized that the C1 level of language proficiency is a high requirement, even to her colleagues, not only to her students (Interviewee No.4). One vice-dean of ELTE faculty confirmed *it is impractical for 100% students to achieve the C1, not only for our provincial students, but even students in large metropolitan institutions"*(Interviewee No.2). Sharing this concern, an EFL faculty dean expressed he hoped *"the national standard of language proficiency would lower to the B2 level (level four), so that my students could try to attain"* (Interviewee No.1).

Students' language proficiency poor entry levels

Participating lecturers and instructional leaders emphasized that students' poor entry levels of language proficiency prevent them from achieving the C1 level standard. As a young lecturer shared, *"The C1 level is too difficult for the children to attain"* (Interviewee No.3). In addition, this lecturer explained that her students' language proficiency now is lower than level one. One instructional leader also stressed that her students' starting level is poor. The students' background knowledge is limited (Interview No.2).

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[1] CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Additionally, in the words of an administrator, who has over 30 years of working for ELTE program:

> *Our institution located in a North mountain region, our students' entry levels are poor, and it is a common issue of our Vietnamese country. For example, this academic school year 2016, the average grade of English is 3.5… We must accept this… to exist and to fit with the actual Northern mountainous condition, when the MOET standard is fixed… On average English entry grade is 3.5.. However, some students achieved some priority policies, their English entry grade maybe 1.0 … I mean that students' entry level is poor, when they have priority policies, and their entry level is much poorer* (Interviewee No.1)

More than half of the participating lecturers indicated that their current ELTE curriculum does not well align with MOET English language proficiency standard, because the curricula is not designed based on MOET standards. The current curricula are assessed to involve many non-language courses, and curricula do not provide enough language major courses. Most of interviewees complain about the lower number of major language courses compared to that of foundation knowledge courses (n = 3; Interviewees No.01, No.03, and No.04). It is highlighted that in comparison to the number of English language practice courses, the number of theoretical courses relating to Psychology, Mark-Lenin and Cultures is much higher (Interviewee No.04). It is perceived that institutions cannot change the MOET required courses, even non-language courses (Interviewees 01, 02, 03, and 04). The interview participants complained, *"The MOET required courses are a large fixed part of the curriculum which institutions and faculty cannot change"* (Interviewees No.01 and No.03)

In sum, the majority of lecturers and administrators did not find a high level of alignment between their institution curriculum and MOET standards of language proficiency skills. The participants reported their being pessimistic with the students' poor entry levels of English language proficiency. They also emphasized their concern about the insufficient amount of time for language practice, and they believed this makes students difficult to attain the English language proficiency requirement.

4.3 Assessments and curriculum

When asking lecturers and instructional leaders about their perceptions of their current assessments, many worries have been shared. The most serious concern is that assessments do not match the curriculum intent. The participants also reported their being pessimistic that assessments cannot assess exactly students' levels.

Participants reported their being concern about both assessment content and form, that they cannot assess knowledge or skills specified in the curriculum. A young lecturer complained, *"the tests used now have gaps with what are taught and what are to be taught"* (Interviewee No.06). She confirmed that the tests do not match the current curriculum, in terms of both knowledge and skills. In the voice of an instructional leader, *"Speaking course includes a variety of skills, like monologues, dialogues, problem-solving, etc. but the current tests only cover productive monologues"* (Interviewee No.04). This informant added, *"The curriculum now aims developing students' capacity; however, current theoretical-based tests are not based on students' capacity. I mean tests do not match curriculum intent."* In addition, another lecturer commented, *"assessment content only requires the reproduction of*

knowledge. The paper-tests cannot cover the use of authentic application of knowledge relating to real life and the world of their future work" (Interviewee No.03).

The participants also identified that their institutional assessments cannot assess exactly their students levels. The most common comment is that there is a variety of challenges when designing and organizing assessments, and assessments thus cannot define the students' true capacity or levels. For example, as a lecturer reported, *"We have some difficulties, for example, insufficient time to assess a large number of students, a lack of testing devices in the testing venues… Speaking assessment forms cannot generally assess students' speaking skills* (Interviewee No.05). His colleague also added, *"The current Note-taking assessment forms cannot assess the students' true levels, as they are in the same form of Listening tests"* (Interviewee No.06).

In sum, there seems not to be a close link between assessments and curriculum intent. Both the assessment content and form are perceived not to match with knowledge or skills specified in the curriculum. Difficulties in developing and organizing assessments, as well as much concern of the participants that assessments cannot exactly assess students' true levels have been clearly reported.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

After sharing the perception about gaps between curriculum and national standards of language proficiency, most of the informants recommended reduce the time amount allocated for foundation knowledge courses, and spend more time on English language major courses instead. The most common comment is *"cut off or reduce the foundation or non-language courses"* and *"more time should be offered to language courses"* (n = 4). The participants added, *"… curriculum now has just four terms for English language practice, it should have more. Maybe students need six terms to attain the required standards"* (a voice of a vice-dean, (a voice of a young lecturer – interviewee No.02), or *"the non-language courses like Translation, Cultures, Second foreign language … should be removed… As I see after graduation, actually, students never use second foreign language"* (a voice of a young lecturer – interviewee No.06).

Relating to institutional assessment concerns, as well as a mismatch between current assessments and knowledge, skills specified in the curriculum, some suggestions for more standard-based assessments have been made. Using various forms of assessments is the most common suggestion. Evaluating assessments after using is also suggested by half of the interviewing participants.

The initial findings indicated that the link between curricula, assessments and standards was widely perceived as problematic. The assessments did not align with the knowledge or skills clarified in the curriculum; and the curriculum did not match MOET standards of the graduates' language proficiency. In order to address these gaps, all curriculum stakeholders should be encouraged to engage on process of negotiation and collaboration on the development of vision for change. The lecturers should have more autonomy to design and develop curriculum to be more standards-based. The assessments should also be re-developed to have a stronger focus on both standards and social performance demands. The institutions should invest more on

assessment development, for example, allow assessment developers to spend more money and time on assessment tasks, and have assessment evaluation after each cohort.

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Exploring Vietnamese EFL Teacher Educators' Professional Development in the Context of the National Foreign Language Policy

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Abstract

Teachers' professional development (PD) is viewed as the centre of educational reforms in many countries. As key agents in EFL education in the current foreign language policy initiated by the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project (Project 2020), Vietnamese EFL teacher educators have undertaken a wide range of PD activities to meet the top-down requirements of both Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and their teacher education institutions (TEIs). However, teacher educators tended to receive insufficient guidelines and support, regarding alignment of their PD practice and policy requirements at both system levels. This paper outlines an empirical research on Vietnamese teacher educators' perceptions of professional development alignment in the eight largest public tertiary teacher education institutions across Vietnam. Findings from a survey on 144 teacher educators indicate coherence between institutional and Ministry of Education and Training (MOET)'s requirements, and between institutional requirements and teacher educators' PD. Yet teacher educators perceived a less effective connect between their PD practice and MOET's policies. This calls for strategic plans to empower teacher educators' PD and promote PD alignment, regarding policy innovation and provision of support. Given the centrality of effective EFL instruction to many contexts, and the important role PD plays in teacher development and student outcomes, this research offers significant insights for a range of stakeholders such as EFL researchers, policy-makers, tertiary governance, EFL institutions and educators across all educational levels.

Keywords: Professional Development, Teacher Education, EFL Teacher Educators, Language Policy, Policy Alignment

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Introduction

Professional development (PD) of teachers being well acknowledged in recent research (Desimone, 2009). International studies cover conceptualisation of PD, features of a quality PD activity, models and stages of teachers' on-going development, etc. in different contexts (Borko, 2004; Broad & Evans, 2006; Caena, 2011; Casale, 2011; Combs, 1965; Darling-Hammond, 2005; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011; Day & Sachs, 2005; Fraser, Kennedy, Reid, & Mckinney, 2007; Ganser, 2000; Guskey, 2002; Hustler, 2003; Kennedy, 2005; Offices of Development Effectiveness, 2015; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). However, there is little information on how teacher educators develop professionally and how they perceived PD alignment at different system levels. Recently this topic has become a focus of interest (Korthagen, 2000; Koster & Degerink, 2001) and call for research and documentation in the field (Loughran, 2014; Smith, 2003).

In Vietnam, education and teacher education are experiencing a rapid transformation, with current language policy directly impacting EFL educators and their PD. In order to increase the quality of foreign language education, particularly English language teaching (ELT), The National Foreign Languages 2020 Project (also known as Project 2020) involves massive innovation and expertise from an array of authorities and institutions (Government of Vietnam, 2008). Both MOET and a number of qualified EFL teacher education institutions (TEIs) have been deemed responsible for providing strategic PD programs for over 86,000 educators across education levels. This newly-assigned top-down task has created pressure for EFL teacher educators at TEIs, who directly engage in training high quality pre-service EFL teachers and evaluating current in-service EFL teachers' language competencies (Nguyen, 2010). Teacher educators needed to grow professionally for both their own sake and for their impacts on EFL teacher education. However, these EFL teacher educators tended to receive insufficient guidelines and provision. They seemed confused about their PD practice in association with policy alignment at both MOET and institutional levels.

Drawing on survey data of 144 Vietnamese EFL teacher educators (coded as R001 – R144) across the eight largest public TEIs in eight different sub-regions in Vietnam, this paper highlights teacher educators' perceptions of PD alignment in the transformation contexts. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the survey data address the multi-dimensional relation of teacher educators' PD, institutional PD requirements, and MOET's PD requirements, which is under-researched in Vietnamese contexts.

Vietnamese EFL Teacher educators' perceptions of PD alignment were examined via their degree of agreement with five statements about PD alignment at both institutional and ministerial levels, as well as their further comments and/or explanations. Participants revealed positive responses to all the statements, with the mean scores ranging between 2.69 and 3.11. While participants' PD aligned with both their institution's and MOET's PD requirements, their PD complied more with institutional PD (N = 114, M = 3.11, SD = .486) than with MOET's PD requirements (N = 113, M = 2.96, SD = .573). A detailed description of participants' explanations for their perceptions of PD alignment and provision is presented in the sections that follow.

Teacher educators' perceptions of PD alignment at institutional levels

A major finding was that teacher educators' PD was perceived to be closely associated with institutional requirements. Participants confirmed that as a teacher educator at their institution, they had to be qualified for the teaching profession and fully understand their professional roles. For this reason, all the PD programs participants had undertaken by far aimed to facilitate their own development as well as meeting the institutional requirements for staff development.

The alignment originated from teacher educators' activism in undertaking PD to meet the institution's requirements. Participants had an understanding of institutional requirements (66.67%) and their own PD needs (17.78%), as well as actively engaging in PD programs delivered by their institution (28.89%). Participants were self aware of developing their professional practices, skills and knowledge (R017, R023 & R138) via workshop and training programs (R118). Their PD awareness was also emphasised when participant R14 stated: "I always make every single attempt to undertake PD, learn from colleagues and seriously participate in all institutional activities." Participant R144 believed that PD facilitated her to improve instructional quality and content knowledge; as a result, she could continuously learn to meet the institutional standards.

Most of participants understood that their institution required them to develop professionally, with the inclusion of teacher educators' PD in institutional development strategies. Their institution also required teacher educators' "research capacity enhancement" (R067), "degree accreditation" (R066), and "adaptation to institutional innovation" (R125). Approximately 18 % of participants indicated that the institution was deemed to offer most PD programs for teacher educators. These programs were evaluated to be "diverse", "context-based" and "relevant" to both the institution's objectives and teacher educators' needs (R026, R101, R122 & R143).

Teacher educators' perceptions of PD alignment at ministerial levels

Teacher educators also tended to agree that their PD aligned with MOET's PD requirements for EFL teacher educators. Explanations for this alignment varied, yet focused on teacher educators' understanding of MOET's PD requirements (72.73%) and their attendance to MOET's PD programs (15.15%). Other responses addressed participants' engagement in Project 2020 or participants' self-training to improve instruction quality and research capacity as part of PD at the ministerial levels. Participants also perceived "degree accreditation" as both evidence of PD alignment with MOET's requirements and great pressure to meet these requirements. A small number of participants showed their uncertainty about MOET's requirements for teacher educators (e.g. R015, R060, R071 & R088) or had not attended any of MOET's PD programs (R013). They stated that MOET's PD programs were not relevant to their needs and MOET's PD policies were "not always consistent and supportive."

Institutional PD requirements versus MOET's PD requirements

The investigation into alignment between the institution's and MOET's PD requirements for EFL teacher educators indicated participants' high level of both

agreement and strong agreement. Participants commented that their institution followed MOET's guidelines; thus, institutional requirements had to align with MOET's, particularly since the implementation of Project 2020 (N = 17). Their institutions used MOET's support – especially in terms of state budget distribution – to offer institutional PD programs for teacher educators.

Participants also raised concerns about the coherence between MOET's and institution's PD requirements. They argued that both MOET's and institution's requirements were top-down, and that teacher educators themselves had "no voice in responding to the requirements" (e.g. R094). In other cases, participants felt their institution's requirements more comprehensible, more detailed and better targeted than MOET's. Participants R085 and R044, despite their overall agreement, insisted that the institutions "re-consider several of MOET's PD programs", indicating that MOET's requirements lacked systematic development and relevance to institutional contexts. To exemplify, one participant stated: "They [MOET] require teachers of English to have a certificate of another language [other than English] and an IT certificate called IC3. It [this policy] is totally a waste of time and only puts more pressure on teachers" (R044).

Conclusion

In this paper, using descriptive analysis of participants' survey responses, I have provided an overview of Vietnamese EFL teacher educators' perceptions of PD. In light of the discussion of PD policy alignment, I have analysed a triangular relation among participants' PD, institutional PD requirements and MOET's PD requirements, from participants' perspectives. My preliminary findings address (i) teacher educators' PD aligned with both institutional and MOET's requirements; (ii) teacher educators' PD alignment with institutional requirements was greater than with MOET's; and (iii) institutional PD requirements aligned with MOET's.

The above findings called for effective strategies to improve policy alignment. From teacher educators' perspective, there was an urgent need for major innovations in PD policies at both institutional and MOET levels, the need for high quality PD provision, as well as teacher educators' PD autonomy in the transformation process. In other words, these recommendations reflected teacher educators' needs for on-going and systemic PD. There should also be considerations from other stakeholders such as the institutions and MOET as mainstream PD providers for teacher educators in Vietnam. These will be addressed in the coming analysis phase of the current project and updated in the journals that follow.

This descriptive paper provides understanding of teacher educators' PD in the innovation context of EFL education and teacher education in Vietnam. Though the discussions limit to the initial findings, the implications of the research can be viewed in broader contexts of EFL countries in Asia, which may draw attention from policy-makers, tertiary governance and EFL teachers across all educational levels.

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Educational Television in India: Challenges and Prospects

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Abstract

Today, in India television is considered as an important medium that is being extensively used to impart information to its viewers. The availability of new information technologies at the global level, satellite television broadcasting has been increasingly used for distance education and training in India. Research reveals that television differs from other media in the way it can combine various kinds of information, better accessibility and has the potential to bring the learning materials to the masses in a more direct and personal way. Television, the most potential mass media of the 20th century, occupies a prominent position in the field of communication and education. The new state-of-the-art internet technologies and the satellite communication technologies furthered its reach. In the field of education, television has acquired an immense importance not only in terms of its reach but also in improving the quality of education at all levels. In a country like India, where resources are limited and educational infrastructure is inequitably distributed between urban and rural areas, television can play a significant role in equalizing the educational opportunities. Although India has good television infrastructure it is a challenging job to create educational content for television. The vision of television education is to reach out to large number students, teachers, and the general public with effective materials so as to address the issues of access and quality. It is against this backdrop an attempt has been made here to understand and explicate the role of television education in India.

Keywords: Educational Television, Countrywide Classroom, Satellite Instruction, Vyas Higher Educational Channel

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Introduction

The emerging technologies have redefined the art of communication. Today, mass media does not just pass on information from one end to the other. Rather it is a wholesome facilitation for two way communication. The mass media channels, be it radio, TV, internet, mobile – all have embedded the instant, anytime, anywhere capabilities for feedback there by making the entire communication process live and interactive. Today, television is considered as an important medium for dissemination of information. The new state-of-the-art internet technologies and the satellite communication technologies furthered its reach.

Because of its better accessibility, it is more effective to take information and knowledge to the masses in a more direct and effective way. Research studies reveal that television differs from the other media as it combines different media like text, audio, video, etc. Thus it is more potential to take learning materials to the masses in a more direct and personal way. In the field of education, television has acquired an immense importance not only in terms of its reach but also in improving the quality of education at all levels.

Television-the Beginning

With the invention of television by John Baird in 1924, the erstwhile Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) became the pioneer in television. The first telecast in the USSR was made in 1931 and by 1938 two full-fledged TV stations started telecasting programmes on regular basis (UNESCO, 1964). The next is in the United State of America (USA). It started as an instructional medium in 1932 by the State University of IOWA, USA, on an experimental basis in a world fair. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) started its public telecast on November 2nd, 1936. Since then television has established itself, the world over, as a potent medium of information, education and entertainment.

Television as an Educational Tool

Taking the cue from the experiments in USA, in 1932, many countries around the world started using television in training and teaching students at the national level much more innovatively, quickly, economically and efficiently. Japan, for example, is the most advanced country, where every school and educational institution is automatically linked and equipped with television receivers. The Japanese television is a part of the national TV system called *Nippon Has Kinkaid* / *Nihon Has Kinkaid* (NHK), with a network of around 100 relay stations. By 1967 they were interconnected with key broadcast stations to provide the most complete educational television coverage in the world (Moir: 1967).

In most of the European countries, in sixties, educational television was extensively developed. While Europe and the western countries were taking advantage of TV for education, many developing and underdeveloped countries, due to lack of enough resources, were not able to show much progress.

Television in India

Television was started as an instructional medium on experimental projects in India that as follows.

Delhi School Television Project: The transmission of School Television programmes started on October 24, 1959, as the first syllabus based science and English television programme, it was produced and telecast in India for higher secondary school students of Delhi, popularly known as "Delhi School Television" project. Subsequently, it acted as an efficient tool for imparting education to primary, secondary and even to the university level students.

Secondary School Television Project:

This project was designed in 1961 for the secondary school students of Delhi. With an aim to improve the standard of teaching in view of shortage of laboratories, space, equipment and dearth of qualified teachers. This project started on an experimental basis in October 1961 for teaching Physics, Chemistry, English and Hindi for students of Class XI. The lectures were syllabus-based and were telecast in school hours as part and parcel of school activities. According to Paul (1968) 'by and large, the television schools did somewhat better in the test than the non-television schools'.

Delhi Agriculture Television (DATV) Project:

This is also known as 'Krishi Darshan' initiated on January 26, 1966 for communicating agricultural information to the farmers an on experimental basis for the 80 selected villages of Union territory of Delhi through community viewing of television and further discussions among themselves. This experiment was successful and there was a substantial gain in the information regarding agricultural practices.

Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE): The SITE was made to use television for primary education in 1975-76. During this time, communication satellite was used for direct broadcasting in the rural schools of six backward states in India. It is the world's largest jointly collaborated techno-social experiment. Major collaborators in the project were National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO), National Council for Educational Research Training (NCERT) and Doordarshan. The main objective of SITE was to provide requisite information for national development to those who otherwise would have been deprived of such information for many years to come. It was made possible with the use of a satellite i.e., (ATS-6) to take television to the villages of India even before it reached the metropolitan cities. SITE demonstrated the utility of satellite communication as a tool for national development in general and education in particular (Agrawal and Aghi 1987).

The vision to use television through satellite for direct broadcasting was that of Dr. Vikram Sarabhai from ISRO, who was determined to bridge the urban-rural gap with the help of satellite technologies. His dream came true in the form of SITE project conducted between August 1, 1975 and July 31, 1976. For the first time in India, 2400 villages in the backward states of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Orissa, Rajasthan, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh (400 villages in each state) could watch community

television in their respective villages. The primary school children in the age group of 5-12 of class I to VIII could watch "enrichment" programmes in the local languages, namely Telugu, Kannada, Oriya, Rajastani and Hindi respectively, on all school days. It consisted of twenty-two and half minutes of community viewing, regardless of the age of the viewer and grade of the student. In addition, as part of the experiment, 4800 primary school teachers were given training in science education.

So far in the world, no one has conducted such a large-scale primary education television experiment or for that matter, primary school teachers training. In this respect, there is a great deal of learning for the universalisation and quality improvement of primary education through television. SITE experiment showed that the new technologies made it possible to reach large number of people in the remotest areas. The role of television was appreciated and it was accepted in rural primary schools as an educational force.

Indian National Satellite Project (INSAT-1982):

In view of the possibility of covering the deep rural and inaccessible areas by terrestrial TV, the Government took another bold decision in 1975 to provide direct satellite coverage through INSAT to the people in such areas. The prime objective of the INSAT project was making the rural masses aware of the latest developments in the areas of agriculture, health and hygiene and enhancing the quality of telecommunications, meteorological and mass communication capabilities of the country. In this series India has launched nine satellites, six from abroad and three from India itself. The launch of satellites facilitated the telecast of educational programmes at the national level for the benefit of a sizable chunk of population. Soon after the launch of INSAT-1(A) in 1982, INSAT educational television service was started for elementary schools of India.

As part of INSAT Education project, the Educational Television (ETV) broadcasts were inaugurated and continued through terrestrial transmission from 15th August 1982 in Orissa and Andhra Pradesh. Later, other states, namely Bihar, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh were covered under INSAT service using INSAT-1B in June 1983. In each state, a cluster of 3-4 districts were selected on the basis of backwardness of the area, availability of suitable developmental infrastructure and utilization of existing production facilities. The ETV programmes telecast with the help of INSAT- 1B were received with great success and brought about a marked change in the educational scenario of the area. This also left a good impact, in terms of qualitative and quantitative improvement, on the overall development of education. The INSAT system which was firmly in place opened up a variety of communication options by 1983. Taking a cue from SITE and Kheda Communication(Gujarat) experiments, and realising the potential of television in dissemination of knowledge and education, the University Grants Commission (UGC) seized this opportunity and proposed to utilise satellite communication to enrich the quality of higher education during the Sixth Five Year Plan (IGNOU, 2000).

UGC-Higher Education Television Project (1984):

Higher Education in India got a fresh impetus through the launching of Countrywide Classroom (CWCR) programme in India. The UGC in collaboration with INSAT started educational television project, CWCR, on August 15, 1984 with the aim to update, upgrade and enrich the quality of education while extending its reach to UG and PG students across the country. The programmes attempted to overcome the obsolescence of the syllabus and presented the latest advances in all fields. These programmes are primarily targeted towards the undergraduate students in colleges, universities, open universities, correspondence courses. The secondary target groups are the students studying in +2 level, post-graduate level academicians, teachers, housewives, senior citizens, executives etc. Its aim is to benefit the students residing in semi-urban as well as the remotest parts of the country where quality of teachers and teaching facilities are poor.

CWCR programmes were telecast on the national network on all days. In the initial stage, the CWCR used to depend more on educational programmes produced by other countries like USA, UK, Russia, Germany and Australia. Over a period of time the UGC's CWCR project acquired resources and established an inter-university Consortium for Education Communication (CEC) along with a chain of about 22 Educational Media Research Centres at different institutions in the country. In 2004, these centres were renamed as Educational Multimedia Research Centres (EMMRCs). The role of CEC was to collect programmes from media centres, conduct proper preview, technical check and make programme capsules for telecast network. One of the reasons why these production centres were located in the universities was to help them to make the best use of the expertise of academics and scientist working in these institutions. This project is very popular among students, teachers and other learners in the country and other parts of the world also (CEC website).

Research studies were conducted in order to assess the effectiveness of the talkback facility and its educational benefits. About 70% of the participants opined that talk back can enhance subject comprehension. More than 75% of the participants are of the opinion that talkback helps them participate in classroom discussion. 86% of the participants felt that talkback could enhance interest in CWCR programmes. Overall, the reactions of the students have been found favourable to the talkback method (Usha, V.Reddy, Sai Prasad and Rukmini, 1992&1995).

Gyan Darshan:

On January 26, 2000, Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) created history in educational television by launching a dedicated satellite based national educational channel called Gyan Darshan (GD). It was jointly launched by Human Resource Development, Information & Broadcasting, the Prasar Bharti and IGNOU launched Gyandarshan.

Vyas-Higher Education Channel

With two decades experience in Countrywide Classroom and its potential, UGC through its inter-university centre of CEC launched in 2004 a 24-hour higher educational channel called 'Vyas' to impart knowledge to households, students,

teachers and public. With the establishment of 'Vyas', the focus shifted to curriculum-based, syllabus oriented programmes as against the enrichment programmes, which imparted knowledge beyond the text books. Initially, the programmes were mostly produced in English language but of late programmes are made in Hindi and some regional languages as well. All the EMMRC's are producing educational programmes for the 24 hours transmission (CEC Website: www. cec-ugc.org and Rao, Jagadeeshwar V. (2007).

Challenges and Prospects

Research studies from SITE and INSAT indicate large-scale investment in "educational television" both for primary and higher secondary and college education. Centrally supported production studios have been set up in six SITE states, where enrichment programmes are being produced for primary school children. Similarly, nearly two dozen production studios have been set up by the University Grants Commission in various universities/ institutions across India to produce enrichment/syllabus based programmes for college students. Over a period of time, Doordarshan, a public service television channel has gradually relinquished its social responsibility of telecasting educational programmes. All these have been handed over to educational planners who are now directly responsible for educational telecast from UGC-CEC, IGNOU and NCERT.

India stands tall, except maybe for China, to have such a remarkable achievement in educational television, production and transmission capability. From primary to higher education, it has helped not only the students who did not get a first chance to go to school/college, but for a large number of housewives and senior citizens, who have a second opportunity for education. In a rapidly changing information and knowledge world, television has helped updating, upgrading and enhancing the societal knowledge. The critical question is: what has India achieved in the last three decades at a colossal cost? The educational planners have not been able to decide whether to use media for classroom teaching or enrichment. Also, it is high time that one must examine what role media can play in the universalisation of education in an over-populated country of several million unemployed graduates, who could be meaningfully employed to provide education in India.

With the advent of multimedia and other technological developments, new vistas have been opened for the educational television as it can be made more interactive as education is now in the process of going on-line. The term multimedia broadly describes multiple media types being accessed interactively via computer.

Television has a significant role to play in conventional as well as in distance education with its special position, the way of presentation and qualities peculiar to it. Thanks to its special features, television helps conventional and distance education in many ways. Notwithstanding its popularity as a medium of entertainment, television can be used effectively to teach especially the Indian rural masses.

According to experts, television seems to have adapted itself better to the new technologies and changing tastes of its audience than any other media. This is reflected in the style of programming, the production techniques and developments in television technology itself. The most evident shift seems to be striking at the very

root of the nature of educational television itself. Thanks to convergence of technologies, television is fast becoming and effective, interactive medium- a paradigm shift from its monolithic one-way communication process. Today most educational television channels tend to spend a considerable amount of time for interaction. This is true of both Indian and foreign educational channels. This somehow seems to sustain the audience for they feel that they belong to this community.

The launch of Gyandarshan, a satellite channel by IGNOU, and other educational channels like EKLAVYA, VYAS, etc., under the umbrella of Gyandarshan made a good beginning but could not make a significant contribution as their reach is limited to some cable areas; if at all it is carried by the cable operator. Moreover, the cable operators assign weaker frequencies to Gyandarshan which results in poor reception quality of the programmes which is also related to the quality of transmission they receive.

The quality of educational television programmes produced by the media centres and educational institutions has always remained a case of concern. Out of 20,000 programmes produced by various UGC media centres for CEC-UGC in different subject categories almost 50% are below quality. The same is the case with the programmes produced by the CIET, SIETs, and the EMPCs in different Open/Distance Universities in the country.

The poor quality is attributed to two reasons; one, the lack of enough resources, and second the lack of talented manpower for production of educational television programmes. The reason for not attracting talented manpower is rooted in lack of proper economic resources. What is required is the pooling of all the resources to attract more and more of talented manpower and involving experienced media professionals, teachers, writers and engineers and the technicians to create a movement for the uplift of educational television. Shortage of funds for research, one of the most important aspects of educational television, always results in poor quality of programmes. All these factors put together result in the production of mediocre programmes by production centres involved in production of educational programmes, the programmes that, perhaps, no one likes to see and only a very few watch (Rasool, Shahid, 2012).

Despite the above drawbacks and problems faced by the educational television, it still retains its importance in imparting education to thousands who seek it. A well-designed educational television programmes can motivate the students to watch more, inculcate their reading habits, encourage independent learning, develop new insights, but that is possible only, when the traditional method of teaching through lecturers is replaced or augmented with more exciting television programmes in the form of demonstrations and discoveries. The poorly designed content of educational programmes is an impediment in its growth as a powerful supplement to traditional teaching.

Conclusions

The Indian television education has undergone many changes. It is being used in conventional and distance education. This has a greater scope in developing countries. The various initiatives by the government of India underline the role and significance of television in education.

Although it does not replace classroom teaching, television has a significant role to play in conventional as well as in distance education with its special position, the way of presentation and qualities peculiar to it. Thanks to its special features, television helps conventional and distance education in many ways. Notwithstanding its popularity as a medium of entertainment, television can be used effectively to teach, especially the Indian rural masses.

According to experts, television seems to have adapted itself to new technologies and changing tastes of its audience than any other media. This is reflected in the style of programming, the production techniques and developments in television technology itself. The most evident shift seems to be striking at the very root of the nature of television itself.

To sum up, another new beginning has been made to achieve the national goals of education and catapult India to be a knowledge super power. The vision of television education particularly higher education channels and e-learning, therefore, is to reach out to large number of students, teachers and general public with quality educational material electronically so as to address the issue of access and equity with quality higher education. The success or failure of any programme largely depends on the students' response. Educational television should not be restricted to any one particular type of programmes. Hence, the content should be a judicious mix of direct teaching, enrichment and general awareness programmes.

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Students' Intercultural Communication Competence in Rural Areas of Japan

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Abstract
Local companies in Japan's rural areas are supplementing workforce shortages by employing students from overseas. Most Japanese students born and raised in those areas are expected to play important roles in local companies after graduation. To fulfil the necessity of designing an education programme to develop students' intercultural communication competence for working in rural areas, this study examines how Japanese and overseas students work with people from different countries. Results of a survey conducted in one rural area show that Japanese students have fewer opportunities of working with people from different countries. Furthermore, results also show that Japanese people do not necessarily use languages as expected by overseas students and that variables correlated with how students cope with communication gaps vary between Japanese and overseas students. Implications of the results are discussed in terms of designing an education programme.

Keywords: intercultural communication competence, rural areas of Japan, population decline

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Introduction

Most local governments in Japan's rural areas have been suffering from population decline. According to the 2015 Population Census of Japan, compared with that in 2010, 39 of 47 Japanese prefectures and 1419 of 1719 municipalities have declined in population (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications 2016, October). Thus, local companies in rural areas are supplementing workforce shortages by employing students from overseas. Most Japanese students born and raised in these areas are expected to play important roles in local companies after graduation. From another viewpoint, intercultural communication competence necessary for those working in rural areas would most likely differ from that necessary for those working in large cities like Tokyo. However, little is known about characteristics of intercultural communication competence necessary for those working in rural areas.

This study was motivated by the necessity of designing an education programme to develop students' intercultural communication competence for working in rural areas. To fulfil this necessity by focusing on students' language use in the workplace and their communication skills used to cope with communication gaps, the study examined how Japanese and overseas students work with people from different countries in one rural area of Japan.

Before moving to the methodology section, what this study means by "intercultural communication competence" should be clarified. Here, intercultural communication competence refers to the competence needed to achieve smooth communication between people from different cultures. Thus, not only language proficiency, but also, for instance, the ability to understand and accept different values is included in intercultural communication competence.

Methodology

A questionnaire survey was administered to Japanese and overseas students in one rural area of Japan from May to July 2017. The questionnaire included: 1) characteristics of students, 2) students' language use in the workplace and 3) students' communication skills used to cope with communication gaps. The questionnaire was designed according to results of our pilot test conducted in December 2016. Three different language versions were developed for overseas students (i.e., Japanese, English and Chinese). The Japanese version was translated into English and Chinese. Then the English and Chinese versions were back-translated into Japanese to verify their equivalence to the Japanese version. For Japanese students, the Japanese language questionnaire was developed. Data from 32 Japanese students and 88 overseas students who fulfilled the survey's conditions were analysed.

Results

Characteristics of students

The following tables illustrate characteristics of students.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Overseas Students

Where are they from?	
China	56
Vietnam	9
Russia	4
Myanmar	2
Bangladesh	2
Malaysia	2
Sri Lanka	2
Germany	2
France	2
Others	5
Non-response	2
Gender	
Male	42
Female	44
Non-response	2
Age	
20–24 years old	34
25–29 years old	37
30 years old and over	15
Non-response	2
Length of stay in Japan	
2–12 months	20
13–24 months	21
25–36 months	15
37–48 months	12
49–60 months	10
61 months or longer than 61 months	10

Table 2
Characteristics of Overseas Students: Language Abilities and
Study of Intercultural Communication

Language they know best	
Chinese	56
Vietnamese	9
English	6
Russian	4
German	2
French	2
Burmese	2
Bengali	2
Korean	2
Others	3
Language they know second best	
Japanese	58
English	25
Chinese	2
Other, non-response	3
Language they know third best	
Japanese	25
English	50
Others	3
Non-response	10
Studying subjects related to intercultural communication	
Before coming to Japan	
Yes	31
No	56
Non-response	1
After coming to Japan	
Yes	33
No	54
Non-response	1

Table 3
Characteristics of Overseas Students with Respect to Their Work Experience

Length of working with Japanese people in the surveyed area	
1–6 months	28
7–12 months	10
13–18 months	11
19–24 months	17
25–30 months	7
31 months or longer than 31 months	11
Non-response	4
Job(s) in the surveyed area (multiple answers allowed)	
Doing clerical work	5
Working at a restaurant, cafeteria, Japanese style pub (i.e. izakaya)	51
Working at a convenience store, supermarket, department store	25
Producing goods	9
Teaching, TA, RA	29
Translating, interpreting for someone (e.g. tourists)	16
Others	5
Working with people from other countries before coming to Japan	
Almost all the time	5
Often	11
Sometimes	22
Hardly ever	10
Never	40

Table 4
Characteristics of Japanese Students

Gender	
Male	11
Female	20
Non-response	1
Age	
18–24 years old	31
25–29 years old	1
Foreign language they know the best	
English	31
Chinese	1
Studying subjects related to intercultural communication	
Yes	3
No	29
Experience of studying abroad for more than one year	
Yes	3
No	29
Length of working with people from different countries in the surveyed area	
1–6 months	19
7–12 months	7
13–18 months	2
19–24 months	3
25 months or longer than 25 months	1
Job(s) (multiple answers allowed)	
Working at a restaurant, cafeteria, Japanese style pub (i.e. izakaya)	23
Working at a convenience store, supermarket, department store	3
Teaching, TA, RA	5
Others	5
Where are their non-Japanese colleagues from?	
China	17
Vietnam	7
Nepal	2
Russia	1
Indonesia	1
Germany	1
Slovakia	1
Do not know	2

We asked approximately 400 Japanese students about working with people from different countries, but found only 32, indicating that Japanese students in the surveyed area have fewer opportunities of working with people from different countries. We return to this point later.

Students' language use in the workplace

Here, we focus on results of students' language use in the workplace. As shown in Table 5, both Japanese and overseas students used Japanese the most frequently.

Table 5
Language Used Most Frequently in the Workplace

	Japanese student	Overseas student
Japanese	30	69
English	1	15
Chinese	1	2
Non-response	0	2

Important here is that Japanese people do not necessarily use languages as expected by overseas students. We asked Japanese students how they thought their overseas colleagues expected them to speak in Japanese in the workplace. We also asked overseas students how they expected their Japanese colleagues to speak in Japanese in the workplace. Table 6 illustrates similarities and differences between the two groups.

Table 6
Students' Expectations About the Way of Speaking in Japanese

	Japanese student	Overseas student
Speaking slowly	16 (50.00%)	46 (52.27%)
Speaking with simple words	21 (65.63%)	45 (51.14%)
Speaking with the use of gestures	17 (53.13%)	21 (23.86%)
Making eye contact	7 (21.88%)	22 (25.00%)
Repeating what they said	11 (34.38%)	16 (18.18%)
Writing what they said	2 (6.25%)	9 (10.23%)
Speaking in standard Japanese (i.e. Japanese language that overseas students learnt at school)	12 (37.50%)	48 (54.55%)

Note: Students were required to check all that apply.

For instance, half the Japanese students thought that their overseas colleagues expected them to speak slowly in Japanese; half the overseas students expected their Japanese colleagues to do so. The same tendency was found for using simple words. However, Japanese and overseas students reflected a discrepancy in the use of gestures. Although 53.13% of Japanese students thought their overseas colleagues expected them to speak Japanese using gestures, only 23.86% of overseas students expected the same. This difference between the two groups achieved statistical significance (Fisher's exact test; $p < 0.01$).

Although Japanese was the language most frequently used by 69 overseas students in the workplace, this does not mean overseas students liked to use Japanese in every work scene. We asked overseas students what tasks they expected their Japanese colleagues to perform in English, rather than in Japanese, in the workplace. We also asked Japanese students what tasks they thought their overseas colleagues expected them to perform in English, rather in Japanese, in the workplace. Table 7 shows the results.

Table 7
Students' Expectations About Speaking in English

	Japanese student	Overseas student
Reading documents	2 (6.25%)	26 (29.55%)
Communicating with colleagues	5 (15.63%)	19 (21.59%)
Answering the phone	0 (0.00%)	10 (11.36%)
Writing reports	2 (6.25%)	14 (15.91%)
Exchanging idea at the meeting	2 (6.25%)	20 (22.73%)
Making a presentation	0 (0.00%)	16 (18.18%)
Communicating with customers	2 (6.25%)	20 (22.73%)

Note: Students were required to check all that apply.

As Table 7 shows, nearly one-third of overseas students expected their Japanese colleagues to read documents in English rather than in Japanese, whereas only two Japanese students thought that they were expected to do so. This difference between the two groups achieved statistical significance (Fisher's exact test; $p < 0.01$). The difference between the two groups in making a presentation also achieved statistical significance (Fisher's exact test; $p < 0.01$).

Notably here, however, the number of overseas students who expected their Japanese colleagues to perform some task in English rather than in Japanese was limited. In our data, while 47 overseas students expected their Japanese colleagues to perform some task in English, rather than in Japanese, 41 overseas students did not expect their Japanese colleagues to perform any task in English.

Since Japanese was the language known second best by about two-thirds of overseas students (see Table 2), that more than two-thirds of them used Japanese most frequently in the workplace is not surprising. However, overseas students' frequency of using Japanese in different work scenes varied depending on their Japanese proficiency levels. To determine their proficiency levels, we asked them how well they used Japanese in eight daily scenes (e.g. watching news on television, explaining a condition to the doctor and nurse) and in eight work scenes (e.g. reading documents at the workplace, communicating with colleagues).[1] We asked students to rate each scene on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all*, 2 = *not really*, 3 = *fair*, 4 = *good*, 5 = *excellent*). Of 69 overseas students, 65 answered the questions, so we divided them into three groups on the basis of their answers. We classified overseas students whose total scores were 24 to 52 into the 24–52 score group (n = 21); total scores of 53 to 63 into the 53–63 score group (n = 23); and 64 to 80 into the 64–80 score group (n = 21).

We also asked overseas students to rate how often they used Japanese in nine work scenes, rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all*, 2 = *not really*, 3 = *fair*, 4 = *good*, 5 = *excellent*). Among 65 overseas students, 61 answered the questions (i.e. 20 students in the 24–52 score group, 21 students in the 53–63 score group and 20 students in the 64–80 score group). Table 8 shows the mean score of the frequency of 61 overseas students' using Japanese.

Table 8
Mean Score of the Frequency of Using Japanese in the Workplace

	24–52 score group	53–63 score group	64–80 score group
Writing business e-mails	3.40	3.43	4.45
Reading documents	3.65	3.76	4.55
Communicating with colleagues	3.68	3.86	4.35
Answering the phone	2.84	2.95	4.19
Writing reports	3.15	3.24	4.19
Exchanging ideas at a meeting	2.95	3.38	4.45
Making a presentation	3.32	3.29	4.30
Telling colleagues that you will absent yourself from work, be late for work, or leave work early	3.80	4.00	4.71
Communicating with customers	3.50	3.71	4.19

Data analysed using a T-test showed significant differences between the 24–52 and the 64–80 score groups in communicating with colleagues and communicating with customers (t-test; $p < 0.05$) and with respect to other scenes (t-test; $p < 0.01$). Similarly, results showed significant differences between the 53–63 and the 64–80 score groups in communicating with colleagues (t-test; $p < 0.05$) and with respect to other scenes, except in communicating with customers (t-test; $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, the 24–52 and the 53–63 score groups showed no significant difference.

Students' communication skills for coping with communication gaps

Before turning to closer examination of skills for coping with communication gaps, we considered how students felt cultural differences in gestures, customs and interaction strategies. Cultural differences in gestures, for instance, cause communication gaps (see, for example, Matsumoto and Hwang 2014). We asked students to rate how often they felt differences in gestures, customs or interaction strategies on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 2 = *hardly ever*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *almost all the time*). Table 9 illustrates the two groups' results.

Table 9
Mean Scores of Frequencies that Japanese and Overseas Students Felt Cultural Differences

	Japanese student	Overseas student
Gestures	2.47	3.03
Customs	3.19	3.59
Interaction strategies	2.91	3.60

Let us return to examination of students' communication skills for coping with communication gaps. To examine gaps, we asked students three questions. The first question, which was open-ended, asked what students actually did in the workplace

when they experienced communication gaps caused by differences in gestures, customs and/or interaction strategies. Japanese and overseas students' answers were similar: for example, asking the addressee to explain again what the addressee meant, explaining the addressee, asking other colleagues' help, learning cultural difference or doing nothing.

In the second question, rated on a 5-point Likert scale, we asked Japanese students how they dealt with communication gaps caused by differences between their ways of thinking and their overseas colleagues' ways of thinking. Similarly, we asked overseas students how they dealt with communication gaps caused by differences between their ways of thinking and their Japanese colleagues' ways of thinking. We presented the following seven choices to students.

    (1) (i) Asking your Japanese colleagues later
        (ii) Asking your non-Japanese colleagues later
        (iii) Thinking the reason why your way of thinking is different from their ways of thinking
        (iv) Thinking whether only your way of thinking is right or not
        (v) Trying to understand their ways of thinking
        (vi) Accepting their ways of thinking
        (vii) Following their ways of thinking

We asked students to rate the frequency of using (i)–(vii) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 2 = *hardly ever*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *almost all the time*). Table 10 illustrates these results.

Table 10
Mean Score of Frequency of Students' Using (i)–(vii) When Experiencing Communication Gaps

	Japanese student	Overseas student
(i)	3.00	3.58
(ii)	1.93	3.06
(iii)	2.90	3.63
(iv)	2.43	2.63
(v)	3.68	4.06
(vi)	3.55	3.63
(vii)	3.13	3.60

Interestingly, results illustrated in Table 10 show that Japanese and overseas students' responses did not necessarily correlated with the same variables. We examined whether Japanese students' results correlated with a) cultural differences in gestures, customs and interaction strategies and/or b) length of working with people from different countries in the surveyed area. We also examined whether overseas students' results correlated with a) cultural differences in gestures, customs and interaction strategies, b) length of stay in Japan, c) length of working with Japanese people in the surveyed area and/or d) Japanese proficiency levels.

Results show that how overseas students cope with communication gaps caused by the difference between their ways of thinking and their Japanese colleagues' ways of thinking correlated with their Japanese proficiency levels and interaction strategies. 'Accepting their ways of thinking' weakly correlated with Japanese proficiency level

(r = 0.314, Spearman rank, p < 0.01) and 'following their ways of thinking' weakly correlated with Japanese proficiency level (r = 0.387, Spearman rank, p < 0.01). 'Asking your non-Japanese colleagues later' weakly correlated with interaction strategies (r = 0.225, Spearman rank, p < 0.05). 'Thinking the reason why your way of thinking is different from their ways of thinking' weakly correlated with interaction strategies (r = 0.261, Spearman rank, p < 0.01). 'Accepting their ways of thinking' weakly correlated with interaction strategies (r = -0.227, Spearman rank, p < 0.05). However, overseas students' results did not correlate with their length of stay in Japan or of working with Japanese people in the area.

However, Japanese students' results did correlate with their length of working with people from different countries. For Japanese students, 'thinking the reason why your way of thinking is different from their ways of thinking' weakly correlated with length of working with people from different countries (r = -0.363, Spearman rank, p < 0.05), with gestures (r = 0.452, Spearman rank, p < 0.05) and with interaction strategies (r = 0.459, Spearman rank, p < 0.01).

In the first two questions, we asked students what they did in the workplace when experiencing communication gaps. In the third question, however, we asked students what they thought was important when communicating with their colleagues (Japanese or foreigners) in the workplace. By asking this open-ended question, we intended to gain insight into students' strategies to avoid communication gaps.

As Table 11 shows, students' descriptions were categorised into three: being careful about choosing topics, consideration of how they talk to their colleagues (e.g. talking slowly and talking with a smile) and respect for cultural differences.

Table 11
Strategies Used by Students to Avoid Communication Gaps

	Japanese student	Overseas student
Being careful about choosing topics	2 (6.25%)	13 (14.77%)
Consideration of the way they talk to colleagues	21 (65.63%)	49 (55.68%)
Respect for cultural differences	3 (9.38%)	29 (32.95%)

Note: Multiple descriptions were allowed.

Both Japanese and overseas students thought how they talked to their colleagues was important. However, the students differed significantly in respect to cultural differences (Fisher's exact test; p < 0.01).

Discussion

In this section, we examine characteristics of students' intercultural communication competence in the surveyed rural area according to three points. First, we consider their characteristics in terms of opportunities for students to develop their intercultural communication competence, second, in terms of students' language use in the workplace and finally, in terms of communication skills for coping with communication gaps.

Japanese students in the surveyed area had fewer opportunities to work with people from different countries. As previously mentioned, we asked about 400 Japanese students whether they worked with people from different countries or not, but located only 32. Two possible explanations are, first, Japanese students' fewer opportunities might be related to the small number of foreign workers in the surveyed area. According to Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2017, January), 30.7% of foreign workers in Japan were in Tokyo, whereas 0.6% were in the surveyed area. The second explanation is that Japanese students' fewer opportunities might be related to types of part-time jobs they held. Not a few Japanese students have part-time jobs at private preparatory schools, but overseas students usually do not.

Since they have little experience interacting with people from different countries, possibly, Japanese students in the surveyed area might not feel much interest in intercultural communication, thus resulting in few opportunities to expand their knowledge about it (see Table 4). Based on the discussion so far, Japanese students in the surveyed area have fewer opportunities to develop their intercultural communication competence.

For overseas students, however, their staying and studying in the surveyed area of Japan means they are surrounded by a new cultural environment. However, just being in a new cultural environment does not automatically develop people's intercultural communication competence (see, for example, Shaules 2007). Therefore, overseas students having many opportunities to interact with people from different cultures on campus and in workplaces and learning how to cope with cultural differences they face are important.

Let us turn our attention to the second point, consideration of students' characteristics of intercultural communication competence in their language use in the workplace. As previously mentioned, Japanese people do not necessarily use languages in ways that overseas students expect. As Table 6 shows, Japanese students regard speaking slowly, speaking with simple words and speaking with gestures in Japanese as what their overseas colleagues expect. As far as speaking slowly and speaking with simple words are concerned, the same tendency was found in overseas students' results.

However, a discrepancy emerged between Japanese and overseas students on the use of gestures. While 53.13% of Japanese students thought that their overseas colleagues expected them to speak Japanese with gestures, only 23.86% of overseas students actually expected their Japanese colleagues to speak Japanese with gestures. This discrepancy has two possible explanations. One is that overseas students may associate using gestures with low Japanese proficiency levels. According to Yanagimachi's (2000) data, Japanese people regarded gestures used by Japanese learners as a supplement to their low proficiency level. Overseas students in this survey might recognise the use of gestures in the same way and regard it as something they should avoid. Another explanation is that Japanese people's use of gestures might not help overseas students because of cultural differences (see Table 9). The discrepancy between Japanese and overseas students with respect to language use in the workplace suggests that Japanese students should modify their communication style to meet their overseas colleagues' expectations.

One other point is worth mentioning—that eye contact is one of the main non-verbal tools with which we communicate (see, for example, Goodwin 1981). However, this does not apply to students' usage of Japanese in our data. As Table 6 shows, both Japanese and overseas students did not expect much eye contact.

As for language proficiency, Japanese students should develop their English proficiency, particularly their ability to read reports in English. As Table 7 shows, among work scenes examined, reading reports in English was the most expected task by the surveyed overseas students. As for overseas students' language proficiency, the frequency of using Japanese at various work scenes differs depending on their proficiency levels (see Table 8). The importance of developing overseas students' Japanese proficiency is reinforced by our results of students' communication skills for copying with communication gaps. As mentioned, how overseas students cope with communication gaps weakly correlated with their Japanese proficiency level.

One point emerges from examination of characteristics of students' intercultural communication competence in their skills for copying with communication gaps. As Table 11 shows, both Japanese and overseas students in our survey thought that considering how they talk to their colleagues (e.g. talking slowly, talking with a smile) is important when communicating with colleagues (Japanese or foreigners) at the workplace. However, the significant difference between Japanese and overseas students in cultural difference suggests the necessity of developing students' positive attitudes, particularly Japanese students' attitudes, towards cultural differences.

Conclusion

To design a necessary education programme for developing students' intercultural communication competence for working in Japan's rural areas, this study examined how Japanese and overseas students worked with people from different countries. Based on data from a questionnaire survey, the study examined characteristics of students' intercultural communication competence according to three points: opportunities for students to develop their intercultural communication competence, students' language use in the workplace and students' communication skills for copying with communication gaps. One of the most noteworthy implications from this study's examination is the necessity of creating more opportunities for students, particularly Japanese students, to develop their intercultural communication competence.

In this study's surveyed area, the workforce has been declining, according to Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (2017, April; 2012, April) but the number of foreign workers and that of companies that employ foreigners have been growing (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2017, January; 2016, January; 2015, January; 2014, January; 2013, January). Considering these circumstances, the necessity of developing students' intercultural communication competence is rapidly increasing. To deepen our understanding of characteristics of the intercultural communication competence necessary for those working in rural areas, examining how Japanese and foreign employees work together at local rural companies is important. However, this question should be addressed in further research.

Acknowledgement

Footnote

1. We chose eight daily scenes and eight work scenes on the basis of National Institute for Japanese Language (2009, May).

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Scouting Method, Innovative Process for Happiness of Life.
Case Study: Scouting in Thailand

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Abstract
From study of Harvard university, adult development, there have the 3 lesson learn for someone who wants to be "happy person"; social relationship, satisfaction of social relation and healthy is depend on good social relation, especially in symbiosis state. As the result of research, it makes crystal clear how to create happiness for human life. The good social relation must are created for every level of social structure. How to make it real is the big problem in the current situation. Scouting method is the worldwide method to make a man to be a good man that implied can make everyone to be a good citizen. More than 200 countries adopted concept of Scouting Method from World Scout Organization Movement, and applied in be the own one. The basic concept of Scouting Method is "Health, Happy and Helpful Citizens". Thailand under visionary of King Rama the VI, adopted and applied methods to use in educational system and blend informal with formal educational system. Scout Act 2008 of Thailand, approved principle of method and established National Scout Organization of Thailand, NSOT, is implementation unit. By the way, NSOT hasn't specific method for implementation. Then if theories are used, maybe it is more realistic for Thailand's educational system. The main objective of study is to find process for scouting method that will propose innovative method for happiness in educational system as the first time of Thailand and contribution of the study will effect in the workplace in real situation.

Keywords: Innovative Process, Happiness of Life, Scout of Thailand

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Introduction

Happiness of life

"Happiness" is something that everybody searches for. But the happiness is the "individual" state, even in the same context, people still feel happy differently. Thus, the process of seeking happiness for the individual is worthwhile to fulfill in the rest of human life.

We often hear the sentence "I want to be happy like a child." This sentence encouraged the researcher to conduct the preliminary survey which activities in childhood created happiness in children life. Surprisingly, "Scouting" is the most popular answer with more than 60% of responses (82 students from 10 schools in Bangkok Metropolis area, Thailand). In this study, the researcher conducted the study by using qualitative research method, including observation of scout learning behavior, in-depth interviews; both of scouts and scout master, and documentary analysis to find the answer that "How can the scouting process create happiness for the youth?"

Principles of International Scouting

International scouting was established by the founder of the Scout, Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell, who brings military methods and blend with the youth fun for youth training sessions. The first purpose is to solve the social problem that effect to youth and youth is cause of them. He used the knowledge and skills from his background when worked for royal army, his experience and reputation as a war hero "MAFEKING", one of the major battles in British history to encourage the youth to learn the skills of the scout. Scouting is a process that developed from the training of military youth in those days to be the path of develop young people into good citizens of social process. At present, scouting have been recognized more than 200 countries around the world.

Principles of Scouting in Thailand

There is some evidence showing the scout process in Thailand originated from King Rama VI. He adopted the idea of scouting internationally as part of the development of scouting in Thailand. Initially, it was the application of military skills to civilians and this process was called "Sua Pa" that mean "Wild Tiger". This process was expanded for training the skill in children of "Sua Pa" and was named "Luk Sua", meaning "Little Tiger", and change to be "Scout" in the present. In th beginning, "Scout" intended to encourage youth to be patriotic and do not be afraid to serve in the military. That intention showed in the King Rama VI speech as follows:

"Luk Sua (Little Tiger) I borrowed the name because tigers have a brave heart. I do not mean brave in the bad way but brave for our country to fight with enemy. In addition to the above mentioned, another purpose is to create pride in their own dignity." Let youth act as a good person that show by the King Rama VI speech as follows: "You don't behave like a kid in the street because you are accompany of the king"

With the evolution of social and educational systems in Thailand, Scouting was changed status from the privacy belonging to the king to under government support and put on the formal and informal educational system.

National Scout Organization of Thailand; NSOT is established by law and have full responsibility for all scouting activities under the objectives of Section 8, Scout Act 2008.

"To contribute the development of young people in achieving their full physical, intellectual, emotional, social and spiritual, as individuals, as responsible citizens, and as members of their country by follow the guidelines:

(1) A scout has good habit to observe, recognize, obey and self-service
(2) A scout is honest and sympathetic person, has discipline also.
(3) A scout knows how to make handicrafts and practices many suitable activities
(4) A scout dedicates oneself to the public.
(5) A scout keeps to custom, cultures, tradition and security of the country."

Currently, scouting in Thailand is classified into four categories, divided into classes according to the level of education, consisting of "Cub scout" to teach in the grade 1-3 in primary school between ages 8-11 years. "Scout" is taught in the grad 4-6 in primary school ranges from 11-16 years old. "Senior Scout" is taught in the junior high school level between the ages of 14-19. And "Rover Scout" is taught to youth between the ages of 18-25 year old.

The essence of teaching scouts was enacted as a secondary law, regulation, by the National Scout Executive Board.

The Essence of Scouting

Scout training is developed for suitable learning in each range of age. The essence of cub scouts training is focus on fun activities and games through storytelling. The scout uniforms are used to be tools for creating self-respect. In this training, cub scouts start to let the youth learn the role that occurs in society by using the patrol system as a tool. In the details of the training, the scouting course composes with self-health care, physical health, patriotism, religion, monarchy and basic knowledge in living.

The level of young people in elementary and junior high school is not significant difference. Therefore, the training of scouts and senior scout is quite similar, just difference at the difficult level of activities. There is not much difficulty for scouts training, the higher difficulty level was organized for senior scouts training. Both types of scout training are essential to focus on self-help, learning to behave in society and learning the duties and social cohesion, including patriotism and learning and to be proud of Thai history. Course description of scouts and senior scouts training consist of the patrolling and the history of scouting is both Thailand and international. Moreover, cunning skill, self-discipline and service mind are the training to serve the community, including preserving the community by caring for the environment.

Training youth during thy growing up to adult, rover scout are trained to learn to devote themselves for serving others. This is an important foundation for the growth as a good citizen. The practice by self-regulation to help others in different contexts is the key element for this part. The training of the rover scout has focused on deep-seated insights, in which the scout promise and rule, principles of international scouting are also included.

The core of scout training can be classified into three categories according to the objectives of National Scout Organization of Thailand, physical health development, intellectual development and developing a good citizen of society. The study show the comparison of the content between the scout curriculums, base on the times period that scout master/ scout leader consume. The cub scouts training compose with all of three approach while the scouts training is focused on the intellectual development. The rover scout training is focused on the development of themselves as good citizens of the society. Details can be shown in   Table 1.

Table 1 shows the number of period time scouts taught in percentage.

Objectives of NSOT	Cub Scout	Scout – Senior Scout	Rover Scout
Development of Physical Health	39.4%	28.0%	12.5%
Development of Intellectual	27.3%	51.7%	35.4
Development to be good citizen	33.3%	20.3%	52.1%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

In addition to training of scouts mentioned above, there are many activities that closely relate with the monastic institutions such as The founding anniversary of the National Scout Organization of Thailand, The birthday ceremony of the royal family, The date of the death of His Majesty the King Rama VI who is establish National Scout Organization of Thailand.

The scout's ritual activities, such as the camping open ceremony, parade and national jamboree open ceremony are also activities that indicate the closely relation to monarchy of Thailand. The expression of people who are enthusiasts of scouting also show their loyalty to the king, such as, call themselves to be "Scouts of the King" or name of king as "father" This is the very important factor to created happiness to scout. Possibly, the above mentioned may be a factor supporting the process of scouting to create happiness for the youth.

Conclusion

Observation data from investigate scout training and in-depth interviews of scouts and other stakeholders found that the happiness of youth is different in the following age groups.

In the cub scouts, factors that affect the happiness of youth are fun activities, playing the game because it meets the needs of the youth in this age. Facing to world of imagination that young people never met before through storytelling contribute happiness to their life. For scouts and senior scouts, factors that affect the happiness

of youth are the challenges from having adventure experience outside their ordinary world, especially camping. Learning to compete with themselves by strengthening themselves even more. As part of rover scout, sacrifice for service to others and acceptance of society are factors that affect the happiness of them.

Besides, the desire to express loyalty to the monarchy by behaving in a more rigorous discipline, the elegant uniform is also one of the factors supporting the happiness of youth who believe in scout activities.

The results of this study show that the happiness of the youth is due to two important factors: the happiness that occurs physical health, having a complete body, mind and intellect. The other factor causing happiness comes from acting for others, extending from the sacrifice for a particular person, to the sacrifice for society as a whole. Scouting is a basic way for young people to enjoy the fun of scouting and it is likely that those young people will be happy in life when they are growing up.

Both of factors may be indicative of the long-term happiness of life, according to research at Harvard University. Young and adults enjoy differently on the basis of satisfaction with different social relationships. This is a limitation to the happiness that occurs in the life of the youth when they grow up. However, this study found some evidence convincing that young people who are trained scouting tend to create the proper social roles for themselves that will be the basis of the their satisfaction of that roles and will lead to happiness in the future. The comparative study of the quality of life or long-term happiness in youth who receive training in other forms of scouting should be conducted to confirm the evidence. The innovation of the process to create happiness for people in the society will be created as well.

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International Posture and Ideal L2 Self as Determinants of Informal Mobile-Assisted Language Learning

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Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship between international posture and ideal L2 self and university students' usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning. A paper-based instrument was distributed to undergraduate students enrolled in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses. One-hundred and four students participated in the research. The survey included five sections (1) international posture, (2) ideal L2 self, (3) usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning, and (4) demographics. The results of the inquiry showed that international posture and ideal L2 self were significantly and positively correlated with usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning. However, the construct of ought to L2 self was not significantly correlated to informal mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) usage.

Keywords: informal learning, mobile-assisted language learning, international posture, ideal L2 self

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Introduction

In recent years, mobile devices have become popular tools used to facilitate language learning due to their unique characteristics (Sung, Chang, & Liu, 2016). In addition, mobile technologies provide language learners with unrestricted access to educational materials and content, as well as the opportunity to communicate with native speakers of the language one is studying (Demouy, Jones, Kan, Kukulska-Hulme, & Eardly, 2016). In the Japanese context, where the study takes place, the penetration rate of mobile devices is very high. Research conducted by Mills (2016) reported that 98.8% of 977 students surveyed at a private Japanese university had access to a smartphone. While these devices can be used in a variety of contexts, they are especially beneficial for informal learning because they have become normalized in the lives of users (Chen, 2013; Jones, Scanlon, & Clough, 2013; Kukulska-Hulme, 2010). However, engagement in informal learning is largely determined by the motivation of the learner. Therefore, it is important to understand how factors that influence language learning motivation affect the practice. A number of theories and systems regarding second language (L2) motivation have been developed in the preceding decades. Based on previous research conducted by the author of this paper in the field of informal mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) in Japan, it was concluded that the concepts of international posture (Yamashina, 2002; 2009) and two components of the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2009) – ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self - might prove to be significant determiners of usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning.

Literature Review

Mobile-assisted language learning. In the past decade, the proliferation of mobile devices has changed the way we interact with each other, access media, and learn new information, in both formal and informal environments. Mobile learning has become an important topic of research, policy and practice for educators all over the planet as they strive to keep up with their students and the technology. For language learners, mobile technology offers the advantage of near endless exposure to the target language through digital content and communication tools that facilitate interaction with native and advanced speakers (Demouy et al., 2016). Research in the field of MALL has been prolific in recent years and has demonstrated a number of applications of mobile tools in a variety of contexts. For example, Şahan, Çoban, & Razi, (2016) examined how English idioms can be learned using the popular communication application *WhatsApp*. Gamification and its effect on language learning and motivation has also been explored through the use of *Duolingo* (Rachels & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2018). The results of that research showed that independent study using the application was equivalent to face-to-face instruction in terms of academic self-efficacy and language achievement. Finally, researchers in the field of MALL have explored how social media applications, such as LINE, can be used to facilitate various aspects of language acquisition (Liu & Wu, 2016; McCarty, Sato, & Obari, 2016).

While MALL research has addressed a wide variety of functions in formal contexts, studies of how the technology is used in informal settings are less prevalent. According to Demouy et al. (2016), more research is needed that explores learner initiated uses of mobile technology in informal environments. Research conducted in

Japan by Mills (2016) showed that undergraduate university students were generally accepting of the use of their personal mobile devices for informal English-language learning. However, they mainly used these devices to engage in passive learning activities such as listening to music in the target language or accessing translation or dictionary applications. These findings were corroborated by Lai and Zheng (2017) who researched the use of mobile devices for self-directed, out-of-class language study at a Hong Kong University. These researchers discovered that activities associated with the personalization of learning, such as the use of translation and dictionary applications, were engaged in more often than activities associated with authenticity (e.g. watching videos) or social connection (e.g. social networking sites). The researchers (Mills, 2016; Lai & Zheng, 2017) asserted that the factors which influence informal MALL usage need to be further studied in order to create educational interventions to promote the learning activities that were shown to be underrepresented in these investigations

International posture. International posture was introduced by Yashima (2002, 2009) in order to measure readiness to engage in intercultural communication. The original scale (2002) included the constructs of intercultural approach, interest in international vocations, ethnocentrism, and interest in foreign affairs. Yashima (2009) added items to the interest in foreign affairs construct and introduced the dimension of having things to communicate to the world. The instrument makes use of a 6-point Likert scale and contains 20 items (Yashima, 2002); the updated version contains 28 items (Yashima, 2009). Examples of items include: "I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan," "I am uncomfortable with the things foreigners say and how they act," and "I have a strong interest in international affairs."

Ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self. Ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009) refers to the future abilities and skills a learner imagines he or she will possess in terms of the target language. In contrast, the dimension of ideal ought to self is associated with the negative consequences a learner might face if they fail to develop sufficient proficiency in the target language (Dörnyei, 2009). Both instruments utilize a six-point Likert and have been tested in a variety of contexts and languages. Reliability analysis of the scale in various studies has shown the instrument to be an acceptable measure of the motivational self system. The following are examples of statements found in the scales: "I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English," The things I want to do in the future require me to use English," "If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down," and "My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person."

Research Questions

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship between international posture and ideal L2 self and university students' usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What is students' overall international posture and ideal L2 self?
2. What is Japanese university students' actual use of mobile devices for the purpose of informal English-language learning?

3. What is the relationship between international posture and ideal L2 self and actual use of mobile devices for informal English-language learning?

Methodology

Setting and sample. The setting of this research was a large, private university located in Western Japan. The sample was selected from three English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses taught by the researcher in the Economics Department of the university. From these three courses, 125 students were asked to participate in the study. One-hundred and four students chose to complete the researchers' questionnaire, which made the response rate 83.2%.

Participants. All of the participants in the study were first-year undergraduates majoring in Economics. Only two students identified their ethnicity as non-Japanese – Jamaican and Chinese. The majority of the students were male (63.1%). Thirty-five percent of students were female and 1.9% chose to provide no answer to this question. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 21 ($M = 18.83$).

The participants had access to a number of mobile devices. Most students reported owning a mobile phone (99%). This was followed by MP3 players (51.9%) and portable game consoles (40.4%). Tablet computers (24%) and e-book readers (18.3%) were the devices to which participants had the least access.

Instrument. The paper-based questionnaire used in this study consisted of 61 items. The language of the questionnaire was Japanese. The instrument was divided into four sections: (1) international posture, (2) ideal L2 self, (3) informal MALL usage, and (4) demographics. The international posture scale was created by Yashima (2002) and consists of 22 items. Permission to use this scale for the current research project was obtained from Professor Yashima. The international posture scale is sub-divided into four constructs: (1) intercultural approach, (2) interest in international vocation, (3) ethnocentrism, and (4) interest in international affairs. A six-point Likert scale was used to record participant responses to the scale items: 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*somewhat disagree*), 4 (*somewhat agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*). A reliability analysis of the total scale and sub-scales was conducted using Cronbach's Alpha. The results of this analysis showed that the total scale ($\alpha = .81$) and three of the sub-scales, intercultural approach ($\alpha = .75$), international vocation ($\alpha = .81$), and international affairs ($\alpha = .75$) were acceptable. However, the ethnocentrism sub-scale displayed an unacceptable alpha of .43.

While the ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self scales were originally created by Dörnyei, 2009, a modified version, produced by Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2016), was used in this study. Permission to translate and use that version was obtained from the authors. Both the ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self scales contained 10 items. A six-point Likert scale with responses identical to international posture were utilized. The scales were translated by a native speaker of Japanese who possesses a high-proficiency in the English language. The translation was checked by an additional native speaker of Japanese with similar proficiency in English. The Cronbach's Alpha for the two scales was .96 and .87 respectively, which showed that the reliability of the scale was maintained despite the translation.

The frequency scale used to measure informal MALL usage was developed by the researcher (Mills, 2016) based on previous findings regarding mobile device usage (Cheung & Hew, 2009; Patten, Arnedillo-Sánchez, & Tangney, 2006), a prior instrument (Santos & Ali, 2011), and the researcher's observation and experience. Participants were asked to report on the frequency with which they engaged in several informal MALL activities in English including watching videos, playing games, and listening to music. The responses were recorded using a 5-point Likert scale: 1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*occasionally*), 4 (*frequently*), 5 (*very frequently*). Participants were also asked to report whether they most often engaged in these activities consciously or unconsciously and what device they used for these activities. Furthermore, they were asked to estimate the number of hours a week they engaged in informal MALL. In order to ensure uniformity of responses, the participants were provided with the following definition of mobile devices and informal English-language learning:

> *Mobile devices* are smartphones, tablet computers, MP3 players and other portable, hand-held, electronic devices that can be used for the learning of languages.
> *Informal English-language learning* is any activity that has the potential to improve your proficiency in English but is not directly related to structured classes like the ones you take at university or at a private language school. Informal English-language learning can occur consciously (i.e., watching an English-language movie for the purpose of study) or unconsciously (i.e., watching an English-language movie for entertainment).

The fourth section of the survey instrument consisted of five demographics questions: (1) age, (2) nationality, (3) gender, (4) school year, (5) mobile devices owned. This information was used to better understand the participants, and to inform the researcher to whom the results could be generalized.

Data collection and analysis. A paper-based instrument was distributed to the participants in three classes during the Fall semester 2017-2018. In addition, the researcher provided students with a letter, in Japanese, that informed them of their rights as research participants and also explained informal MALL and the purpose of the research (see above). Students were told that participation in the research study was not mandatory and would not affect their grade in any way.

Once the data was collected, it was input into an SPSS worksheet. Frequencies were calculated for all survey items. Missing values in the data set were replaced by the series mean. Outliers were identified through the computation of z-scores. Descriptive statistics were calculated for all the total and sub-scales. A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was computed to ascertain the relationship between usage and the constructs of international posture as well as ideal L2 self.

Results

Research question 1a: International posture. There were several interesting findings regarding participants' responses to the international posture scale. The vast majority of students agreed that international affairs had an impact on their daily lives in Japan (91.3%). Yet, only 33.7% of students expressed an interest in international

news. Most of the respondents stated that they had an interest in making friends with foreign students who were studying in Japan (88.5%) In addition, the majority of participants did not report an aversion to non-Japanese customs and senses of value (73.1%) and were comfortable with the idea of a non-Japanese person living next door to them (81.7%). In general, the students surveyed for the study displayed an above average propensity towards international posture. The lowest mean score was associated with the sub-scale of ethnocentric behavior, while the highest mean was related to intercultural approach (Table 1).

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for International Posture (Total and Sub-scales)

Scale	M	SD
International Posture (Total Scale)	3.78	0.56
Intercultural Approach	4.00	0.76
Interest in International Vocation	3.90	1.02
Ethnocentric Behavior	3.60	0.62
Interest in International Affairs	3.43	0.96

Note. Scale ranging from 1 – *strongly disagree* to 6 – *strongly agree*.

Research question 1b: Ideal L2 self and ideal L2 self. Overall, it seemed as if the participants surveyed had a difficult time imagining themselves as proficient English speakers and using those skills in international communication. Only 33.7% of those surveyed, for example, could picture themselves living abroad and having a conversation in English, while only 34.6% could imagine studying in a university where English was the primary language of instruction. The statement that the most participants (74%) disagreed with was that they would attain native ability in English at some point in their lives. However, a majority of the respondents agreed that English was a requirement for many of the things they hoped to do in the future.

When questioned regarding outside influences on their motivation to study English a slight majority of students stated that approval from others played a role in their learning (58.3%). They also believed that there was an expectation by the people around them to study the English language (59.3%). However, disappointing parents was not seen as a major motivator to study (26.2%). Participants agreed that not learning English would have a negative impact on their lives (57.3). An analysis of the total scales showed that Ideal L2 Self displayed a higher mean than ought to L2 Self (Table 2).

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Ideal L2 Self and Ought to L2 Self

Scale	M	SD
Ideal L2 Self	3.32	1.13
Ought to L2 Self	3.18	0.91

Note. Scale ranging from 1 – *strongly disagree* to 6 – *strongly agree*.

Research question 2: Actual use. The participants in this study reported to engage in informal MALL for self-directed study (62.5%) more often than for incidental learning (32.7%). Self-directed study can be described as conscious autonomous learning where the subject performs an activity, such as watching an English-

language TV show, with the clear purpose of learning English. In contrast, incidental learning occurs unconsciously when engaging in an activity for a reason other than studying, such as watching an English-language TV show for entertainment. Participants reported engaging in informal MALL from 30 minutes to 20 hours in a week. However, most participants stated that they used their mobile devices for informal English-language study for about one hour a week.

Participants utilized their personal mobile phones most often when learning informally (99%). This was followed by MP3 players (23%) and tablet computers (14.4%). E-book readers (9.6%) and portable game consoles (6.7%) were utilized least frequently for informal MALL.

Participants were also queried regarding the type of activity they performed during informal study. The activities that students engaged in the most for informal MALL were listening to English-language music (M=3.56), and using dictionary (M=3.52), and translation applications (M=3.21). Students also reported watching English language videos on sites such as YouTube with some frequency (M=3.19). The activities least frequently reported were listening to spoken English, podcasts for example (M-2.23), reading or listening to English-language news (M=2.21) and playing English language digital games (M=2.07). While the use of English on social media sites was still underrepresented in the activities reported – 30.8% of students reported never to use these sites in English – this is a marked improvement from the 40% of students that reported the same in a previous study (Mills, 2016). Table 3 displays the results for the usage frequency scale.

Table 3
Uses of Mobile Devices for Informal English Language Learning

Item	Response (Percent)				
	N	R	O	F	V
English-language websites.	18.3	30.8	36.5	11.5	2.9
English-language social networking sites.	30.8	25.0	31.7	9.6	2.9
English-language learning applications.	23.1	25.0	28.8	18.3	4.8
English-language games.	38.5	26.9	25.0	8.7	1.0
English-language music.	3.8	13.5	29.8	27.9	23.1
English-language spoken audio (i.e. podcasts).	29.8	32.7	24.0	11.5	1.9
English-language videos (i.e. YouTube).	8.7	17.3	35.6	23.1	15.4
English-language TV shows or movies.	12.5	24.0	29.8	24.0	8.7
Dictionary applications.	5.8	13.5	23.1	38.5	19.2
Translation applications.	9.6	22.1	21.2	31.7	15.4
English-language e-books.	36.5	24.0	23.1	11.5	4.8
English-language news.	27.9	40.4	16.3	10.7	3.9

Note. Scale ranging from 1 – *never* to 5 – *very frequently*.

Research question 3a: Relationship between international posture actual usage.
A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was calculated between the International
Posture total scale and sub-scales and the usage scale. For the purpose of controlling
Type I errors, the Bonferroni approach was used, necessitating a p value of less than
.005 (.05/10 = .005). The total scale, as well as three sub-scales – intercultural
approach, interest in international vocation, and interest in international affairs –
showed a significant correlation. In addition, the total scale and the subscales of
intercultural approach and interest in international vocation displayed a correlation
coefficient above .30. Table 4 below outlines the results of this analysis. The results
of this analysis indicate that international posture is a reliable determinant of informal
MALL usage in the context of this study.

Table 4
Correlation Between International Posture Usage Scale

International Posture Scales	Usage Scale
Total Scale	.541*
Intercultural Approach	.431*
Interest in International Vocation	.508*
Ethnocentric Behavior	.001
Interest in International Affairs	.260*

Note. *$p < .005$

**Research question 3b: Relationship between ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self
and actual usage.** Correlation coefficients were also calculated between ideal L2 self
and the total usage measure as well as ought to L2 self and the total usage measure.
The Bonferroni approach was also employed in this test and the results showed a
significant correlation between ideal L2 self and informal MALL usage but no
significant results was found relating to ought to L2 self and usage. This would seem
to indicate that intrinsic motivation, which is associated with ideal L2 self, is a more
reliable predictor of informal MALL usage than the factors relating to extrinsic
motivation that are found in the ought to L2 self instrument. Table 5 displays the
correlation coefficients and significance found in this test.

Table 5
Correlation Between Ideal L2 Self and Ought to L2 Self and Usage Scale

International Posture Scales	Usage Scale
Ideal L2 Self	.596*
Ought To L2 Self	.039

Note. *$p < .005$

Discussion

The results of this research were interesting in several ways. First, Japan is known as
a country which is relatively closed to outsiders both historically and in the present
day. The economy is currently facing an uncertain future due to the aging population
and low birth rate. Yet, there is a reluctance to open Japan to immigration due to fears
of dealing with foreign cultures and languages. Despite this, the responses of
participants to items on the international posture scale seem to indicate an openness to
international communication and acceptance of non-Japanese people and customs.
This could be an indication that young people are becoming more international in

their way of thinking. It could also be explained by the fact that the participants are all students at a "Super Global University." This is a designation given by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) to top level higher education institutions in the country tasking them to attract international students, provide English-language courses of study and promote international research (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, 2011). Therefore, responses to international posture might differ if the study was conducted at a university without the super global distinction.

Responses to the ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self scales seem to indicate that participants were more motivated to learn English because of an idealized image of their future self using their ability rather than by the negative consequences and judgements of others that would occur if they did not achieve proficiency in the language. This was interesting because several Japanese cultural propensities such as a need to maintain face and a feeling of obligation to please superiors and parents (Gudykunst & Kim, 2003), would seem to indicate a greater mean score with items on the L2 ought to scale. However, as these students have just embarked on their university studies, they may be embracing their new-found freedom and be rejecting, to a certain extent, the obligations they felt as high school students.

The results of the usage data gathered corresponds with the findings of earlier studies (Mills, 2016; Lai & Zheng, 2017) which showed that students are engaging in informal English language learning, but are choosing passive learning activities such as the use of dictionary applications and listening to music, rather than social media sites and interactive games. One surprising result here was that 40% of students reported owning a mobile gaming device, but did not use it for informal English-language study. Researchers such as Peterson (2016) have found that digital games can beneficial to second-language acquisition in the Japanese context; therefore, it seems that there is an opportunity present for researchers and educators to exploit ownership of these devices among the target population for the purpose of language learning.

The discovery that international posture and ideal L2 self were significantly and positively correlated with usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning can be explained by a desire to be a part of the L2 community. Because mobile devices can facilitate access to these communities through media and communication tools like social networking sites (Demouy et al., 2016), it is understandable that higher mean scores to these scales would indicate a higher propensity to use mobile devices for informal MALL.

Considering the above, in order to promote informal MALL activity among students, educators can conduct interventions to increase international posture and ideal L2 self. One way to do this is to encourage or facilitate short-term study abroad experiences. A 2018 project by Lee discovered that participation in short-term study abroad programs has a positive and significant impact on university students international posture. However, physical international exchange can be costly and may not be available to all. Interestingly, Ockert (2017) discovered that international posture could also be increased in Japanese elementary school students through exchanges with native speakers via the voice over internet protocol Skype. Further research will need to be conducted to see if similar results can be achieved with

university-aged participants. While these examples are focused on international posture rather than ideal L2 self, research by Yashima (2009) showed that the constructs are linked, and therefore, an increase in one would likely result in an increase in the other.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research project was to determine the influence that international posture, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self have on usage of mobile devices for informal English-language learning in the Japanese university context. Participants' responses to items on the international posture scale showed that they are open to the idea of international communication. Intercultural approach and interest in international vocation displayed the highest mean scores in this dimension. It was also found that mean scores on the ideal L2 self scale were higher than those on the ought to L2 self scale. A significant and positive correlation was found between the informal MALL usage measure and the total international posture scale as well as the sub-scales of intercultural approach, interest in international vocation, and interest in international affairs. A significant positive correlation was also discovered between informal MALL usage and ideal L2 self, but not with ought to L2 self.

Several limitations were present in this study that should be addressed in future research. First, the survey instrument was distributed in the researchers' classes. This could present problems regarding investigator bias (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009) and unequal power distance relationships (Creswell, 2014). In addition, the researcher chose to only use the original four dimensions of Yashima's (2002) international posture scale – intercultural approach, interest in international vocations, ethnocentrism, and interest in foreign affairs. An updated version of the scale which included the construct of having things to communicate to the world" was added in 2009. The researcher decided not to use this dimension for the sake of brevity and because this was a preliminary investigation. However, future research in this area should make use of the updated instrument. Finally, additional studies on this subject would benefit from surveying a more diverse selection of participants and triangulate quantitative data with qualitative techniques such as semi-structured individual and group interviews. Furthermore, having students keep an informal MALL usage diary would add to the accuracy of the self-reported frequency scale.

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Leveraging Online Databases to Enhance Australian International Students' Academic Skills: A Case of Gapminder

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Abstract
The academic adaption in the university context has become a challenge facing the international students in Australia (Yu & Wright, 2016). To date, a number of students have experienced 'academic shock' (Savic, 2008) as they may initially lack of appropriate academic skills as well as proficiency in the English language to adapt to the new education system in Australia. This study investigates the development of Australian international students' academic skills by employing the Gapminder, an open online database, to achieve one milestone set by the subject of International Perspectives. A total of 100 international students from one Australian university completed an online survey. It is noted that the Gapminder could facilitate the development of international students' research skills, critical thinking skills, English reading and writing skills and cultural awareness that could benefit their future study in the university. Data also indicated that the students showed their interests in the Gapminder, which assisted them completing the assigned assessments and enhancing their academic skills, particularly in collecting and analyzing data as well as researching trends. It is implied that leveraging appropriate online databases could help international students enhance both academic skills and English language competence, better facilitating them to adapt to the teaching and learning in Australian universities.

Keywords: Gapminder, online databases, international students, academic skills

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Introduction

International education has ranked the third place in export in Australia that generated $20.3 billion income in 2015-16 (Universities Australia, 2016). Followed by the US and the UK, Australia has become the third most popular destination for international tertiary students, which hosted up to 8% of all international students pursuing their tertiary education abroad in 2014 (Australian Government, 2016). In 2015-16, Australian universities and other tertiary institutions generated $13.7 billion export income from international education (Universities Australia, 2016). It is reported that currently, 24.3% of the students enrolled in Australian universities are international students (Australian Education Network, 2018), and around 32% of the higher degree research students are from overseas in 2014, particularly in the subject areas of engineering and information technology (International Education Association of Australia, 2017).

Students pursing higher education abroad can access educational resources or courses unavailable in their home countries, enhance their linguistic competence and enrich cultural experiences (Yu & Wright, 2016). On the other hand, hosting international students adds cultural diversities to the university profiles except for the financial contributions to the universities' development (Li, Chen & Duanmu, 2010). However, international students are identified as a heterogeneous group with diverse characteristics (Due, Zambrano, Chur-Hansen, Turnbull & Niess, 2015) as they come from different cultural backgrounds and have complex motivations in learning (Rizvi, 2010). This vulnerable group of students encounter a range of challenges when they adapt to the new environment abroad (Sherry, Thomas & Chui, 2010).

Yu and Wright (2016) argue that international students studying in Australian universities encounter academic barriers and face the challenge of academic adaptation to the local education context. The international students' academic adaptation problem includes lacking English language proficiency, having difficulty in meeting the deadlines of assessments, and being unfamiliar with different assessment systems (Alavi & Mansor, 2011; Mustapha, Rahman & Md. Yunus, 2010). Being exposed to a new teaching and learning system when they start their study in Australia, a number of international students may struggle to adjust themselves to the local education environment that could be significantly different from their learning experiences in their home countries, particularly the students from the Asian countries (Yu & Wright, 2016). It may take the students a long period of time to adapt to new teaching and learning system and overcome the 'academic shock' in the learning process (Savic, 2008).

The existing literature has raised the issue of international students' lower proficient English language level that led to their poor academic achievements in learning (Li, Chen & Duanmu, 2010). As the international students in Australia keep a low proficiency in English language and lack of English language skills, they struggle with their academic reading, writing and oral presentations in teaching and learning (Yu & Wright, 2016), which could often be caused by the students' prior experiences of learning English in a teacher-oriented classroom (Sawir, 2005).

Another challenge facing the international students in Australia is the learning style applied in learning (Lu, Le & Fan, 2012). Australian universities apply self-directed

learning, classroom-based discussions and an emphasis on critical thinking and writing in the education practices (Wang, Andre & Greenwood, 2015), which appear to be more student-centered. A number of international students have experienced an entirely different education system, lecture style, assessment system as well as the relationship between students and lecturers (Savic, 2008). The international students are required to change their learning styles to be self-directed learners to adapt to the teaching and learning environment in Australia.

With the development of the technologies, more current technologies have been introduced and employed in education. The integration of current technologies and digital resources into the teaching and learning have changed the predominant pedagogy of teacher-led to student-oriented (Hubbard, 2006; Levy, 2009). Employing recent technologies and appropriate digital resources in teaching and learning could effectively enhance the learners' English language competence and academic capacities (Yuan, Shen & Ewing, 2017).

To date, there have been few studies focusing on utilizing the recent new technologies and online digital resources to scaffold the international students to enhance academic skills to adapt to the new education system. This study aims to fill in this gap by investigating the development of international students' academic capacities by employing Gapminder, a free online database, to achieve one milestone set by the subject of International Perspectives in an Australian university. The key research questions examined in this study are:

1) How do the international students perceive Gapminder in terms of their academic skills development?
2) What skills have the international students improved with the support of Gapminder to complete the assignment?

Subject: International Perspectives

The subject: International Perspectives introduces the concept of Globalization and examines the issues and challenges facing the society from a range of viewpoints, including cultural, economic, social, environmental and political. The study of Globalization requires a pluralistic approach to analyze past and present processes taking place in multiple domains. One of the assessments of this subject requires the student to use Gapminder World to investigate the development in the student's home country over time. It aims to develop the students' data analysis, research, writing and presentation skills. Gapminder provides free teaching resources and reliable statistics, fighting misconceptions about the global development and making the world understandable (Gapminder, 2018). It is a fact tank and develops data visualization tools, allowing people to explore a vast number of global statistics.

The students are required to use the Gapminder to examine the data of 'life expectancy' and 'GDP' of the development of their home countries since 1900 and decide at least three dramatic changes of the two variables during that period of time. They need to use academic sources to research historical events that may cause these dramatic changes and try to find out the evidence of the impacts of Globalization on the country's trail of development. A 600-word academic essay needs to be prepared to report the findings of the students' research.

Method

Participants

A total of 100 international students enrolled in the first-year study in an Australian university were invited to participate an online survey. They were aged from 17 to 25 years old. All participants completed their study of the International Perspectives subject and were informed of the aims and the process of this study by the researchers prior to the commencement of the data collection. All the students showed their interests and commitment to complete the online survey. Among the participants, 67 came from East Asian countries (e.g., China, Japan, South Korea, Mongolia, etc.), 20 were from South Asian countries (e.g., India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, etc.), 11 came from Southeast Asian countries, (e.g., Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Malaysia, Philippines, etc.), and two were from other countries.

Online survey

The online survey designed for this study consisted of four multiple choice close-ended questions, 10 Likert-type questions, two ranking questions and one open-ended question to examine the international students' perceptions and experiences of using Gapminder to enhance their academic skills in learning in the Australian university context. Ten Likert-type questions with five-point multiple choice answers range from: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither disagree nor agree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree. Sample Likert-type questions employed in the study were: *Gapminder is a useful tool to retrieve relevant research data*; *Gapminder facilitates me to enhance my critical thinking skills*; *Gapminder assists me develop my data collection and analysis skills*. The raw statistical data collected from the multiple choices and Likert-type questions were grouped and transformed into tables reporting frequency counts. The qualitative data collected from the open-ended question in terms of the students' understandings of the usefulness of Gapminder in completion of their assignment writing were compared, contrasted and reported in corresponding themes, and the overlapping data were removed so as to avoid redundancy.

Results and discussion

The frequency data from the online survey are presented as follows. Table 1 displays the international students' understandings of the application of Gapminder in research data collection and their research skills development. The participants demonstrated their positive attitudes towards Gapminder regarding collecting relevant research data for the specific research purpose and facilitating the development of their research skills. Up to 85% of the students agreed that Gapminder was a useful tool to retrieve relevant research data and introduced research skills, and 77% of the participants believed that Gapminder could provide a large number of valid and reliable data. Nearly four-fifths of the participants were able to use Gapminder to retrieve the required data and believed that Gapminder assisted them developing the skills of collecting and analyzing research data.

Table 1. Application of Gapminder in data collection and research skills development

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean
S1	4.00%	2.00%	10.00%	60.00%	24.00%	3.98
S2	3.00%	4.00%	8.00%	53.00%	32.00%	4.07
S3	4.00%	3.00%	16.00%	53.00%	24.00%	3.91
S8	3.00%	3.00%	15.00%	52.00%	27.00%	3.97
S9	4.00%	4.00%	12.00%	54.00%	26.00%	3.94

S1: Gapminder introduces research skills (e.g., data collection and analysis).
S2: Gapminder is a useful tool to retrieve relevant research data.
S3: Gapminder provides a large number of valid and reliable data for the research purpose.
S8: I am able to use Gapminder to retrieve the required research data.
S9: Gapminder assists me developing my data collection and analysis skills.

Research skills, particularly the data collection and analysis skills, are the important skills that the university students have to obtain, which, to a great extent, ensure the academic success in their study. In Australian universities, the students are engaged in a range of research projects in different subjects. They need to well develop their research skills to complete the projects and satisfy the requirements set by each subject. As the international students come from a different education background, they are not familiar with the application of empirical research in Australian education system. This is one of the academic culture shocks that the international students may experience and suffer from, particularly to the students from the Asian background (Li, Chen & Duanmu, 2010). As almost all of the participants of this study came from Asian countries (98%), they must have experienced the academic shock of retrieving and using research data in the study. The data suggest that Gapminder has been recognized as a reliable online database providing relevant research data for specific research purposes. The users can enhance their data collection and analysis skills via using Gapminder to retrieve the required research data.

Except for the research skills, other skills as English language skills and critical thinking skills also play decisive roles in achieving the academic success (Parsons, 2010; Sovic, 2008). Data show that over half of the participants admitted that Gapminder helped them enhance their English language skills (58%), particularly in the development of reading and writing skills. Over two-thirds of the students reported that Gapminder assisted them developing their critical thinking skills (67%) as well as cultural awareness (71%).

Table 2. Application of Gapminder in learning skills development

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean
S4	6.00%	7.00%	29.00%	42.00%	16.00%	3.56
S5	5.00%	5.00%	23.00%	48.00%	19.00%	3.71
S6	4.00%	4.00%	21.00%	47.00%	24.00%	3.84

S4: Gapminder helps me develop my English language skills, reading and writing skills in particular.
S5: Gapminder facilitates me to enhance my critical thinking skills.
S6: Gapminder assists me in enhancing my cultural awareness.

Language obstacle is the most obvious and biggest obstacle for those whose first language is not English to adapt to the educational setting in an English-speaking country (Sovic, 2008). Though the international students have achieved the competent level in IELTS (The International English Language Test System) Test, such scores do not guarantee the success in their study. Studying in a university requires the students to articulate their learner English to the proficient user English that can facilitate them to adapt to the new teaching and learning environment (Shen & Yuan, 2013).

Additionally, language and culture are tightly interwoven and neither should be studied in isolation from the other (Ahearn, 2001). It is important for the international students to enhance their cultural awareness not only to scaffold their English language learning (Yuan, 2014) but to well adapt to educational and social settings (Nieto & Booth, 2010). It is noted that the Gapminder can facilitate the development of the students' English language reading and writing skills as well as the cultural awareness as they are required to work out the evidence of the developing trends of their home countries and the impacts of globalization to complete the assigned research tasks.

The research projects require the students to apply their critical thinking skills to examine the specific perspectives within certain areas. These are the essential skills that ensure the students' academic success in the university (Yu & Wright, 2016). The students were found to be able to enhance the critical thinking skills by using Gapminder to track the dramatic changes of the two variables of 'life expectancy' and 'GDP' in the students' home countries over the past 100 years. Table 3 demonstrates the rankings of the five skills that the students have improved after using Gapminder to complete the assignment writing. It is found that the students have improved data collection skills most, followed by English writing skills, critical thinking skills, data analysis skills and literature review skills.

Table 3. Improved skills after using Gapminder to complete the assignment writing

Skills	1	2	3	4	5	Score
English writing	31.00%	18.00%	14.00%	18.00%	19.00%	3.24
Literature review	7.00%	20.00%	18.00%	21.00%	34.00%	2.45
Critical thinking	20.00%	19.00%	30.00%	20.00%	11.00%	3.17
Data collection	28.00%	22.00%	13.00%	25.00%	12.00%	3.29
Data analysis	14.00%	21.00%	25.00%	16.00%	24.00%	2.85

The results reflect the functions of Gapminder that provide reliable data for its users, which could assist them achieving the tasks assigned. The Gapminder users can enhance their critical thinking skills when they try to track specific data from this online database to satisfy the research aim. The students are able to develop their data analysis skills, English writing skills as well as literature review skills when they analyze the retrieved data and wrap up the research findings into a report. It is a training process for the learners to develop the closely interrelated research skills that are essential to the academic success in a university. Gapminder as an online database has triggered this process by providing relevant research data for the initiatives of data analysis and the follow-up data interpretation and findings generating.

The students indicated that Gapminder provided "real" and "precise data" and helped them "to know what happened in the past" (see Table 4). As an online database, Gapminder is equipped with a large amount of factual and accurate data for its users. The international students have to get used to the applying the data to the empirical research in the Australian university learning context. Gapminder is also user-friendly, making "the data collection and data analysis easy and fast" (see Table 4). The students can well develop the concept of globalization by acquiring some relevant information of different countries across the world" and studying the "various relationships between different factors of different countries" and "the development and changes in different fields over the time" (see Table 4). Having a global vision can help the international students become global citizens to adapt to different settings. It is noticed that Gapminder could be used as a foundation to inform the students of a range of cultural knowledge with specific research data and initiate the investigation in the global context. However, very few students would like Gapminder to present the data in the Chinese language as well, reflecting the students' lower competent English level. A few students would like to have more specific data from Gapminder.

Table 4. Reflection on the use of Gapminder to complete the assignment writing

Positive comments	Different voices
"It provides real data."	"Not very specific."
"It provides a lot of precise data."	"No Chinese
"Gapminder shows various relationships between different	language."
factors of different countries."	"No comment."
"…easy to understand the information."	
"Gapminder made the data collection and data analysis	
easy and fast."	
"Gapminder helps me to know what happened in the past."	
"…this is a useful website for me to get to know some	
information of different countries across the world."	
"…it clearly indicates the development and changes in	
different fields over the time."	
"…it shows me the trends."	
"Gapminder helped me gather specific information needed	
for my research task and also helped me notice the	
differences between different cultures."	
"…it promotes a new way of thinking about the world and	
society."	

In terms of the application of Gapminder, nearly three-quarters (73%) of the students would like to use it in their future study. The participants showed their interests in using Gapminder that assisted them completing the assigned assignment. For the international students coming from Asian countries, it might have been the first time for them to be exposed to an online database and struggled to complete the assignment by employing the empirical data. The students demonstrated their appreciation to the learning experiences that could assist them overcoming the academic shock and well adapting to the teaching and learning in Australian universities.

Table 5. Students' intention to employ Gapminder in their future study

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean
5%	4%	18%	46%	27%	3.86

Gapminder appears to be a useful online database for the international students to retrieve relevant data. It acted as a trigger to enhance the students' academic skills, English reading and writing skills as well as cultural awareness, helping them adapt to the teaching and learning in Australian universities.

Conclusions

It could be concluded that Gapminder can facilitate international students to enhance their research skills, English language reading and writing skills, cultural awareness and critical thinking skills, assisting them well overcome the academic cultural shock and adapt to the Australian education environment. As a free online database, Gapminder provides factual, accurate and reliable data for those who would like to utilize relevant data to initiate the research. It could be implied that leveraging appropriate online databases could help international students develop both academic skills and English language competence, better facilitating the academic success in their study. Findings of this study could well be employed to inform the teaching of international students in Australian universities and in other similar contexts as well. However, this study only used one research method – online survey, for data collection. The future study might employ the interviews to collect more detailed data from the participants to triangulate the data collected.

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Transformational Model of Management for Integrated Schools in the Philippines

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Abstract
One of the Department of Education's initiatives to increase the literacy rate in the Philippines has been the conversion of elementary schools into integrated schools, meaning, a high school department is created or added. In the Northern Luzon area particularly in Ilocos Norte and Laoag City, nine elementary schools have been converted into Integrated Schools. This is to make sure that those who graduate from these schools will continue their schooling as these are practically located in isolated places. Unfortunately, the transformation of these elementary
schools into integrated schools poses interesting challenges to the present school administrators because from managing just an elementary school, they already need to oversee the operation of an elementary and a high school and now with an added two-year Senior High School in one campus. This means, their responsibilities have become doubled if not multiplied. This phenomenological study, therefore, aimed to develop a model based on the practices of the school administrators of integrated schools in the management of their respective institutions. Results of the interviews and focused group discussions reveal that there are management practices that are common to the integrated schools. However, some practices were also found to be unique to the schools. These practices reflect their coping strategies toward the limitations accompanying the changes in structure, instruction, and system of operation in the school. From these practices in managing change, processes and approaches were identified and a transformational model of management for integrated schools was subsequently designed.

Keywords: integrated school, transformational model, management

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Introduction

The value of education particularly in a developing country like the Philippines cannot be underestimated. It is believed as the tool that could transform a person to live a better life and more importantly a socially well-being. According to Dolan (1991), education is the primary avenue for upward social and economic mobility. All in all, it is one's education which decides what one can make out of his/her life.

In addition to the Philippine Constitution, the right of every Filipino to quality basic education is further emphasized in Republic Act 9155 or the Governance of Basic Education Act of 2001. Along with Republic Act 6655 or the Free Secondary Education Act, these laws reaffirm the policy of the State to protect and promote the rights of all Filipinos by providing children free and compulsory education in the elementary and high school level.

Corollary to this, the Philippines came up with the Philippine *Education for All 2015* National Action Plan entitled, *Functionally Literate Filipinos, an Educated Nation*. The EFA 2015 Plan emphasizes the need to provide basic education for all and adds a dimension to what has been thus far almost exclusively school-based education. It points to an "urgent need to respond to the learning needs of youth and adults who are either have never been to school, have dropped out, reverted to illiteracy, or need basic or advanced skills to find jobs." It suggests a "viable alternative learning system" to formal schooling that together with the schools can ensure that "minimum learning achievement will be a reality for all Filipinos." Thus, the EFA 2015 Plan emphasizes that educational opportunities are channels of learning which can become effective conduits of values orientation, consciousness and information useful and relevant to a wide range of social goals (UNESCO, 2015).

In accordance with the broadening of accessibility to basic education, the program commitment has the following components: a) establishment of a school in every barangay not having an elementary school and in every town without a high school; b) organization of multi-grade classrooms; c) completion of incomplete elementary schools; and d) provision of basic instructional materials, facilities and equipment at the elementary and high school levels (Department of Education, 2006).

Related to the first commitment, several elementary schools nationwide have been converted into integrated schools to make sure that those who graduate from elementary schools who have to travel several kilometers away from the nearest high school will continue schooling. Observations show that a number of elementary graduates especially from far-flung areas would find it difficult to move to the next ladder of education because there is no accessible high school in the area, or that, there is a high school but it is several kilometers away. Parents even admit that the expenses their children have to spend for travel to the nearest high school are such a burden to them.

In Ilocos Norte and Laoag City, nine elementary schools have been converted into Integrated Schools to help achieve the goals of EFA 2015. Some of these schools have already the complete regular four-year curriculum and are starting even to offer Senior High School effective June 2016.

Unfortunately, the transformation of these elementary schools into integrated schools poses interesting challenges to the present school administrators because from managing just an elementary school, they already need to oversee the operation of an elementary and a high school with an added two-year Senior High School in one campus. This means, their responsibilities have become doubled if not multiplied.

Generally, school administrators, also known as the school principals, are responsible for the overall operation of their schools – from leading school reforms that would raise student achievement to facilitating the school's interactions with parents and other stakeholders in the community, developing school discipline policies and enforcing them, ensuring that facilities and equipment are available, safe and in good working order, and preparing and submitting reports and documents.

More specifically, the NCBSSH or National Competency-Based Standards for School Heads (2010) defines the different dimensions of being an effective school administrator. It clearly states that an effective school administrator is one who can implement continuous school improvement, who can produce better learning outcomes among its pupils/students and who can help change institutional culture among others. All these become even more challenging when the school administrator manages an integrated school.

Certainly, administrators of integrated schools oversee a complex operation and according to one author, strong principals may be the single most important factor in determining the effectiveness of a school. As Larry Payne, Director of the University of Houston-based Institute for Urban Education has stressed: *The principal is the principle, and everything flows from there* (Markley, 1996).

Empirical researches have been conducted along educational management and leadership. But after almost a decade since the establishment of integrated schools in the province, no research along documenting the practices and difficulties of school administrators managing integrated schools has been recorded or published yet. A study on such a concern that could eventually lead to the drawing out of a management model that could guide not only the administrators of other integrated schools in the country but also those of single schools is, therefore, deemed significant.

This study therefore aimed to develop a model for the management of integrated schools in the Philippines. Specifically, it sought answers to the following:

1. How do school administrators manage their integrated schools along the seven domains of school leadership and management namely:
   a) school leadership;
   b) instructional leadership;
   c) creating a student-centered learning climate;
   d) human resource management and professional development;
   e) parent involvement and community partnership;
   f) school management and operations; and
   g) personal and professional attributes and interpersonal effectiveness?

2. What model can be developed in the management of integrated schools?

Literature Review

The Principal as a School Administrator

As stipulated in DepEd Order number 17, s. 1997 titled, "Adopting a Policy of Empowering School Principals," all public elementary and secondary school principals are vested with instructional administrative and fiscal autonomy for a more effective and efficient delivery of quality basic education.

Related to this, a full-fledged school principal in every complete public elementary and secondary school is given a plantilla item provided they have passed the qualifying examination for principals. Teachers who are designated "officers-in-charge" or "teachers-in-charge" of schools shall be upgraded to become plantilla items of school principals in the said schools. School principal items shall be considered of equal rank and salary grade whether for the elementary or secondary schools.

Moreover, DepEd Order No. 42, s. 2007 stipulates the qualifications of a school head. A school head is a person responsible for the administrative and instructional supervision of the school or cluster of schools. As such, the school head is expected to possess the following leadership dimensions: *educational leadership* – the ability to craft and pursue a shared school vision and mission, as well as develop and implement curriculum policies, programs and projects; *people leadership* – the ability to work and develop effective relationships with stakeholders and exert a positive influence upon people; and *strategic leadership* – the ability to explore complex issues from a global perspective, manage an educational enterprise and maximize the use of resources. In addition to these and to passing the national qualifying test, applicants for principal positions must possess the following criteria: performance; experience and outstanding accomplishments; education and training; potential; and psycho-social attributes and personality traits.

National Competency-Based Standards for School Heads

The National Competency Standards for School Heads are contained in the DepEd Order No. 32 series of 2010, also known as "The National Adoption and Implementation of the National Competency-Based Standards for School Heads." This framework defines the different dimensions of being an effective school head. It clearly states that an effective school head is one who can implement continuous school improvement, who can produce better learning outcomes among its pupils/students and who can help change institutional culture among others.

The competencies identified for the school heads are classified into seven domains for school leadership and management. These include: school leadership, instructional leadership, creating a student-centered learning climate, HR management and professional development, parent involvement and community partnership, school management and operations, and personal and professional attributes and interpersonal effectiveness.

School leadership. Effective leadership is the core of every successful school. This domain emphasizes that effective school leaders collaboratively create a vision and establish a climate for teachers, non-teaching personnel and learners to reach their highest level of achievement.

Instructional leadership. Education reforms have created an urgent need for strong emphasis on the development of instructional leadership skills. This domain covers those actions in instructional leadership (e.g. assessment for learning, development and implementation, instructional supervision and technical assistance that school administrators take or delegate to others to promote good teaching and high level learning among pupils/students.

Creating a student-centered learning climate. The domain requires that effective school leaders set high standards and create high expectations for learners at the same time recognizing their achievement.

HR management and professional development. Effective school leaders develop the skills and talents of those around them. This domain includes the nurturing and supporting of a learning community that recruits teachers based on NCBTS and promotes the continuous growth and development of personnel based on IPPD and SPPD.

Parent involvement and community partnership. Effective school administrators engage in shared decision making with the community in achieving universal participation, completion and functional literacy. This domain covers parent and other stakeholders' involvement to raise learners' performance.

School management and operations. This domain covers the critical role school administrators play in managing the implementation and monitoring of their schools' improvement plan/annual implementation plan.

Personal and professional attributes and interpersonal effectiveness. Effective school leaders are models of professionalism and ethical and moral leadership. This domain includes the development of pride in the nobility of the teaching profession
 These same seven domains with their accompanying competencies were used in this study as bases for describing the practices of and challenges encountered by the school administrators in managing integrated schools.

Conversion of Elementary Schools into Integrated Schools

Observations from previous years show that there have been an alarming low participation rate of high school students and a relatively high dropout rate, particularly from those living in areas with no secondary school or with a secondary school but is about 8-10 kilometers away.

With this scenario, parents find it costly to send their children to a distant school which requires them to spend a considerable amount for transportation excluding school and food allowances. It is usually this financial constraint that prevents the students from continuing their secondary education and leading them to dropping out of school.

The transformation of elementary schools into integrated schools is mandated by DECS Order number 91 s, 1999. This order allows elementary schools to offer secondary education particularly to qualified schools where their distance to a nearest public high school is at least 8 kilometers.

The conversion, therefore, of eligible elementary schools into integrated schools opened an opportunity for children to enter high school and pursue their education until they graduate. This is not only less costly for parents but is also more convenient on the part of students who would travel only a short distance to reach the school. Moreover, the conversion of qualified elementary schools into integrated schools is expected to utilize a more efficient operation of the Local Educational System in the municipality and to encourage students who dropped out to return to school and finish their basic education. Subsequently, this would give them the opportunity to obtain the quality of education that they deserve and become future leaders and professionals of the province and of the country in general.

Once the elementary school is converted into an integrated school by virtue of a House Bill enacted by the Congress, endorsed by the Senate and later approved by the President to become a law, all personnel including the school principal, assets, liabilities and records are transferred and absorbed by the integrated school and that the Secretary of Education will be directed to immediately include in the Department's program and operationalization of the school, the funding of which shall be included in the annual General Appropriations Act (GAA).

This set-up makes the role, duties and responsibilities of the school principal/administrator doubly challenging and complex.

Models of Educational Management

Two of the best known frameworks of educational management are those by Bolam and Deal (1991) and Morgan (1997). However, in this study, Bush's (2007) main theories which are classified into six major models of educational management were highlighted. These models which include formal, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity and cultural, also parallel leadership models. For instance, in the formal model, administrators possess authority legitimized by their formal positions within the organization and are accountable to sponsoring bodies for the activities of their organization. The type of leadership therefore that is most closely associated with this model is *transformational* or *managerial*. *Managerial leadership* assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviors and that if these functions are carried out competently the work of others in the organization will be facilitated (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999).

In the collegial model, power is shared among some or all members of the organization who are thought to have a shared understanding about the aims of the institution; hence, the type of leadership associated with this model is participative leadership. In the political model, policy and decisions emerge through a process of negotiation and bargaining; thus, the type of leadership associated with this model is transactional leadership. In the subjective model, each person is considered with a subjective and selective perception of the organization; hence, is associated with the

post-modern leadership. In the ambiguity model, uncertainty and unpredictability in organizations are stressed thus in a climate of ambiguity, *traditional notions of leadership* require modification. Lastly, the cultural model focuses on the values, beliefs and norms of individuals which make the heart of organizations thus is paralleled with the *moral* type of leadership.

Essentially, a management's success is dependent on the extent to which each role in the organization is fulfilled. It is believed that for effective management, an organization ought to bring together a team of leaders that, when working together in harmony, can scale the most complex and dynamic of issues.

Methodology

This study made use of phenomenological research in analyzing and interpreting narrative data. Data were therefore gathered from the principals/school administrators of the eight Integrated Schools in Laoag City and in Ilocos Norte through semi-structured interview. Some stakeholders like parents and barangay officials were also interviewed.

Prior to the official conduct of the interviews, the interview schedule was tried out to one former integrated school administrator. This was done to determine the clarity and validity of the questions in terms of soliciting answers to the identified problems of this study. From this, minor modifications on some questions were done. The Integrated School where the interview schedule was tried out was still part of the participants. The interviews were recorded which were later transcribed, encoded and interpreted. Field notes were also used.

Prior to the gathering of data, permission was granted from the Schools Division Superintendents of both the divisions of Ilocos Norte and Laoag City. All the participants were provided a copy of the Informed Consent Form and the aims of the research. The nature of the study was also discussed with them by the researcher. Requests were communicated to them to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. In addition, signed consent was obtained from all the participants prior to the gathering of data and they were assured that no identifying information would be included in any part of the research report. All the participants were likewise assured that the information they would be providing would be used only for this study and that they were informed that they could withdraw from the study without any risk or penalty. Lastly, the participants gave their consent to the dissemination of the results of the study and that they could have access to the results at the MMSU Graduate School library in Laoag and at the MMSU Main Library in Batac.

Discussion

There are salient practices of the integrated schools that were identified. Some of these are common to them all. However, there are also practices unique to each of them. These practices were consolidated along the domains of school leadership prescribed in the NCBSSH.

School Leadership

According to the NCBSSH (2010), effective leadership is the core of every successful school. This domain emphasizes that effective school leaders collaboratively create a vision and establish a climate for teachers, non-teaching personnel and learners to reach their highest level of achievement.

Based on the results of the interviews, the school administrators of the integrated schools practice democratic leadership style as manifested in their approaches in managing their respective institutions. They encourage creativity, and team members are often highly engaged in projects and decisions. The administrators' approaches include: a) communicating the vision, mission, goals and objectives of their schools; b) capability and team building; c) unifying workforce; d) collegial problem solving; e) leading by example; and f) managing change.

Communicating the vision, mission, goals and objectives of their schools. From the initial take off as an integrated school, it has become a culture of these schools in their subsequent operations that the vision, mission, goals and objectives of DepEd and their schools are presented and deliberated each year through a meeting with the stakeholders particularly during their first general assembly at the start of the school year. However, prior to the dissemination process, the administration and the teachers deliberate among themselves first to ensure uniformity in interpretation. This is reflected in the following claims:

> "I explain the vision, mission, goals and objectives of DepEd through a general assembly meeting with the stakeholders. We discuss these in meetings, especially PTA general assembly meetings to ask our stakeholders what they can do to support DepEd in general and our school in particular."   -Myra

Capability and team building is conducted at a quarterly basis complimenting the Learner Action Center (LAC) being held every Thursday where teachers also engage in th collaborative development of learning materials.

Unifying workforce. Promoting unity and cohesive relationship is sustained by all the administrators. Since everyone is in themselves beginners, their integration made them learn from their own experiences and explore on possible actions particularly at times of crisis brought about by budgetary, human and material resources constraints.

Collegial problem solving. Evidently, the school administrators employ various strategies in approaching problems in their respective institutions which are considered situation-and-person specific. One is r*esolving integration issues*. As a means to resolve an issue, the school administrators use their convincing powers to encourage the teachers to embrace changes. As some teachers narrated:

> "… we were motivated and encouraged by the principal that the inclusion of high school in our school will benefit many students in our place." "Namaymayat ta basssit ngamin ti

mabayadan ti public school ngem ti private schools."
("Benefited in the sense that it would be a public school,
minimal fees would be collected compared to the expensive
fees in the private schools.") – Mimi

Another is *resolving conflicts*. The administrators under study were found to be both
an arbitrator and a conciliator in resolving internal and external conflicts. This could
be gauged from the contention of the administrators who shared:

"…We solve problems at the school level. I assist teachers
and students to understand the problem and identify possible
solutions." - Remie
"I talked with the PTA, I talked with the teachers and
together, we solved the problem. They accepted their fault
and the matter was solved." – Miriam

Interestingly, problems related to lack of classrooms, dearth of teachers, enrolment,
lack of learning resources, school drop-outs, and land dispute were addressed with the
principal tapping all possible stakeholders of the school.

Leading by example and managing change. Leading is not merely a matter of telling
what needs to be done. To carry out things in accordance with the plan, the school
administrators had to be more of a demonstrator rather than teller. As the teachers
disclosed:

"…She sets example, sir. *No agob-obra isuna,
ayabannakami tapno kano ammominto met ti agobra*."
(When she is working, she calls for us to show what she is
doing for us to be oriented.) – Mimi

In terms of managing change, the experience of two school administrators were
highlighted. One school administrator did not suffer the rigor of introducing change as
the integration was started by her predecessor. She claimed:

"For the seven months that I am here, sir, my first concern is
to continue the works of my predecessor. I have to continue
what they had started like the facilities, the physical plant,
and improvement of the teachers-like promotion." – Remie

That of the other school administrator is unique, the constituents and the service
community crave for change. He shared:

"… when I came here, all teachers were disoriented because
the former administrator was about to retire then, they were
somewhat neglected. But when I came, it's good that they
were not resistant to change. They wanted change. Even the
mentality of the parents here, previously, and even the
alumni, they were not active in supporting the school
because they could not see change." – Rogie

Generally, however, the school administrators instituted change in their respective schools. To carry out the planned change, they instituted some identified measures to minimize resistance and tension following democratic leadership.

Instructional Leadership

The administration and teachers were found to be aggressive in their desire to improve instruction. It could be noted that the first sets of teachers that manned the secondary program were elementary oriented. Further, the demands of the new curriculum, the K to 12 program, is quite challenging that they have to exert so much effort to address dearth of instructional materials. Mentoring particularly on the fundamentals of computer by teachers who are computer literate made them survive the challenges. The aggressive involvement of other stakeholders such as the parents, alumni and community enabled them to put up facilities in aid of instruction.

The religious implementation of the LAC propelled production of more instructional materials complimented by the teachers own collections downloaded electronically. Likewise, their building connections with other schools and alumni, and strong involvement of the parents, made them improve library collections.

Their active participation in activities spearheaded by professional organizations such as the MTAP compliment the teaching and learning activities. Adherence to the standards of test construction guide them in assessing students' performance. Although department heads are empowered to directly supervise their constituents, surprise visit is being done by the principals to determine other classroom and instructional needs rather than evaluating methods and pedagogy.

Creating a Student-Centered Learning Climate

The strong participation and involvement of parents, community and alumni, in addition to the support provided by DepEd itself, enabled them to put up technology facility to support computer education and computer technology program to develop the skills of students particularly in that track and as take-off point for teachers to a multi-media mode of delivering instruction.

Worth noting is the involvement of the barangay council particularly the *barangay tanod* who help ensure student security. The creation of the Child Protection Committee ascertains protection of the rights of the students and prevents child abuse in the campus. In addition, a guard is hired by the PTA to oversee student security within the school.

Classroom environment is structured in a manner that they are conducive to student learning. Proper lighting and ventilation is facilitated from the support of parents in materials and labor.

Human Resource Management and Professional Development

Capability and team building surfaced in most of the schools. The innate potentials of the teachers were identified and their services are being tapped to assist in some management operations. With the strong motivation of the principals, the teachers

participate in trainings and seminars at their own expense, and more importantly, to pursue graduate studies – all to provide for their professional development.

The empowerment of the department heads and coordinators made the teachers self-propelling. More significantly, coaching and mentoring is prominent among the schools which enabled the schools to self-organize and learn from their own experiences.

A one-on-one feedback is observed for teachers to be made aware of areas they need to improve on. In terms of student performance, they are consulted individually to provide for appropriate alternative measures to address their learning needs.

Although a committee is tasked to evaluate their performance, their process allows teachers to assist in the appraisal of their own credentials in aid of ranking and promotion. Every teacher has his/her Individual Professional Plan Development (IPPD) in place which guides them in their daily activities throughout the school year. This also serves as basis for their performance evaluation.

Parent Involvement and Community Partnership

The assistance extended by parents, the community, the local government unit (LGU) and alumni is unquestionable. Besides providing financial assistance, parents volunteer to help in the maintenance of the campus and security of school properties. Repairs of facilities especially electrical, carpentry and construction works, are handled by parents– without asking for remuneration.

Rapport with the community appeared to be highly manifested as evidenced by their full participation and involvement in school activities particularly during fund raising projects. What is more unique is the recognition of the parents' efforts, especially those who are actively involved in helping in the development of the school, where they are awarded certificates of recognition at the end of each school year. These are the services they offer beyond the usual activities in the *Brigada Eskwela.*

School Management and Operations

Another important characteristic of most of the integrated schools is that of the principals,' department heads' and teachers' sharing of responsibility. The culture of mutual, collaborative and coordinated responsibility exist in schools making the principals' work less tedious and less stressful.

Personal and Professional Attributes and Interpersonal Effectiveness

The principals were found to possess positive personality traits characteristic of democratic leaders. Their being open-minded leads to a more collaborative decision-making where teachers, parents and other stakeholders could freely provide suggestions in order to solve problems. They are not only leaders, they too, are followers. They work without necessarily seeking assistance from others and whose actions signal the rest of the teachers to also move and do their part.

Transparency is evident in most of the integrated schools. Canvassing and acquisition of school supplies is handled by a committee, even donations and collections are managed by them and reported to parents. Further, parents are regularly informed on the developments in the school and needs are presented in aid of planning and formulating strategies to address them.

Internal equity is the secret of some integrated schools where faculty are treated fairly especially when it comes to evaluation of their performance. Their being consulted and participation in the evaluation of their IPPD and credentials make them aware of how they faired in the general assessment.

Management Model

A careful analysis of the practices of the integrated schools led to the development of a model dubbed as **Transformational Model of Management for Integrated Schools** (Figure 1).

The integrated schools are relatively young. As of the moment, the schools have not gained full status as an integrated school since the current curriculum year being implemented in the secondary level is still at Grade 11. Two stages of development were therefore identified: *Initiation Phase* and *Transition Phase.* The first phase covers the initial year of implementation of the conversion while the second is from the second year onward. These schools are considered to be still in the *Transition stage.*

Based on the experiences of the integrated schools, as reflected in the disclosures of the administrators, teachers, parents and community leaders, 10 **C**s surfaced in their practices: Convince, Campaign, Communicate, Collaborate, Cooperate, Coordinate, Control, Consult, Connect and Compensate. These processes do not necessarily come in succession, they are situation-and-function specific.

In summing up, the model developed is an offshoot of the new leadership initiatives under the Results-Based Performance Management System (RPMS) and National Competency Standards for School Heads (NCSSH) which gave more autonomy to school leaders and teachers to lead and manage schools. The system identified the domains upon which the administrators, together with the stakeholders, could draw initiatives in the development of the school. Emphasis is on innovation and to instill greater professionalism in the management of schools.

| | Initiation Phase | Transition Phase |

DOMAINS	PROCESSES	APPROACHES		
School leadership	Communicate	Deliberate Vision, Mission, Goals and Onbjectives with teachers		
		Discuss VMGO with parents and community		
		Integration of VMGO in school activities, programs and projects		
		Resolving integration issues		
		Training, coaching and mentoring of teachers		
		Development and implementation of plans		
		Establishing harmonious relationship		
	Control	Capability building		
		Monitoring development		
		Collegial problem solving		
		Resolving internal and external problems		
		Utilization of facilities		
		Designation of heads and creation of committees		
	Collaborate	Team building		
		Decision making with teachers, parents, community		
		Seeking support of municipal officials		
		Development of plans , programs and projects		
		Inviting heads of Local Government Units for repair and construction of infrastructure		
	Connect	Team building with constituents		
		Seeking support of municipal officials		
		Acquainting self with school environment		
		Seeking support of alumni		
		Generating resource materials		

	Convince	Encouraging support of parents, barangay officials		
		Home visitation of potential school leavers and drop out		
		Unifying workforce		
	Campaign	Encouraging enrolment		
	Consult	Seeking assistance of LGU on real property disputes		
			Benchmarking with big schools and integrated schools	
		Dealing student discipline with parents		
Instructional leadership	Control	Improving teaching methods and pedagogy		
		Curriculum enrichment		
		Coaching and mentoring of teachers		
		Implementation of the Learning Action Cell		
		Monitoring teacher preparations and students' performance		
		Preparation of skill-oriented tests		
		Surprise classroom visit		
		Analyzing grade sheets		
		Empowering department heads		
	Convince	Implementation of the Open High School Program		
	Collaborate	Development of instructional materials		
		Formulating remedial measures		
	Cooperate	Enhancing teachers' relationships		
		Seeking parents' assistance on students' learning		
	Connect		Use of educational technology	
			Generating resource materials	
			Establishing ICT facilities	
			Soliciting alumni assistance for AV equipment	

	Cooperate	Dealing with students with difficulties		
	Coordinate		Participation in activities of professional organizations	
			Enhancing student and teachers' competencies	
	Communicate	Conferring with subject teachers on students' performance		
		Updating parents on pupils'/students' performance		
Creating a student-centered learning climate	Control	Ensuring pupils'/students' safety		
		Imposing policies on students' conduct		
		Utilization of facilities		
		Monitoring students' attendance		
	Convince	Encourage use of multi-media		
		Production of instructional materials		
		Setting conducive classroom environment		
	Collaborate	Conduct of safety drills		
		Putting up of ICT and AV facilities		
		Participation of PT and Barangay officials in pupils/students security		
		LGU, Parent and community participation in the maintenance of facilities		
		PTA involvement in student discipline		
	Connect		Access to ICT	
		Generation of resource materials		
	Coordinate	Mentoring of teachers on the use of ICT		
		Seeking assistance on shortages		
	Consult	Benchmarking on experiences of other schools		
Human Resource management and professional development	Cooperate		Membership in task force and committees	
			Coaching and mentoring of colleagues	
		Team building		
			Tapping teachers' expertise	
			Participation in administrative works	

	Control	Preparation of IPPD	
		Implementation of TDNA	
		Designation of department heads	
		Empowering heads	
		Monitoring teachers' preparations	
		Supervision of classroom activities	
	Coordinate	Evaluation of teachers' performance	
	Convince	Open ranking system	
		Professional development of teachers	
		Modeling attitude and behavior towards work	
		Participation in trainings and seminars	
	Communicate	Giving feedback on results of evaluation	
	Consult	Confer with teachers evaluation of their performance	
Parent involvement and community partnership	Connect	Resolving problem with parents and barangay officials	
		PTA involvement in preparing plans and projects	
		Alumni involvement in school development	
	Cooperate	Sustaining enrolment	
		Resolving problems on students	
		Parents' participation in students learning	
		Maintenance of school facilities	
		Upkeep of school campus	
		Sustaining school security and safety	
	Compensate	Recognition of deserving parents	
	Coordinate	PTA involvement in benchmarking	
	Collaborate	Conduct of fund raising activities	
		Implementation of plans and projects	
	Communicate	Keeping parents and community abreast of developments and needs	
		Sustaining relationship with parent, barangay officials, alumni	
School management and operations	Control		Proper allocation of budget
			Shared responsibility
			Direct supervision by department chair
		Utilization of school facilities	
			Committee participation

		Cooperate	Mentoring of colleagues
			Sharing of expertise
			Production of instructional materials
			Sharing of personal resources
		Coordinate	Involvement of parents, barangay officials, alumni
			Assistance of other schools
		Consult	Participation of teachers in prioritization of needs
		Connect	Sustained cohesiveness of employees
			Collegial problem solving
		Communicate	Goal setting with teachers and parents
			Modeling and good followership
			Brainstorming on issues and concerns
Personal and professional attributes		Cooperate	Encourage participation of everybody
			Sustained work relationship
		Connect	Belongingness among constituents
		Convince	Sparks teachers action
		Control	Friendly dealing but authority at work
			Fair treatment of employees
			Transparency in evaluation and finances

Figure 1. The Model

Lastly, the model is reflective of the complexity theory of educational management. The Complexity theory (Ng, 2015) establishes the founding knowledge in understanding the school as a complex organization, as well as an important stakeholder in addressing national demands. The growing complexity in the management of the integrated school is marked with processes and approaches in dealing with concerns particularly during their transition period which could be a benchmark for other schools of similar situation, as well as already established schools, to model upon.

Conclusion

In their efforts to self-organize, the integrated schools implemented measures to cope with the challenges brought about by changes in their organizational set up and system of operation. As they cope with these challenges, practices evolved in order for them to survive the trials of conversion and ensure that no activity is jeopardized despite budgetary constraints and limited resources.

In their struggles to survive and overcome restrictions, they developed a unique organizational culture that enables them to keep their schools going and more importantly, the management of changes in the organization.

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The Effect of Socio-Economic Status on Informal Mobile-Assisted Language Learning

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Abstract
In this study, the researcher investigated the role of socio-economic status (SES) on acceptance and usage of mobile devices for the purpose of informal language learning. In order to compare students of different SES, the researcher collected data from public university and private university students. Data were collected through a paper-based survey instrument and semi-structured interviews. The results of the survey were analyzed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics. After analyzing these data, several students were asked to participate in semi-structured interviews to delve deeper into the answers they provided on the questionnaire. The results of this study showed that there was a significant difference in usage of informal mobile-assisted language learning between students who were economically advantaged and those who were not.

Keywords: Informal learning, Socio-economic status, MALL, Japanese students, Higher education

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Introduction

Japan is known as a highly technologically proficient country with a wealthy population. However, since the 1990s, the country has been in economic recession. Currently, one in six Japanese children live under the poverty line (CAO, 2015). This growing socio-economic gap reduces the chances of these children gaining access to quality education and the technical skills necessary to thrive in the modern world. In particular, English language skills are important for success in a wide range of careers. In this global society, companies are expanding their businesses beyond local boarders and connecting to other companies around the world. Because of this trend, people must possess adequate proficiency in English to communicate with associates or customers in other countries. In addition, in order to encourage people to work in international situations, numerous Japanese companies are using English proficiency as a criterion for hiring and promotion decisions. University students need to study English to prepare for their future and mobile technology offers several advantages to help them in this task. Mobile technology provides an opportunity to study in any place and at any time. Yet, the growing economic gap between citizens, might affect access to these devices. Furthermore, because lower socio-economic status (SES) students might have less opportunity to study and travel abroad, their interest and familiarity with foreign language media might be reduced, which could impact their informal contact with this content. For these reasons, it is important to find out how SES might affect students' informal mobile assisted language learning (MALL).

Literature Review

SES in Japan. Japan is one of the wealthiest countries in the world, however, poverty and wealth inequality are growing concerns. According to Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (2016), since 1985, the relative poverty rate has been increasing every year. In 2016, the relative poverty rate was 15.6, which means that 15.6 % of the population lived under the poverty line. In addition, a number of research studies have explored the relationship between SES and education.

A research group from Ochanomizu University (2013) conducted a study regarding the factors that influence elementary and middle school students' learning such as SES, parents' academic background, students' learning environment outside of school and their motivation. The researchers found that students from higher SES received higher scores on Japanese reading and math exams than lower SES students. The possible reasons cited were that students with higher SES and parents with higher academic background were provided with more opportunities for learning such as the chance to interact with English-language speakers and foreign cultures, library access, and talking about school life or their future at home. These activities indirectly influenced students' current learning habits and might also influence their learning in higher education settings.

The Japanese university system. In Japan, public and private universities have different enrollment systems. Public universities require applicants to take both the Center Exam, a national assessment conducted by the National Center for University Entrance Examinations, and an individual examination for the university to which the student is applying. However, there is an alternate way that some students can be admitted to public university. This is through the recommendation system and the

admission office system where students are granted admission due to a special skill they possess and the results of an interview. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2018), about 28% of students are accepted through this alternative system. Private universities, on the other hand, tend to offer more opportunity for students to be accepted to their universities in non-traditional ways. Approximately 40% of students, for example, were accepted through a recommendation in private universities (MEXT, 2017a). Also, because many private universities are affiliated with private secondary schools in Japan, students are often granted automatic admission if they graduate from one of these institutions. For this reason, students whose goal is to enter a public university usually spend more time preparing for standardized examinations.

Mobile-assisted language learning. Mobile learning is characterized by the use of mobile technologies to acquire knowledge anywhere and anytime. In the last decade, mobile technologies have improved greatly, and this has allowed learners to make use of the portability and flexibility of these devices across disciplines. For language learners, mobile devices are especially useful because they allow for access to authentic content, native speaker interactions, and because of the commercial opportunities, a growing number of applications to facilitate language learning.

There is a tremendous amount of literature in the field of MALL that focuses on various aspects of language learning and mobile technology. For example, Suwantarathip and Orawiwatnakul (2015) examined the improvement of vocabulary learning by using paper-based and mobile device based activities in university English-language classes. They found that the group using mobile devices improved their vocabulary test scores more than the paper-based group. This was because the mobile device group could work on their exercises outside of classroom, which provided students the flexibility to study at any place or time. This convenience also improved students' motivation for learning.

Yeh (2017) investigated the effect and perception of using podcasts for improving listening skills. The researcher found that students held a positive attitude toward podcasts and improved their listening skill through there use. In addition, students appreciated that they could choose podcasts that interested them and had access to latest information. This research indicated that in addition to improving language skill, it is possible to improve students' motivation and interest in other countries.

Shi, Luo, and He (2017) used the instant message application "WeChat" to encourage Chinese university students to communicate with each other in English. The interaction through text message made students feel comfortable to communicate in English rather than speaking English in the classroom. In addition, it helped improve their English proficiency.

These studies show the variety of ways that mobile devices can make an impact on language learning. Mobile technology provides unique leaning attributes that can motivate and interest students in the process of language learning. For these reasons, it is important to investigate how SES affects MALL and how students use and accept mobile devices to expand their opportunities for language-learning.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this research inquiry was to explore how SES impacted Japanese university students' acceptance and usage of informal MALL. The following research questions guided this investigation:

1. What is Japanese university students' overall acceptance of the use of mobile devices for informal English-language learning?
2. What is their actual use of mobile devices for informal English-language learning?
3. Are there differences in usage and acceptance due to SES?

Methodology

The research was conducted using a mixed-method approach. The quantitative data was collected through a questionnaire at two universities – one private and one public. The number of participants totaled 112 (62 from the public university, 50 from the private university). Fifty-two point six percent were male and 42.1% were female. They ranged in age from 18-20 years old. Their majors were Economics, Environmental Science, and Human Culture. The survey instrument used in this research was a modified version of the M-learning Acceptance Model (Abu Al-Aish & Love, 2013). The modification changed the focus of the instrument from general mobile learning to informal MALL in addition to translating the questionnaire to Japanese. Research conducted by Mills (2016) showed that the modified instrument is valid. In addition, a frequency of usage scale for informal MALL, developed by Mills (2016) was used in this investigation. The questionnaire included the following sections: (1) acceptance of mobile devices for informal English learning, (2) usage of mobile devices for informal English learning, (3) demographics, and (4) open-ended questions.

The qualitative data was collected through a group interview conducted in the public university. Participants for the interview were selected based on their responses to the quantitative questionnaire. The number of participants was eight - five were male and three were female. They ranged in age from 18 to19 years. Their majors were Environmental Science and Human Cultures. The interview was semi-structured, and a list of questions were created in order to guide the session. The group interview was recorded, and Excel was used to create and catalog themes by which the data was coded.

Investigating SES. One limitation that was placed on the researcher in this investigation was that the universities restricted direct questions regarding SES and financial situation because students might feel uncomfortable or hesitate to answer the questions. Therefore, the researcher hypothesized that students attending a public university were more likely to be economically disadvantaged than students attending a private university. This is because the cost of tuition is 50% less at public universities than at private ones (MEXT, 2017b). Also, there are various discounts available to students who live in the prefecture where the public university is located. For example, the public university where the researcher conducted the study has a system where students who are residents of the prefecture receive a 50% discount on the entrance fee. Moreover, research conducted by Japan Student Services Organization (2014) showed that the average family income among public university

students is lower than private and national university students. In order to investigate this hypothesis, the researcher surveyed students in both settings about why they chose to attend their respective universities. The survey question was multiple choices and students could choose the reasons of location, tuition, major, professors, reputation and other.
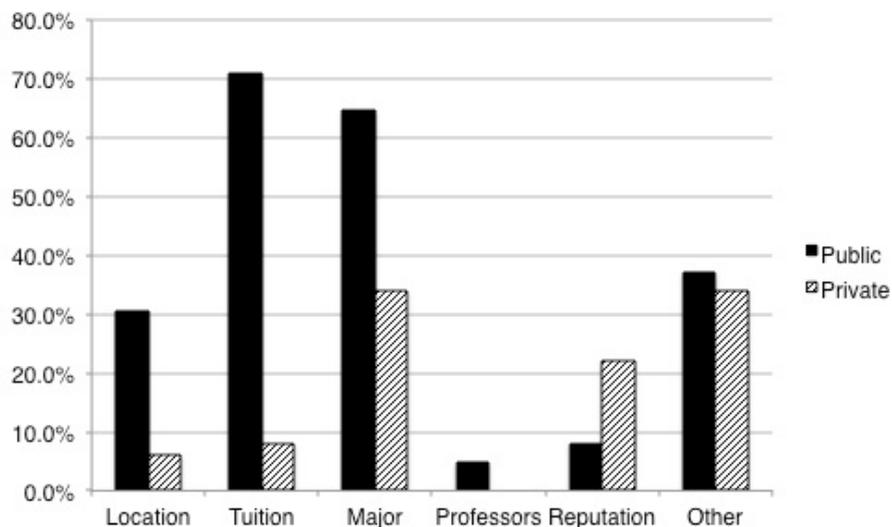

Figure 1: Reasons for choosing to attend this university

The survey results showed that 71% of students chose public university because of the lower tuition; on the other hand, only 8% chose this answer in private universities. For many of the public university students, lower tuition was as important as the major they wanted to study when choosing a university. Private university students' most important factor was major and other, but tuition was not something they needed to care about. This result supports the researcher's hypothesis that public university students are from a lower SES compared to private university students.

Results and Discussion

Acceptance. There was no significant difference between public and private university students regarding acceptance of mobile devices for informal English-language learning. Many of the students said that mobile devices were useful for informal English-language learning because of the portability and ease of use. Also, they felt that they could study in a more enjoyable way with mobile devices. This indicated that both groups of students were generally accepting of the use of mobile devices for informal English-language learning.
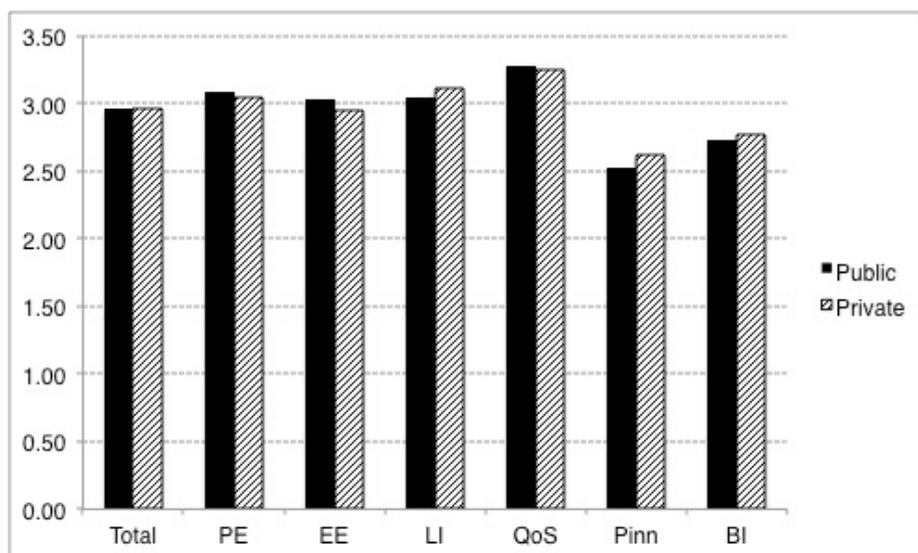
Figure 2: Acceptance of MALL

Usage. An independent sample *t* test was conducted to find a difference in usage of MALL between public and private university students. The test was significant, *t* (97) = -2.569, p = 0.012. Private university students (M=2.79, SD=0.57) used mobile devices for informal English-language learning more than public university students (M=2.48, SD=0.61).
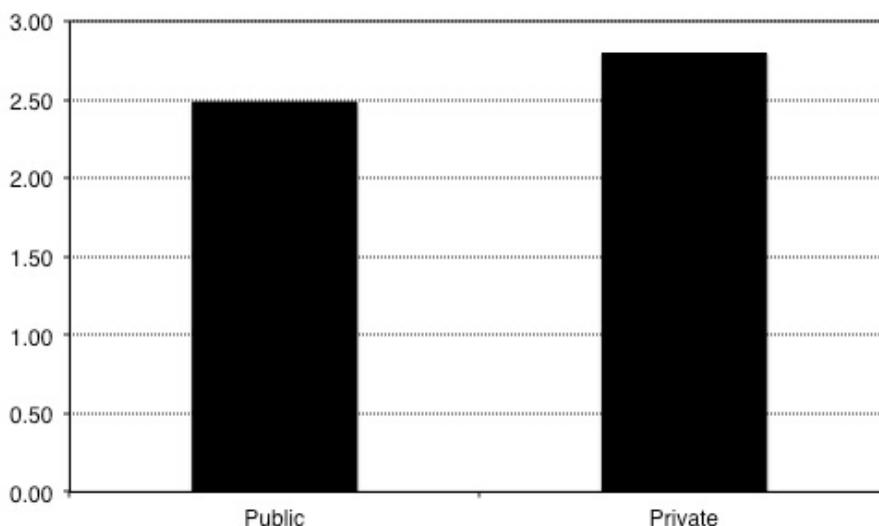
Figure 3: Usage of MALL

In addition, there was a difference regarding which informal MALL activities they engaged in. The most common activities among public university students were using dictionary and translation applications. In contrast, private university students used their devices to listen to music and watch TV shows and movies in English. These results seem to indicate that students in public universities are more likely to use their devices for self-directed study rather than unconscious informal learning.

Because it was hypothesized that private university students had a higher SES than public university students it could be inferred that SES influenced mobile device usage for informal MALL in the Japanese context both in frequency and in the types

of activities chosen. This may be explained by higher SES having greater access to technology, the Internet, and data plans than lower SES students. In addition, higher SES students are more likely to have the resources to travel abroad for study and leisure, so this may influence their usage of foreign media like TV shows, movies, and music.

Findings from group interviews. The interview was conducted with public university students focusing on their usage and perception towards MALL. Most of the students said that they used their mobile device at one time for informal learning in order to prepare for their university enrollment exam. For example, they used applications to memorize vocabulary or learn English grammar. However, all of them said that they erased these applications as soon as they finished the enrollment exam and instead, they downloaded Japanese games for entertainment. This result indicates that students are familiar with utilizing mobile device for learning, but the problem was their motivation for continuing this practice.

In contrast to private university students, the number of students who watch English speaking TV shows or movies was low among public university students. In the interview, most of the students said that they were interested in English speaking TV shows or movies, but they did not know how to find interesting ones. Thus, if the instructor introduced TV shows or movies in the classes, they would probably check them out in their free time. Through English language media content, students can learn about cultures in other countries. MALL outside of classroom provides unexpected opportunities to interact with English language that is used in real life (Kukulska-Hulme, 2017). This would be a good opportunity for lower SES students who might not have the chance to go abroad either for travel or studying English to experience how English is used in real contexts and learn about the target language culture. There are many free sources of English speaking media such as YouTube; therefore, the instructor could introduce free media to increase their cultural interaction at no cost.

All the students said that mobile technology was useful because they could use it anywhere and anytime. This is a significant advantage of using mobile devices. However, there are some downsides of using mobile devices such as battery shortage and slow processing speed (Stockwell, & Hubbard, 2013). In this setting, the obstacles of using mobile devices for informal learning were Wi-Fi connection and battery. They had limited amount of data based on their mobile provider service plans and also, their university did not provide free Wi-Fi. This is a major problem in Japan where free Wi-Fi is not easily available even now. In addition, their phone battery drained quickly; therefore, they mainly used their mobile phone at home where they have Wi-Fi and access to a battery charger. It is also important to note here that most Japanese businesses, like restaurants, don't allow customers to use the electrical sockets. It is vital that universities provide free Wi-Fi to the students so that they have access to the Internet more often, not only in their house. Students can listen or watch English language media content and might be able to improve their English skills consciously or unconsciously.

Conclusion

This research investigated how SES affected students' use and acceptance of MALL by comparing public and private university students. The result showed that there was no difference in acceptance of using MALL; both groups had positive attitude towards MALL. However, their usage of MALL was significantly different. Public university students mostly used mobile devices as a dictionary and translation tool, which are supplements for their traditional learning. On the other hand, while private university students used mobile devices dictionary and translation applications, they also used mobile devices for listening music or TV shows and movies. It indicated that students' socio-economic status background influence their English language learning by limiting amount of interaction to foreign cultures. Also, despite the portability, public students did not have access to Wi-Fi through their mobile devices because of limited data amount and not having free Wi-Fi environment. Learning English sometimes costs money, going abroad, attending English language school or buying listening materials; therefore, it was important for instructors to provide low cost or free resources so that every student has the opportunity to learn real life English and gain an interest in learning. To do so, using mobile devices have the advantage because most of students already have a smartphone. The important part is to introduce available resources and encourage students to use their mobile devices for learning.

There were some limitations to this research. First, the researcher was unable to question individual students' regarding their SES due to rules set by the universities and for ethical reasons. This hindered the researcher's ability to study the effect of SES on informal MALL effectively. Second, the researcher took a role as a facilitator in the group interview and seven out of eight participants were taking the researcher's English-language course. This was a problem because even though the researcher clearly explained that the interview would not affect their grade, they might be hesitant to state their honest opinion.

In future investigations, researchers should attempt to find a more accurate measure of SES than was used here. Also, when collecting data through an interview, it would be better if an outside facilitator is used rather than the participants' instructor. This would help in reducing bias and the negative effects of unequal power distance relationships.

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Taiwanese Students' Place in the World: Lessons from Inventors and Left-Handers in EFL Textbooks

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Abstract

Despite of their considerable influence on multiple aspects of learning, language textbooks have most often been investigated for their cultural representation, frequently from the perspective of whose culture is represented, including target culture, source culture, and international cultures. Using examples from two lesson in two EFL textbooks, this article highlights the need for studies to also explore *how* a particular culture or topic is portrayed in textbooks. In particular, the article is interested in what these portrayals imply to learners about the world and their place in it. The findings suggest that what is implied in the two lessons examined is that English learners should be concerned with social justice issues, but only superficially. English learners in Taiwan should also recognize that even though Taiwanese people and Americans may be equals in their ability, they are very different socially. In addition, while a Taiwanese may be even more accomplished than an American, his success is inevitably measured against an American, the comparison of which determines the true worth of people in other parts of the world. Implications from these findings for both research and practice are discussed at the end of the article.

Keywords: English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) textbooks, critical discourse analysis (CDA)

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Introduction

Textbooks, as the main source and authority of learning, exert great influences on learners. As Ndura (2004) points out, "the content of instructional materials significantly affects students' attitudes and dispositions toward themselves, other people and society" (p. 143). Despite of their considerable influence on multiple aspects of learning, language textbooks are most often investigated from the perspective of whose culture is represented, including target culture, source culture, and international cultures (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999). In such studies (e.g. Chao, 2011; Kim, 2012; Wu, 2010), analysis often focuses on representations of characters from different local and global backgrounds, representations of the local culture and other non-English/non-Western cultures, as well as intercultural elements such as "immigration, travel, cultural contacts, or intercultural comparisons" (Ke, 2012, p. 175).

Other examples of these types of textbook analysis include Song's (2013) examination of Korean EFL textbooks, which found a predominance of information related to the target-language culture, namely, American English and culture. Su's (2016) study of Taiwan senior high school EFL textbooks revealed American and British cultural content to be prevailing, even though aspects of a variety of other cultures were included. Shin, Eslami, and Chen (2011) analyzed internationally distributed English-language textbooks and found that content related to inner circle cultures (i.e. America and Britain) were the most prevalent. A common finding across these recent studies is that there has been increased attention toward intercultural understanding and interaction, even though these remain at the "traditional knowledge-oriented level of cultural presentation" (Shin, Eslami, & Chen, 2011, p. 263) and "superficial interactions" (Song, 2013, p. 386).

That there is a hidden curriculum, defined by Giroux (1988) as "those unstated norms, values, and beliefs that are transmitted to students" (p. 51), in English-language teaching (ELT) textbooks, including those for native speakers as well as English-as-a-second-language (ESL) and English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners is a well-received notion. However, considerations of hidden curriculum in ELT textbooks have, unfailing, for decades, focused on "whose perspectives, life, experiences, and cultural values are being transmitted" (Su, 2016, p. 393) while almost no attention has been paid to the issue of *how* those "perspectives, life, experiences, and cultural values" are portrayed. The latter agenda, apparently, has been better hidden.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this paper is therefore to uncover this heretofore well-hidden agenda by using examples from two lessons in two EFL textbooks in order to highlight the need for studies that explore *how* a particular culture or topic is portrayed in textbooks. In particular, the article is interested in what these portrayals imply to learners about the world and their place in it

Theoretical Framework

This article takes a critical perspective towards the understanding of language textbooks. Janks (2008) explains that "the use of the word 'critical' signals a view of language as central to the workings of ideology—as a key means of mobilizing meaning to sustain or contest relations of domination in society" (p. 183). As a result of such a theoretical lens, the goal of language education would be to systematically address how it is often through language (and by extension texts) that meanings are constructed in particular ways to sustain ideologies that privilege some while marginalizing others (Hawkins & Norton, 2009). Such a perspective that highlights the ideological nature of language and discourses would consider textbooks to "carry culture and ideological messages" (Pennycook, 2000, pp. 98-99), and even as a more effective instantiation of ideology than language classes (Heinrich, 2005). Thus, the critical perspective drives this study that is concerned with the subject positions provided to students in language textbooks regarding their place in the world as English-language learners.

Method

Locally produced senior high school (grades 10-12) EFL textbooks, regardless of the publisher, follow a similar format in each lesson. The central focus of each lesson is the reading selection, the title of which also serves as the title of the lesson. This is preceded by a pre-reading section which usually includes questions or activities that either elicit student interest or background knowledge in the reading selection. Following the reading passage, there are comprehension questions and discussion questions to help students understand the passage and share their thoughts on the topic. This is then followed by a vocabulary section which lists words from the passage to be learned. There is also a grammar pattern section that introduces one or two grammatical structures taken from important sentences in the reading passage. Finally, extension activities, such as writing practice, round up the lesson.

Six versions of EFL senior high school textbooks from four publishers (Far East, Lung Teng, Nan-I, and San Min) are currently in use in Taiwan. Although there are four publishers, there are six versions of EFL textbooks because both Far East and San Min publishes two versions. Each version contains six books, i.e. one book for each semester. Each senior high school selects their own textbook, and both Lung Teng and San Min Version B are widely used. In deciding on particular lessons to serve as the example for analysis and discussion in this article, I decided on Book 1 as it is the first EFL textbooks students come into contact with upon entering senior high school. In both the Lung Teng version and the San Min B version, there are 12 lessons in Book 1. From each, I chose the first lesson that discusses a socially relevant issue rather than one that is a work of fiction. (Please see Table 1 below for a list of titles and topics from the two textbooks.) This article discusses the reading selection and the pre-reading section in two lessons from the two textbooks. One of them is entitled "Inventing a Better World," which appears in Lesson 3 Book 1 in San Min Version B (Che, 2014). The other is entitled "Do You Treat Left-Handers Right?" which appears in Lesson 4 Book 1 in Lung-Teng (Chou, 2010).

Table 1. Book 1 of both textbooks and their reading selections.

Lesson	San Min--Title/Topic*	Lung Teng--Title/Topic*
1	Lost in the New School/The first day of a Taiwanese boy going to a high school in the U.S.A	Learn English, Go Global/The importance of the English language
2	A Lesson in Forgiveness/A boy learning a lesson in forgiveness	Freshman Zit Girl/Self-confidence
3	Inventing a Better World/The stories of two great inventions	The Hospital Window/Helping people**
4	A Colorful Life/Influences and symbolic meanings of colors	Do You Treat Left-Handers Right?/Respect for the minority
5	A Recipe for a Delicious Friendship/Discussing famous quotes about friends and friendship	Water in Lijiang: A Gift from God/The ancient wisdom of water use
6	When in Bulgaria, Do as the Bulgarians Do/Learning actual meanings of gestures	Rhyming Fun in Poetry/Rhyming in a poem
7	A Little Science Works a Lot of Magic/Using science and learning the secret behind the magic of science	Elevator Ups and Downs/Technology and innovation
8	The Long-Haired Spirits and the Thao/Thinking of a slogan to remind people to live in harmony with nature	A Wonderful Tour on the Menu/Exotic eating habits
9	A Rabbit's Foot and a Piece of Wood/Learning about the origins of some certain superstitions	Ride for Joy, Ride for Health/The story of a successful Taiwanese entrepreneur
10	Why Do We Lie?/Observing people's strange actions when they tell a lie	Rudolph, the Red-Nosed Reindeer/The origin of the legendary character
11	The Best Medicine/Finding out how easily one laughs	Saving Sight Worldwide/A charity organization
12	Working for Nothing Pays Off/Learning more about volunteering organizations and groups	Enjoy Idioms from Head to Toe/Language usages

*This is information from the table of contents in each of the textbooks. After specifying the title of each lesson, the textbooks also specify the "topic" of the lesson.
**While the title and topic of this lesson "the hospital window/helping people" reads like a socially relevant lesson, it is actually a story about two men named John and Robert who "were both seriously ill" and who "shared the same hospital room" (Chou, 2010, p. 35).

Reflecting the theoretical foundation based on which this study was conceptualized, critical discourse analysis (CDA) was the method through which the reading selections were analyzed. The goal of CDA is to illuminate how "language is implicated in the reproduction of and resistance to inequitable relations of power" (Norton, 1997, p. 207), and "the role of discourse in creating, maintaining, or potentially changing, unequal and hegemonic power relations" (Weninger & Kiss, 2015, p. 57). Importantly, therefore, a CDA approach analyzes not "how texts reflect reality," but how "the discourses operating in [texts] *produce* reality" (Ilieva, 2000, p.

54, emphasis in the original). Following Fairclough (1989, 1995), CDA involves three interrelated dimensions of analysis associated with three aspects of discourse. The linguistic features of a text should be analyzed and then considered within the context of the production and consumption of the text, which should in turn be understood in relation to the conditions surrounding the sociocultural practices relevant to the text.

In following the CDA approach to making sense of the two lessons in the two EFL textbooks, the meaning of the linguistic features and accompanying images in each lesson were first analyzed, the results of which were then examined within the context of the textbook's production and consumption as the source material for English learning in the EFL classroom. This was then explored in relation to the sociocultural context of English in a country belonging to the outer circle (Kachru, 1992) of English users in the wider global situation.

In the sections to follow, unless otherwise stated, all the excerpts are taken from the reading selection under discussion.

Findings and Discussion

"Inventing a Better World"

This reading selection consists of six paragraphs and is around 430 words in length. Two inventions are discussed in the reading selection to support the thesis stated in the first paragraph of the article, that "many times, people come up with ideas to meet their own needs. Later, the solutions to their problems may become great inventions that change our way of life." The two inventions, a faucet "controlled by a built-in sensing device" and the Post-it note, are respectively attributed to Teng Hung-chi (henceforth Teng), a Taiwanese, and Spencer Silver, an American. Thus, from a cultural representation perspective, a Taiwanese and an American are both included in this article about important inventions. However, what is more important is how these inventors are portrayed, both linguistically and visually.

The article discusses Teng first. In the two paragraphs that describe him, one explains how he came up with the idea of a faucet that could "run automatically without being touched" because "his hands were dirty from work, so he did not want to touch the faucet." The other paragraph then discussed his success of winning international prizes for his inventions. In other words, Teng's life and work was portrayed as a smooth-sailing process and a result of his own dedication and creativity without input from others. The latter point is reflected in the three images accompanying his portrayal which has a denotational relationship (Weninger & Kiss, 2013) to the two paragraphs about Teng. In the first image, we see a photo of Teng hard at work, underneath which is a caption that reads, "Taiwan's Edison in his laboratory." The second is an image of a pair of hands under a running faucet. The third image is of Teng with a big smile on his face, holding up a medal and a certificate, with the caption "winning first prize at the iENA exhibition."

While Teng's success seems to have involved no one else, Spencer Silver (henceforth Silver) and the process of how the Post-it note was invented is portrayed very differently both linguistically and visually. The Post-it note was "the result of a failed experiment" to "invent a strong glue." Despite of the failure, however, Silver "wasn't

disappointed," but "instead, he tried to convince his co-workers of the usefulness of the weak glue." Most of his colleagues were not convinced, except for Art Fry (henceforth Fry), who discovered the utility of the weak glue while singing "hymns during church services," which eventually lead to the creation of the Post-it note. In the two visuals that accompany the discussion of this invention, the first was a picture of Silver and Fry at a table full of Post-it notes. They are sitting side by side, shaking hands, with big smiles on their faces. This image shows a connotative relationship (Weninger & Kiss, 2013) to the passage, as the message is an implied one rather than one that is mentioned explicitly, i.e. that Silver and Fry appreciate having worked together to create the Post-it note, and also enjoy sharing their accomplishment. The other visual is an image of a group of people singing hymns at a church service, as people at standing at pews and looking down at the books they are holding. The shape and colors of the windows in the background also denote that this scene is that of a church service, which is mentioned in the paragraph above which this image is placed. It is not clear whether Fry is depicted in this image, but the medium to long shot distance of the image shows that the focus is not whether Fry is depicted, but that people are gathered at a church service. Finally, in the pre-reading section entitled Before You Read, there are nine images of "things you may need in your everyday life," and students are asked to rank them in the order of importance. These nine items are a lightbulb, an air conditioner, a notepad, a box of tissues, a smartphone, a refrigerator, a television set, a cup of instant noodles, and a mirror. As these are images of things rather than inventors, they are not relevant to the goals of this study concerned with *how* people and issues are represented.

Thus, the Taiwanese and the American(s) are portrayed to be on equal footing, as both have invented something that people all over the world use on a daily basis, and both are a part of the "world" discussed in the title "inventing a better world." It can be argued that the Taiwanese is depicted as even more impressive in his accomplishment as he "has created many other useful inventions" and have won many prizes. However, regardless of how successful Teng is, at best, he can only ever be as good as an American, i.e. "Taiwan's Edison." Edison, whose world-wide recognition as an inventor is such that he requires no introduction, as none is given in the passage, is implied in the passage as the inventor against whom all other inventors in the world need be compared, and the definitive success for anyone is to be recognized in relation to Edison rather than be a great inventor in their own right.

An important difference in the discussion of these inventors is their social relations, or in the case of Teng, the lack thereof. Both linguistically and visually, Teng is portrayed to be completely alone, either hard at work, or basking in glory. There is also an undertone of competitiveness associated with Teng, who has won many prizes partly as a result of entering into many competitions. In contrast, the Americans are portrayed as engaged in group activities (such as singing hymns together) and appreciative of team work. This is emphasized, as in the paragraphs that depict how the Post-it note was created, both Silver and Fry are portrayed as either trying to "convince his co-workers," in the case of Silver, and "shar[ing] his thought with others in the company," in the case of Fry. Therefore, even though the Taiwanese seems more successful, he works alone and revels in winning prizes while the Americans appreciate team work and relationships with others. It can be argued, however, that a cooperative mindset is often regarded as a more positive trait than a competitive one, as explained by Richard et al., (2002): "In much of the social-

psychological and educational literature, competition is viewed as something harmful…whereas cooperation is described as competent social behavior that entails many positive consequences" (p. 515).Hence, while just as capable as his American counterparts in his creative abilities, Teng might not be as wholesome his fellow American inventors.

"Do You Treat Left-Handers Right?"

This reading selection consists of four paragraphs and is around 300 words in length. The first paragraph includes a brief introduction of how "90% of the people in the world" prefer to use their right hand. The second paragraph explains the difficulties faced by "people who prefer to reach out to the world with their left hand," including writing from left to right and when they use scissors. How left-handedness was viewed historically was then described in the following one sentence, "That's why left-handedness was once thought of as being abnormal and sometimes even a disease." The paragraph then ends with information on some famous people who were and are left-handers, including da Vinci, Napoleon, and a popular Taiwanese-American singer Wang Leehom.

The third paragraph begins with the information that the main cause of left-handedness is "still unknown," and then gives a few examples of how people have become more understanding and considerate of left-handedness. The final example is that in England, "there is even a piano for the left-handed. The keyboard and pedals are reversed!" The concluding paragraph includes a hodge-podge of information, beginning with the suggestion that one can be thoughtful to left-handers by saying to them "Happy Left-Handers' Day" on August 13, which, the passage goes on to suggest, might even lead one to meet their Mr. or Ms. "Right." The paragraph ends with a caution for right-handers to be careful when attempting to hug a left-hander or kiss them on the cheek, as this might lead to "bump[ing] into each other!"

In terms of the visual, there is only one image that accompanies the reading passage, and it is placed next to the information in the third paragraph about the "piano for the left-handed" in England. In the image, two pianos are positioned side by side, with the one on the left labeled "left-handed piano" and the one on the right labeled "right-handed piano." In the Warm-Up section that precedes the reading passage, five photographs are included. As the photos are placed under the title of the lesson, "Do You Treat Left-Handers Right?" it can be assumed that these are photos of well-know people who are left-handers. From left to right, the first is Maria Sharapova (a Russian tennis player who is a US resident), former US President Barack Obama, Natalie Imbruglia (an Australian performer, naturalized in the UK), Prince William (the Duke of Cambridge), and finally Angelina Jolie (an American actress). These images imply that left-handed is primarily a western issue (relevant most significantly to Americans and the British). They also indicate that, even though this is a locally-produced textbook by a Taiwanese publisher, only images of western people are deemed appropriate for inclusion in an English-language textbook, as not even the popular singer Wang Leehom mentioned in the reading passage is included.

Thus, the issue of left-handedness is presented in this lesson as mostly a western issue but also a global issue. First, the article states that left-handed people "have a hard time writing from left to right." This statement does not take into account of some

East Asian scripts, such as written Chinese, which traditionally go from top to bottom and from right to left. The article also mentions that "in England, there is even a piano for the left-handed" in which "the keyboard and pedals are reversed." While this is an important creation, it does not benefit left-handed people who do not reside in England or who do not have the financial means to acquire such a piano. Finally, left-handedness is also presented as a global issue with the mention of Left-Hander's Day, which the readers of this article (i.e. the EFL learners in Taiwan) are encouraged to participate in. This reflects Canale's (2016) observation that "in textbooks of languages of global status," such as English, what is often represented is "an emerging homogenous (global) meta-culture that unites all English users" (p. 237). In this article, the specificity of left-handedness in different cultures is never mentioned or acknowledged. By presenting left-handedness first as a western issue and then as a global issue, the article has positioned a western issue as essentially a global issue, i.e. as the global norm, and as such, could be made relevant to Taiwanese EFL learners if only they remember "to say 'Happy Left-Handers' Day!' every August 13."

In addition, while the reading highlights a social justice issue, i.e. the rights of a minority group, the issue is presented in a superficial manner. In other words, "treat[ing] left-handers right," according to the passage, means doing the following: knowing that left-handers have a difficult time writing from left to right and using scissors, that left-handedness was in the past considered "abnormal" and "a disease," and that "the main causes [of left-handedness] are still unknown." Treating left-handers right also means making designs of doors, computers, and piano, etc. that are left-hander friendly, celebrating Left-Hander's Day, and being careful when giving them hugs or kisses on the cheek. Of these, the description of left-handed people in the past, "as being abnormal and sometimes even a disease" is the most superficial. Rather than simply being considered as a disease or being abnormal, there was a long time in history when left-handed people were subject to severe vilification and left-handedness viewed as witchery, the consequences of which are often unimaginable today. Another issue glossed over is how even today, left-handers are still stigmatized in some cultures, such as in China (Kushner, 2013). Thus, by including a social justice issue related to a minority group but handling it in a lighthearted manner, the lesson does not engage in any politics "other than the politics of representation," (Banet-Weiser, 2007, p. 222), i.e. the assumption that having included the topic is enough, and that a more considerate discussion of the cultural-historical dynamics surrounding the issue is not necessary.

The politics of exclusion is also at work regarding how the issue is discussed. Canale (2016) explains the politics of exclusion as "the exclusion of certain groups…to achieve an idealized and homogeneous representation" (p. 234). In this passage, the representation of the situation for left-handed people is indeed "idealized" as a result of the exclusion of their vilification historically and current stigmatization in some parts of the world. It could be argued that such an exclusion is necessary as there is a strict limit to how long an article can be in an EFL textbook. However, as Canale (2016) cautions, "this is still problematic since this type of exclusion may mis- or underrepresent the foreign culture [or in this case the issue] and may also fail to favour students' critical awareness by not showing the complexities underlying any cultural group [or any issue]" (p. 232). When students repeatedly encounter such portrayals in different lessons about different people and issues, superficial and lighthearted understanding of complex social matters would eventually become their

normative way of thinking.

From a CDA perspective, word limit, or as Canale more eloquently describes as "information load," is a poor excuse for excluding certain information if one considers "why and how is a topic being written about, and what other ways of writing about the topic are there? (Ilieva, 2000, p. 54). Indeed, the article about left-handed people could have been written with a focus on their historical treatment or current stigmatization. In other words, how a topic is discussed very clearly demonstrates the ideological leaning of an author or publisher, but more importantly, it shows "the imbrication of linguistic-discursive practices with the wider sociopolitical structures of power and domination" (Kress, 1990, p. 85). In the case of this reading selection, the "wider sociopolitical structures of power and domination" is a view towards minority groups and their discrimination as characterized by a post-ideology, i.e. that equality has been achieved, and therefore, activism to fight against discrimination is no longer necessary. Gill (2016) has discussed this in terms of gender relations and Kornfield (2016) has identified such an ideology in relation to racism. This passage suggests a post- ideology towards physical discrimination, as it glosses over any substantial discussion of how left-handedness was viewed historically and also ignores stigmatization of left-handedness that still survives in some cultures (Eveleth, 2013).

General Discussion

The preceding sections have addressed how particular topics (in "Do You Treat Left-Handers Right?") and people belonging to particular cultures (in "Inventing a Better World") have been portrayed in EFL textbooks. But what do these portrayals that appear in an EFL textbook demonstrate to English learners about the world and their place in it? This will be discussed in the following.

According to these lessons, English learners should be concerned with social justice issues, but only superficially. That is, in learning about minority groups around the world, simply knowing that they exit is enough, as most discrimination occurred in the past, and the world today has achieved equality for all, for the most part. These minority groups should be celebrated in ways that improve the convenience of life for them and for others.

As English learners, they should also know that Taiwan and America are both a part of the world, and have an equal place in it, at least in terms of people's ability as inventors. However, success as a Taiwanese, despite of receiving multiple awards, nevertheless has to be measured against an American, such as Edison, the comparison of which determines the true worth of people in other parts of the world.

In addition, English learners should also recognize that even though Taiwanese people and Americans may be equals in their ability, they are very different socially. Americans appreciate cooperation and are happy to share acclaim. They also enjoy harmonious social relations. Taiwanese people, on the other hand, toil alone and succeed alone, perhaps valuing rivalry more than anything else, the reason for entering competitions and receiving awards.

Conclusion

In their discussion of a critical perspective towards language education, Hawkins & Norton (2009) emphasized "the importance of relating micro relations of applied linguistics to macro relations of society" (p. 2). This has been the goal of the present article, achieved through a critical discourse analysis of two lessons in two EFL textbooks from Taiwan.

The findings have shown that just as important as whose cultures and what topics are included in English-language textbooks is *how* these cultures and topics are portrayed and the consequences of the portrayals. As this has been demonstrated through an analysis of two lessons rather than a whole series or sets of textbooks, the logical conclusion might be to suggest a more comprehensive analysis of textbooks from this lens. Another logical line of investigation might be to explore how teachers and students using these textbooks respond to the ideologies discussed in this article, an avenue of inquiry suggested by Canale (2016) and Guerrettatz and Johnston (2013). However, what seems to be even more urgent is the consideration of per-service teachers, whose relations to textbooks is much less often highlighted, but who may be in the best position to make the most difference in the long run. An issue that should be deliberated, for both research and practice, is how to work with future teachers so that they not only have a better understanding of dominant ideologies in English-language textbooks but also how to overcome these hegemonic discourses in their everyday use of these authoritative texts with their students so as to enhance critical awareness of language as social and ideological practices for the next generation of learners.

Acknowledgement

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Applying Health Equity to the Classroom:
Using the IOM Report on Social Determinants of Health to Teach Professionals

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Abstract

The U.S. Institute of Medicine (IOM) 2016 report urges educators to incorporate the social determinants of health into training the U.S. health workforce at every level: clinicians, administrators, educators, researchers, and policy makers. The IOM study on a framework to support teaching health professionals about social determinants of health (SDH) was commissioned because "[e]ducating health professionals about the social determinants of health generates awareness of the potential root causes of ill health and the importance of addressing them in and with communities. … [leading] to more effective strategies for improving health and health care for underserved populations." Taking into account the social determinants of health improves all professional practice and helps us achieve equity at a population level. Tobacco and infant mortality provides cases showing the influence of SDH on health equity interventions and outcomes. These cases are reviewed using the lens of the Multilevel Model of Social Determinants of Health. Nurses and other professionals can answer the call to incorporate SDH into professional education. The IOM report offers a framework for transforming our curricula. It also offers frameworks and learning activities for use in the classroom. These are reviewed for usefulness.

Keywords: health equity, professional education, social determinants of health, methods, assessment, frameworks

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Applying Health Equity to the Classroom:

Using the IOM Report on Social Determinants of Health to Teach Professionals

Introduction

The social determinants of health (SDH) consist of "the conditions in which people are born, grow, live, work, and age, including the health system"[1]. Data that emerged from Canada in the 1970's[2] demonstrated that these factors account for about half of health outcomes, while behavior, biology and health services account for far less (Figure 1). These data have been repeatedly reinforced in the decades since[3,4]. Yet, we do not teach health professionals much about SDH, a serious deficiency in their preparation to serve in today's world[5,6]. Agencies in England and Canada, U.S. scholars, and World Health Organization (WHO) have issued calls for more holistic education of health professionals for today's world, health professionals who understand the social determinants of health[7].
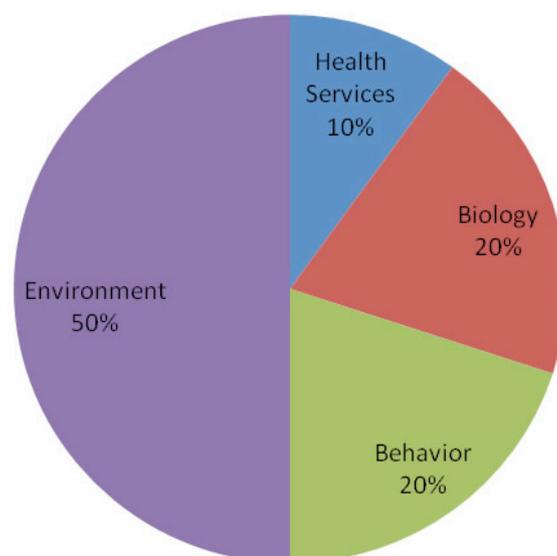

Figure 1. Contributors to Health Outcomes.
These data emerged in the 1970's from Canada[2] and have remained remarkably stable over the decades since[3,4].

The Institute of Medicine (IOM) issued a recent report urging educators to incorporate the SDH into training the U.S. health workforce at every level: clinicians, administrators, educators, researchers, and policy makers[8]. The IOM report included recommendations, frameworks, and other resources to support teaching health professionals about social determinants of health. The report was commissioned because "[e]ducating health professionals about the social determinants of health generates awareness of the potential root causes of ill health and the importance of addressing them in and with communities. … [leading] to more effective strategies for improving health and health care for underserved populations."[9] Taking into account the social determinants of health improves health services and helps us achieve equity at a population level.

In fact, we might call SDH social determinants of life, rather than health, since they affect many other outcomes than health. Educators in all professions that deal with human services can and should answer the call to incorporate them into curricula. But, educators often lack the tools for doing so. In the IOM report, it is noted that health professional educators generally lack sufficient training, diversity, community partners, a unifying framework, and evidence of appropriate educational approaches. SDH can be useful to educators in other disciplines, as they likely face similar issues. Below and using the IOM report resources, educators can begin to fill some of those gaps.

Social Determinants of Health

Students often show a passion to learn the practice skills of their proposed profession. The relevance of context to working with their patients (or clients, or customers) may not always be obvious to them. Faculty also sometimes feel this way about SDH. They may need training to increase their own understanding how that context, SDH, affects outcomes, and how it applies to their practice.

Health equity is one issue—perhaps the most salient one in the US—for clinicians to take SDH into account. Healthy People 2020, the national plan for public health, has included equity as an overarching goal, defining it as the "attainment of the highest level of health for all people. Achieving health equity requires valuing everyone equally with focused and ongoing societal efforts to address avoidable inequalities, historical and contemporary injustices, and the elimination of health and health care disparities."[10] This started with racial disparities, but now includes other populations, such as rural, or Lesbian/Gay/Transgender/Intersex, or any population that experiences a preventable disparity.

SDH help us understand health inequities. These inequities appear on the population level, as differences between groups, perhaps in an agency where we work. When we provide care for individuals, we see health inequities as our outcomes, at the end, the results. Where do they come from? If we take a couple of steps back, we see disparities in the care of medical conditions. We have enormous bodies of evidence for this in the US[11]. We know from these data that women don't get the same care for heart disease as men, and rural and poor populations have harder times getting to primary care providers, etc. This is where clinical health care providers are, in the clinical agency, providing clinical care. Actually, the care we give is a social determinant of health. But, we usually think of this in a systems level, in terms of access to care. If, as in the Trajectory of Health Inequities (Figure 2), you take a couple more steps back, you see more disparities that lead to health inequities in outcomes, in terms of exposures and behaviors. So, if you are American Indian you are more likely to smoke[12], and lower paying jobs tend to have more occupational hazards[13]. If you take a couple more steps back, you get to environmental exposures that have disparities. For example, poor neighborhoods are more likely to be unsafe[14] or have toxic waste[15].
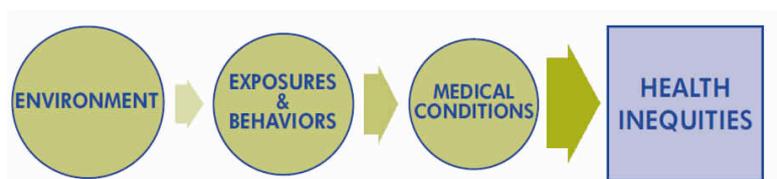
Figure 2. The Trajectory of Health Inequities

The Trajectory of Health Inequities helps us to identify the root causes of health inequities by taking us a few steps back, to the social determinants of health that lie behind the immediately obvious inequities of medical conditions between populations we see in at health agencies[16].

SDH are experienced by people before they enter the examination rooms. And, prevalences of SDH occur in populations, which may or may not be present in the individual in front of us. Addressing inequities in SDH falls out of our control as health professionals, right? Not exactly. Addressing SDH As clinical providers, we do need to take SDH into account as we care for people, and we can't do that if we do not know about them. When we counsel and advise, we need to take them into account. When we counsel diabetic patients to eat more fresh produce, for example, we need to know if fresh produce is available in their neighborhoods or if they have to ride two buses for an hour each way to get to a source of healthy food. If we ask persons heart disease to quit smoking, can they get free nicotine patches to help them? If we recommend to someone get regular exercise, we need to know if there are safe places to walk or ride a bike in their communities. (See Jones[17] for more on this.) If there are not such resources, we as professionals should speak on behalf of developing them, using the resources of our education and credibility to advocate for our people and our community. And, we should teach this to students, that health means more than just clinical care, that a profession means more than practice, more than an office and a desk.

In other professions, SDH also apply to the work. We call them the social determinants of *health*, but they affect every aspect of the quality of our lives and our behavior. Architects, for example, might create excellent plans for their clients. But, if the supply chain does not have the right materials available, those plans will not result in good buildings. Civil engineers might design bridges beautifully to withstand earthquakes, but if the contractors and inspections are corrupt in their region, the bridges will fall. The sales staff might believe that their skills will make the sale, but the conditions in which their customers live and work affect their decisions just as much. All these professions need to know the SDH of those they serve in order to serve them well. So, those who educate them must understand and teach about SDH.

Multilevel Model of the Social Determinants of Health

One way to help students understand SDH is to use frameworks to illustrate their interactions with each other and influence on health outcomes and/or quality of life. The multilevel model shown in Figure 3 offers a general approach, one Dalhgren and Whitehead developed for the WHO in its work on health equity[18]. All of the factors listed in the model affect both behaviors and health outcomes, at both the population and individual level. (Examples taken from tobacco and infant mortality follow.) The central factors of age, sex, constitution (e.g., genetics, appearance, family

history), cannot be modified. As you move out in the shells, factors can be modified, but less and less by the individual, and more and more by larger groups in society. This model can work well to explain SDH and their influence to students, both in health and other professions.
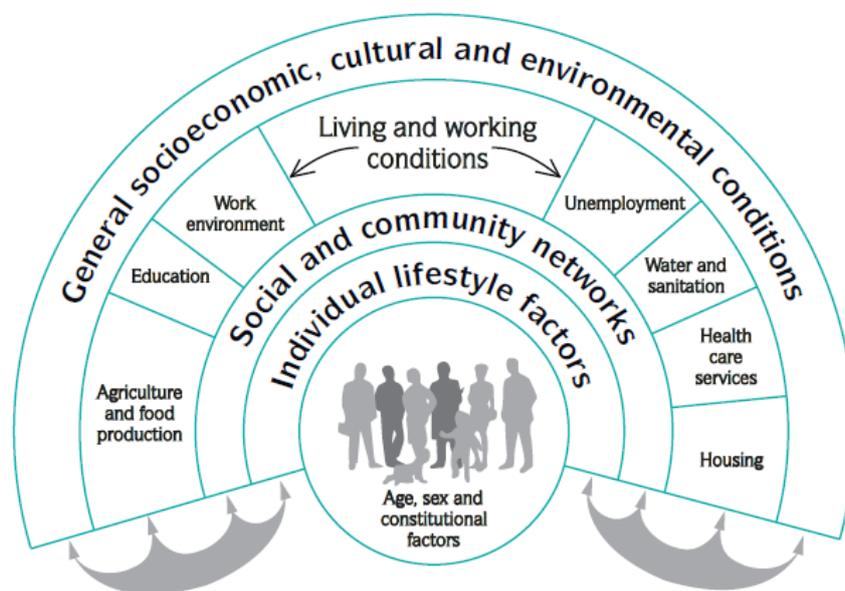

Figure 3. Multilevel Model of Social Determinants of Health
Dahlgren and Whitehead introduced this model of the social determinants of health in 1993 for the World Health Organization to use in its work on health equity in Europe. Here it is shown in a revised design[18].

Reducing Tobacco Use by Addressing Social Determinants of Health

Most considerations of SDH look at broader areas, such as educational opportunities, employment, or community safety. A more focused target, such as the environmental change of eliminating second hand smoke from public places, does not usually come to mind. Yet, this focused intervention using a SDH has important effects, and shows us their power. The WHO has sponsored the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control, the first treaty negotiated by the WHO, starting in 2005 with 40 countries. Now ratified by 168 parties[19], it covers 2.8 billion people globally[20]. Treaty provisions contain evidence-based policies that reduce tobacco dependence. "Interventions were defined as cost effective if the cost per disability adjusted life years (DALY) averted was less than three times the country's gross domestic product per capita and very cost effective if each DALY could be averted at a cost less than the gross domestic product per capita."[21] In other words, all treaty provisions not only effectively stop people from smoking, but also save governments money. This example of SDH shows that a focused SDH intervention can have clear benefit. Many think of tobacco use as eminently individual, but SDH have enormous effects on this individual behavior.

Treaty provisions all do this by changing SDH, resulting in changes in individual decisions about tobacco use and tobacco cessation. Provisions work mainly via the general socioeconomic, cultural, and environmental conditions shell of the Multilevel Model just introduced.

- Regulation of tobacco product contents
- Elimination of public tobacco smoke
- Packaging and labelling of tobacco products
- Price and tax measures
- Education, communication, training and public awareness
- Tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship
- Illicit trade in tobacco products
- Sales to and by minors
- Provision of support for economically viable alternative activities

Tobacco provides an example of how interventions changing the social determinants can target a specific health behavior. It is pretty direct, looking at environmental factors directly related to tobacco. But, the WHO, the IOM report, and many others also make the argument that more general social determinants of health also must be addressed to promote health generally, and health equity specifically. Health disparities in U.S. infant mortality rates provides an excellent example. We can use SDH to understand this critical health issue.

Racial and Ethnic Inequities in U.S. Infant Mortality Rates

U.S. infant mortality rates have dropped steadily over the last several decades (Figure 4). However, the gap between the races have changed very little over that time. As Wise put it, each death is a "shame," but the gaps in the rates are "shameful"[22]. How can so much progress be made overall, and so little in the health inequity? SDH help explain this contradiction.
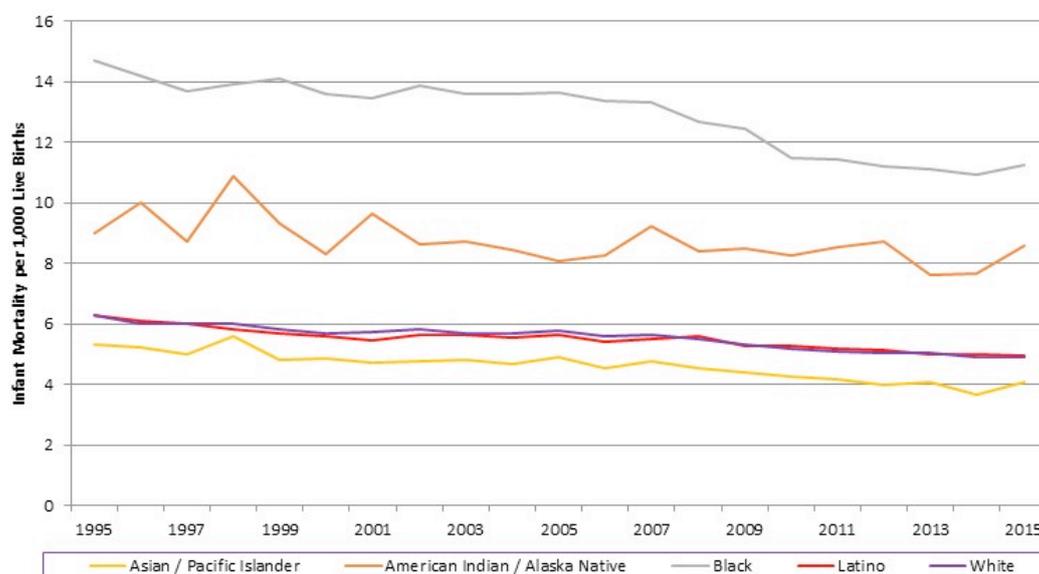

Figure 4. U.S. Infant Mortality Rates by Race & Ethnicity
Although infant mortality rates have dropped in all groups over the last 20 years, gaps between populations persist. Source: CDC/NHCS National Vital Statistics System.

Although at one time it held currency, few now argue that genetic differences drive racial disparities in infant mortality[23]. Low birth weight (LBW) is the biggest risk factor linked to infant mortality rates. David and Collins published a landmark study of racial disparities in LBW[24], early in a wave of studies that show that SDH have far more effect on inequities in rates of both LBW and infant mortality. This study of birth weights in Illinois from 1980 to 1995 showed that birthweights of U.S.-born Blacks consistently averaged lower than those of U.S.-born Whites, while those of African-born Blacks were similar to U.S.-born Whites. This data helped eliminate support from the hypothesized genetic tendency of Blacks toward a normal range of smaller birth weights. Conversely, the David and Collins' data supported the Weathering Hypothesis[25,26], that the experience of stress over a lifetime contributes to poor birth outcomes among U.S.-born Blacks.

Racial inequities in infant mortality rates provide an example of how the Multilevel Model may be used to explain health or other inequities, using each level in the model. Studies provide data for how SDH in every part of the Multilevel Model contribute to racial disparities in U.S. infant mortality rates. The contribution of SDH shows that such disparities are preventable and inequitable.

Age, Sex, and Constitutional Factors
- Mothers older than 40 years or in their adolescence have babies more likely to die in infancy[27].
- Rates of infant mortality in the US have substantial variation by race and ethnicity (Figure 3). Black American and American Indian babies die a 100% and 50% higher rates than European American babies, respectively[27]. And, these inequities have widened over the last decade, as rates overall have dropped[27].

Individual Lifestyle Factors
- Maternal use of tobacco, alcohol, and recreational substances are associated with increased rates of infant mortality[28].

Social and Community Networks
- Unmarried mothers have a 73% higher chance of their babies dying in infancy[27]. This may be related to less access to social networks than mothers with a partner.

Living and Working Conditions
- Mothers with lower educational levels more often have babies who die in the first year of life[28].
- Starting care later in pregnancy or absence of medical insurance are risk factors both linked to preterm delivery (PTD) [29], which is a substantial risk factor for infant mortality[27, 28, 29].
- Longtime residents of poor and higher density communities also experience higher rates of LBW, which is the biggest risk factor for infant mortality[28].

General Socioeconomic, Cultural, and Environmental Conditions
- The strongest risk factors linked to infant mortality are LBW and PTD. Infant mortality is 25 times more likely among LBW babies[27]. LBW is found in two thirds of all infant mortality[30], PTD in one third[31]. Leading scholars of infant mortality, LBW, and PTD have identified maternal stress and specifically racism as etiological in these outcomes[32 33, 34, 35].
- Low socioeconomic status has also been identified as leading to higher rates of infant mortality[28].

Frameworks

The IOM report provides guidance for teaching SDH. It provides seven frameworks useful for classroom teaching. The report also provides a framework for incorporating service learning into an educational program. One chapter gives the results of a review of the literature of learning activities useful for teaching SDH, and offers examples of learning activities. Finally, the report presents a framework for incorporating SDH into an educational program, a framework which applies to health professional and other education programs. These resources are presented briefly here. Those that seem useful in specific cases can be examined in more detail in the report itself.

The IOM reports devotes a chapter to present a model to help educators incorporate teaching SDH throughout an educational institution, including placing the institution itself within a context of SDH. This conceptual model (Figure 5) illustrates an institutional shift "from individual examples of education, networks, and partnerships to the broader concept of frameworks within which curricula and programs can be tailored to meet situational requirements."[36]. This shift helps educational institutions provide support for an integration of SDH into education at all levels, for new providers, graduate education, continuing education, practicing professionals, policy makers, and administrators. The goal at the center is lifelong learning.
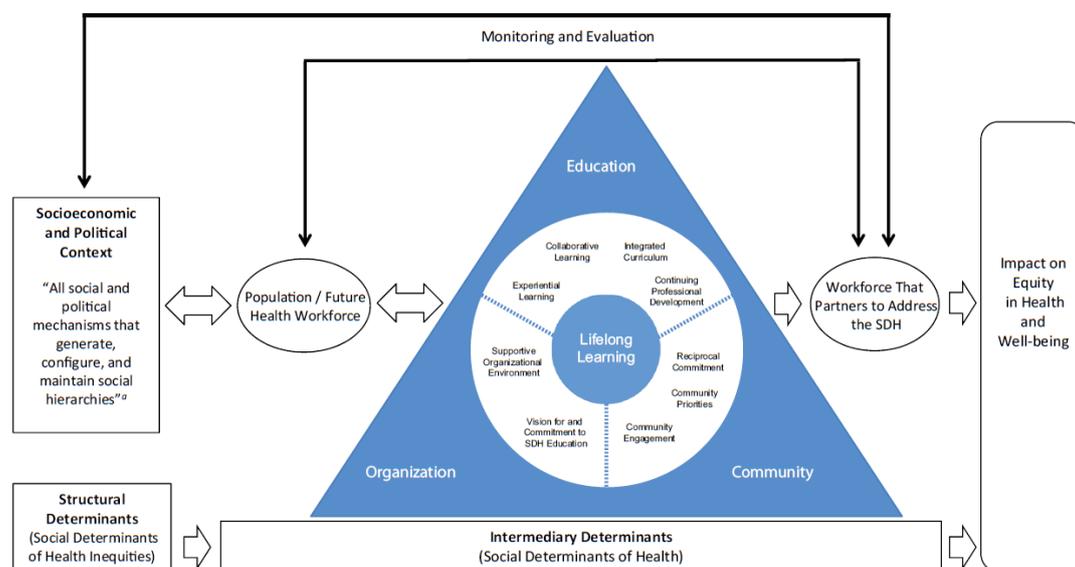
FIGURE S-2 Conceptual model for strengthening health professional education in the social determinants of health.
NOTE: SDH = social determinants of health.
[a] Solar and Irwin, 2010, p. 5.

Figure 5. Institute of Medicine Conceptual Model for Framework for Strengthening Health Professional Education in the Social Determinants of Health[37]The IOM report points out the need for three domains for successful integration of SDH throughout an educational program: content, structural stupport, and community partners. Each domain has necessary components. It also places the educational institution inside its own set of SDH. This model draws on several sources, given in the original report.

The IOM report recommends that we use the framework in many areas of education. It calls for educators to use it to create lifelong learners. Providers should us it to guide work and missions. Researchers should use it to guide the development of an evidence base to teach this content, which sorely lacks. They also ask for programs that include interprofessional education, community-engaged learning, experiential education, and health outcomes research.

The model presents three domains needed for successful integration of SDH into an educational institution, each with needed components, all addressed in the report. The education domain has four components. Experiential learning is one, which includes, applied learning, community engagement, and performance assessment. Collaborative learning is another component, which includes problem and project-based learning, student engagement, and critical thinking. An integrated curriculum is the third component in this domain, which encompasses interprofessional and cross-sectoral content and is longitudinally organized across the curriculum. Finally, continuing professional development provides the last component, which includes both faculty development and interprofessional workplace learning.

The Community domain has three components. First, it must have a reciprocal commitment in terms of community assets, willingness to engage, networks, and, resources. Also, community priorities must be taken into account in terms of

evaluation of health impacts toward equity and well-being. The domain also requires community engagement, in terms of workforce diversity, recruitment and retention.

The Organization domain refers to infrastructure and administrative support for teaching SDH. This domain requires the component of a vision for and commitment to education in the social determinants of health, which can be seen in the policies, strategies, and program reviews, in resources allotted, in how the infrastructure is designed, and in promotion and career pathways. Another component is a supportive organizational environment, which includes transformative learning, dissemination of pedagogical research, and faculty development and continuing professional development.

Learning Activities

Like most educational research, few data have been generated about how to teach professionals to incorporate SDH into their practice. In the IOM report, scholars reviewed the literature looking for examples of health professional programs that taught SDH. They did not identify any long term evaluations for educational interventions, such as community-based or health outcomes[38].

The review did identify descriptions of course activities and student reports of their evaluations of them. Service learning topped the list as the type of experience most often used to teach students about SDH. After that came community-based learning, such as needs assessments and service, reflections, and interprofessional activities. Results that students reported included the ability to see a "bigger picture," feeling less biased, increased comfort in the community, and changes in career choices. Students preferred to have more variety of activities, clinically based experiences, and guidance in their activities.

An individual assessment of SDH was another example given of a learning activity to teach SDH[39]. Duke University School of Nursing uses this and other learning activities in a summer pipeline program of high school students interested in nursing. Staff in the program administer the assessment to identify potential barriers to student success. Afterwards, staff debrief students to address any potential distress caused by the sensitive nature of the questions. Based on student response, staff create Prescriptions for Success. The tool was developed with a grant from the Nursing Workforce Diversity Program of the Bureau of Health Professions of the Health Resources and Services Administration (personal communication).

In another example, the Herbert Wertheim College of Medicine provides a curriculum on SDH. The college's Green Family Foundation Neighborhood Health Education Learning Program organizes interprofessional home visits in partnership with community agencies. At the visits, students and the professionals help families address SDH. Community agencies recruit the families. Service learning is also incorporated into this innovative curriculum. As described in the IOM report, the Wertheim program clearly incorporates the components of all of the domains of the IOM model of SDH[40].

Community windshield or walking surveys provide another learning activity that helps students learn more about the community and SDH (one not included in the IOM report). Students survey the neighborhood where their clients live, either walking or driving. Getting outside of the classroom can surprise students (and faculty). Directions for doing this are common, including some good ones from the University of Kansas[41].

Conclusion

Students and faculty alike might not immediately see the application of SDH to professional practice, but evidence that they matter profoundly to our customers and patients abounds. The IOM report gives educators some of the tools for meeting the challenge of teaching SDH to the next generation of professionals. Using those tools, identifying others, finding out which of approaches work, and developing new ones provide educators with challenges for the future.

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Factors Influencing Education Students' Perception of Aggression at a University in South Africa

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Abstract

Short description: A multivariate approach was applied focussing on perceptions of students' self, relationships and aggression. Long description: The dynamics of learning at a university from undergraduate to post-graduate is complex. Aggression is part and parcel of everyday life and learning. Knowledge management within such a context poses challenges to those involved, i.e. for student-learners, professors and management. In this paper we address students' perceptions of self, relationships and aggression. Objectives: To explore and describe the significance of differences between the perceptions of students of aggression of various groups perceiving higher versus lower intra- or interpersonal relationships and to formulate guidelines to manage perceived aggression. Method: A quantitative, exploratory and empirical research design that is multivariate inferential and descriptive was followed. A questionnaire was electronically distributed to all students in a faculty of education. It consisted of biographic, personality and aggression question items. Cronbach alpha, factor analyses, and multivariate comparisons (Hotelling T-square followed by t-tests) were used to investigate differences between groups concerning factors of aggression. The independent variables were self- love, interpersonal relationships and disconnectedness. Ethical clearance was obtained. Results: The findings reflected that when a person exhibits self-love there is a significant difference with respect to aggression. A student with self-love is less aggressive towards self and others compared to persons perceiving themselves as having less self-love. Conclusion: The challenge is to assist students to understand and manage their own perceptions of self, relationships and aggression to facilitate dynamic adult education.

Keywords: Students' perceptions, aggression, college, factors influencing

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Introduction

When one approaches a researcher-academic with a request to define the concept "aggression", one is immediately confronted with the evasiveness and complexity of defining this specific concept. In spite of this it is often obvious when looking at even a toddler in role play that it is not difficult to identify the manifestations of aggression. The difficulty to define aggression can be amongst others ascribed to the often subtle manifestations, the multi-facet-ness, and the almost dubious presentation of variability and often indirectness of approaches. Nevertheless persons are usually able to identify when aggression is presenting. In the instance of making a distinction between aggression and assertiveness we observed that persons find it troublesome, confusing and difficult to separate these two concepts from each other.

We also observed that aggression is part and parcel of everyday life. It is difficult to consider any day without aggression. Aggression is experienced daily ranging from subtle manifestations of aggression to extreme acts of contravening own or another person's human rights. If this is coupled to the fact that no person (man) according to Buber 1957 (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2014) is an island and that all behaviour is motivated (Cherry, 2015) one is confronted directly with the reality that to be alive is to experience aggression. One is distinctly brought to the realization that aggression can manifest in a positive manner when for example survival is at stake, but more than often in a negative and destructive manner when a person's mental health is challenged on a wide front.

Education students at a university are not isolated from the reality of the experiencing of aggression. Further, these students are preparing themselves for a career in which they will most probably be confronted daily with aggression. They will and are also experiencing their own aggression and that it can be turned on themselves or on others. Education students are and also will be in future subjected to aggression from others, such as learners in their classes, or colleagues or management and even their own friends and family members.

Aggression in the context of intra- and interpersonal relationships

Aggression manifest through relationships, whether intrapersonal or interpersonal. It is human beings within relationships that can exert or experience aggression (Mayer, 1997; Kaukiainen, Salmivalli, Bjorkqvist, Osterman, Lahtinen, Kostamo & Lagerspetz 2001). Human aggression is dependent and tapered within the context of morals, values, previous experiences, social and family contexts, traditions, religious orientation, spirituality and many more indicators that are at play where human beings interact. Thus in this regard the self and value placed on the self by an individual is central. Aspects such as self-respect, caring for oneself, having passion for oneself, and self-value is crucial (Pietersma & Dijkstra, 2012; MacDonald, 2015; Santilli, 2015). Aligned with this and in line with Buber's (1957) statement that no person can live in isolation, are relationships with others. The question of how persons perceive themselves is pivotal. Are they on the one hand perceiving themselves as approachable by others, are they perceived as being friendly, caring and supportive towards others? Or on the other hand, how do other persons perceive them? Aggression is a fact of life where interaction is taking place between human beings. All interactions, whether intra- or interpersonal, do not always develop smoothly. In

this regard interaction and the quality of interaction with others can be perceived as challenging and less constructive when they view themselves as "loners", or as being over submissive and complaisant.

Demarcation of aggression

Although it is difficult to define the concept aggression, we pose some working definitions to place aggression within the context of this paper.

Aggression is viewed as behaviour, including hostile, injurious or destructive behaviour, directed to another individual or the self, with the intent to harm (Mayer, 1997; Anderson & Huesmann, 2003). Aggression can be classified into different types of aggression: active overt aggression, verbal aggression, direct and physical aggression, and argumentative aggression.

Active overt aggression refers to the behaviour of a person intended to harm another person physically, psychologically or to damage or destroy or to take a person's property (Kaukiainen, et al, 2001; Kumar & Mittel, 2014); Oade, 2015). Verbal aggression refers to attacking the self-concepts of other persons rather than their positions and include name-calling, threats, ultimatums, negativity, resentment and suspicion (Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz & Osterman, 1992; Kaukiainen, et al, 2001; Infante & Rancer, 2012; Academy of Pediatrics, 2010). Direct and physical aggression refers to a direct means of aggression taking place in in face-to-face situations and include menacing gestures, swings at people, grabbing at clothing, striking, pushing, scratching, pulling hair, attacking, hitting, kicking, tripping, shoving and taking things (Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz & Osterman, 1992, Kaukiainen, et al, 2001). Argumentative aggression involves attacking the positions other persons take on given issues and include a predisposition to recognize controversial issues, advocate positions and refute opposing positions (Infante & Rancer, 2012).

As can be seen from the above, aggression can manifest as verbal and physical; it can be direct or indirect; it can be covert or overt; or it can be explicit or evasive. Nevertheless all manifestations are within the context of intra- or interpersonal relationships. Aggression can manifest through bad mouthing someone else, spreading rumours, and telling secrets of a person to others, criticising others, giving negative names to another person, being seen as a hothead, influencing someone to dislike another person and teasing. Further there can be a willingness to get into arguments, a tendency to yell at others and to shut others out of a group. Aggression can also manifest through the taking of others' property without permission, the telling of false stories, the writing of notes about others, and the planning to bother another person. On the physical side aggression can be that one is seen as getting into fights more frequently as compared to others, threatening others, the kicking of another person, being viewed by others as aggressive and pushing others to the ground.

It stands for reason that intra- and interpersonal relationships within the context of this paper are viewed as influencing, demarcating and even determining the manifestations of aggression. Aggression in our view is dependent on the level refinement, sophistication and elegance of intra- and interpersonal relationships. When a person on the one hand is experiencing a mentally healthy and fulfilling life

and is at ease with themselves and others it is expected that it will influence the perceptions of aggression exerted on others and the perception of experiences of aggression from others. On the other hand if intra- and interpersonal relationships are challenged or even at risk, this will influence perceptions of experienced and exerted aggression.

Problem statement

Within the university context it seems as if the involved persons are often ignoring the phenomenon of aggression on campus, in lecture halls, and especially in learning situations. These perceptions have recently changed somewhat as a result of student riots on most campuses in South Africa. However, lecturers in the past were definitely aware of aggression and the way in which it sometimes rampantly causes almost unmanageable situations (Toerien, Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2014). It often seems as if the quest is: "there are only a few lecturers left before the end of the semester, and then aggression can be ignored for sometimes another semester before a repetition of the situation develops with a new group of students". Then often it is business as usual where the cycle repeat itself where after aggression is again ignored. This is quite often also true for students in a faculty of education.

Very little research about these challenging situations is reported in the literature. This guided us to pose the question as to what are the perceptions of students of specific aspects involved in aggression in a faculty of education. Perceptions in this paper refer to comprehension resulting from awareness by persons through their senses (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2015). Further, we started to become interested as to whether different groups of students perceive aggression differently, and finally what are the levels of perceived aggression by students in a faculty of education. In view of this the following aims were formulated.

Aims

In view of the above explication, we formulated the aims for this research as:

- To explore and describe the significance of differences between the perceptions of students of aggression of various groups perceiving higher versus lower intra- or interpersonal relationships.
- To describe guidelines concerning intra- and interpersonal relationships to assist students in a faculty of education to manage their own levels of aggression.

Research design and method

An inferential quantitative descriptive empirical research strategy was followed (Burns & Grove, 2011:256). In this regard validity and reliability formed the basis of this strategy. Principles concerning validity were implemented through conducting various and diverse consecutive factor analyses. Thereafter reliability was investigated. This was followed by multi- and univariate hypotheses testing between various groups. The overall approach to the data analysis was exploratory in nature. In the following sections the questionnaire, ethical measures, sample, validity, and the inferential statistical analyses are described.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire (Burns & Grove, 2011:353; Morgan, 2014: 55) was distributed electronically via e-mails too all students in the faculty of education at a specific university in South Africa. The filled in questionnaires were also received back electronically from the participants that elected to participate in the investigation. The completed questionnaires from the students who responded formed the data for this investigation and were used in the statistical analyses. The exploratory nature of this investigation demanded that derivations are trends observed in the data which could eventually lead to further findings in envisaged follow-up investigations. The utilised questionnaire is available on request. However, the formulation of the final number of the selected items used in this paper is presented in table 1. This questionnaire is the culmination of a large number of qualitative, quantitative studies, meta-syntheses and the literature.

The sections that formed part of the questionnaire were a biographic section, items on aspects of personality such as individual traits and relationships with other persons and perceptions of aggression as possible factors of aggression. In the biographic section items on aspects such gender, age, home language and year of study were asked. In this paper little attention is paid to these aspects. A total 85 questions on various other aspects formed part of the questionnaire. Each question item were assessed by the participants on a five-point Likert scale (Burns & Grove, 2011:357-358) that range from "Extremely uncharacteristic of me" marked as "1" through "Extremely characteristic of me" marked with a "5".

The focus of this paper is to investigate own perceptions with respect to intra- and interpersonal relationships as independent variables with regard to perceptions on aggression; and aggression as the dependent variable(s). Only those items describing these aspects were identified and selected. Initially 41 question items with regard to intra- and interpersonal aspects and aggression were identified from the available 85 items.

Ethical measures

Ethical measures discussed by Dhai and McQuoid-Mason (2011:14-15) such as autonomy, non-maleficence, beneficence and justice were consistently adhered to. Prospective participants were invited to participate by filling in the questionnaires. There were no identifying questions in the questionnaire. This project was given clearance by the Faculty Ethics Committee (Ethics clearance number 213-017). This committee is registered with the National Health Research Committee of South Africa (NHREC). The designated research official of the university gave clearance to the researchers that the questionnaire could be electronically forwarded to the specific targeted students. This person also managed the data collection to protect the participants from being identified. The possible benefit to the participants could be that they had the opportunity to reflect on their own behaviour, own experiences and the behaviour of other persons (UNESCO, 2006).

Population and Sample

Three hundred and thirty two (332) questionnaires were returned. This data were cleaned up and 266 participants' questionnaire data remained and were used in the analyses described in this paper. The demographics of the participants in the data of the 266 questionnaires are: 177 females, and 82 post-graduate students, i.e. honours, masters and doctorate students.

Operationalisation of the independent and dependent variables for the empirical investigation

The selected 41 items relating to intra-, interpersonal aspects and aggression at large were gauged against the literature to assess concept validity in iterative processes with the involved researchers. Aligned with the research theory utilised to formulate the above conceptual framework for this investigation, two aspects were used to identify the independent variables for this investigation, namely intra- and interpersonal aspects. In this regard 13 items were identified that represent these two aspects. Further, 28 items that describe aspects of aggression were included in the initial group of items used to operationalise aggression. These items formed the basis for further analyses described in the following sections of the paper.

After this process of assessing content validity we embarked on an exploratory process of subjecting the data to various factor analyses and reliability assessments.

Validity and reliability

Even though the concept "aggression" is commonly used and almost everyone knows when aggression manifests, whether intra- or interpersonally, the demarcation of the concept is fuzzy and difficult to demarcate. This is true even after numerous empirical investigations concretised in papers and theses whether qualitative or quantitative. The precise demarcation and clarification in our experience remains evasive. This has a real influence on assessing the validity of investigations such as the one described in this paper.

Nevertheless, in spite of this, validity and reliability (Walker, 2010:52; Burns & Grove, 2011:332-335) remain imperative. In this regard extensive qualitative empirical research was conducted over more than a decade and published in a large number of research papers and theses. As stated above participants in various projects were aware that aggression is part and parcel of life, whether intra- or interpersonally. These basic researches were followed by meta-syntheses and literature controls. In spite of all the projects and literature searches, the concept of aggression in itself remained fuzzy and blurred. The indicators of the concept nevertheless can be used to demarcate the various dimensions of aggression as will be demonstrated in this paper further down, but uneasiness about a clear and precise definition still remains. The findings from the various research projects and literature controls were built into the questionnaire that was used in this research.

The result of the initial selection and identification process were the selection of the 41 items. These items were subjected to consecutive principle component factor analyses using varimax rotation and also reliability assessments using Cronbach alpha coefficients.

The first factor analysis indicated 11 factors with eigenvalues larger than one. However, 3 items had factor loadings of less than 0.40 and were deleted from further analyses. Gauging the consecutive solutions for convergence, sizes of eigenvalues, scree plots, variance explained and loadings on more than one factor, we ended up with the solution presented in table 1. This solution consisted of 7 factors for the remaining 38 items and each item loading on only one factor. Further, when the factor loading of an item was negative, the item was transposed and the factor analysis was rerun. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy of the factor analysis is 0.860 (see table 1; see Field, 2005: 649-650). The Bartlett's coefficient to assess sphericity is significant (P-value of 0.000; Field, 2005: 652). As the KMO value is above 0.5 and the Barlett's test is significant (Field, 2005) this factor solution with 7 factors described intra- and interpersonal aspects, as well as aggression as perceived by the participants. This solution is accepted as basis for the further investigation.
 (table 1 more or less here)

The focus of this paper is to investigate the participants' perceptions with respect to intra- and interpersonal relationships as independent variables (see factors 4, 5 and 7) with regard to perceptions on aggression. Aggression in this paper is operationalised in terms of the 4 factors (see table 1: factor 1, 2, 3 and 6) as the dependent variable(s). These factors described intra- and interpersonal aspects and aggression are given in the tables that follow.

Factors describing independent variables: intra- and interpersonal dimensions

The three factors describing the intra- and interpersonal relationships are demarcated and presented in the following section:

Factor 4 (5 items): From table 1 it is clear that factor 4 describes the intrapersonal dimension of the participants. This factor was identified as **Self-love** in view of the fact that items loading on this factor this reflect that participants love themselves, care for themselves, understand themselves, are not harsh towards themselves and do not take their anger out on someone else (Pietersma & Dijkstra, 2012; MacDonald, 2015; Psychlopedia, 2015; Santilli, 2015) .

Factor 5 (5 items): was identified as **Constructive interpersonal relationships** as items loading on this factor describe that this person is perceived as approachable, friendly, sociable, caring and supportive towards others (Curve Agency, 2015; Oxford Dictionary, 2015; Scott, 2015).

Factor 7 (3 items): From table 1 it follows that items loading on this factor describe perceptions of being submissive, being a "loner" and being complaisant. In view of these items this factor was identified as **Disconnected interpersonal relationships**. It can be very difficult to communicate effectively when a person feels disconnected. Disconnection and experiencing challenges can go hand in hand, as an individual

might feel frustrated or threatened. This can cause an individual to be defensive (Jordan, 1995; Curve Agency, 2015).

Factors describing dimensions of aggression

In the following section, factors from table 1 describing perceptions of aggression are being identified. A total number of 25 items describe aggression. These are described by 4 factors:

Factor 1 (7 items): Was identified as **Active overt aggression** in view of the fact that items loading on this factor describe perceptions of a tendency to push other persons to the ground, taking things without permission, writing small notes criticising other people, kicking other persons, telling false stories and planning secretly to bother other persons.

Factor 2 (items): was identified as **Verbal aggression** because items loading on this factor describe perceptions of a tendency to say bad things behind someone else's back, telling secrets of other to other persons, give negative names to others, criticise other's appearance, influence others to dislike someone else and tease another person.

Factor 3 (7 items): was identified as **Direct and physical aggression**. Items loading on this factor describe perceptions of being seen as a hothead, having threatened others in the past, being aggressive towards oneself, getting into fights more than the average person and when annoyed by someone a willingness to tell them off it.

Factor 6 (4 items): was identified as **Argumentative aggression**. The items loading on this factor indicate that participants perceive themselves as getting into arguments with other when they disagree, a tendency to shut other people out of the group, a tendency yell at others without a good reason and disagreeing with others.

Hypotheses to assess the significance of differences between groups on aggression

In the following section the independent variables of intra- and interpersonal relationships are used to assess aggression amongst education students at a university. The median count of each factor with respect to intra- and interpersonal relationships was used to divide the group into two, thus obtaining a group with a high count versus a group with a low count for each of the three factors describing intra- and interpersonal relationships. In each the group with a higher mean on for ex. Self-love (factor 4), Constructive interpersonal relationships (factor 5) or Disconnected interpersonal relationships (factor 7) was compared to the group with the low mean on the factors describing aggression, i.e. aggression total (all 25 items) and thereafter the four factors. The four factors (1, 2, 3 and 6) describing aggression were together formed the vectors of aggression.

Hypotheses on multivariate and univariate levels are formulated below. The following general hypotheses were all tested on the 1% or 5% level of significance.
General multivariate hypothesis:

> *HoT: There is no significant difference between vectors of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having a low value on intra- or interpersonal*

relationships as compared to the vectors of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having high value on intra- or interpersonal relationships.

HaT: There is a significant difference between vectors of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having a low value on intra- or interpersonal relationships as compared to the vectors of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having high value on intra- or interpersonal relationships.

In this research this general multivariate hypothesis was tested with a Hotelling's T-square test consecutively for the significance of differences between groups with high versus low means on Self-love (factor 4), Constructive interpersonal relationships (factor 5) and Disconnected interpersonal relationships (factor 7). In each case the groups were compared on the vectors of means with respect to aggression. The vectors of factors were composed of the four factors describing aggression, i.e. factor 1, 2, 3 and 6. If significant multivariate difference was observed, this hypothesis testing was followed with univariate hypotheses testing with a Student t-test in each case. In this case the following general one-sided univariate hypothesis was tested for each of: aggression total (all 25 items), factor 1, 2, 3 and 6. It stands for reason that in such a case two-sided t-test P-values is divided by two to obtain a one-sided P-value. These one-sided values are reported in the tables. The following general univariate hypotheses will be tested:

Hot: There is no significant difference between the value obtained on a specific factor of aggression (i.e. factor 1, 2, 3 and total) of students perceiving themselves as having a low value on intra- or interpersonal relationships as compared to the value obtained on a specific factor of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having high value on intra- or interpersonal relationships.

Hat: The perceived value obtained on a specific factor of aggression of students perceiving themselves as having a low value on intra- or interpersonal relationships as compared students perceiving themselves as having high value on intra- or interpersonal relationships is significantly higher.

The above stated hypotheses are tested consecutively and are reported in each of the tables in this paper (See table 2, 3 and 4).

(Table 2, 3 and 4 more or less here)

Differential analysis of aggression

The means for the 266 participants on a five-point scale are: Aggression total =1.75, Active overt aggression (Factor 1) = 1.31, Verbal aggression (Factor 2) = 1.82, Direct and physical aggression (Factor 3) = 1.93 and Argumentative aggression (Factor 6) = 2.07. These means on a five-point scale indicates that aggression in total and on each of the four factors describing a different aspect of Aggression is generally sided towards "Extremely uncharacteristic of me" rather than "Extremely characteristic of me". This is indicative thereof that the perception of the participants is that they are less inclined to be aggressive rather than being aggressive. Further reference to the sizes of means and the implications thereof will be made below.

Self-love: From table 2 it is clear that HoT is rejected in favour of HaT on the 1% level of significance (P-value=0.000). This indicates that the multivariate hypothesis for Self-love of a significant difference between the vectors of means for the two groups is significant. Therefore the multivariate hypothesis testing is followed by the univariate testing of hypotheses with the Student t-test. From table 2 it is clear that Hot is rejected in favour of Hat on the 1% level of significance in the case of the Aggression total, Active overt aggression (Factor 1), Verbal aggression (Factor 2), Direct and physical aggression (Factor 3) and Argumentative aggression (Factor 6). This indicates that the more persons perceive that they exhibit self-love the less aggressiveness they perceive they demonstrate (Psychlopedia, 2015; Santilli, 2015).

Inspecting the means of the responses on the various factors describing perceptions of aggression, the following picture comes to the fore: The mean for the 266 participants are on Aggression total (=1.75), Active overt aggression (Factor 1 = 1.31), Verbal aggression (Factor 2 = 1.82), Direct and physical aggression (Factor 3 = 1.93) and Argumentative aggression (Factor 6 = 2.07) (See above). Within the context of Self-love (table 2) this sample of students perceived that on a 5-point scale the highest mean of any group is 2.26, but more importantly the group with the highest count on Self-love gave themselves only a maximum of 1.89 on a five-point scale for Argumentative aggression.

In view of these observations we concluded that for this sample of students the higher their Self-love, the significantly lesser their tendency towards aggression as compared to the group of students that perceive themselves as having a lower self-love. Further, the means for both groups are low, but even much lower for the group perceiving themselves to have a higher Self-love. This overall indicates that perceptions of high Self-love seemingly plays a pertinent role in counteracting perceptions of high aggressiveness.

Constructive interpersonal relationships: From table 3 it follows that HoT is rejected in favour of HaT on the 1% level of significance (P-value= 0.000, table 3). Further, Hot is rejected in favour of Hat for Aggression total on the 1% level, Verbal aggression on the 5% level (Factor 2), Direct and physical aggression on the 5% level (Factor 3) and Argumentative aggression on the 1% level of significance (Factor 6). Further, again the means on the different factors are indicating that the participants perceive themselves as being less aggressive by marking choices closer to "Extremely uncharacteristic of me". What is observable is that the differences in this case are closer to each other for high versus low counts on **Constructive Interpersonal relationships,** i.e. the largest difference is 0.26 (factor 6) and the smallest difference is 0.12 (factor 1). Compared to this, the largest difference for self-love is 0.62 (factor 3) and the smallest is 0.34 (factor 1).

Disconnected interpersonal relationships: In this case again HoT is rejected in favour of HaT (P-value=0.000). Further significant differences are observed for factor 1 (5%-level) and factor 3 (on the 5%-level). Further the differences between the high and lower disconnected groups are relatively small as the largest difference is 0.16 (factor 3).and the smallest difference is 0.05 (factor 6). This observation led to the conclusion that although some differences in this case are significant, it cannot be substantial as differences are small on five-point scale. (NOTE: Take note that in the

case of Disconnected interpersonal relationships interpretation should be in the opposite direction, i.e. a higher mean value on Disconnected interpersonal relationships indicate a less constructive perception as compared to persons perceiving themselves as having a lower mean value).

Overarching findings and implications

When the findings based on the three factors from the empirical investigation are inspected and one reflects on the implications thereof it clear that in essence the focus is on intra- and interpersonal relationships. This group of students perceive themselves as being not over aggressive. This is in spite of lectures/professors often are of a different perception (Toerien, Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2014). Further, it seems that Self-love (factor 4- reflective of constructive intrapersonal relationships) as compared to Constructive (factor 5) or Disconnected interpersonal relationships (factor 7) indicates that it is more sensitive with regards to indicating or reflecting significant differences between the groups concerning aggression. This is indicative that the individual's perceptions of self and internal life play a pivotal role concerning perceptions of aggression. In line with existing research and theory it seems that when the mental health of an individual is well, then most other aspects concerning intra- and interpersonal relationships is well. Thus in addressing the mental health of students the focus should be on the individual's mental health and thereafter Constructive intrapersonal and finally Disconnected interpersonal relationships. This is in accordance with positive psychology that claims that the focus should be on constructive and positive intra- and interpersonal relationships. Often the negative aspects of relationships will then solved without unnecessary focussing on less constructive aspects.

Final reflection and a word of caution

The findings from this research should be viewed against the back ground that very few persons would state that they perceive themselves as aggressive. Further, a close friend might perceive one as more aggressive than the individual him- or herself would like to acknowledge. In this case lecturers/ professors often perceive students as aggressive when for example the handing in of late assignments or missed exams are discussed. In the case of this specific research project we are aware that electronic surveys are completed by small numbers of students and it might just be that the group of students that completed this survey were the less aggressive group of students. It could be that students, who did not complete the survey, differ substantially from this group of students.

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Table 1: Results of factor analysis and item analyses (Cronbach's Alpha) on the responses of the students on their perceptions of their aggression[a,b,c]

	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cronbach alpha	.846	.816	.773	.753	.753	.682	.241
B45: Given enough provocation, I may hit another person			.524				
B46: I sometimes tend to shut other people out of our group						.615	
B47: I usually get into arguments when people disagree with me						.703	
B48: I sometimes yell at people for no good reason at all						.480	
B49: I sometimes tend to kick other people when I am upset	.669						
B50: I sometimes ignore other people when they disagree with me on certain issues		.434					
B51: When people annoy me, I am may tell them what I think of them			.481				
B52: When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them	.532						
B53: I sometimes tell false stories about people	.558						
B54transp: When angry, I usually take it out on people close to me				.469			
B55: I sometimes plan secretly to bother other people	.550						
B56: I sometimes tend to shove (push) people when I am upset			.504				
B57: I sometimes tend to say bad things about people behind their backs		.666					
B58: I sometimes call people negative names		.644					
B59: I sometimes tend to take things from other people without their permission	.720						
B60: I sometimes tell peoples' secrets to other people		.656					
B61: I sometimes tease other people		.516					
B62: I sometimes write small notes criticizing other people	.709						
B63: I sometimes push other people to the ground	.738						
B64: I sometimes criticize peoples' appearance (i.e. their hair styles, clothes, etc.)		.587					
B65: I sometimes try to influence people to dislike a specific person with whom I am angry		.526					
B66: I view myself as sociable toward others					.604		
B67: I view myself as a "loner"							.546
B69: I view myself as submissive towards other persons							.614
B71: I am always approachable by other persons					.783		
B72: I am always seen as being friendly towards others					.767		

B73: I get into fights a little more than the average person does	.489				
B74: I have threatened people I know	.609				
B75: I view myself as usually being supportive towards other persons			.516		
B76: I view myself as usually being complaisant towards other persons					.406
B77: I sometimes view myself as aggressive towards myself	.518				
B79transp: I sometimes see myself as being harsh towards myself		.525			
B80: I view myself as being understanding towards myself		.713			
B81: I view myself as loving myself		.755			
B82: Some of my friends think I am a hothead	.669				
B83: I view myself as caring towards other persons			.599		
B84: I view myself as caring towards myself		.722			
B85: I often find myself disagreeing with people				.470	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 14 iterations.
b. Overall Cronbach alpha: 0.812 (38 items)
c. Cronbach alpha for only aggression items: 0.912 (25 items)

Table 2: Significance of differences between groups of students perceiving themselves as having higher versus lesser **Self-love** by aggression[a,b,c]

Factors of aggression	Cutpoint=20	N	Mean	Std.Devia-tion	P-value
Factor 1: Active overt aggression	higher	136	1.14	.26	
	lesser	130	1.48	.72	.000**
Factor 2: Verbal aggression	higher	136	1.60	.58	
	lesser	130	2.06	.81	.000**
Factor 3: Direct and physical aggression	higher	136	1.63	.51	.000**
	lesser	130	2.25	.86	
Factor 6: Argumentative aggression	higher	136	1.89	.69	.000**
	lesser	130	2.26	.84	
Aggression (total – 25 items)	higher	136	1.53	.35	
	lesser	130	1.98	.66	.000**

a. ** Significant difference on the 1% level of significance. Two-sided P-value divided to obtain the reported one-sided P-value.
b. Wilk's Lambda P-value = 0.000: indicating a significant multivariate difference between higher versus lesser **Selflove** for the vectors composed of factor 1, 2, 3 and 6. Aggression total was excluded for this comparison
c. Cutpoint on **Selflove** was 20. The "higher" group was greater than and the "lesser" group less than 20. The minimum = 5 and a maximum= 25 for the 5 items

Table 3: Significance of differences between groups of students perceiving themselves as having higher versus lesser **Constructive interpersonal relationships** by aggression[a,b,c]

Factors of aggression	Cutpoint=21	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P-value
Factor 1: Active overt aggression	higher	140	1.25	.58	
	lesser	126	1.37	.55	.251
Factor 2: Verbal aggression	higher	140	1.74	.74	
	lesser	126	1.92	.71	.010*
Factor 3: Direct and physical aggression	higher	140	1.85	.79	.018*
	lesser	126	2.02	.74	
Factor 6: Argumentative aggression	higher	140	1.94	.82	.001**
	lesser	126	2.22	.73	
Aggression (total – 25 items)	higher	140	1.67	.60	
	lesser	126	1.84	.53	.003**

a. Two-sided P-value divided to obtain the reported one-sided P-value. ** Significant difference on the 1% level of significance. * Significant difference on the 5% level of significance

b. Wilk's Lambda P-value = 0.000: Wilk's Lambda P-value = 0.000: indicating a significant multivariate difference between higher versus lesser **Constructive interpersonal relationships** for the vectors composed of factor 1, 2, 3 and 6. Aggression total was excluded for this comparison

c. Cutpoint on **Constructive interpersonal relationships** was 21. The "higher" group was greater than and the "lesser" group less than 21. The minimum = 5 and a maximum= 25 for the 5 items

Table 4: Significance of differences between groups of students perceiving themselves as having higher versus lesser **Disconnected interpersonal relationships** by aggression[a,b,c]

Factors of aggression	Cutpoint= 8	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P-value
Factor 1: Active overt aggression	higher	140	1.35	.62	.042*
	lesser	126	1.26	.49	
Factor 2: Verbal aggression	higher	140	1.86	.76	.091
	lesser	126	1.78	.70	
Factor 3: Direct and physical aggression	higher	140	2.01	.81	
	lesser	126	1.85	.71	.023*
Factor 6: Argumentative aggression	higher	140	2.05	.85	
	lesser	126	2.10	.72	.154
Aggression (total – 25 items)	higher	140	1.79	.63	
	lesser	126	1.70	.51	.056

a. Two-sided P-value divided to obtain the reported one-sided P-value. ** Significant difference on the 1% level of significance. * Significant difference on the 5% level of significance

b. Wilk's Lambda P-value = 0.000: Wilk's Lambda P-value = 0.000: indicating a significant multivariate difference between higher versus lesser **Disconnected interpersonal relationships** for the vectors composed of factor 1, 2, 3 and 6. Aggression total was excluded for this comparison

c. Cutpoint on **Disconnected interpersonal relationships** was 8. The "higher" group was greater than and the "lesser" group less than 8. The minimum = 3 and a maximum= 15 for the 3 items

Where Were You Mutti? A Critique of the Progress of Educational Reform: Female Inclusion in History Textbooks for the Modern History Case Study, Germany 1919-1939

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Abstract
This article reports on findings from a study which investigated how changed academic approaches to female agency in historical processes have influenced the concepts and contents of history textbooks in Higher School Certificate studies of Modern History in New South Wales. It is important to assess how far school textbooks have come in terms of including women given that one major way history is interpreted to students is through textbooks. In this research, data were gathered from the key textbooks for the Modern History National Study, Germany 1919-1939, and analysed using Banks' scale of curriculum integration to evaluate how well new interpretations of historical scholarship on women's experiences, during Wilhelmine, Weimar, and Nazi Germany have been integrated into high school textbooks. It also investigates the views of teachers and presents their perceptions of existing textbooks staying up to date with recent developments on female agency in the academic milieu.

Keywords: Gender Inclusion, History Textbooks, Secondary Education

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Introduction

As an academic discipline, History has experienced rapid and exponential change during the recent past. Since the late 1960s, (Appleby, 1994) postmodernists and critical theorists have rejected the foundations of historical and scientific knowledge and challenged convictions about the objectivity of knowledge and stability of language upon which the verities of Modernist historicism were based. Francis Fukuyama's controversial, The End of History, (2002) enunciated the end of the absolutisms of Modernism presaging a "fluid scepticism" of objectivity and "truth-seeking" across new historical landscapes. These landscapes have, inter alia, added social, cultural, women's, postcolonial, and sub-altern perspectives (Cabrera, 2006) to accepted areas of historical literacy and highlighted the importance of negotiating theory. Theory is a dangerous word. The American Critical Theorist, Stephen Brookfield (2005) warned that, "Acting on what they believed are accurate theories of human nature people have started wars, committed murder, and sanctioned torture. How we think is a matter of life and death." These shifts in ontology and epistemology demand that teacher educators and teachers reconsider their attitudes to the philosophy of knowledge and more recent additions to the historical canon. Failure in this regard suggests that students entering dedicated tertiary historical studies or with history as a curriculum method in teacher training can face a lonely and at times frustrating voyage around the historical theories, as they ply their way through the inchoate theoretical sounding's of more recent historical thinkers in the hope that they will reveal their meanings.

The current Modern History Syllabus pays obeisance to the more recent tendencies in historical scholarship. One of these transformations have been the institutional recognition of female agency to historical processes. However, there appears to be a lacuna in research exploring and reporting how well recent academic approaches to gender in History have translated to Australian school textbooks. Given that schools are natural connectors between society on matters of culture and social democracy, (Savoie, Bruter & Frijhoff, 2004) this study sought to address the lack of knowledge in this area within an Australian context and suggests that a study of current senior Modern History textbooks from the New South Wales Stage 6 Curriculum presents an opportunity to critique the progress of educational reform in female inclusion, with the school as mediator of social change and justice.

To operationalise the study, I focused upon the key textbooks for the Modern History unit of work, Germany 1919-1939. This case study is the uncontested heavyweight of the New South Wales' Stage Six Modern History case studies, with a constituency of 68% of candidates sitting the 2008 examination, and a cohort of 66% of students averaged out sitting the examination from 2005-2016. I identify with a critical theory paradigm in critiquing key textbooks for the subject. My affinity for critical theory is premised on Brookfield's statement that a critical theory must investigate "… matters of morality and communication and how a democratic society might organise itself to promote the fullest and freest communication possible among its members." (Brookfield, 2005) There is the assumption that by using a critical theory perspective, knowledge is not neutral and therefore the field is overtly political. Further, I enjoy insider status as a teacher in the workplace, Higher School Certificate marker, speaker at state and federal conferences for the subject professional associations, manuscript

reviewer, and unremitting public observer of the current NSW Stage 6 Modern History Syllabus.

This study is relevant and significant as the first project focusing on implementation of gender perspectives within the New South Wales Higher School Certificate Modern History Syllabus. Hence an examination of a policy and its implementation will provide analysis of a previously unexamined aspect of educational reform. The study is also significant because it canvasses factors causing congruence or non-congruence between intention and reality. Identification of factors facilitating or inhibiting intention and reality in implementation of the philosophical goals will provide information for decision makers, policy makers and teacher educators for making appropriate decisions and adjustments concerning the policies and strategies of gender perspectives in educational reform. Thus, the orientation of this study of policy congruence, is on how effectively the philosophy of the New South Wales Education Standards Authority - formerly Board of Studies of New South Wales - translates into policy and practice in schools. This study focuses on these findings and identifies key points raised by the research.

Background

Academic approaches to the study of German women in the historical period 1919-1939 have responded positively to the importance of gender roles and gender concepts which have been widely accepted as an essential dimension of history. (Evans 1976; Mason 1977; Winkler 1977; Bridenthal, Grossman, & Kaplan 1984; Sabean 1984; Owings 1993; Quack 1995; Reagin 1995; Distel 2001; Stephenson 2001; Harvey 2004; Scheck, 2004a; Scheck, 1999b; Smith 2008; Sutton 2009) How have these developments influenced history textbooks for schools? Textbooks in schools assume a reduced importance when compared to gender disparities based on access, parity, achievement, curriculum, and teacher treatment. Yet despite decades of research to expose and ameliorate gender bias in textbooks, Blumberg's (2008) background paper for the UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report, found that textbooks continue to be "…one of the best camouflaged and hardest to budge rocks in the road to gender equity in education," and "... far more widespread geographically than the remaining gender gap in parity. Indeed, all these biases and their effects are part of the "hidden curriculum." (2008)

Textbooks have also been identified by Gordy, Hogan, and Pritchard, as "One major way in which history is interpreted to students …". They aver, "... knowledge provided by texts shapes our ideas about women's and men's roles" and argue that textbooks represent an index of progress in the study of gender roles as, "Social meanings attached to women and men can be revealed in studying history." (2004) Their Connecticut study of the integration of women's experiences of World War Two into high school textbooks tested school district statutory compliance to the use of gender and racially fair textbooks. By employing content analysis and Banks' scale of curriculum integration (1993) coded across four typologies, the researchers revealed that all thirteen major teaching texts reached the contribution level, five progressed to the additive level, three contained elements of the transformation approach, but none exhibited a critical thinking orientation. (2004) A more recent study of Germany's secondary school system which sampled twenty out of 150 approved textbooks used in Hauptschule, Realschule, and Gymnasium streams,

(Lassig & Pohl, 2009) came to the conclusion that German textbooks limit women's history to a small number of topics, invest intensively in gender perspectives late in student careers and do not make full use of the opportunities offered by the curricula to integrate the findings of recent historical scholarship.

Issitt expresses further concerns related to the purpose, status, and use of textbooks. He claims their low status as "… literary objects and vehicles of pedagogy masks their place in the transmission of ideologies and hegemonic function as the voice of disciplines" (2004) and warns against their legitimisation of a discursive field via the guise of political neutrality. Unfettered use of textbooks plays into the hands of the uninspired and untrained (Cameron 2004) by perpetuating "a received knowledge and passive consumption which circumscribes knowledge that counts, positions learners in a subordinate epistemological status, and directs engagement to an outcome based upon a goal. (Issitt, 2004)

The research problem is stated as how power is produced and reproduced through education, and in this case, the degree to which the emancipation of the public sphere has been subverted by institutions. Blumberg's meta-analysis, (2008) Gordy, Hogan, & Pritchard's evaluation of "Herstory" (2004) and Issitt's apprehension of the hegemonic overtones of textbooks (2004) suggest that representation of female agency throughout historical processes has progressed little in quantum or orientation despite the presence of a considerable and growing body of literature in the academic milieu. Their findings reflect poorly on international compliance in transposing recent trends in historical scholarship on women and gender perspectives into school textbooks, providing yet another rationale for a study of this type in the Australian context.

Rationale & Aims

The research aims were to investigate and evaluate how well the key textbooks for the Modern History study, Germany 1919-1939, provided opportunities for student engagement with some of the more recent academic theoretical approaches to female agency in History for this period, and gather and explore data on how teachers respond in providing opportunities for student awareness and understanding of newer approaches to female agency in History. The following questions guided the study. Have new academic trends on concepts of female agency entered key school history textbooks for the unit of work, Germany 1919-1939? What attitudes do teachers have about the value of textbooks in teaching this unit of work? How aware are teachers of contemporary trends in the historiography of women for this area of historical study? What attitudes do teacher have about the value of integrating contemporary trends in the historiography of women into their teaching of this unit of Modern History?

Design & Methods

This research was informed by two methodologies. A content analysis using a schema adapted from Banks' (1993) mode of curriculum integration was undertaken to assess the level of inclusion of female representation in textbook content. A literature search and analysis of the textbooks recommended by the History Teachers' Association of New South Wales revealed that there are approximately twenty-eight books regarded by teachers and students as appropriate textbooks dedicated to the National Study,

Germany 1919-1939. Of these, the most significant publications were Germany 1918-1939, (2007) Hitler and Germany: History Keynotes, (2008) and Republic to Reich. (2007) Of these publications, in particular Republic to Reich, (3rd. ed.) and Germany 1918-1939, were the most frequently cited texts and almost all other texts are routinely reissued. I restricted the analysis to a representative sample of ten books selected for content analysis.

Banks' model was devised in the mid-1990s to measure and assess the stages in which the liberal arts curriculum progresses through stages of promoting respect for and knowledge of human diversity. The four levels of Banks' model are listed below.

| Approach Description Examples	Description	Examples
Contributions Level 1	Heroes, cultural components, holidays, and other discrete elements related to diverse groups are added to the curriculum on special days, occasions, and celebrations.	Artefacts from diverse groups and/or individuals are studied without attention of their meaning and significance.
Additive Level 2	Content, themes, concepts and perspectives are added without changing the curriculum structure.	Addition of uncontroversial books, articles, people, and materials to a lesson without giving sufficient background knowledge and/or context necessary for student understanding.
Transformation Level 3	The key goals, structure, and nature of the curriculum are changed to enable student exposure to concepts, events, issues, themes and problems from a range of diverse perspectives. Students view events and issues in an empathetic manner and can synthesise and apply their knowledge and understanding in new or changed environments.	Lessons and topics describe and explore the meaning of concepts, events, issues, themes and problems to all groups involved. Students explore their own values and others' and the impact of beliefs, values and attitudes on the decisions people make. All perspectives are heard. Alternative explanations are investigated, particularly that of marginalised groups.
Social Action Level 4	Students identify important social and cultural problems and issues, gather pertinent data, clarify their values, make decisions, and take action to resolve the issues or problem.	Students study prejudice and discrimination and take action to improve social awareness and understanding. Students study the treatment of diverse and marginalised groups and take actions to remedy inequity.

The Contribution Approach is the most frequently used in textbooks. It focuses on heroes, holidays, and discrete cultural elements and is characterised by the addition of extraordinary persons into the curriculum carefully chosen to fit mainstream perspectives and criteria. With the exception of the separate but parallel case study on Leni Riefenstahl, texts that mentioned the work of famous individuals or personalities, female organisations and movements in Germany 1919-1939, were coded as reaching the contributions approach (Level 1) of integration. The Additive Approach varies in that content, concepts, and themes are grafted onto the curriculum without changing its structure, purpose, or features. This approach is acquitted by adding a book section, article, or dimension into the existing curriculum without restructuring it or redefining curriculum purposes, nature, or goals. Texts coded as Level 2 go into more comprehensive and detailed description about the significance of women in terms of the issues and difficulties they faced. However, they offer little to no discussion about the importance or consequences of the female experience in the period studied. The Transformation Approach differs from those mentioned in that it involves the use of different perspectives, content, and frames of reference. This approach emphasises the need for examining a range of perspectives in order to understand the complexity of their study.

Texts coded at level 3 required critical thinking skills of a higher order. Students may negotiate syllogism by practicing the art of spotting an argument that does not stand up to scrutiny, because of areas of inconsistency; appeal to authority, the negating antecedent, ad populum, and post hoc ergo propter hoc, to illustrate several recognisable techniques of fallacy and sophism in form and reasoning. For example, students may be invited to evaluate to what extent the "soft power" of Nazi propaganda platforms such as Volksgemeinschaft lead to the dismantling of the sweeping democratic reforms and increased visibility for women in the public sphere achieved during the short-lived Weimar period. This would require a student foray into the more recent historical literacy's drawing on theoretical approaches of the interdisciplinary kind they will encounter in their tertiary studies in History. For example, student concept-building would be augmented by their awareness of the Sonderweg paradigm, and their capacity to test the connection between propaganda and change by interrogating the validity of the argument that Weimar was a failed experiment in Modernism. Accordingly, students might consider Weimar as a testing ground for a new relationship between civil society and democracy, and the paradox of Germany's flirtation with parliamentary democracy and state failure-inability to contain individualistic forces unleashed by democracy that threaten to pull society apart. This would require an understanding of German women's contribution to the creation of conditions that hastened the collapse of the party system, and which mostly supported the reforms sought by the Nazis to transform Germany's institutional framework. The final approach, the Social Action Approach, includes all of the elements of the Transformation Approach and requires students to make decisions and take action related to the concept, issue, or event they are studying. Using Bank's scale, the texts were coded for their thematic content and were assessed for their degree of inclusive history according to the four levels.

The second qualitative approach used to gather data on teacher perspectives was secured through a brief questionnaire that contained open and close-ended questions, and through semi-structured interview. Some items for the questionnaire were adapted from existing Australian and International surveys on teacher use and perceptions of

textbooks and attitudes to gender inclusive instructional strategies and teaching materials. (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, 2006: Gender Bias in Textbooks: Education for All by 2015, 2007; Teaching Australian Literacy Study, 2009) The questionnaire contained 14 items. After preparing the pre-trial questionnaire the pilot study was carried out before administering the final questionnaire to highlight problems with the questionnaire and subsequent interviews. It was submitted to forty experienced HSC teachers for their evaluation. Following the pilot, the questionnaire was revised to include two open questions, two dichotomous questions, five single answer mode multiple choice, three multiple answer mode multiple choice (1 rating scaled) and two rating scaled questions. The advantages were considered to be that some degree of complexity could be obtained with both dichotomous and multiple-choice items which could be coded and aggregated to elicit response frequency, and some use of rating scaled items could gain a small measure of sensitivity of response and yet still be quantified to generate numbers. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) One hundred and forty questionnaires were distributed, and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 of the same teachers. Semi-structured interview was chosen as a legitimate modus vivendi between the structured and non-directive interview. Structured interviews compel interviewees to answer the same set of standard questions. The order of questioning is fixed and wording is specific and there is minimal scope for probing or deviating from the specified agenda.

This approach was discounted as it did not tie in with my affinity for Critical Theory due to the power imbalance between researcher and respondent, and I wanted to move beyond an approach associated with descriptive information to one aligned with producing data which probed deeper into the working lives of the interviewees and one capable of generating theory. The non-directive interview, a technique emanating from the therapeutic assessment interview offered the theoretical promise of minimal interviewer direction and respondent freedom to express their attitudes fully and freely. However, this approach was also rejected due to the disadvantages of having no set questions, no pre-determined framework for recording responses, and exigencies of time. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) Semi-structured interview enabled a more flexible instrument as I could use a standardised interview schedule yet the method allowed for the haptic exploration of emergent themes and enabled scope for pursuing and probing for novel information through additional prompts and impromptu questions in order to follow up leads and the unforseen or contingent emerging during the interview. As revised, the semi-structured interview consisted of 14 open-ended items congruous with the research questions, "What attitudes do teachers have about the value of textbooks in teaching this unit of work? How aware are teachers of contemporary trends in the historiography of women for this area of historical study? What attitudes do teacher have about the value of integrating contemporary trends in the historiography of women into their teaching of this unit of Modern History organised into three sections: Textbooks, (6) Contemporary Gender Trends in History, (5) and Views of inclusion of Gender Perspectives in Teaching. (3)
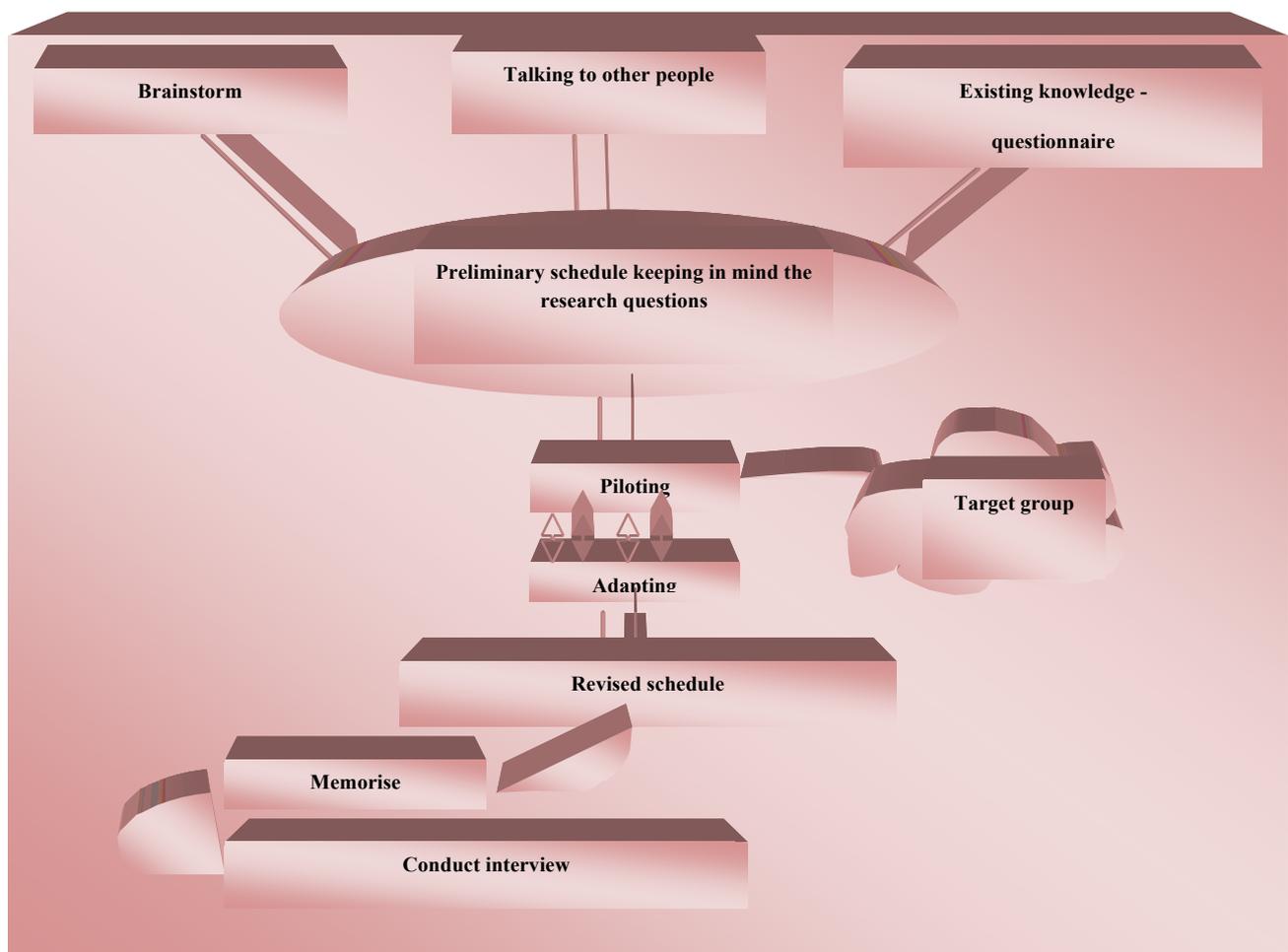
Visual representation of how the interview guide was generated, piloted, adapted and used in the field.

Findings

Content Analysis

All texts reached the Contributions stage for women before 1919, during the Weimar interregnum, and particularly during the Nazi period. However, the type of coverage was very limited. Only two of the texts provided any description of women's wartime experiences, one mentioned women as special cases; for example, the reproductive nationalism associated with the Mother's Cross, as their contribution to the fixation with racial purity and population growth, and one included a descriptive and marginal role of women and their organisations in the political life of Weimar but did not discuss their significance or present their perspectives. Thus, the mainstream curriculum remains unchanged and students do not attain a comprehensive-sophisticated view of women in Wilhelmine, Weimar, or Nazi Germany. Issues and events come to be seen as additions to the curriculum, and appendages to the main story of the German nation's development. The curriculum remains unchanged in its basic structure, goals and features. Five of the books reviewed reached the Additive stage in that they gave more detailed and specific descriptive information on the lives of women, including: their appearance in national politics as members of political parties, electoral constituents, members of the Reichstag, as the Hitler Youth, as "Mothers of The Nation," and in the spheres of work and social groups. However, they were all from a male perspective and no comprehensive analysis was found on the importance of these experiential aspects of gender. At the Transformation stage,

four texts demonstrated elements of level three, as they presented the views and perspectives - albeit succinctly - of women of different social, racial, and/or geographical groups on topics which required critical thinking skills such as the counterfactual to history. These included evaluations of the role and status of women in the enterprise of Volksgemeinschaft and Gleichschaltung, in employment, education, agency in social movements, and as politically aware citizens cognisant of their importance to the Nazi's early electoral fortunes and their subsequent complimentary roles in Nazi policies for transformation of a nation. Recent stand-alone primers on Leni Riefenstahl and short monographs on Rosalia Luxemburg also fit this approach. None of the texts reviewed reached the Social Action Approach.

Teacher Perceptions

Qualitative case-studies of volunteer teachers were carried out over seven academic years 2009-2016. Data was gathered through analysis of teaching programs, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. In the light of the data collected for this assignment, all teachers found the research project interesting and felt that they gained valuable insights into this area of educational research by participating. The findings can be summarised as follows. The questionnaire identified the demographic profile of teachers, all of whom were HSC markers, and investigated their frequency of textbook use and of other teaching and learning resources, their preferences for selecting textbooks, their perceptions of how well textbooks stayed up to date with recent historiography on women, their familiarity with recent scholarly trends in gender perspectives in History, engagement with professional development opportunities in this discourse, perceptions of their own teaching practice, and how desirable it was for senior students to have knowledge and understanding of recent historiography on women, for the nominated subject, Germany 1919-1939.

The results revealed that all teachers used textbooks as the primary resource for teaching the subject. Almost 60% of respondents used a textbook dedicated solely for this purpose, following the concept of a workbook, while others used two textbooks with chapters running in parallel to the Syllabus outcomes. All teachers indicated that they used films as the next preferred teaching resource and 34% used websites sometimes. All nominated Mason's, From Republic to Reich, or Webb's, Germany 1918-1939, as the sine qua non for the course. All spent between 18-22 hours using a textbook in class, representing 56-62% of the indicative hours allocated for the unit of work by the New South Wales Education Standards Authority. These results compared favourably with anecdotal claims from the teachers interviewed "that students spend as much as 80 to 95 percent of classroom time using textbooks and that teachers make a majority of their instructional decisions based on the textbook."

In terms of what made the ideal text for the subject, 40% strongly agreed for Category 1, "Language easy to understand." All agreed for Category 2, "Availability of teacher resources"; there was an almost even split on those who agreed-disagreed for Category 3, "Length of text"; all strongly agreed for Categories 4 & 5, "Develops student understanding of concepts" and "Chapters linked to Syllabus outcomes"; yet 24% agreed for Category 6, "Includes up to date historical research/theory." On Section 6, all indicated that they had not studied feminist theories, feminist literature, or feminist pedagogy at all, but indicated they had gained an overview/introduction to gender perspectives and social justice in their formal educational training and

qualification or obtained through professional development opportunities. Section 7 revealed one teacher had undertaken less than 5 hours professional development in teaching gender perspectives in the past 5 years and others answered that they had not participated in any such training. Using 5 point Likert rating scales, Section 8 showed 75% of teachers disagreed that their primary textbook had altered to accommodate to contemporary scholarship on women, and others chose the neutral response. Surprisingly, Section 9, also rating scaled, showed that 86% chose the neutral response, on how important it was for senior students to have access to recent academic knowledge on German women and girls for the period studied. The open-ended Section 10 which invited teachers to comment on how their teaching approaches and strategies changed to accommodate recent educational ideas elicited responses similar in meaning, if not in word use.

However, Section 10 unintentionally exposed an unexpected digression. All teachers held strong ambivalent feelings about the effect of the Quality Teaching in Schools policy on their teaching of this and other units of work for the Modern History subject. They indicated the Quality Teaching Framework was a political response to the clamour from government for a new generation of technologically literate, self-directed learners and a policy directive that aims to develop attitudes and skills for lifelong learning. They believed that Quality Teaching signals a shift away from learning theories with a psychological focus toward a sociological one in terms of emphasising the relational aspects of social interaction and learning, how learners conceptualise new ideas in the light of prior learning, and learning outside of classroom contexts. All indicated their reservations about the implications for teacher's due to the potential for repositioning and re-alignment in the practical expectations of what teacher's work is and the role of the learner, and lack of adequate department support in funding or provision of release time and/or availability for professional development opportunities, particularly in the areas of literacy in ICT and Web2 use. They also inveighed against the dearth of professional development opportunities facilitated by the NSW Department of Education and Training in skilling teachers in recent trends in historiography. All felt that professional development in this area had been ignored by the Department and that the responsibility had fallen mostly to the History Teachers' Association of New South Wales, or to individual teachers, to remedy this neglect via external means such as further studies in these areas at Graduate Certificate or Master's level.

The interview posed a series of questions for each of these themes: Textbooks, Contemporary Gender Trends in History, and Views of inclusion of Gender Perspectives in Teaching. Specific key perceptions arose on Textbooks. All teachers believed that while existing textbooks have their shortcomings, in the light of limited and inadequate availability for professional development opportunities provided by the NSW Department of Education and Training for upgrading their familiarity and skills with ICT compounded by the uncertainty surrounding the post-Laptop 'roll-out,' textbooks would remain as the primary teaching resource for teachers of this subject, and that the onus remained with students to use their own initiative in non-class and study time to access other sites and sources of information, if they want to specialise in more recent theories related to the historiography of the subject. Criticism of textbooks was confined to poor connections between chapters, the perception of occasional bias of the author/s, treating important examinable areas too "lightly" with insufficient detail - a contradiction to the earlier response on student

agency in student-centred enquiry based learning - and too many sources and activities at the expense of content, or what Cameron (2004) lamented as the "double page spread"; topics presented with minimal content, a couple of sources, a few activities, and capable of an 85% photocopy reduction and rebirth as a worksheet dreaded by the student. Comments on Contemporary Trends of gender revealed an almost complete ignorance of specific contemporary theories, historians, or historical works inclusive of women in historical processes. Interest in contemporary trends in literature related to the topic were confined to thematic areas of economic, political, and military history and all four divulged that they were unlikely to read such material unless it was budgeted for by their school faculty or library. In response to the effect of new thinking on the role of women in historical processes and its effect on teaching the subject, the overwhelming majority of teachers claimed that it made no difference as the formal examination paper questions hardly varied in the orientation of the questions and had rarely departed from this focus since 1964; the topic of "Totalitarianism" was raised as one of several such examples. Several teachers conceded that there were suggestions from some senior students not relating to textbooks but expressing a wider malaise with the subject itself as an anachronism.

On the final theme, Views on including contemporary gender perspectives in teaching, 76% of teachers believed that it was not important for senior students to focus on gender perspectives as historical categories or as an analytical instrument, while most agreed that it was important only in the context of the Personality Study of the female Documentarist, "Leni Riefenstahl." All agreed that the Personality Study gave interested students scope to engage in comparison of the established schools of political and military historiography with the more recent discourses of contemporary and emerging theories of gender. All agreed that the teacher's role in promoting student engagement with gender perspectives for the subject was that of a facilitator.

All evinced concern about the possible detriment to student outcomes of investing in a greater overt focus on gender given the sheer volume of historical information to cover in the time allocated for this unit. The majority alluded to Modern History as a subject having been previously identified as problematic in terms of negotiating content-heavy units of work (Vinson 2002) requiring students to develop knowledge and understanding of key features, issues, individuals, groups, events, concepts and other forces along with skills to undertake the process of historical inquiry and communicate an understanding of history. All felt that the difficulties associated with the "cramming" and "compression" of content necessary to negotiate the unit in the indicative hours allocated had not been genuinely alleviated by the post 2005 Syllabus revisions. Teachers saw it as primarily the role of the school library to cater for individual student interest in this area. Almost half of the respondents supported the idea in principle of a new text or texts incorporating more recent historiographical gender perspectives. However, this was tempered with a reluctance to devote much classroom time on these emerging concepts and changed content and all stated they would probably eschew use of such texts unless they were accompanied by endorsement from the peak body professional association, the NSW History Teachers' Association, and more problematically, in the light of the uncertainty and controversy associated with the imminent National Curriculum, and possible further Syllabus revision, they would not commit to taking a more proactive role in integrating recent historiographical trends into teaching the subject unless the material was a mandatory inclusion directed by NESA and sanctioned by the Examination

Committee in the Higher School Certificate Examination or its equivalent replacement.

Conclusion

The findings of this research have clear messages and implications for teachers, students and others concerned with social justice with regard to the role and status of female agency in historical processes. The main findings arising from the content analysis and teacher interviews suggest that the textbooks do not make full use of the limited opportunities offered by the curricula to integrate the findings of recent historical scholarship. Despite being adroit with the language of reform, the subject orientation of the current HSC Modern History syllabus remains mostly fixated with themes based upon political and military historical processes, and units of work dominated by the twin political themes following the Second World War, Decolonisation and Cold War World. Arguably, these units demonstrate a historical and historiographical lacuna of almost three decades thus minimising institutionally sanctioned opportunities for teachers and students to explore more recent historical literacy's. These results share parallels with Lassig and Pohl's (2009) study of how changed academic approaches to history have influenced the concepts and contents of history textbooks in Germany. Although the German education system is streamed into the Hauptschule, preparation for an apprenticeship in a manual trade; the Realschule, entry to an apprenticeship in commerce or healthcare; and Gymnasium, from which the thirty percent of top students will be prepared for university entrance with the Abitur examination, textbooks that go beyond a chronological approach are usually available only to Gymnasium students at sixth form level. (Lassig & Pohl, 2009) In a similar vein to Lassig and Pohl, the texts examined in this study hardly ever address gender as a historical category or employ it as an analytical instrument. Similarly, the 10 texts examined for the German Case Study mirror the approaches of textbooks used for Gymnasium and Realschule; they offer some limited practical advice on historical work and follow the concept of a workbook with chapters linked directly to syllabus inquiry points along meta-curricular lines, blending content and skills together.

These findings revisit an older theme of Curruptio optima pessima, and signal a call for action. Given the plethora of recent scholarship on German women in the period under study, there can be no valid reason for their over-representation in the "Contribution" and "Additive" typologies of Banks' Scale in contemporary school textbooks for senior students. While gender has been integrated into historical writing descriptively, if not analytically, the potential of gender has not been incorporated into the mainstream historical methodology of senior texts for this subject. There was no evidence that teachers reified textbooks for this unit of work, or that lessons were textbook dominated. There were however, clear examples that class time was textbook driven, and although teachers varied in how they actually made use of texts, and use of other teaching and learning materials, textbooks remained as a primary framework which instilled confidence and security in students. Given the high stakes of the HSC as the major pathway to tertiary studies this is understandable. Arguably, what is at stake is how we reconcile the institutionally sanctioned curriculum with other voices outside of formal learning sites but which provide a more authentic mode of expression. How does the student free themselves from empirically identifiable inconsistencies between outmoded curriculum support materials and the discourses of

the more recent historiographical trends? How can teachers and students free themselves from this lacuna, given that most historians now work within an intellectual milieu that is consciously and occasionally unconsciously interdisciplinary?

Anecdotally, a leitmotiv of student estrangement from the subject is based on the absence of female agency in the discourse as female and male students continue to seek access to more recent histories in web-based environments and continue to critique the elision and omission of women from their place at the historical table in school textbooks. This study presents an opportunity for senior students to explore areas-themes such as the following, with the school as mediator of social change and justice: the counterfactual in history the "What if ...?"; gender as an important element of history and the social and cultural relationships between gender and society; the expansive nature and role of institutions in perpetuating elite interests, hierarchies, ideas, and ideologies; how mass-media can be rescued from anti-democratic interests for democratic purposes; the cultural potential and achievements of women; the role and potential of digital technology to transform cultural change, and its inhibitors, inter alia, the literary, theatrical, and cinematic aspects of film and other cultural texts; how to establish ideal speech conditions, evaluate politics and act collectively.

The German National Study also represents a problem and an opportunity for student-teacher exposure to and experience with the Habermassian notion of communicative action in situ. Through dialogic communication and dialectical analysis (Guilar, 2006; Mah, 2000) teachers need to offer a corrective to cultural edifice and artifice made merely to produce-reproduce power through cultural texts and educational processes oriented to instrumental purposes. An attempt to demonstrate the ideal speech situation in schools would offer an agenda for transformative emancipatory change beyond the technical knowledge constituencies of positivist and interpretive paradigms. (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000) By introducing an understanding of validity claims, relationship between objects and ideas, and the place of rational deliberation (Blake, 1995) in knowledge production, learners might eschew unproblematic assumptions about the relationship between objects and ideas, and the role asymmetry (Blake, 1995) characteristic of the majority of high school teaching episodes, to re-evaluate agency and begin to foster awareness of their position within the control centres of organisational ideologies, and participate fully in the cultural transformation of institutions through new paradigms that value freedom and promote it in practice.

Acknowledgements

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Teachers' Perceptions and Beliefs about Field Trips as a Curricular Source

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Abstract

In today's educational arena, field trips are often viewed as an extracurricular activity disconnected from curriculum. Currently, teachers are experiencing pressure to prepare students of all ages to be college and career. Policy makers are mandating commercialized curricula as a means to ensure proficiency on standardized assessments. These types of curricula are often void of culturally relevant experiences that could be found through investigating local contexts. This study documented the process of two early childhood educators developing curriculum that stemmed from children's interests and their local contexts. During a 12-week period, a qualitative research study was conducted in a preschool located in a university lab school studying how the teachers, children, and families conceptualize field trips as a source of curriculum. To understand how educators plan for and implement meaningful field trips that are interwoven with curriculum, the teacher participants' beliefs and perceptions about taking children on field trips was explored. Additionally, the children's social construction of meaning of their physical and social worlds was observed and documented. The data collected was analyzed using van Manen's extensional categories of lived experience.

Keywords: field trips, curriculum, local contexts, preschool, community

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Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the notion of teachers taking children outside the classroom walls to study their immediate worlds. This research study followed a community of learners as they experience venturing outside the walls of their classroom and move from their own circles of knowing to gain a greater understanding of their cultural communities and physical and social worlds.

A current educator that inspired this research is Sal Vascellaro (2011). Vascellero has experienced, taught, and written about the idea of field trips or "venturing out", as he calls it, as the foundation for curriculum development for over four decades. This understanding has crystallized through his own experiences in taking trips in his multiple roles as an educator: teacher candidate, early childhood teacher, and college professor. In his book, Out of the Classroom and Into the World, he explains how he moved past a disconnected version of field trips and into a dynamic approach that enabled learners to "experience the deep connections that exist between the physical and social worlds around them and understand how these connections affect their lives" (Vascellaro, 2011, p. 9). This type of place-based education dually benefits both children and teachers as they are all viewed as co-learners. Educators are energized by this active approach to teaching where they develop a community-based curriculum that involves exploring local businesses, neighborhoods, and events (Field & Bauml, 2011). Investigations that stem from children's questions about their immediate worlds are not geared toward grade-level norms but instead the curricular decisions are specific to the group of learners that have their own histories, interests, aptitudes, and struggles (Vascellaro, 2011).

This study was conducted in a preschool classroom studying how the teachers, children, and families conceptualize and realize field trips as a curriculum source over a span of eight weeks. The preschool is located on a university campus and serves as a lab school for pre-service teachers studying the field of early care and education. To understand how these educators plan for and implement meaningful field trips that are interwoven with curriculum, the beliefs and perceptions that the teachers hold about taking children on field trips were explored. Additionally, the children's social construction of making meaning of their physical and social worlds is woven throughout the study.

Significance of Study

This research looks beyond the current crisis of standardization of education and seeks to support teachers and students by situating the learning in the here and now of a child's life. The educational reform movement has situated early childhood education as the solution to high school dropouts, widespread poverty, and the future wellbeing of our U.S. population (Brown & Mowry, 2015). Up until the turn of the 21st century, preschools and kindergartens were viewed as settings for children to develop and strengthen their social and emotional skills before entering formal schooling. Through interactions with their peers, children learned how to get along with others and how-to problem solve. However, early childhood settings have become increasingly more

academic in nature, largely due to educational reform acts that have been passed in the past two decades (Saracho & Spodek, 2006).

The pressure to be "school ready" has become intense and often contradicts what is believed to be best for young children. Brown and Mowry (2015) warn that young children learn differently from their elementary school counterparts and they're just beginning to develop the skills of an intentional learner (Bowman, Donovan, & Burns, 2000, as cited in Brown & Mowry, 2015). In a position statement by National Association for the Education of Young Children (2009) current teaching methods that are of concern in preschool settings are excessive lecturing to the whole group and fragmented teaching of discrete objectives which are not conducive to young children's learning styles nor culturally relevant to their lives. Many state standards focus on superficial learning objectives, at times underestimating young children's competence and at other times requiring understandings and tasks that young children cannot grasp until they are older (Neuman, Roskos, Vukelich, & Clements, 2003 as cited in NAEYC, 2009). It is important to remember that the academic practices and expectations of elementary school can't simply be shoved down into preschool (Hatch, 2002).

Not only do these high-pressure classrooms impact children's growth and development, they are also having a negative effect on teachers. Because our nation has situated education in a competitive context by comparing scores and data on children's achievements, from class to class, school to school, and nation to nation (Meeder & Suddreth, 2012) teachers have begun to 'teach to the test' in order to keep their jobs (Dimitriadis & Hill, 2012; Ravitch, 2012). When teachers' livelihoods are at stake there is a prevailing fear that their teaching must produce favorable, measurable outcomes. The NAEYC (2009) recognizes that, "Teachers are currently being required to follow rigid, tightly paced schedules that don't allow for valuable experiences such as problem solving, rich play, collaboration with peers, opportunities for emotional and social development, outdoor/physical activity, and the arts" (p. 4).

Additionally, there has been a narrowing of the scope of curriculum to literacy and mathematical skills which in turn creates a wide range of deficiencies in other areas of development, i.e., scientific inquiry, social studies, and emotional, social, and physical development. In this environment of accountability there appears to be very little space for taking children outside the classroom walls to explore their local contexts and communities. Kohn (2010) foresees this "top-down, get-tough movement to impose "accountability" as a crisis that is squeezing the life out of classrooms" (n.p.).

Purpose of Study

The study followed two preschool teachers and their students as they engaged in the project of storytelling and performance. Through careful observation and listening to children's conversations, the teachers guided and facilitated the children's interests by taking the children on multiple field trips around the university campus to investigate different elements that support storytelling and performance. The group travelled to an indoor auditorium, an outdoor stage, and a center for the arts with each visit building

upon the next. The children used these experiences to further their understandings of this topic and construct their own stage back in their preschool classroom. This project took place over the course of eight weeks, enabling the group to follow the multiple interests that emerged around the topic.

Teachers' Perceptions and Beliefs

During the research study, an underlying premise that guided the teachers' praxis and thought processes regarding their students was the idea that education is the basis for social responsibility and democratic practices. During an interview session, the teachers shared their goals for their students at the end of the school year. Their responses spoke clearly to the idea of building community, developing social skills, and creating a sense of belonging within their classroom.

Preschoolers learn through investigative experiences in small groups and through whole group conversations that foster a sense of community (Cahill & Theilheimer, 2015). Through these types of interactions children are able to build classroom community as they learn about their social environment. A sense of community does not happen on its own; instead it is carefully cultivated as children have ample opportunities to share their ideas and questions, participate in joint problem solving, and see that decisions they have made are valued and can indeed have an impact on their own environment.

Picture 1: A sense of community develops as friendships form

Both teachers emphasized the importance of social skills and the role they play in instilling the love of learning in their students. Community is built through the relationships in the classroom. Field trips and projects can provide children a place to learn about each other through common interests. The sense of community which had already been established since the beginning of the school year was strengthened and

fortified during the Project as the group experienced a curricular experience which they believed was important.

Throughout the Project and the corresponding field trips, children were engaged in collaborative and cooperative work. The teachers provided opportunities for the children to give input and make decisions throughout the project. Through trips to the various stages located on campus, the children shared the fun of exploring new territories and interacting with each other as learners and thinkers. They witnessed the work of individuals within their community and shared a common interest and expressed their understandings in multiple ways.

Curriculum Development

The teachers' vision for their students is that of honoring the individual child. Vascellaro (2011) aligns with this philosophy as he writes about projects that develop through the interests of a unique group of learners from year to year. "Projects are not geared to an abstract notion of a grade-level norm, but to the actual individuals – who have their own histories, interests, aptitudes, and struggles" (p. 68). The Project of storytelling and performance would have been impossible if the teachers were confined to a box curriculum with a predetermined script and timeline. Katz and Chard (2000), perhaps some of the most notable researchers on the subject of project work, explain project work as "[…a way of teaching and learning, rather than following a particular set of teaching techniques, or invariable sequences of activities, routines, or strategies. A teacher's special knowledge of her children enables her to encourage them to interact with people, objects, and the environment in ways that have personal meaning for them." (p. 3).

During the last interview session, the teachers shared their thoughts on curriculum development and how this impacts teaching and learning in their own context, "[…*a boxed curriculum is just what it is… it is saying here is what you need to impart on the children and there is no design factor. You can't make it your own and it is not unique…it is not fun*" and "[…*in a boxed curriculum it can be hard to draw the kids' interests into it and then we have to find ways to make it more meaningful for the children.*"

Physical Interactions

Throughout the Project, the teachers were continually reflecting on ways to support physical interactions between the children and content. During the time the children were building the stage they were constantly engaged in exploring, experimenting, negotiating, communicating and sharing. Through the physical process of engineering and building a wooden stage the children were physically and socially interacting with their peers and the adults within their environment. They carried boards and tools, measured spaces, crawled and crouched to position boards, hammer nails, and screw screws.

Picture 2: Children use fine and gross motor skills as they build their own stage

Physical interactions provided the children spaces to work out their own understandings and hypotheses about the world by observing what happens, reflecting on their findings, imagining possibilities, asking questions, and formulating answers. When children make knowledge their own in these ways, their understanding is deeper, and they can transfer and apply their learning in new contexts (NAEYC, 2012).

Language Development

Once back in the classroom, the children were engaged in literacy activities through many mediums. During group meeting time there are read alouds, shared writing activities, songs, reading of charts, and sharing of ideas that related to their current field trips. In the dramatic play area, children engaged in writing lists, making signs, reading to stuffed animals, and using environmental print to write letters and names. The teachers engaged in intentional planning to provide the experiences their students needed such as exposure to books; rich conversations; experiences in drawing and writing, and pretend play.

The teachers created opportunities for the children to dictate stories and then turned those stories into scripts for the children to act out. The physical role-play continued with the other children's stories. The children's dictated stories became another source of material for read alouds. This practice promoted the children's awareness of themselves as producers of written language. During a committee time the children wrote invitations to community members asking for help to build a stage. This activity enabled the children take action on a decision they had made.

Picture 3: Children enact stories which stem from their imaginations

Picture 4: Using blocks to build a ramp

A small group of children are engaged in performing an impromptu play, while another student worked nearby to build another stage with wooden blocks, experimenting with various features. He created a ramp for easy access and encouraged a peer to try it out. Meanwhile another student worked in the art studio drawing a stage. Each child had opportunity to express their understandings through multiple modalities.

Mathematics

Children use mathematical skills to make sense of their physical and social worlds (Cahill & Theilheimer, 2015; NAEYC, 2009). Research has proven that when academic skills are embedded in play it supports children's dispositions to learn (Hirsh-Pasek & Michnick-Golinkoff, 2014; Katz & Chard, 2000). In this classroom mathematical thinking is incorporated throughout their daily work. This is evident as the teachers explained how they view the development of math skills. "Math comes in with the building in the block area." As children build with blocks they collaborate to count, measure, balance, and design representations of things they experienced on the field trips. Through this process they learned about size, shape, and patterns.

Picture 5: Dramatic play supports mathematical thinking

Children were provided with deep and sustained interactions with key mathematical ideas. They engaged in formal (measuring tape) and informal (their own body) methods of measuring spaces. They used numbers in both single and double digits to represent their findings. As the children helped to bring in the materials into the classroom to build their stage, they began discussing whether they had the right amount of boards thus comparing and identifying total quantity. The teachers instructed the children to line up the boards to create supports for the stage illustrating one-to-one correspondence. These simple and implicit activities all support mathematical thinking in meaningful ways for young children.

Science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) has been a prominent factor in education for several decades but now early childhood education is also included in this emphasis (Christenson & James, 2015). The block center in preschool classrooms is a natural method of engaging children in engineering and design (Wynn & Harris 2013). In the block area, children construct fundamental concepts related to science, engineering, and math as they experiment, observe, and develop inferences based on

these experiences, even if they cannot articulate them. Moomaw (2012) states, "One could almost call the block area a STEM laboratory for young children." (p. 27). In this classroom the children have opportunities to plan, design, and build in multiple formats.

Picture 6: Engineering a stage

University Campus Provides Context

There were many options for this classroom to explore and study because of the location of the program. During one of their planning sessions, the teachers brainstormed possible site visits. The teachers' list included the theater department, music department, cinematography department, and the film department. Each of these departments offered contexts that could be further explored and studied with the children in relation to this project.

An additional benefit of being located on a university campus was the free bus transportation. The university bus routes cover the entire campus and which made it possible to explore multiple locations connected to the children's interests. Language, literacy, and math skills are embedded in the real and interesting world of the children (Cahill and Theilheimer, 2015). On each bus ride the children were taking note of their environment and discussing their observations with their peers and teachers.

The route that was taken for most of the field trips began with a tour around the outside of the campus and along the college of agriculture. *The children's faces are pressed against the windows of the bus. We pass by a large pond with a stream flowing into it. The children are curious and want to know more about it. Katie wants to know if she can fish in that pond. Gabriel shouts out that he sees a tractor. There are open fields and pens with cows and horses. Several children say we have gone by their houses and Mateo states, "That is where my pop lives." The children are making connections to the environment around them.*

Children's interests which begin on a bus ride can be the provocation for many projects.

Connecting to the Real World

The teachers reflect on how field trips provide the context for their development of curriculum. "[The children] are going and seeing something with their peers and we are seeing it together and we are extending something from the classroom or are taking it back to the classroom." The teachers view field trips as a way to help children make connections between what they are learning about in the classroom with what they are experiencing out in the world.

Picture 7: Venturing out with friends

Learning Dispositions

Curricula that are developed from children's interests which stem from local investigations can provide authentic experiences by supporting children's natural learning dispositions (Katz & Chard, 2000). The teachers are in agreement that cognitive development is only a piece of what goes into the education of young children. They provide ample opportunities for their students to make friends, create a sense of community, interact socially, and build self-confidence through age-appropriate and developmentally-sound activities that support all of the learning processes. The teachers' primary goal for their students' academic growth is understanding through action rather than acquiring rote knowledge (Dewey, 1916; 1966). They use the "texts of early childhood" (Cuffaro, 1991) such as paint, blocks, music, dramatic role play props, literature, and movement to teach the subject matter in interesting ways. The dramatic roleplay and block areas in this classroom take up the largest space which reflects the

importance of these activities. Subsequently, the teachers design learning experiences that incorporate learning dispositions, knowledge acquisition, and skill development.

Conclusion

The findings from this study produced two dominant threads that were identified from the teachers' lived experiences and field note documentation; (1) community building as a prevailing factor of curriculum and (2) the dynamic interactions among the teachers, children and the curriculum.

Community Building. Community building is foundational to the teachers' philosophy of educating young children. The in-depth interviews and observational field notes of trips, classroom activities, and planning sessions provided evidence that teachers were intentional about creating a caring community that promoted the children's social and emotional development. As noted in the stage building process, children were engaged in collaborative problem-solving by working together to construct a product for the common good of the class. Additionally, the children had ample opportunities to share their opinions and make decisions in the learning process. When young children are engaged in experiences where their voices are heard and acted upon, the self-identity of a competent learner is facilitated and promoted by the teachers (Casper & Theilheimer, 2010; Dewey, 1916/1966; Kohn, 2008; McCann, 2014).

The educators demonstrated a deep awareness of each child's unique characteristics as a means to develop curricula. Based on the relationships the teachers built with their students, the idea of commercialized curricula is considered to be both irrelevant and counterproductive to the process of community building for these teachers. They expressed the belief that curriculum design should not only emerge from children's interests but specifically these children's interests. As discussed by Cahill and Theilheimer (2015), Kohn (2008), and Vascellaro (2011), children need to play a vital role in helping to design the curriculum, think through the possibilities, and take ownership in the learning process. Young children can see that people working together can make a difference.

Dynamic Interactions. Children interacted with the people within their local contexts. Through the Project and the relating field trips the children were introduced to interesting people that could be further sources of curricular Projects. Not only were the children learning from the adults in their environment, but they were learning from their peers as well. The photographs are documentation of some of the children's daily interactions with each other. Growth and learning occur through the relationships children have with teachers, other children, and family and community members (Cahill & Theilheimer, 2015; Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Montessori, 1946). Curriculum that centers and builds on human relationships integrates social and cognitive development.

Children interacted with interesting materials. Building blocks, real life tools, open-ended art materials, props in the dramatic role play area, writing materials, measuring instruments, and technology were just some of the materials the children had opportunity

to explore. The children engaged intellectually and emotionally with these materials both as individuals and as a community.

Children interacted with their environment. Each field trip provided the children opportunities to explore their local surroundings. As the teachers and children ventured out around the university campus they were introduced to real-life information that appeared relevant to them. The children made an important discovery about maps and local geography. These interactions provided spaces for children to strengthen their confidence in understanding their environment (Edwards, Gandini, & Forman, 2012; McCann, 2014; Montessori, 1946; Vascellaro, 2011).

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